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New Perspectives

With this number, **Forum** enters on its tenth year of publication. This journal was founded for a specific purpose: to act as a centre for discussion of new trends in education, particularly those pointing towards an expansion of educational opportunity. For this reason, from the start, we have focused largely on the movement towards comprehensive education and towards the reduction of rigid structural forms within the schools themselves. A particular concern has been the modification of streaming, both in primary and secondary schools.

In 1958, comprehensive schools were still in a tiny minority, except in London, where the LCC had made decisive progress; our first number contained a study of the implementation of the London School Plan by Mr. Raymond King. It also contained a report of a survey on junior school streaming carried out by the London head teachers' association. Today methods of grouping children within the school is a matter of intensive discussion, and although old ideas die slowly, at least we can be sure that the rigid techniques of the past are no longer accepted. As for the comprehensive school, this is now national policy, a fact that has been put beyond doubt by Mr. Heath's statement during the summer. There is now no question of a reversal of the policy, although **Forum** is well aware that on a local level, often for quite irrelevant (local political) reasons, there may be delays in its implementation.

We are entering, therefore, a new phase of educational discussion and of practice. All over the country teachers in secondary schools, who until now have been separated from each other in grammar and modern schools, will be working out their approach in the new conditions of comprehensive education. As the 11 plus is abolished in city after city new opportunities for new thinking open up in the primary schools also. What, in this situation, should be the role of this journal?

The Editorial Board has decided that **Forum** should now focus on new developments within the schools themselves, particularly on methods of securing flexibility of organisation and on the current trends towards curriculum reform. Many new ideas are being tried out in the schools. We see our function as to reflect these developments both in primary and secondary schools, to provide a **Forum** for their discussion, and for their critical evaluation.

The structural change to comprehensive education is taking place. The problem now is to ensure that the new comprehensive schools develop as *genuinely* comprehensive; to find the means of overcoming obsolete ideas, attitudes and practices inherited from the long domination of tripartitism and its associated ideology—to find the new forms appropriate to present needs, both of society and of the children themselves as children. This raises fundamental educational issues—more fundamental, even, than those we have been dealing with in the past.

With this issue we come out in a new dress, and with, in a sense, a new programme and direction. **Forum** has played some part in assisting the changes that have taken place in the last ten years. In the next decade it must attempt to ensure that the greatest potential gains are made from what is, without any doubt, the most important educational reform this country has yet experienced.

Public Schools Commission

Evidence submitted by the **Editorial Board of Forum** to the Newsom Committee on the public schools.

(1) The Editorial Board of **Forum,** composed of practising teachers working within the national system of education, has for nine years been running a journal devoted to spreading a knowledge of new educational developments. Among these are, pre-eminently, the move towards comprehensive education, and the elimination of streaming in junior schools, which, together with current changes in curricula and teaching methods, have introduced a radically new educational outlook. It is in accordance with that outlook that the evidence here submitted will concentrate on the need to plan educational resources in the light of educational criteria. The 'public' schools form an essential part of the nation's educational resources though they have hitherto stood apart from the national system of education.

(2) We do not accept the idea, prevalent until recently, that children differ to such an extent, intellectually or otherwise, that they should be despatched to distinct types of secondary school. Segregation of this kind is harmful, intellectually as well as socially, for all children; not only for the rejected but also for the selected who, set apart from the majority of their age-group, follow what tends to be a highly specialised course of study to the detriment of their all-round development. We have, therefore, warmly welcomed the Government's decision to reorganise the system of secondary schools, which realises the intention of the Education Act of 1944 that there be a full secondary education for all. It follows that we believe there should now be plans to integrate the 'public' schools with the national system. If selection and segregation is harmful within this system – as is now very generally agreed – the kind of selection and segregation which constitutes the 'public' school system (including the attendant preparatory schools) is doubly harmful to individuals and to society. We use the term 'to integrate' in its proper meaning 'to form into one whole'; more specifically, 'to unite (a part or element) with something else, especially something more inclusive'. This implies bringing the 'public' schools into the national system of education; it excludes any inference that they can be 'integrated' by recruiting a proportion of non-paying pupils to produce a 'social mix' – to use the term of your questionnaire to those submitting evidence.

(3) Having gained considerable experience of conditions in many schools, and the difficulties with which teachers have to contend in introducing new and more enlightened methods, we have also welcomed the findings of the Newsom and Plowden reports. In particular, we regard as of first importance the move away from the long accepted dictum 'unto him that hath shall be given' with the recommendations that priority be accorded, in allocating scarce resources, to neglected and underprivileged children and schools. Now that it is recognised how formative a role education plays, in relation to both the individual and society, it has become clear that the proper distribution of educational resources can be one of the most powerful instruments – if not the keystone – of social policy. In the light of this it may be argued that the resources at the disposal of the 'public' schools are incommensurate with the needs of the children at present attending them and that these resources should be re-allocated. Pending more long term measures, we would urge that these schools be forthwith rationed in respect of teaching power, as are all other schools.

(4) We welcome the appointment of a commission to examine the affairs of the 'public' schools in detail, for previous attempts to reorganise secondary education have been vitiated by leaving this influential sector altogether aside. The state of a nation is clearly defined in the nature of its educational system, for this demonstrates the level of civilisation that has been reached and the direction in which it is hoped to travel. We have had little cause to be satisfied with our educational system in this sense, taken as a whole, despite many excellencies in detail. It has been a system more rigidly stratified on lines of class than that of any other advanced industrial nation. In particular, in the eyes of the world at large, the 'public' schools typify English society as it was yesterday, so that their continuance (as independent schools) would alone be enough to belie any belief that England is taking a new road. At present there are many signs that this country intends to bring its educational system up to date, to plan resources with regard to social justice and welfare and to educational need. What is wanted to complete the picture is an assessment of the educational, and so social, role of the 'public' schools as objective, and recommendations as

radical, as there have been in relation to other institutions making up the national system of education.

(5) The 'public' school system has frequently been upheld – as indeed the existence of separate grammar schools – on the ground that they offer an excellent academic training; as proof, the numbers gaining places at universities, particularly 'Oxbridge', are cited. In this connection we would draw attention to the recent report of the Franks commission on Oxford university where it is pointed out that college entrance procedures have been closely geared to the way 'public' schools are organised, and *vice versa*. For this reason, 'public' school pupils have a clear advantage by comparison with other applicants, except those from the largest streamlined grammar schools, able to model themselves on the 'public' schools and groom pupils for entrance. Recognising that this approach differs fundamentally from the educational approach of comprehensive schools and smaller grammar schools, which do not wish to set up 'express streams' with the sole aim of gaining 'Oxbridge' entrance, the Franks commission notes that the university cannot set up as judge between these two radically different educational philosophies; that judgment must be made at another level. Accordingly it proposes the introduction of an alternative form of entrance to remove the present bias in favour of 'public' schools.[1] We conclude that the time has come to make the judgment referred to, and to make it in favour of those schools which put educational considerations first, rather than prestige. We also conclude that the main argument for the academic superiority of the 'public' schools is not a viable one. This is not to deny that the 'public' schools have a long experience of educating the 'average' child (of the middle-class) up to university standard, but this expertise is an important contribution that the 'public' schools can bring to the national system of education, notably to the comprehensive schools.

(6) Local education authorities all over the country are now engaged in drawing up their plans and beginning to make the transition to comprehensive systems of secondary education. These will provide a flexible structure capable of adaptation in the light of future needs. In order to establish a system serving the need of the local population in the most effective possible manner local education authorities need to know precisely what educational facilities are, or will be, available to them. For this reason the recommendations of your commission take on an immediate significance, in terms of the contribution the 'public' schools can make to furthering national policy and the best possible use of existing resources to this end.

(7) In this situation we conclude that your commission will advise on ways in which the 'public' schools can be brought fully into the national system of education, whether directly into the reorganised system of secondary schools at a local authority level (which we would regard as the normal solution), or whether, in specific cases, as boarding schools serving the needs of children requiring special treatment which can only be provided on a regional, or national, level. As we see it, specific proposals are needed in relation to each of the schools which come within your terms of reference, so that it can be clearly seen to what social uses the available resources could be put by comparison with those for which they are at present employed.

(8) We take it that the commission will go into the details of all the endowments and resources of these schools, in particular those classed as 'charities' which have been deflected from their original purpose. In this connection we would recall that there is a good historical precedent for a radical approach to endowed schools. Writing to the commissioners investigating the nine 'public' schools a century ago, Gladstone warned them of the danger of undue timidity. Describing these schools as 'public property', he urged that private interest be set aside for the public good and that the commissioners fearlessly 'lay open the whole case, and set out the full extent of what is to be desired by way of remedy'.[2] A century later, at a crucial phase of the educational history of this country, this is the course we would urge on the present commission. While recognising the complex problems involved, we hope it will see the matter as one of **national** policy, and set out the issues clearly, so that the turn may at last be made towards the development of genuinely national system of education.

[1] *University of Oxford. Report of Commission of Inquiry. (Oxford, 1966). Vol. i, chapter iii, 'Admissions to Oxford'.*

[2] *Report of the Public School Commission, vol. ii, 42-3.*

Old Ideas Die Slowly

Ralph G Crow

Mr Crow is headmaster of Saltash Grammar School, Cornwall. We are glad to print Mr Crow's contribution to the discussion at the conference on the sixth form in comprehensive schools organised by **Forum** and the Comprehensive Schools Committee in June, and reported elsewhere in this issue.

Old ideas in British education die slowly. Today we still tend to regard the grammar school sixth form as a two-year course for pupils capable of passing GCE at advanced level, tacked on to a school in which the normal expectation is to leave after 'school certificate'. Yet it is seventeen years ago that school certificate was abolished and we were all told to regard the grammar school course as a seven year course from eleven to eighteen. GCE was to be a subject examination – not a leaving examination like the school certificate. It was to be taken – either at 'O' or 'A' level – as and when the pupils were ready to take it. If we wanted to we could by-pass 'O' level. Hence the award of 'O' level pass standard on 'A' level papers. How many schools, I wonder, still do this? Not many, I fear – for employers including the civil service (which one might have hoped would have set a good example in encouraging what was presumably government policy) still demand as an entry qualification 'five passes at 'O' level, taken in not more than two sittings'. Thereby they undermine efforts to create the Flexible School (like mine) where, as a matter of policy, some pupils take English Language and Mathematics at the end of the fourth year: Additional Maths (and five or six other subjects) at the end of the fifth: but German (which is not begun until the fourth year) is taken after two and a half years or three according to taste – Geology and Music, probably after seven. They also give encouragement to pernicious ideas like the sixth form college as if there was some special ethos which made the sixth-former a different animal from the fifth-former – to be suddenly granted the new privilege of being treated as a civilised, free human being.

Perhaps because I went to the backward county of Cornwall in 1952 and we were so much behind the times our practice now seems to be regarded as progressive. So my brief – to talk about the change from a grammar school sixth form to a comprehensive school sixth form is rather difficult. Ours has never been a typical grammar school. The pattern of leaving after school certificate had not developed in 1952. More than half of the 1947 entry had left school at fifteen without ever attempting GCE 'O' level and in 1952 there was a total taking 'A' level in both Arts and Science sixths of **five** candidates, none of whom went to a University, though one was awarded a state scholarship. In September 1964, the last year before we became an upper-tier comprehensive school we had 390 pupils on roll, of whom ninety-two were in the sixth form, but only sixty-four were 'A' level candidates. The rest (twenty-eight) were in the **General** sixth which we began in 1960 specially to cater for those who need a sixth year of secondary education but are not interested in an 'A' level course. This year there were 119 in the sixth form – fifty-eight in 'A' level courses and sixty-one not. The latter were aiming, perhaps, at the police force, nursing, insurance, some form of technical apprenticeship for which they were quite prepared to wait until they were seventeen or eighteen. In the first instance, no doubt, their main motive for staying on was to strengthen their paper qualifications by adding one or two more 'O' levels in which they had failed – but we did manage to persuade parents that at least one year of sixth form methods of working would make their children more mature, self-reliant and confident people. There was no great pressure to leave school at sixteen, once they had resisted the urge to leave at fifteen.

We provided for the General sixth a three part, individually tailored, course. There was a basic element of class teaching in English, current affairs, general studies, PE and games (for about a third of the week). Secondly, an element of 'O' level re-takes (depending on the career needs of the pupil) and thirdly an individualised course of directed reading, essay writing, individual and group projects, arranged by the sixth-former with the masters or mistresses who were responsible for the small group to which the sixth-former belonged. It was the sort of thing – at a rather lower level – that Cambridge is now proposing to examine as the third part of the 'A' level general studies examination in 1968. Among group projects in recent years we had a survey of the welfare services

of the area, culminating in an exhibition; the entertainment of selected members of the staff to a tastefully served, etiquette-ridden dinner party, and a continuing programme of assistance to an old people's home. Individual projects included a study of ceramics (including a practical element) – local history projects of many kinds, a survey of the reading habits of teenagers (supported by the local branch of the School Library Association), a history of the sport of falconry, a study of antique furniture in local country houses and a history of athletics.

The level of the projects varied, of course, as much as it does now in CSE. We regarded the subject as of less importance than the method of working – the training in using books as a source of information, exploring other methods of finding out facts, and the value of having an end product, presented attractively and in disciplined form. The value also lay in teacher and pupil discovering together information which was of interest to them both. The projects had to be agreed by the tutor but suggested by the student, and it had to be something which engaged his interest and preferably something which might in some way be associated with his future career. By no means all the staff were successful at this work, and by no means all of the projects were ever completed; but we learned enough from this to believe that the method could be extended when we became comprehensive to more non-'A' level sixth-formers. We learned further that, to be successful, it needed to be adopted as a method in the fourth and fifth years also. The proportion of this third element varied according to the demands of the 'O' level re-take element. But those who were most seriously involved in the project element of the course did in fact perform rather better in their 'O' level re-takes, than those who neglected both.

Such a method of individualised study and tutoring depends for its success on a sound foundation in the lower school; the same four pre-requisites I regard as essential for unstreamed teaching in the fourth and fifth years of a comprehensive school. They are (1) Pupils must have a major say in choosing what they want to study (though they must, of course, be given informed advice). (2) They must be adequately motivated (and this requires an early and efficient counselling system or good pastoral care). (3) Teaching methods must be chosen in which every classroom becomes a workshop or a learning-resources centre rather than a lecture room – and constant visits must be paid to the library for follow-up information. (4) Above all, the teacher must respect the child and the child the teacher (and sometimes this is difficult for both).

General education cannot begin in the sixth form if there has been no preparation for it in the fourth and fifth years. It is a vain hope to devise sixth form courses for the non-academic in a school which has been dominated by a craving for good 'O' level results, or a record number of grade ones in CSE and – this is the danger in the comprehensive school – to show that though creamed by the local direct grant school, we can still get better results than the grammar school.

I suggest we ought not consider the sixth form in isolation from the rest of our teaching. It is simply the sixth and seventh and possibly an eighth year of a gradual process of self-development which should have begun at birth – or at least at the age of eleven. Sixteen is not a natural break, and it is disastrous for the flexible school. I would endorse the generally accepted view of the comprehensive school curriculum (as suggested for example by Dr Pedley) of a three year basic course from eleven to fourteen followed by a flexible variety of options in the fourth and fifth years (rather than a number of alternative courses). If, because of buildings there must be a break, then let it be at thirteen or fourteen before the options are chosen.

The smaller country school (like the old village primary school) adopts unstreamed groupings because it must – if it wants flexible options and is not prepared to force unwilling pupils into the Procrustean bed of restricted subject courses. Unstreamed teaching, however, is possible in the upper school only if the child can be conditioned early enough to have the desire to learn, and the ability to work with the minimum of supervision. This has always been the hallmark of a good grammar school sixth form – in theory – but all too often in many grammar schools of my experience, this ability to work unsupervised is missing from far too many sixth-formers; and this is one reason for the high failure rate in the first year of the Universities.

To train our children, academic or non-academic (and personally I do not accept that there is a rigid distinction; it is a question of degree) we have, since we became comprehensive, introduced a completely flexible series of options so that I think no two pupils of the 144 in Form IV have exactly the same time-

table. Every pupil is taught for a maximum of thirty-five of the forty periods during the week. He has five periods during which he works on his own in the study hall (under supervision) or obtains a library permit to find information, or joins in some enrichment activity – music, pottery, craft-work, boat-building, child-care or something ancillary to his course subjects. In the fifth form he spends these periods in the fifth form Day Room, used as a common-room at lunch time and after school, but equipped for study during school hours. Here there is intermittent supervision. Teachers visit irregularly to back up the fifth form committee who are responsible for seeing the room is properly used. By the time the boy or girl reaches the sixth form he should now be conditioned to work on his own – on a course largely self-directed and self-disciplined. We are fortunate that we have a comfortably furnished sixth form room with a coffee bar open at break and lunch-time, run entirely by the sixth form committee who are under the watchful eye of the sixth form masters responsible for the discipline of their members and the care of the room, and empowered, when necessary, to suspend from membership anyone guilty of anti-social conduct.

It is a gradual process of conditioning. It requires considerable forbearance, patience and vigilance on the part of the teaching staff and a great deal of preparation of stimulating material for fourth and fifth form groups no less than sixth, since every lesson in an unstreamed form needs some stimulus to interest the pupil and a series of differing responses from each.

To sum up my view. A comprehensive school sixth form is a group of individuals of varying needs. We ought not in our wisdom decide (like Dr Peterson) what those needs ideally should be, in order that a boy may have a liberal education. The individual has a right, within reason, to learn what he wants to learn. We must, of course, offer the benefit of our advice and counsel and advertise the wares we have to offer – in competition to the pop values of the Admass. We must explain the value of disciplined study and combat the general apathy and bad taste of the adolescent – but not be too disappointed if he rejects our advice. Maybe we don't know all the answers. Perhaps he is right and our values are wrong. With younger children a degree of compulsion is inevitable but 'A man compelled against his will is of his own opinion still'. Compulsory attendance at a lecture on 'The Values of Western Civilisation' or 'Current World Problems' will no more give an illiterate scientist a liberal education than compulsory church parades will make him a christian.

The sixth form in a comprehensive school should, in my view, be an extension of the sort of flexible school we have been trying in the last seven years to build up in Saltash – and intend, now that we are comprehensive, to carry further. We accept that once a child is adolescent and begins to know what he wants from life he must have an increasing say in the development of a self-disciplined, self-directed course designed to satisfy his own aptitudes and needs. It is not our job, I submit, to mould his character or plan his future for him, in the likeness of ourselves – but to provide the environment in the sixth form, as in the rest of the school, in which he can develop his own talents and personality.

The Sixth Form in the Comprehensive School

The second day conference sponsored by **Forum** and the Comprehensive Schools Committee was held at the Institute of Education, University of London, on 3 June 1967. It was attended by some 350 teachers and others concerned with new developments in the sixth forms of comprehensive schools. The conference proceedings are here reported by **Caroline Benn,** information officer of the Comprehensive Schools Committee.

The joint **Forum** – Comprehensive Schools Committee conference was opened by the chairman of the morning session, Jack Walton, Senior Staff Tutor at the Institute of Education, Exeter University. He described the expansion in the nature and number of sixth forms since the 1930's, when the average size of a grammar school's sixth form was only thirty. Today sixth forms were not only relatively and absolutely larger in all kinds of schools but students had more diverse abilities and career requirements. Many students were no longer satisfied with the restricted academic 'A' level courses that used to epitomise sixth form work. Most had more definite ideas too about their status vis-a-vis the rest of the school.

The first speaker was Lawrence Stenhouse, Principal Lecturer in Education, Jordanhill College, Glasgow, and recently appointed Director of Nuffield/Schools Council Humanities Curriculum Project. He spoke of his own experience as a student at Manchester Grammar School and of his time as a teacher, much of it spent in a secondary modern school. For a long time he had opposed comprehensive schools because of a devotion to the secondary modern, but he now believed communities needed genuine community secondary schools and that secondary modern schools could never be more than a 'projection from the base of the elementary school'. Nations with well developed community schools like Sweden and the USA, however, had not solved the problem of comprehensive education because their schools were too vocationally oriented. In Britain's comprehensives it was the 'sixth-form tradition', the practice of studying subjects in depth, that would correct this fault.

The difficulty was that in our comprehensive schools not all pupils wanted the academic training in depth provided by traditional 'A' level courses. Others are not equipped to profit by these courses because of cultural deprivation. For this group the answer was a General Studies course, not as exacting as 'A' level work, but still cultivating the spirit of enquiry that was the essence of the sixth form approach. Devising such a course was not difficult but it was hard to make sure that teachers had sufficient material to draw upon in teaching it. There was a shortage of suitable books and what was needed for sixth form General Studies was a central agency where teachers could obtain the necessary information, materials and guidance.

Michael Armstrong of the Nuffield Foundation Resources for Learning Project, and Chairman of The Comprehensive Schools Committee, began his speech by holding up a copy of that morning's *Times*. This contained an editorial and an article attacking reorganisation for its effects on sixth form efficiency by dispersing teaching staff too widely. He said the attack was unfounded but was serious and deserved an answer, although there were far better statements of the case from other sources. The case made is that if reorganisation went through as now planned there would be a smaller percentage of graduate teachers available for teaching in comprehensive sixth forms than is now available in grammar school sixth forms. The position was not necessarily serious in the arts, he thought, but in the sciences there was cause for alarm.

Michael Armstrong said the problem must be put in perspective, since the proportion of graduate teachers was already low and the need to attract more graduates, particularly in maths and science, would be urgent with or without reorganisation. Secondly, it was yet to be proved by research that graduate teachers, particularly those with first class honours degrees, were necessarily the best teachers of their subjects at sixth form level. Another assumption needing questioning was whether the tutor-disciple model is the only appropriate one for sixth form teaching. He suggested that encouraging sixth formers to work more on their own might be just as effective. This meant using methods developed in the best primary schools plus those already standard in the university situation. In addition, other avenues could be explored: correspondence courses, programmed learning, TV teaching, and what he called 'packaged instruction' where courses of reading, writing and study were carefully planned by experts in the field and could be pursued by the individual student with a minimum of teacher supervision.

He stressed these suggestions were not merely alternatives to obtaining more teachers but themselves opened up new possibilities of sixth form teaching, since teachers could be freed from routine work of dispensing information and could devote themselves to their tutorial function.

Afterwards, audience questions were directed to clarifying these two speakers' views more fully. Both were asked to give further guidance about the kind of study suitable for those who stayed on into a sixth form but who did not intend to take any 'A' level courses. Michael Armstrong felt dividing sixth forms into 'A' level and sub-'A' level courses was a mistake. General Studies should take up a third of the timetable for all sixth formers, specialist studies then being divided into 'academic' and 'non-academic'. Lawrence Stenhouse thought that a General Studies course should cut across subject fields but should still 'stay narrow' and unlike Michael Armstrong he felt the demand for skilled teaching in the sixth would increase rather than decrease. He felt films and packaged courses could help in the field of instruction but not in the field of enquiry. Michael Armstrong felt the two fields could not be separated. He suggested that sixth forms in schools would become 'service centres' where the teachers' role was to guide study rather than to dictate facts; and Lawrence Stenhouse agreed that his own theory of 'logical enquiry' conflicted somewhat with this proposal to get sixth formers working on their own.

Both speakers were asked whether their proposals were really not marginal rather than fundamental to the problem of providing sixth forms with adequate staff. Michael Armstrong felt his proposals were rather more fundamental than it might appear and Lawrence Stenhouse concluded by agreeing that this was a question of rationing what was in short supply. Those who were rich could afford to buy themselves extra rations; what was robbing the academic child in state schools of proper teaching was not the advent of comprehensive reorganisation but the existence of the fee-paying schools.

Roy Waters, headteacher of William Penn School, introduced Peter Hancock as the first speaker of the afternoon session. Peter Hancock has charge of the first year sixth students at Holloway School and he spoke of the problems involved in tailoring the sixth form to meet the needs of what in effect was the first generation of those who stayed on in school after the leaving age. Fifty per cent stayed on to a fifth year. In 1956 (when the school was a grammar school) there were only 28 sixth formers; today (as a comprehensive) there were 108. Twenty per cent were in the upper sixth, thirty per cent in lower sixth, and fifty per cent in the 'O' level sixth. Unfortunately, there was some antagonism between the 'A' and 'O' level halves of the sixth and it was his view that the sixth form should be reorganised to make four equal groupings with all sections represented.

Class sizes in the sixth ranged from one to thirteen, the latter in his opinion being too large a grouping. He preferred ten at the most. He felt his school allowed a reasonable course choice and was entirely 'boy centred', many combinations of courses being possible. A further reason for successful sixth form work was Holloway's tradition of residential courses, one of which is held early in the fifth year to explain sixth form work in detail to prospective sixth formers. On social organisation he described methods of election of student leaders and pastoral activities of prefects to illustrate the gradual move away from the authoritarian appointment and activity of student leaders. Like other speakers he too felt there was sufficient evidence of 'A' level success not to have to discuss the narrow question of academic standards. The real problem was that arising when pupils became alienated from their parents and their own backgrounds as a result of their school work.

R G Crow, headteacher of Saltash Grammar School, an upper tier comprehensive school, spoke of the pernicious idea of a sixth form as a separate institution having a special ethos. His theme was that a sixth form was always an extension of the school below it. For many years his own sixth form had been expanding in numbers and broadening in nature. In 1952 only five were 'A' level candidates in the sixth form; today there were fifty-eight, plus sixty-one students taking a General course. His General students spent one-third of their time on English, Physical Education and Current Affairs; a further third on 'O' level work; and the last third on an individualised course of directed reading and essay writing and project work. His individualised study programme's success depended upon informed advice at each stage of a child's school career (and he stressed the need for proper guidance counselling on the American model) and upon having an unstreamed situation throughout the school. The key to good sixth form General Studies was to condition

the child early to work on his own. But it was also necessary not to be dominated by a craving for 'O' level results. The school's job was not to mould a child but to provide it with an environment where it could develop all its talents.

Mr M Smith, Deputy Head of Hartcliffe School, Bristol, spoke of the importance of proper pastoral guidance accompanying academic work. In his school guidance for sixth form work began in the fifth year when careers masters talked to individual pupils (and later to parents) so that all concerned had enough time, information and advice to make an intelligent choice of sixth form courses. Mr Smith felt it was essential at this point to provide some objective means of assessing each pupil's ability in each subject. His school had developed a system of individual dossiers for each child. Subject teachers (without seeing what other teachers had to say about that child's performance in other subjects) were asked to comment upon the child's work and upon the likelihood of this child succeeding in further work in this subject. These dossiers gave a reasonable picture of a child's potential and were invaluable in making an intelligent choice of sixth form work possible.

Mr Smith stressed all the same that no qualifications for entry to the sixth form were imposed. Courses were varied, with many combinations possible. There were other innovations too, designed to improve motivation. One was the practice of having a day each week spent outside the school at work in a job closely related to the sixth form course being pursued.

Afternoon questions began with requests for more information about the best way of catering for diverse abilities in the upper years of a comprehensive school. Should it be a choice between courses or subject options? All the speakers preferred a system of subject options around a basic core of required subjects (usually Maths and English) with the rest optional subjects. In replying to yet another question about the kind of approach suitable for students who would never take any examination, R G Crow felt that the answer was an unstreamed situation throughout the school. Another questioner from the floor asked for opinions about the possibility of a new exam, perhaps an 'A' level CSE, Mode 3; but platform speakers expressed themselves against the proliferation of exams, although Mr Smith suggested sixth forms might work alongside technical colleges in some cases (for example, for the ONC). *cont.*]

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Another questioner, disturbed by the fact that the conference seemed to be 'bending over backwards for the secondary modern child', spoke of the necessity to safeguard the academic child's interest by keeping it in separate groups for teaching. Mr Crow said that since his school had become unstreamed it had markedly improved its academic results and university entrance record; he felt in teaching any thirty children in a streamed situation you were bound to teach to the middle and the academic child was bound to suffer.

In the final session R S Fisher, Head of the History Department at Woodberry Down School, spoke of the necessity to look ahead towards the year 2000 to see what sort of economy this country would be faced with and what kind of an education students would need to carry it. He said it was no accident that in a comprehensive school more stayed on into the sixth and that the sixth forms were broader in interests. The sixths had a broader base to draw upon in a comprehensive school. They were also being affected by the fact that we no longer accepted ability as a predetermined characteristic, seeing it instead as something a school could help develop. Every segment of the population must play a full part in the educational process and for the kind of economy this country will be faced with, some form of education for all up to the age of eighteen will be necessary.

Our difficulty was that we are now in a transitional stage. The problem is that comprehensive schools are developing within the old framework whose educational ideas were élitist. GCE, for example, is a target suited to only a small minority of students and not suited to the needs of most sixth formers. CSE is in many ways superior for both the academic and non-academic pupils. Once GCE 'O' level is abandoned and a single teacher-controlled examination established for all at sixteen, the problem remaining will be how to integrate the sixth form. He suggested the work in the sixth form should be widened, with room left for options. He was sorry that the Schools Council's paper on the sixth form curriculum had begged the question. It had scrapped the original enquiry into what should be taught and had narrowed its work down to discussing the present courses and coming up with a majority-minority-study proposal. The sixth form should not be divided into technical and academic work but should be integrated for General Studies and after this setted for individual studies.

Further questions from the floor touched on the ill effects of the present examination system, a suggestion being made that some universities (perhaps in a pilot scheme with a number of schools) should agree to accept pupils for entrance solely on the basis of teacher assessment. Mr Fisher felt that parents expected the 'piece of paper' that went with examination results, that pupils needed and wanted assessment, and that since teachers insisted on qualifications for their profession it would not be right to insist students should not have them. What was needed was not an end to examinations but concentration upon the kind of examination that would include what is now thought to be the 'less examinable' student. Once we start providing this student with courses we will not only find out more about this, but we will also find out more about the examinable student. Basically, the needs of both kinds of students are the same.

ASPECTS OF EDUCATIONAL TECHNOLOGY

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METHUEN

The New Degree in Education

George Price

George Price is Pro-Deputy Principal of Chorley College of Education, a large College for mature students in Lancashire. He has contributed to previous issues of **Forum** on B Ed developments, comprehensive education and progressive work in primary schools.

Within a year or two the first of the 'Robbins' B Ed students will be entering the teaching profession. Every University except one (Cambridge) has agreed the broad outlines of the kind of degree to be offered to its constituent Colleges of Education and for the next few years, at any rate, the guide lines along which the B Ed courses will develop are becoming firmly fixed.

It is relevant to ask, at this point, what forces have been at work, and with what aspirations, to make this development a reality. The most important and influential expression of support for the inauguration of the degree in education came undoubtedly from the Robbins Report but witnesses to Robbins had prepared their cases long before 1963 for a degree for students under training to teach. These comprise largely the staffs of Colleges of Education and University Schools, Institutes and Departments of Education, organisations such as the ATCDE (i.e the 'Union' of teachers in the Colleges) and organisations representing teachers in schools and other interested parties. The weighting to be ascribed to these pressure groups could probably be apportioned so that the bodies representing the staffs of Colleges of Education would be seen to exert most pressure for the BEd over the longest time, while the teachers in schools have exerted hardly any pressure at all and what little they have applied has not been effectively noticed.

It is a remarkable fact that whilst official bodies of teachers such as the NUT, NAS, etc, spend a considerable amount of their time at conference and branch levels on matters of salaries, hardly a thought seems to have been given by them to the fundamental impact upon salaries for teachers, both existing and new, that the introduction of a degree at initial training levels is bound to have. In a matter of a year or two after Robbins, the Universities have provided the instruments whereby a sizeable proportion of the teaching profession could 'haul itself up by its own bootstraps' to a higher point on the salary scale than most certificated teachers would ever have anticipated before Robbins. So on the criterion of improved salaries alone, it must be deplored that the teachers in schools have had virtually little or no say in the preliminaries to the important matter of this initial qualification. Moreover, to the writer's knowledge, no University consulted the teachers' organisations directly on its plans for the degree.

The aspirations of the pressure groups for the B Ed are well-known. They fall into two related parts:
(1) The general desirability for an all-graduate profession in the schools and hence a better educated teaching service than we have at present.
(2) The wish for heightened status of the Colleges of Education, the University Schools of Education, and of those concerned with the image of education as a professional pursuit.

The Universities at large were probably mixed in their attitude to the introduction of the B Ed. Some received the idea with alacrity, others with caution and some with a large measure of indifference or even disapproval. But what is more significant is the way in which the different Universities have applied themselves to the task of formulating the regulations of their own particular B Ed. This is a fundamental matter involving much detail and considerable patient analysis. It should be understood at the outset that 'academic freedom' for the Universities means in practice that each of them is entirely free to formulate its course requirements and the subsequent awards in its own way, and that the 'amour propre' involved in some cases is such that the very idea that one University might do a thing one way is enough to cause another to follow an opposite course. Only when this individualism is recognised can we understand what has, in actuality, happened in the matter of the B Ed.

A second point which must be grasped at this stage is that whereas the Certificate of Education was granted by the Universities to students of Colleges of Education, prior to the B Ed, few University staff, apart from the particular people concerned in organising and examining the Certificate courses, bothered much about it. Thus the Teacher's Certificate, whilst bearing the name of its issuing University, claimed no particular kudos nor resulted, directly at any rate, in a higher starting salary for some of its holders. In other words, a Certificate from Oxbridge stood no higher in

the esteem of authorities appointing teachers to posts in schools than one from Redbrick. What counted more in a new entrant's career was probably the actual College he had trained at than the particular University to which it was attached.

Taking these two points together, it is clear that a qualification, nationally recognised as being of equivalent value whoever issued it (the Certificate), has now had superimposed upon it a University degree, the pattern and quality of which differs from one University to the next. Overnight the comparatively egalitarian qualification for the vast majority of teachers in schools has been either transformed into, or supplemented by, a differentiated status-bearing one which sharply defines would-be teachers into different categories from the point of their very induction into the training system. Moreover, the different forms of B Ed have implications far beyond this. As will be evident below, the form of the degree in many cases will have as much repercussion upon the educational organisation and ethos of the Colleges of Education as the introduction of the GCE had upon so many secondary schools. Its advantages will be akin to the latter in offering 'headroom' to the academically abler students; its disadvantages will also be similar to those attending the development of GCE in the secondary school, viz, the growth of élitism, streaming of students and staff and so on.

What are the present known facts?

Firstly, the broad division of Universities (and their attached Colleges of Education) into those whose students may take a B Ed General and those a B Ed Honours. The important distinctions here are:

(1) A general degree earns a bonus of £100 PA.
(2) A 'good' Honours degree a bonus of £220 PA.
(3) An Honours degree is rated more highly for promotion prospects in the education system.

Universities offering BEd Honours are:
Birmingham, Bristol, Keele, Leeds, Leicester, Reading, Sussex, Warwick (and probably Lancaster).

These Universities have attached to them about 53 Colleges of Education.

Universities offering B Ed General are:
Durham, Exeter, Hull, Liverpool, London, Manchester, Newcastle, Nottingham, Sheffield, Southampton, Wales*, Oxford.

* It may yet be decided to offer 'a general degree with Honours' in Colleges attached to the University of Wales. At present a pass degree only is allowed for.

Attached to this group there are about 95 Colleges.

About one-third of the Colleges of Education are, therefore, able to offer courses leading to a higher salary award than the remainder. When this fact is widely known throughout the schools supplying the Colleges, the effects could well be to attract the initially better qualified students to such Colleges and, in time, to establish an élite sector in the Colleges of Education world consisting of the 'Honours' Colleges. One can also speculate on the likely attraction that such Colleges might have for students who have no particular wish to teach but who would like a degree course and have been unsuccessful in finding a University place. Further effects of the division of the Colleges into those offering Honours B Ed and those offering it at General level may be felt on the staffs of Colleges teaching the courses. How far will promotion be affected by the fact of having taught up to Honours level, for instance?

Secondly, the division of the Colleges between those in which the Teachers' Certificate is an integral part of the B Ed (the 'end-on course') and those in which it is separated from the degree (the 'bifurcated course').

The following Universities have agreed to the 'end-on' course in which, with some qualification, the Teacher's Certificate is regarded as Part I of the degree:
Birmingham, Bristol, Keele, Leeds, Leicester, London, Sheffield, Reading, Sussex, Lancaster. (These have attached to them about 87 Colleges.)

Universities offering a bifurcated course are:
Durham, Exeter, Hull, Liverpool, Manchester, Newcastle, Nottingham, Southampton, Wales, Oxford (i.e. about 59 Colleges).

Warwick University's course structure is not clear in the literature published so far.

One point to note at this stage is that there is a considerable overlap between the Colleges offering Honours B Ed and those in whose courses the Teacher's Certificate is an intrinsic part of the degree.

The implications of this division are, in my view, far reaching and are likely to cause some considerable problems in the years ahead both for Colleges and for teachers in the schools.

They may be summed up as follows:

Where the Certificate (obtained at a certain level and boosted by extra courses) counts as part I of the B Ed:

(a) There is no necessity to teach the potential B Ed students apart from the Certificate students (no need to stream students).
(b) All teaching staff in the Colleges can participate in the teaching of degree work as recognised teachers since up to, and including, the third year of the course, the Certificate and B Ed work are virtually the same (though extra work may be required for those students interested in proceeding to the fourth year). In brief, there is no need to stream the College staffs at least up to the third year of degree work.
(c) The status of the Teacher's Certificate is not only protected but may be actually enhanced by being incorporated as part I of the degree.
(d) For existing teachers in the schools the degree structure in which the Certificate counts as part I of the degree course could mean that where the teacher holds an acceptable standard Certificate already, it could count towards seventy-five per cent of a B Ed course for returning teachers. It is too early at this stage to say if this will turn out to be so, but there is nothing in the structure of the 'end-on' course to prevent it.

When the Certificate and B Ed courses are envisaged as separate, and students in training are expected to follow a distinct degree course lasting for three of the four years of their College life, the above considerations will tend to operate in the opposite direction. Thus degree students will work separately from Certificate students; individual members of staff will be 'recognised' as teachers of the University where they are responsible for the B Ed work, but not 'recognised' where they are not so responsible. For teachers in the schools who wish to enter for the B Ed, the 'birfurcated' course presents special difficulties because the candidates might be required to do a full two or three year course, or the equivalent part-time, insofar as their Certificates may count little towards the degrees if at all.

Another division which affects returning teachers is that between the Universities requiring matriculation prior to entry to the B Ed and those who accept the Teacher's Certificate itself as part I. This division cuts across the others already referred to. Some Universities offering the 'end-on' course require formal matriculation or special exemption before the award of B Ed can be made; others waive this requirement and focus on the actual standard of the Certificate held. Generally speaking, only a few Universities do not require formal matriculation for their B Ed candidates. These include:
Oxford, Reading, Sussex, Lancaster
but even in the other Universities there are partial loopholes which allow exceptional non-matriculands to enter for their B Ed degree. For example, Hull requires nomination of candidates by the Colleges attached to that University, Warwick will grant admission to the B Ed for candidates who have not matriculated but show outstanding merit in their first year.

Teachers in schools will be interested to know what opportunities there may be for them to take a B Ed on a full-time secondment basis or part-time. Their hopes will have been reinforced by Plowden's recommendation that such facilities should be provided. Given all the limitations referred to above, the position at present seems to be this. Two Universities, Bristol and London, appear to be preparing now for this eventuality; three might consider it soon (or may have already done so), Nottingham, Sussex and, in 'the very distant future', Southampton; the remainder do not appear to be actively considering it. This information was gained from replies given to a circular letter from the Students' Union of my own College sent out in the Summer of 1966 to each University in England and Wales.

In a brief article of this sort, no attempt can be made to evaluate in detail the actual B Ed courses offered. There are grave misgivings that in some cases the degree is not biased towards education but is, rather, a general type of degree in which education happens to be included. A recent advertisement in a public journal for an important post in the Education Department of a College, calling for someone who would teach in the field of education, notes that the University concerned *hopes* to include education as a recognised subject in their degree of B Ed! One University does not require students in the final year to take the subject of education for that crucial part of their B Ed work.

But in addition to the actual weighting to be given to the study of education in a degree bearing that name, there are other points of vital concern. The Certificate courses were hardly models having well thought-out aims for an intending teacher, particularly for primary and 'middle-school' teachers who form the vast majority of those under training, and the curricula provided in the Colleges were invariably an uneasy compromise between 'the education of the

student as a person' (a nebulous aim, in my view, passing as an alibi for scientific thinking about educational goals or processes, but high-sounding enough to pass muster) and 'the education of the student as a *professional* person'. An unwritten purpose of many of the courses was also assumed to be that of giving the student something to teach. Over the years the insight and hard work of some College tutors and their more enlightened University colleagues had succeeded in modifying some syllabuses to give them a more professional bias. Where the B Ed arrangements fortify and develop this trend, the Certificate, as suggested above, will be enhanced; where the Universities work for a replica of their own general degrees, the inauguration of the B Ed can destroy any gains made in the Certificate syllabuses, modest as they were. Paradoxically this could happen easily where the more liberal 'end-on' B Ed is devised than in the other structure. One University to the writer's knowledge, has, in practice, just about left its Certificate courses to its affiliated Colleges to do what they wish to do in them (as a kind of CSE Mode III arrangement) since the B Ed now takes all the time and energy of the University personnel involved. On the other hand, in another case, it is clear that the University's very acceptance of the Certificate as part I of the degree holds dangers that the Certificate courses will be distorted into an unsuitable form by the concept of the degree in the collective mind of the University concerned. This would be rather analogous to attaching, say, GCE 'A' level as a follow-on from CSE 'providing that the CSE conforms to GCE standards and other requirements'.

Other problems revolve around the place and evaluation in a degree course of particular subjects such as Art and Craft, Drama, Environmental Studies and the like which may be totally unfamiliar to the University granting the B Ed.

Many problems of this kind are now arising as a result of B Ed developments, and, at a time when many Colleges of Education are staffed by large numbers of relatively inexperienced tutors (inexperienced, that is, in the world of ATO's and Colleges), the outcome may not be as pleasant and progressive as it ought to be. Nonetheless, progress cannot be gained without struggle and, in the end, the nation's children should benefit from this reform.

A cautionary note must be struck as regards the information used for this article. Events have moved quickly in the B Ed field and some flexibility may be operating to modify the conclusions suggested in some cases. Both students and teachers should be alerted to the shape of things so that they can make their views count in a process which is not yet absolutely set, so as to obtain an approach to the B Ed by each University similar to that which the most liberal Universities are offering. Only if this is done can we correct the dangerous and divisive effects, upon present and future teachers, of the B Ed degrees now being tried out.

J H Turner

Director of Education, West Bromwich, 1950-67; member of the Editorial Board of **Forum** since its foundation in 1958.

Miss H L Forster Headmistress of Dartmouth Comprehensive School, West Bromwich

The cause of education has lost a dedicated and fearless fighter by the untimely death at the age of fifty-five of Mr J H Turner, Director of Education for West Bromwich since 1950.

Before taking up an administrative appointment in West Bromwich Mr Turner had been a teacher and had given distinguished war service from 1939 to 1945. He attained the rank of Lieutenant Colonel and was personally commended by Field Marshal Montgomery

for his work in establishing and organising fifty camps for displaced persons in the Baltic area and setting up a system of education for the children.

As Director of Education his high administrative ability was matched by his full-blooded personality and his capacity for hard work. He has been called rugged and at times indomitable, but no man could have been more thoughtful and considerate for others, more appreciative and encouraging or endowed with a more robust sense of humour. He had a genius for human relationships, as shown by the informal and friendly atmosphere that existed between him and the teachers of West Bromwich. This was unparalleled and greatly treasured. A clear thinker, he was able to make quick decisions and above all he had vision. The rapid educational advance in West Bromwich during the 1950's and 1960's must be largely attributed to his vision, coupled with his drive and initiative. He thought big and had the necessary drive to convert his thinking into deeds.

Largely because of this, West Bromwich was the first authority to set up an Adventure School, at Plas Gwynant in North Wales, and later a residential Arts Centre for school children and young people at Ingestre Hall, which is still unique. The establishment of one of the first Child Guidance and Remedial Teaching services in this country and the building of two residential schools for maladjusted children were in no small measure due to Mr Turner, as was the successful handling of the problem of immigrant children by dispersing them amongst several schools, a policy now adopted nationally. He was interested in the educational well-being of all children, not only those of high intelligence, and it was probably this factor combined with his interest and research in eleven-plus procedures that led to his drive for comprehensive education.

In the late 1940's and early 1950's he gave a great deal of time to the study of the eleven-plus examination, endeavouring to make it as effective as possible on the one hand and as harmless on the other, but coming to the conclusion, now so widely agreed, that no method of selection was completely valid. He put over his ideas to the Education Committee with complete success and was then responsible for West Bromwich being probably the first authority to produce a fully comprehensive long term scheme, proposing four twelve form entry comprehensive schools to be built over a period of years, as money became available. He fought hard and long to persuade the then Ministry of Education to agree to the building of Churchfields School, and it was only at a very late stage that the Minister agreed to designate it as a comprehensive school. Consequently the headmaster could not be appointed in time to take part in the planning of the building and of the basic organisation. This Mr Turner undertook himself, being responsible for the engagement of a most understanding architect, with whom he worked closely at all stages. He made himself personally responsible for the establishment of all specialist provision.

Before Churchfields was ready to open in 1955 the Director turned his attention to explaining the comprehensive idea to parents throughout the borough. He organised meetings at all primary schools, addressing a great many of them himself, and very patiently won the support of the great majority of those parents who had first to be convinced. The present method of allocating pupils to comprehensive schools in West Bromwich, which is widely, though not universally, held to be a very fair solution, was introduced but not originated by Mr Turner. Parents in the catchment area of the comprehensive school are given a choice between the comprehensive and tripartite systems. If they choose the former, the child goes straight to the comprehensive school without sitting the eleven-plus examination. If they choose the tripartite system and the child does not gain a place at a grammar school, he cannot then go to the comprehensive school as second best. Vacancies occurring at the comprehensive school as a result of parents choosing the tripartite system, are filled by children from the rest of the town who have made comprehensive schooling their first choice and whose IQ is similar to that of a child who has 'opted out'.

Mr Turner also understood the importance of staffing and took great care in the making of the first appointments at Churchfields. This interest he continued to take in spite of his ever increasing responsibilities with the expansion of the county borough. The last meeting he attended, only a fortnight before his death, was for the appointment of a Head of Department at Dartmouth School. This second comprehensive school was opened in 1964 and a third school designated at present as a bilateral is under construction. Between 1955 and 1964, moving towards the ultimate goal of comprehensive education, three pairs of single sex secondary modern schools were amalgamated to form

larger co-educational units and given every encouragement by Mr Turner to start fifth forms. All this reorganisation he carried out with the utmost consideration for staff and pupils. Schools were amalgamated, as headships fell vacant: no teacher lost salary and no children were transferred from one school to another.

During the last few years he carried a double burden, the integration of parts of Wednesbury, Tipton and Akdridge into the enlarged county borough together with the making of a new plan for the reorganisation of secondary education. When the proposals were drawn up, he discussed them with the head teachers, met the staffs of each school concerned and the parents. His deepest concern was for the human element, the children and the teachers. For this reason, for his human sympathy combined with vision, quick thinking and sense of humour he will be remembered as a well-loved leader and a pioneer in education, of whom it is being said on all sides by teachers, administrative and secretarial staff and former Deputies, 'He was the best of men to work for'.

Curriculum Planning in a Large School

R E Copland, P D Holland, W L Lewis

As comprehensive schools come into being, the staff are inevitably involved in re-thinking the content and methods of education appropriate to the new situation, as well as problems concerning the internal organisation of the school. **Forum** is glad to print an article on this topic from Wyndham School, Egremont, a relatively new comprehensive school in Cumberland, of which Mr Copland is deputy head. **Forum** would welcome similar articles dealing with these issues.

The Problem

Robin Pedley writing in 1956 (*Comprehensive Education*) of the drawbacks of large schools said 'the essential, orthodox framework cannot easily be changed. The over-riding importance of efficient organisation tends to rule out the prospect of major developments and experiments growing from below ... It would seem more difficult for the head of a school with over 1,000 pupils effectively to carry out a radically progressive policy. Such a policy depends for success upon the faith of the teachers that it is right: preferably the faith of all the teachers, and certainly the great majority. A head can only work through his staff'.

In our fully comprehensive school, planned for 1,600, conditions are at present as favourable to innovation as are likely to be found anywhere – flexibility is to the fore in the design of the buildings, the Director of Education and the Headmaster are both keen on some radical changes in the organisation and ethos of secondary schools, the school is only two years old and two-thirds full and the majority of the staff were aware of and in sympathy with the main ideals before appointment – yet continually even in these circumstances a number of developments widely thought to be highly desirable have proved difficult to implement.

This article describes a method of curriculum planning intended to stimulate the growth of progressive policies initiated either by the Head or 'from below'.

Decision Making

How are decisions made in schools? One might consider them as being resolved by a mixture of three primary methods:

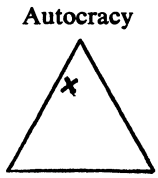
Autocratic – with decisions made by the head or even some influential member of staff;

Oligarchic – with groups varying in size from the head, deputy and senior master or mistress, to full head of department and house meetings;

Democratic – with full staff participation in decision taking.

One suspects that many of the methods actually used may be represented by a point such as x indicating a

degree of partnership between head and heads of department but leaving virtually untapped a great deal of wisdom and 'know how' from other members of staff.



In some cases this may arise as deliberate policy but in many more it will be because of the organisational difficulties of successfully co-ordinating all sources of relevant knowledge, especially when there is all too short a time before the decision must be made.

The Curriculum Advisory Committee

In January 1965 this committee was set up at a staff meeting with the Headmaster's agreement and asked to study the feasibility of ideas suggested to it. The committee has consisted of three members (shortly to be increased to four) with two retiring each year. Members of staff wishing to serve submit their names to the Head who, after consulting the committee, chooses from them to give a balance of subjects, experience and responsibility. Alternative methods could obviously be used to suit the circumstances of other schools.

Whilst the committee is essentially advisory its strength lies in its autonomy; in its capacity to receive problems, information and suggestions from any member of staff; in its right to determine which topics shall be examined and with what priority; in not having to meet a deadline – though obviously every effort is made to supply information in time to assist in the appropriate decision.

The following technique of work has been evolved: Each member is responsible to a third of the staff for collecting opinion and information, usually by discussion and occasionally by questionnaire. As views of individual members of staff are normally incorporated anonymously into the report, it is much easier than in an open meeting for a junior member of staff to express a radical opinion. Thus every member of staff is encouraged to think about and is able to contribute to curriculum planning.

The information received is studied and processed to produce a workable plan, which will lead to a written report in one of the following categories:
(a) More than one solution to the problem is found. Here the report will list the advantages and disadvantages of the alternatives as seen by the committee or individuals.
(b) One solution is found. Where members of staff have shown reservation (or outright hostility!) this is indicated.
(c) No solution. Here a progress report is issued indicating where and why the stumbling blocks have arisen and giving any useful by-products of the investigation.

It is hoped that with the issue of the report members of staff will be more informed on the topic. Recently each report has been followed by a 'teach-in' open to all to clarify and extend the facts and ideas behind it. As a result of the reports, which are advisory and informative to both head and staff, decisions, or the lack of them, face informed approval or criticism.

Topics studied

Four investigations have been made so far and two are summarised here to illustrate the type of work undertaken.
(1) Streaming in the first year (May 1965). The fully comprehensive eight form entry intake in September 1964 had been placed in five ability groups with either one or two forms in each group. From highest to lowest the numbers of forms in each group were 2, 2, 2, 1, 1. The report summarised staff opinions on streaming in general and the current arrangement in particular, gave a histogram of the verbal reasoning quotient (median 109!) of the intake and investigated the spread of standardised attainment in each class from the primary record cards. Information and opinion suggested that in September 1965 there should be less streaming in the upper half of the ability range but that it should be retained in the lower half to counteract the tendency in two stream schools for each stream to rapidly diverge (J. W. Douglas, *The Home and the School*). As a result the committee recommended that the nine form entry should be streamed into 4, 1 (a sandwich form), 2, 1, 1, a grouping in fact adopted by the Headmaster. (It is emphasised that this decision seemed right in the particular circumstances and stage of development of the

school and no more universal claims are made for it.)
(2) Fourth and fifth year options (February 1965).
This hardy annual is most virulent in a new and developing school. Continuous consultation with the staff, especially heads of department, was the most significant part of this investigation. Many difficulties were ironed out informally and what was hoped would be an acceptable structure was given in the report.

The report itself stimulated a brisk debate and some amendments before the Heads of Department meeting at which the decisions had to be taken. This meeting was relaxed, everyone present understanding the issues, and took about one hour only of informed and relevant discussion, everyone, we think it is true to say, being satisfied with its outcome.

Conclusion

Our first reports were on basic problems of organisation but the method of investigation is applicable to more radical developments. For example, a recent and at first apparently unsuccessful inquiry into increasing the flexibility of the timetable has, following the progress report and teach-in, resulted in afternoons of varied length according to age and programme which provides a part solution to the problem.

The approach which has been described is not confined to curriculum matters; here we have also discipline and school leaving certificate committees functioning in similar ways.

Robin Pedley goes on in his book quoted earlier to say 'He (the Head) can inspire them (the staff), encourage them, set them his own example – but he cannot always expect to convert them, even if he can afford the years of divergence and dissension which must often precede conversion'. Perhaps advisory committees help in conversions – in either direction!

A New Trend in Teacher Training

A H Dalrymple
Mr Dalrymple is Chief Inspector of Schools for the London Borough of Barking.

Every Sunday as we turn the pages of *The Observer, Times* or *Telegraph* we are likely to see advertised in bold print some new course at one or other of our technical colleges. Among these is one to be held in five centres, Barking, London, Nottingham, Manchester and Sunderland – a fully-fledged course of training for teachers.

This is a move which has puzzled many people in training college circles, although it has pleased those who seek the further development of the technical college. How are these two worlds to be reconciled, the one devoted to the monastic seclusion of teacher preparation and the other to the hurly-burly of industry and the noise of the workshop?

For many years the technical college survived through its part-time students, a small number of full-timers and a technical school which helped to fill its empty spaces during the day. Every student who was enrolled helped to increase the number of student hours which, along with the level of the courses, determine the rank of the college, its principal, and its staffing ratio and equipment. The situation is that unless a given number of students, varying with each grade, is enrolled, a class cannot be formed and if during the year the numbers fall below the minimum allowed, the class has to be closed. Thus the technical college has to live according to realistic terms.

The training college, on the other hand, has always been sure of its students, who are mostly full-time, and until recent years almost entirely residential. They moved from the academic atmosphere of the grammar school to the quiet seclusion of the college. The tone of many colleges suggested a church and the students were expected to behave as if they were in one. There was often a trace of condescension towards the students by the authorities and the elementary teacher, who was the product, generally regarded as the mentor of the masses, lost by comparison with the grammar school master in intellectual and social standing.

Apart from the Colleges of Advanced Technology,

which have now been elevated to University status, there are three types of technical college which cater in descending order for work ranging from University degrees or their equivalent to apprenticeship courses, matching in realistic terms the various requirements of industry and allied research. The qualifications and experience of the staff employed in the different colleges relate to the level of work handled by their particular establishment.

It is important to state here that the range of subjects covered and the qualifications aimed at are most extensive, which means that within one technical college there is a heterogeneous collection of staff and students which would rival the variety of an Eastern bazaar. The aim of the Principal and his staff is to get their courses and their college upgraded to the next highest level and wherever possible to admit the maximum number of students. There is inevitably strong competition between the various colleges for courses, although there is a system of classification and allocation supervised by the various professional, industrial and local education authority agencies which ensures an even distribution of the courses.

The technical college (and its staff), then, is an institution with a severely utilitarian outlook. Even where it is preparing people for degree work, observers feel that the cultural aspects of the students' education tend to come second, although in the last few years the introduction of general studies has been a mitigating factor in this connection.

Since the early 1960's several technical colleges have dabbled in education courses of various kinds, but these have had no impact on the official college of education world except that of disdain or amusement. This feeling gave way to dismay when recently the Department of Education and Science decided to instal an education department in each of five colleges of technology. There was considerable anxiety as to the exact relationship intended between the two spheres and it was hoped by the college of education side that there would be an independent principal, but the central authority decided not merely that the man or woman in charge would be graded as a head of department under the technical college principal, but also that this department would have to be housed within the four walls of the college, whatever else had to be moved out. This meant that in one case at least a major department had to be moved out for September 1967 to house even the first year (100 students) of the education department. How many other departments would have to be banished to other premises when the full complement of 300 students were assembled is a matter of interest and speculation, but some people might think that there would be more of a college of education in the building than a technical college by the end of three years.

We have seen how the technical college and its activities might appear to some people but the college of education is only now about to enter the arena of degree preparations in the shape of the controversial Bachelor of Education degree. Furthermore, whereas in the technical colleges it has for years been the custom to provide degree courses for students with the appropriate 'A' level passes, it has merely been a happy coincidence if students with two or three potential 'A' levels have applied to the training colleges because the minimum qualification is only five 'O' levels, which must not be allowed to obscure the fact that there has been a considerable rise in the number of applicants with one, two, or three 'A' levels. (Many of the latter withdraw from college in the Autumn if they find that they have gained a place at a University).

Thus from what has been said it is clear that academically the training college falls behind the technical college and will continue to fall behind, even with the introduction of the Bachelor of Education for which it is deemed only about ten to fifteen per cent of the students may be suitable. This situation is an odd one, because in some training colleges the percentage of students with two or more 'A' levels on entry is higher than this. One factor of importance in this is that it is probable that fifty per cent of the students who might be suitable for the B Ed may decline to enter for the examination, if they find the prospect of a fourth year unattractive.

The decision to include a full education department within a technical college is one which may not only provide more scope for the more able in their specialised subject, but also a more varied academic background for the certificate student. The only drawback that might arise is the fact that someone with three 'A' levels could be admitted to one of the three year degree courses at the technical college and be recognised as a qualified teacher at the end of three years instead of having to spend a fourth year in the college department of education to achieve the same result. Although this is an anomaly which should have affected consideration of the B Ed from the start, it is

one which inclusion of the education course in the college of technology will intensify, because of the sheer proximity, so to speak. (The only way to remedy the situation would be for the government to cease to recognise untrained graduates as qualified teachers).

It might be useful at this point to consider briefly what the arrangements are in the various colleges for their opening session in September 1967, beginning with the first intake. This embraces students ranging from current school leavers to mature people in the forties; the qualifications range from the few with two or three 'A' levels to those with only two or three 'O' levels who were admitted on the special entry procedure. The courses provided cater for every type of maintained school: infant, infant junior, junior, junior secondary, secondary, but it is sad to note that the usual college pattern of a modest intake at infant level has been repeated and that the main body of students, about fifty per cent, is concentrated at the junior, junior secondary stage. It is also interesting to note that none of the education departments at the five colleges of technology has had any real difficulty in filling its places, and that all were in the relatively happy position of having virtually completed their entry early in the year. Furthermore, there is a full range of main subjects available which would compare favourably with most established Colleges of Education and which are bound to increase in number and range as liaison with the other college departments is extended.

However, the position affecting the teaching of main subjects is not simple, and it will certainly be necessary, in one case at least, to utilise the academic specialists of the college of technology, although in another college it is hoped to cover the whole range of work with the department's own staff, liaison with the main college being a matter of gradual growth. It has not been made compulsory for all the main subject staff in all the departments to have school-teaching experience, as research experience has been judged as more important in one of the colleges – this does not mean that there are not a number of college of technology lecturers who have not had good school-teaching experience. The position has certainly been aggravated by the introduction of the B Ed degree, which requires lecturers of university calibre, where it is possible to obtain them. Thus the pure concept of a professionalised body of tutors has had to be sacrificed, with the danger of a 'split' in the minds of the students regarding the relative importance of professional expertise in the appointment of the 'faculty'. There is little doubt, however, that the staff newly appointed to the education departments will measure up well academically to their colleagues in the other departments.

Although lack of space forbids close analysis, the education departments have attracted an able staff from colleges of education and other sources; the majority of these lecturers have had good teaching experience in the school appropriate to their special field. It is expected, as a result, that it will be possible for teaching practice and curriculum studies to be fully covered by these particular tutors.

It is obvious that there will be interesting patterns of development in the collaboration between the various departments in each college, and a considerable diversity between college and college. For example, there will be opportunities for a college academic lecturer to keep the students in a science subject, say, up to date with the latest research developments, and to stimulate his science colleague in the education department as well. But the greatest educational advance is almost certain to be that affecting the lecturers in the education department themselves, who will have an unprecedented opportunity of broadening their outlook and of understanding more fully the pattern of life in a technological society. In view of the fluidity of arrangements in their departments during the first year, they will also have scope for a more creative contribution to the education and development of their students than the ordinary college of education would provide, and it is hoped that the Institutes of Education concerned will prove alert enough to help them meet the challenge.

Perhaps the most interesting development since the formation of these five education departments has been the up-grading of their colleges to Polytechnic status. This is going to have a profound effect on the future of *all* staff and students and it is likely to alter the balance of the intake of student teachers, directly and indirectly, towards the secondary stage, which might have far-reaching implications.

Because of the novel circumstances attending their birth, these new education departments have attracted a good deal of comment wherever teacher training is discussed. Their opening this month will be attended by the good wishes of the schools and the world of teacher education.

The Nuffield Mathematics Project

The next six titles will be published on 20 October:

Triangle 1	**Beginnings**	12s. 6d.
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They may be obtained direct from the Publishers, 11 Thistle Street Edinburgh 2, for £3 3s. a set of six books, postage and packing included.

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Discussion

More on assessment

As someone who is working with new methods of assessment, may I be permitted to answer some of the points Mr Bryan Chapman raised in connection with Mr Eggleston's article (**Forum,** Vol 9, No 3)?

(1) All assessments, whether of achievement or aptitude, are used to make predictions. As Anastasi says in **Psychological Testing** (page 455), 'It should be obvious that all psychological tests measure the individual's current behaviour, which inevitably reflects the influence of prior learning. The fact that every test score has a "past" does not however preclude its having a "future". While revealing the effects of past learning, test scores may, under certain conditions, serve as predictors of future learning'. No assessment procedure should be used to compare teachers, and as far as I know none are, except possibly by teachers. Assessment procedures should be designed, not so much to influence teaching methods, but to give the teacher freedom to teach his own syllabus. With some reservations, CSE Mode 3 is a good example of this.

(2) Curriculum objectives only achieve that status when they can be expressed as assessable student behaviours. Objectives are implicit in all courses; they are not white rabbits which appear mysteriously from nowhere.

(3) Most teachers are already heavily involved in a fairly complex assessment procedure. The weekly mark book bears witness to a history of observations which teachers habitually make. Schemes of assessment like the one Mr Eggleston outlined in his article will seek to refine and systematise this periodic stock-taking. Because it draws on a variety of expressions of behaviour, solitary oral evidence, communal discussion, project work, as well as pencil-and-paper tests, continuous assessment can probably be more thoroughly assimilated into the day to day teaching programme than the usual system of periodic tests and homework. Assessment will become less obtrusive, and the teacher should benefit from a looser identity with it.

(4) The only way to avoid the assumption that the strength of a behaviour, or any mental variable for that matter, can be precisely measured is by remembering that every score consists of two components. One is the true state of what you are measuring, and the other is error, your error in making the measurement. If every score were to be accompanied by its standard error, then the possibility of drawing false conclusions about its accuracy should be removed.

(5) Having made the attempt to isolate and quantify different behaviours, the last thing one wants to do is to lose this information by re-combining sub-scores into a single global score. There is no reason why differential performance cannot be represented as a profile of behaviours.

Any examination benefits from some reflection about its objectives. If you are not clear what you are trying to measure, how can you hope to measure? I do not think a glamorous examination is a substitute for this process. If an examination is 'imaginative' it is because it has been carefully designed to test whether objectives have been attained.

Mr Chapman wants affirmation of some guiding principles. I will readily agree that the student rather than the system is the first concern of any assessment procedure. The development of new methods of assessment, with their emphasis on revealing the whole array of a student's abilities, is evidence of this. It is the present system which can be harmful to students. Because consumers of certificates are told nothing about a person's cognitive abilities, they have to fall back on crude conventions, such as that of demanding four or five 'O' levels as a minimum qualification for a post. Whereas a person's profile of abilities might fit the job requirements (assuming these are known) he is screened out because his profile of certificates does not.

Mr Chapman is worried that the predictive validity of new methods of assessment will become so good that people will be allocated to jobs, once and for all. This is most unlikely. The notion that for every individual there is one 'perfect' occupation or vocation, for which his abilities and aptitudes fit him uniquely, is no longer held. What matters first is the pattern of cognitive abilities. These will indicate to the psychologist a group of many occupations which are 'possible'. The choice between these will depend mainly upon interest and motivation.

I think Mr Chapman is failing to distinguish between an efficient and a coercive system. What is sinister about an assessment procedure which is instrumental in introducing a person to the 'right' group of occupations? What surely matters is that, in those cases where vocational guidance breaks down, there should be enough flexibility in the employment system for a person to have a second chance without having to go back to square one.

Mr Chapman's third principle is of course quite perverse. No test constructor could tolerate low reliability; much less emphasise it. If

you want to jettison tests then you lose a good opportunity of improving labour placement. It seems a dubious service to individual freedom to ask adolescents to continue hawking themselves round employers until they find something. Will not the disappointment which many will later experience from settling prematurely for the wrong job outweigh the possible benefits of dispensing with guidance?

Throughout his piece, Mr Chapman seems to be bridling against an analytic approach to testing. This is a curious position for someone who claims to be in sympathy with the improvement of assessment procedures. Talk of testing something 'broader and less definable' takes us right back to the kind of romantic impressionism which Galton set out to dispel. His melodramatic warnings about the possible abuse of tests are noted, but it seems to me that if we are ever in the position where people are forced to take a job and remain in it, then it will be due to a perverted political idea, not an educational one.

R WOOD, *Wimbledon.*

Streaming, the NFER, and Forum

The critical notice by Patrick McGeeney (**Forum**, Vol 9, No 3) was of considerable interest and importance. Some of his criticisms of the NFER streaming project's methodology appear to be well-founded, particularly his suggestion that they failed to control adequately the environmental and family variables, and the failure to define precisely what they understand by an 'unstreamed' school. This latter imprecision may have led the investigators badly astray. Table III ('Plowden', Vol II, App 11, p 563) suggests that in 'non-streamed' schools the incidence of teachers setting formal sums to seven year olds every two-three days or less is 74%. At ten plus (Table IV) the incidence of such formal sums has risen to 81% of teachers in 'unstreamed' schools; in the matched streamed schools at the same age levels the incidence is 90% and 79% respectively. Such figures might cast doubt on the quality of the non-streaming in the sample schools, particularly, as your contributor points out, a sizeable proportion of the 'non-streamed' schools used homogeneous ability grouping in the fourth year.

The bases of selection of non-streamed schools clearly need to be more stringently defined. The following criteria are suggested against which the quality of the non-streaming may be judged. To leave definition to the LEA or to rely solely on information supplied by the headmaster may not be sufficient.

(1) The placing of children in forms should be entirely random. Certain subtle forms of selection may occur in spite of all intentions to the contrary—as when older children, those whose birthdays fall between September and December, are grouped together, or when children are grouped according to the geographical distribution of their homes.

(2) No permanent ability grouping within the form.

(3) Ideally the school should be in an area where the eleven-plus procedures have ceased to operate.

(4) Work in the classroom should be on the basis of co-operation rather than competition.

(5) One would expect to see group and individual work predominate rather than class teaching.

(6) A low incidence of teacher sanctions, discipline being exercised from within the group by the children. There will be no corporal punishment.

In addition, a teacher attitude scale, such as the one used by the NFER, would have to be administered to ascertain the degree of committal to non-streaming philosophies by individual teachers.

It is possible, perhaps, to be a little more optimistic than Patrick McGeeney about the outcome of the NFER longitudinal study. The note of caution (Part II Sect 1 Para 1, 2) needs to be read sympathetically in this context. One shares your contributor's impatience for the publication of the full survey, but cannot altogether accept his strictures on the present conclusions or lack of them. It is surely right that great caution be shown where the evidence is necessarily incomplete.

Finally, one wonders if, generally, you do not over-estimate the degree of success of the non-streaming movement. The evidence that teachers attending conferences show a lively interest in and awareness of the issues involved must be treated with care: teachers who attend conferences are not necessarily representative of the whole profession. It is surely not correct to say, as John Coe does (**Forum**, Vol 8, No 3): 'The debate about streaming is over'. In the course of my work I meet many teachers and visit many schools. In the vast majority of cases teachers appear to be firmly committed to streaming; even more depressing, many appear unaware that the 'debate' has even begun.

T E CROMPTON, *Edge Hill College, Ormskirk.*

CSE in an unstreamed school

It would be a great pity if the introduction of the Certificate of Secondary Education were to be used as a pretext for the retention of streaming in secondary schools. This examination, compared with others taken by secondary school pupils, has the merit of being potentially the least inhibiting towards subject courses and school organisation. Schools that

adopt Mode 3 CSE, where both syllabus and examination papers are controlled internally, have very great freedom indeed. To use this examination as a justification for the continuance of grouping pupils by ability and to groom the brightest pupils for it from the early stages of their secondary school lives, is contrary to the principle underlying the aims of the CSE.

A number of schools that do not stream their pupils also manage to prepare candidates for CSE and they achieve good results. One such school is Teignmouth County Secondary School with 420 boys and girls on roll, where pupils took CSE for the first time in 1965.

The 1965 examination candidates had entered the school in September 1960. This was the year when the decision was made not to stream future intakes, so these pupils were the first to progress through the school in non-streamed classes. When they first entered the school the new intake was divided into two parallel forms and for the next three years and two terms they were given the same syllabus. A small number of boys and girls who required remedial education were placed in a special form and in the main streams there was 'setting' for mathematics.

At the beginning of the summer term when these pupils were nearing the end of their fourth year at the school, they were asked to state their intentions regarding the fifth year course and the CSE examination. Those who wished to stay on for an extra year were placed together in a separate class. Only then did specific preparation for the examination begin.

Twenty-one pupils eventually took CSE with a total of 115 subject entries. On the basis of their eleven-plus results, their VRQ at eleven-plus, and the results of tests, it was possible to determine the stream to which each child would have been allocated on entering the school had it been our intention to group according to ability. Nine candidates would have been placed in the A stream, ten in the B stream and two were placed in remedial forms.

Of the two who were sent to the remedial class, one moved into a main stream form after a term at the school. The other remained in the remedial form until his fifth year. The twenty-one candidates had the choice of ten subjects. Six of these were Mode III examinations where the papers were internally set, based on an internal syllabus and externally moderated. These were Mode III papers for English, Geography, History, Biology, Domestic Science and Needlework. Mathematics, Physics, Art and Technical Drawing were Mode I papers.

The results proved to the staff in charge of these subjects that:
a) successful results at CSE can be obtained without streaming
b) there were many pupils who would not have been placed in A stream forms who gained considerable success in the examination
c) brighter pupils who would have been in A forms did well anyway and did not appear to be held back in unstreamed forms.

The total number of passes was 103. Of these, fifty-one (or 49·5%) were obtained by pupils who would have been placed in the A stream; fifty-two (or 50·5%) were obtained by pupils who would have been placed in the B stream or who were in the remedial form.

The pupil who was placed in the remedial class on entering the school and who was moved into a main stream form after one term passed in three subjects and failed in one. The pupil who spent four years in a remedial form sat two subjects, failed in one and passed the other.

Candidates who would have been in the A stream failed in two subjects (15·3% of the total failures). Candidates who would have been in the B stream or who were in remedial forms failed in eleven subjects (84·7% of total failures).

There was a total of thirteen Grade I passes equivalent to a pass at 'O' level GCE. Of these, eight, or 61·5%, were gained by pupils who would have been in the A stream: five or 38·5%, were gained by pupils who would have been in the B stream.

The year group of which these pupils were a part had been recognised throughout their years at the school as being of below-average standard. They were most unpromising material for the first-ever CSE examination. Despite this our experience is that the CSE examination can be assimilated successfully without undue interference with the organisation, routine and curricula of an unstreamed school. Many pupils who would have been placed in a lower stream did well in the examination. In a streamed school these pupils might well have been denied the opportunity of taking it.

A R LYNCH, *Deputy Headmaster, Witchford Secondary School, Cambs.*

French for All . . . Wisdom or Folly?

When Frank Whittle broke the sound barrier by jet propulsion, cheaper and faster travel became the privilege of all. When Ludovic L Zamenhof broke the language barrier by his invention of Esperanto it was with equally humanitarian intentions, but the ability to communicate freely abroad did not become at once the privilege of all. Whereas big business has exploited Whittle's invention to the full, traditionalism and vested interest have conspired to obscure from public view Zamenhof's simple second language for all.

If Zamenhof's invention seemed to lack point when first published (1887) because very few people were involved in international relations,

today, thanks largely to Whittle and jet propulsion and the massive increase in travel, his invention assumes a new significance. The first Secretary of the Schools Council, D H Morrell, urged education to respond as rapidly as possible to social change. If ever there was a social change to which education needed urgently to respond it is surely modern man's new capacity for travel and his need to communicate over a vaster field than has ever hitherto been thought possible.

Unfortunately, any official evidence of the need to reorientate our approach to language teaching is hard to find. Much of the content of Schools Council Working Paper No 8 **French in the Primary School,** emanates from Curzon Street. Apart from the praiseworthy contributions of Nuffield to language research we are left with the impression that the reasons for perpetuating and extending a French-teaching monopoly in Britain remain unchanged since before 1939. We learn that because French teaching has become traditional in Britain we should continue with it – a feeble argument; and we learn of the continuing importance of our geographical proximity to France. In a jet age? In my school many sixth formers whose parents considered a trip to France pre-war as high adventure now want to travel not only to France but through it and as far as their money will take them. According to a BBC documentary film in March 1966 fewer and fewer Britons are holidaying in France. Yet Curzon Street acts as though more and more people are going there.

They want children as a whole to have eight years' French instead of the customary five by pushing French teaching back three years into the primary school. An article in the 27 January issue of the **Scottish Educational Journal** entitled: 'Why Teach French at All' accuses **Primary Education in Scotland** of hedging all the issues in the case for French in primary schools, and concludes: 'It is time teachers of French justified the inclusion of their subject in the secondary school curriculum instead of attempting to find a place for it in the primary school'. Plowden notes that French was chosen for the Nuffield project as a matter of expediency and regrets that 'the experiment is perpetuating the dominance of one language . . .'

As there are grave doubts in many quarters about the advisability of 'mass French' in Britain why, one might ask, is not more done officially to encourage experiments with Esperanto which is not merely another language to clutter up the school curriculum but a language capable of solving the world language problem and serving as an ideal basis for education for international understanding. In 1954 representatives of HM Government supported a UNESCO Resolution praising the contribution of Esperanto to international understanding. In some countries there have resulted dramatic advances in the teaching of Esperanto in schools, colleges, and universities. Yet in Britain, Curzon Street, hiding behind a facade of feigned neutrality, has gone out of its way to belittle or ignore the educational value of Esperanto teaching. In HMSO Pamphlet No 29 **Modern Languages,** the reference to Esperanto is sufficiently misleading as to discourage teachers from considering the subject worthy of attention. Working Paper No 8 of the Schools Council **French in the Primary School,** openly ignores the work currently being done with Esperanto in British schools and yet finds space for the profound observation that Asian languages are not likely to play a major rôle in the curriculum of these schools!

The answer for a minority of children might well be no foreign language at all; but the number of children who could not cope with Esperanto is much smaller than the number that cannot cope with French. One suspects, that with the welcome abolition in most places of the eleven-plus, most primary heads will have innovations to make to their curriculum more vital in character than the teaching of the language of just one other country. At the secondary stage, if most children took a two- or three-year course in Esperanto at the end of their schooling, much valuable time would be released earlier in the course for subjects which for years have been knocking in vain for admittance to the schools. Those with a special aptitude for foreign languages would naturally elect to do them and French teachers would sigh with relief at no longer having to try and teach their subject to many children quite unlikely to learn it by any method.

Teachers have already asked for and been given CSE examinations in Esperanto. At least one Board is interested in offering a GCE in the subject. Why not courses in Colleges of Education and Universities of the kind already available to students in many other countries? The language certainly deserves greater consideration than it has hitherto received in Britain.

R MARKARIAN, *Headmaster, Chorley Grammar School.*

Text and Context

Peter Blacklaws

A worm's eye view of communications in Education. Peter Blacklaws is head of the Remedial Department, Langdon Park School, Stepney. He suggests here a new and interesting approach linking educational research to in-service training.

Introduction

The 'Text' of the title refers to any, and all, attempts by educational theorists and researchers and other (often practising) 'authorities' to communicate by print and voice their discoveries and injunctions and prophesies and other forms of advice to the classroom teacher.

'Context' refers to the school and classroom situations within which the front-line 'Jocks' of education make their daily attempts to put this advice into practice.

It is the purpose of this article to assert that the communications system which ought to connect and inter-activate these two branches of education has broken down, and to suggest possible methods of making it more effectual.

The break-down in communications derives from two explicit or implicit omissions. The first is that 'Context' has been (unintentionally) under-emphasised by the purveyors of 'Text'; and the second is that the Jocks have failed to make their rightful contribution to 'Text', due largely to the absence of an invitation to contribute.

I shall offer two approaches which are designed to repair both these omissions. The first I shall call 'Observation-and-Report', the second 'Experiment-and-Evaluation'.

The Observer

Both these approaches require that an 'observer' be invited to enter Jock's field-kitchen where he will spend a considerable time (which will be of different durations in the two schemes), looking at Jock's gadgets and facilities and his cooking performance. As the military-domestic analogy suggests, this is quite a hurdle to overcome, and of crucial importance in both these approaches is the extent to which they will encourage (or discourage) a harmonious and unstrained relationship between the teacher and the observer and the class.

Another common, and absolutely vital, feature of the two schemes is the peculiar learning value to the observer which the assumption of the two different kinds of observer-roles would bring. The general arguments and demonstrations to support this claim will not be offered here (they can be found in John Holt's book, **Why Children Fail),** though many of them will be made explicit in the expositions which follow.

From this it will be clear that students of one kind or another will generally be best qualified to fill the observer role.

Observation-and-report

This approach would come under the head of 'research' and would be closely directed by a University Education Department or other College Department able to set up an in-service course with such a research aim in mind.

The observation would be carried out by mature teacher-students who would spend half (two-thirds? one quarter?) of their year in observing *one* kind of classroom situation. Such investigations would differ from the usual forms of student observation in that there would be a research instruction to observe the *whole* unit in action – ie not only the teaching but also the learning (or non-learning) and the relation between them. A further difference lies in the concentration on *one* kind of teaching unit and the extended duration of the observation.

The report would be organised and compiled by a research tutor who would collate the information which had been gathered by student observers.

While it is true that a good teacher will not necessarily make a good researcher he can be expected to be a useful research assistant, if it is accepted that the research contributions of different students will be necessarily different.

Two models may be offered for the different kinds of contribution to be expected.

The Role of the Teacher in the Infant and Nursery School by Gardner and Cass, gives the findings of a research project which was organised and collated by the authors and carried out by their students. Here the aim was the limited one of obtaining a statistical

portrait of the different kinds of daily contacts (questions, answers, instructions, advice, encouragement, etc) between 'good' teachers and their pupils. In this survey the information to be gathered was factual, the amount of personal interpretation was small and was usually eliminated by discussion and final decision by the organisers, and the results could thus be properly described as a piece of objective, scientific research.

The second model is R W White's **Lives in Progress.** Here we are offered more than a statistical portrait; these are full-blooded biographies of their subjects and, in keeping with the more ambitious aims of this kind of investigation, the findings must be that much less scientifically certain. It is this kind of rounded, communicable portrait which the proposed research could ultimately try to achieve.

Experiment-and-Evaluation

Unlike Observation-and-Report this approach would probably not come under the head of 'research', since, as will be seen later, it falls short of that notional point on the continuum at which 'experiment' ends and the more elaborate procedures of 'research' begin. And, while there are clear psychological and procedural advantages to be gained from having any kind of classroom experiment conducted under the (loose) direction of an Educational Institute or Department, Experiment-and-Evaluation projects can be carried out by pairs or groups of teachers operating independently in their own schools.

In the latter situation the observer would come from within the school group; in the former situation the observer would be a mature teacher-student or a young student-teacher whose participation in the project would form part of his initial, or later in-service, training.

As with Observation-and-Report, then, there is a classroom observer and a classroom teacher. However, with Experiment-and-Evaluation the initiative for deciding what is to be observed passes from the observer (and his tutor) to the teacher.

The teacher chooses a classroom problem which he is anxious to solve (Aim). Then the teacher and the observer together consider possible teaching methods and procedures which offer a solution to the problem. (This is the point at which 'Text' performs its most useful function – that of being our major source of invitations-to-experiment, rather than the repository of final solutions.) They then decide, in practical classroom-detail, which of the possible solutions to adopt (Plan). Finally, teacher and observer consider the possibilities of measuring results and agree on their other criteria for estimating the success or failure of the experiment (Evaluation).

Similarities and Differences

It will speed the exposition if, at this point, the chief similarities and differences between the two kinds of project were stated.

Similarities

(1) Learning value to student-observers. (See Holt's book, cited on the previous page.)

(2) Greater activity and honesty in course seminars, arising from an intimate knowledge of a class situation for whose success or failure students would have no personal responsibility.

Differences

(1) Observation-and-Report enquiries would have to be spread over several months and this approach would provide more opportunities for learning about teaching attitudes, class organisation and teaching methods than would be offered during the restricted time- and topic-span of Experiment projects.

On the other hand, the very constrictions of the latter approach, and, in particular, its overt statement of Aim and Plan, would concentrate the impact of the discoveries to be made by both teacher and observer at the stage of Evaluation.

(For a fuller account of the psychological value of the experimental approach, and for a description of the basic procedures, see Corey's book, **Action Research to Improve Teaching Practice.)**

(2) While in both projects there is much observer-learning to be had for the taking, the relative worth of the two approaches for the observer is different. In Observation projects the observer stands to gain more than the teacher; in Experiment projects he is primarily there to assist the teacher, by providing the crucial objective evidence which will correct the teacher's subjective evaluations of the effects of his teaching.

(3) It follows from this that the problem of gaining the co-operation of the classroom teacher ought to be considerably less in the case of Experiment-and-

Evaluation, since the teacher would have everything to gain and, protected from judgment by the umbrella of 'experiment', very little to lose.

On the other hand, Observation-and-Report is only an extension of a now-familiar feature of College-school relations and one which has become increasingly acceptable.

Thus, despite the advantages (*once experienced*) to the teacher of the Experiment approach, it would appear likely that the spread of a general willingness among teachers to experiment in this way would require a radical reappraisal of the direction and content of initial teacher training. For, while much can be done by in-service tutors to interest individual students in an experimental approach to their teaching, it is usually too late to teach an old Jock these new tricks.
(4) Ideally, Experiment-and-Evaluation could form part of an Observation-and-Report programme, with the sort of compound gains which one would expect from a happy marriage of this nature.
(5) Finally there is the question of the relative values of the findings of these different kinds of project to teachers who have *not* taken part in them.

To adopt Corey's terms, the '*lateral* generalisations' which may properly be made from the findings of Observation Reports, while not as scientifically respectable as the results of 'controlled' research projects, would more closely answer the problems which teachers face in their actual classroom situations and would, therefore, offer a better prospect of more directly influencing future professional action.

The generalisations which can properly be made from Experiment Evaluations are more restricted and are principally of a *vertical* nature – ie they indicate specific teaching strategies which a particular teacher may use in the same school, with the same grade of class, in the years immediately following the experiment. Nevertheless, even here an exchange of such findings between, say, junior school teachers in similar classroom situations and in the same educational division may well have more influence on classroom practice than a more comprehensive Text, however authoritative, on 'Teaching in the Junior School'.

Conclusion and Summary

This study began with a description of the 'Jocks' of education and their actual separation from the sources of advice and instruction, at a time when the illusion of effective communication of 'truths' has never been greater. Whether or not all of the analyses and proposals contained in this article will command equal acceptance, the basic argument may be summarised thus:

(1) The 'Jocks' of education must be given their head and allowed to regain the sense of initiative and responsibility of simpler, pre-electronic days when men *knew* that they were alone and faced with unique challenges requiring unique solutions. If this does not happen, then the discoveries of modern educational research might as well remain locked up in the College libraries and in the minds of Jock's mentors for all the good that they will do in changing the actual learning and teaching in the classroom.

There is thus an urgent call for more classroom-originating information, as a means of restoring the balance of initiative and responsibility.

(2) Observation-and-Report projects are one way of doing this. Their main purpose is to let Jock know what is happening in other people's classrooms.

Experiment-and-Evaluation is another approach. Its main purpose is to let Jock know what is happening in his own classroom.

The first is intended as a counter to the (unintended) deceptions of 'Text', while the second seeks to overcome the (equally well-meaning) self-deceptions of 'Context'; and, in both, the observer is the 'private eye' who will liberate Jock from the confusions and frustrations of both these forms of deception.

(3) Experiment-and-Evaluation is the more radical approach and, if it is to be widely adopted, the time to give Jock his head is during his initial training. The introduction of an experimental attitude thus early would carry us a good way towards a professional situation in which Jock would no more think of teaching hopefully and uncritically (and too often blaming the 'intake' instead of the output) than he would think of playing cricket or golf without marking up the score.

Some Corollaries of Non-Streaming

R P Neal

Mr Neal has had extensive experience as assistant and head in urban primary schools. He is now head of Henderson Avenue School, Scunthorpe.

It must have been sometime in the early 1950's that I first began thinking about unstreaming. It was my first headship and a senior HMI had been visiting the school. In the course of a most stimulating discussion the distribution of the new intake was mentioned. 'Why not give them (the teachers) so many children instead of so many "A's" or "B's"?' he asked. This was all he said, but the remark must have fallen on fertile ground for I began then to think and talk about unstreaming that school.

For many years I had followed the theories of the testers and, as a senior member of staff of a large urban primary school, had filled the study walls of my long suffering head with graphs of the various tests we did throughout the school, tests which proved those theories to my satisfaction. Now the uneasy feelings about all that I had done began to multiply and facts which I observed for myself began to obtrude into the picture. I very much annoyed my deputy, for example, by expressing surprise at the very high scoring of her 'B' class in a test which I had prepared to give one of my usual curves; her class upset the curve. I found this happening constantly and began to wonder about the value of my curves. During this period also I was attending conferences of the then progressive educationists; much of what they said was in mystical and psychological language which I did not understand and their conditions were very far from the realities in which I worked; nevertheless, the ideas of child growth they were suggesting led to further uneasiness about the testers' views. The phrase 'the educability of the whole people' which the then President of the NUT had written in a book he published towards the end of the war began to penetrate into my consciousness and I began to wonder whether in fact streaming allowed for this.

Without waiting for a better understanding I began to unstream and did this tentatively on a geographical basis. Not much happened at this school except that one member of the staff challenged completely my ideas on what should be done in the school; I was unhappy about this challenge, knew it was based on wrong ideas, but was not able to see how what I was doing improved things. In fact in much of the school's work at this time there was a definite drop in standards which I seemed unable to stem.

However, I changed schools just at this time and over a much longer period and in an atmosphere in which experiment was much more welcome, unstreamed a whole school. I began to see vaguely in practice that good standards could be maintained if the teachers were prepared to think about their children and their needs and was fortunate here that I found a set of young colleagues willing to try out my suggestions even if they doubted my wisdom. One class teacher in particular showed me how it was possible so to run his unstreamed class that all made progress, that each cared for the good of the other in the class in the intellectual as well as the physical field, that unstreaming brought definite benefits to all the children in the class and that theory and practice were at one in his classroom. Unfortunately I was not equipped to take his experiences and make them general throughout the school and failed to see that his development – for the development of the teacher is as important as that of the children – led to the development of all the staff. I hope that he has progressed from those days for himself and has forgiven me my failure.

During this time more and more written work began to appear, calling into question the whole theory of the intelligence testers and even of intelligence itself; denying the theory of types as propounded by the Norwood Committee; and asking whether the eleven-plus was right in itself, let alone whether it was right in the way it was done. London began to make its schools comprehensive and news began to trickle through of the pragmatic breakthrough in the secondary modern field where our colleagues were proving that the limited objectives set for the children there could be reached and surpassed, and that children of many levels of 'intelligence', as measured on the tests, were overcoming their difficulties and, rightly taught, were doing as well as, if not better than, many of their contemporaries in the grammar schools. Much of the writing referred to was inconclusive, much was couched in philosophical language I was not equipped to understand; some of it, no doubt, was of little scientific or

educational value. Nevertheless it interested me and drove me to still further efforts to understand what happens in an unstreamed situation.

By this time, too, articles began to appear here and there and courses were started on the writings of the various psychologists such as Wheat and Piaget, who were starting with the child and trying to see how he learned. Positive ideas on the theory of learning were put forward which were helpful in showing teachers who had to work with large classes all day how so to organise their work that children were not left with the lost feeling to which one mother referred in a talk I had with her about the progress of her child in an unstreamed and often un-directed situation. These writings were helpful in starting off teachers who were not too willing to move from a situation they knew, into one they did not.

At this time I came to my present post where I was faced with a school in which a good academic tradition had been set up and the preparation of children for the grammar school had really gone a long way. I felt confident enough about unstreaming by now to ask my deputy, who was running the school for a term, to unstream the new intake and to take them up in the groups in which they found themselves in the Infants' Department. I was fortunate, too, that the first year teachers were willing to take a lead in this matter and felt able to deal with such classes, large as they were.

What I found to my own surprise was that our discussions were not about unstreaming but about teaching, especially the teaching of reading, written English, and finally maths. Here is one of the direct advantages of unstreaming to the staff; each teacher has the same problems to face in the classrooms and so can help the others to overcome these. Team teaching in a small way becomes a reality straight away and the teacher is out of her own box without knowing it.

We began with reading and introduced a scheme based upon a phonic word method which gave us a graded attack on weaknesses. All children were placed at appropriate points on this scheme and records prepared which showed their progress through it; although it has been modified from time to time we still use this scheme eight years later. We were fortunate in obtaining the services of a remedial teacher who was most skilled at this work, and so were able to see that children not yet ready for the scheme continued with pre-reading activities until they were able to start. Such work as this led to group work at once and to continuous thinking about groups so that a streamed situation did not re-appear within the classroom.

Work in mathematics followed in which much more group and individual work was introduced. The use of structural apparatus forced us to have groups which were often fluid and to prepare work, usually on cards but sometimes using text books, for the other children to use whilst the teacher was occupied with the group using the apparatus. We found, very quickly, that individual weaknesses, so often masked in the streamed, class situation, where it is assumed that all can proceed at the same rate, were thrown up and had to be dealt with by group or individual or even class discussion so that understanding and confidence were built up in children and teacher alike. Class projects from time to time helped to keep the class together and to correct the fragmentation that such work produces.

Written work in English and projects then began to need our attention and again groups of teachers were involved in the discussions which were usually spread to the whole staff. We found that the continuation of the personal writing begun in the infant school strengthened by continual experience and discussion led to much good work being done and threw up again such questions as occur in day-to-day work in English such as how to teach full-stops, how to improve the vocabulary of the children, and so on.

I am not pretending that all has been success or that all teachers have found it possible to change over successfully. There are difficulties for the class teachers as well as advantages for each form of organisation has its own special problems. It is not easy in large classes to keep track of every child, so records have to be meticulously kept and not every teacher finds this easy. Yet this record keeping is of far greater value than of the type in which the teacher filled in a record of what the class had done. Knowledge of each child has to be detailed; vague generalisations such as are covered by the gradings 'A' to 'E' are of no use to the next teacher who wants to know exactly where each child is on the scheme and what particular needs he has. The over-seeing of each group of children, the marking or checking of their work, and the chasing through of each individual failure present insuperable difficulties to some teachers and I do not find that the training given in the Colleges of Education helps in this respect.

What about discipline? I think this is easier for teachers because the school is a happier place and

children are working at their own levels, yet in a collective situation. We still have much to learn about making use of this collective spirit to produce positive results in behaviour as well as in work, in good presentation of our material, and in higher expectations of the children; but some of us are learning slowly and the results show in a rising standard of work and a higher level of living together in a community.

And the children? There is no doubt in my mind that they have benefited from all this. Many children, who would have become 'C's' in a streamed situation, have improved out of all knowledge in this more hopeful atmosphere. We have found that it is not always the 'A's' who lead; other, often more stable personalities, have become leaders in the class. I can think of X, undoubtedly the most able boy in the class, who was lost for a year in such a demanding situation, whereas G, one of the less able girls, rose to her full height as a leader and became a different personality because of this, much more able to cope with her intellectual difficulties. Because we have planned their programmes carefully the weaker children have been helped by not being in a group on their own and so have not felt separated from the rest of the school. Even so there have been difficulties over remedial groups because we have not thought carefully enough about the children being told what is happening to them; there have been tears over separation from companions they have worked with for so long and even movement inside the classroom has not always gone down well with the conservative habits of our youngsters.

Incidentally we have now abandoned taking the children from the Infants' Department in the groups they were in there. We found that this led to great inequalities in the classes as all the younger children who had had less time in school and were more immature were together in one class, which did not progress so well up the school as its older and more mature group did. We now ask the Infant School to re-arrange groups mainly on the basis of 'good' friendships but with a good balance of sexes, abilities, maturity, and so on. We find this produces better results.

What have the parents' reactions been to all this? Some parents wept at first because their children had been sent to Mrs X, who always had taken the 'C' class, and they could not believe that we were truly unstreaming. Some parents have stated that they feel unstreaming has held their children back. A few parents have objected to the working of the remedial classes. Now, I believe, the great majority of the parents accept unstreaming and think that their children are happier because of it. From the very first we have had to bring parents in on every possible occasion to explain what is going on so that they will understand as far as possible and so help their children to understand. We use all the means suggested by the Plowden Committee Report to keep parents informed and find that this pays off. Even with all our efforts, however, there are still parents who do not come, who will not understand, and whose children progress less satisfactorily because of this.

What now? There are always new things to be learned, new ways of doing old work, new ideas to be grappled with and understood. We are just beginning to try out some of the new programmed learning kits to see where they fit in. We have come to the point where we ought to start considering what body of knowledge, as distinct from the skills, we wish the children to have by the time they go on to their secondary school, soon to be comprehensive. We have to see whether our organisation can be improved so that every teacher is helped more by it to creative teaching and thinking. We ought to be writing down a great deal of all this to help the newcomers to our school, especially those who come in from the secondary set-up where they have not been encouraged to think in this way.

The struggle has been and will be a long, hard one, not without its casualties amongst children and teachers, not without sleepless nights, not without failures to live up to our ideals. But it has certainly been a rewarding one in many respects; most of us have grown because of it and have been strengthened to go on again. Few of us, I am sure, would return to the streamed situation in which we once worked and some of us are determined to see that unstreaming is spread even wider into the primary schools and one day, perhaps, even into the secondary schools.

Assessment Procedures and Curriculum Reform

J F Eggleston

Answers to some of the questions raised by Mr Chapman in his discussion of doubts raised by 'new methods of assessment' (**Forum**, Vol 9, No 2).

Mr Wood's contribution to this discussion (page 22) meets many of the points raised by Mr Chapman in the last number of **Forum**. The only outstanding issue of any importance concerns the relationship between assessment procedures and curriculum reform and evaluation. The important role which assessment must ultimately play in effective evaluation of the new learning experience introduced with new curricula may be made clear by answering relevant questions asked by Mr Chapman.

(1) What are the reasonable functions of an internal or external final assessment?

The function of **final** assessments at any level of educational processes is usually that of facilitating selection of those who will proceed to the next stage. This function is a predictive one. Where demand for such places exceeds supply, selection inevitably operates. It may be argued that the assessment procedures available do not predict accurately or that their back-wash effect is adverse and so serious as to make the assessment procedure 'unreasonable'. This however need not necessarily be an argument against improving such assessment procedures. It is conceivable that assessment procedures might be produced which had either no back-wash effect or an extremely stimulating back-wash effect on the work done at any level. It is also possible that assessment procedures might supply a more comprehensive array of information which would facilitate placement of pupils either in jobs or courses of further education which would be more appropriate than those to which they are directed on the limited evidence of the present assessment procedures.

(2) What is the point of assessing present competence or achievement?

The present level of competence attained by a student is presumably the result of his innate abilities being employed in the learning experiences through which he has just passed. In order to improve these learning experiences, in order to maximise their effectiveness, it is clearly useful to have available comparative measures of attainment.

(3) How far should the design of an assessment procedure be influenced by the desire to influence teaching methods?

The back-wash of conventional 'O' level examinations has been the subject of much criticism in the past. It must be insisted that every new assessment procedure satisfies a number of criteria, one important criterion being that its back-wash effect should not be in conflict with the best interests of the pupil. It is recognised by some teachers who are concerned with curriculum developments that the easiest and most direct way of communicating the method and style of the courses they devise is through the assessment procedures that are used. The Nuffield 'O' level chemists, for example, gave a list 'of those qualities which the examination should encourage and assess'. How effective and acceptable this method of communication between teachers concerned with curriculum development and their colleagues is, only time and further research will tell.

(4) At what stage does this approach lead to aptitude testing?

The testing of aptitudes is essentially a predictive or prognostic procedure. The results of aptitude testing theoretically reduce errors of placement of students or employees in courses or jobs. The kind of assessment procedures which start with the translation of curriculum objectives into assessable behaviours are not concerned primarily with prediction, they are concerned with the measurement of specific attainments. The evaluation of a particular course taught in a particular way requires some objective measure of the extent to which its aims have been achieved. Only when curriculum objectives can be described in behavioural terms is there, at the present state of knowledge, any real hope of an effective evaluation. While one may concede that the subjective impressions of teachers can provide much valuable information concerning the degree to which their pupils were motivated by the approach encouraged by a particular curriculum development, the necessary objective information concerning real cognitive or affective gains cannot be obtained in this way. In its broadest sense teaching consists of placing children in learning situations each of which may be more or less effective in producing certain desired behavioural changes. The function of testing in relation to curriculum reform is to provide the necessary evidence on the basis of which different

learning experiences can be compared for effectiveness.

(5) Are we concerned with such testing or with something broader and less definable?

My own hope is that while accepting the shortcomings of the information provided objectively by assessment procedures we do not ignore such information nor underestimate its importance. The broader, less definable gains which result from the kind of learning which goes on in schools may never actually be achieved. It is not necessarily a correct assumption that those changes of behaviour which can be defined and measured are necessarily narrower or in any way more constricting than those which are less definable and not amenable to objective measures.

(6) Is it really desirable that teachers should be continually seen to be in an assessing role?

I suspect that there may be two questions here, first is it desirable that teachers should be continually in an assessing role, and second that they should be seen to be in this role? It seems to me that if teachers are not in an assessing role – that is to say that they are not all the time aware of the quality of their pupils' output – they cannot be as effective as teachers as they would otherwise be. The main purpose of much of the work which is being carried out in improving assessment procedures is to enable teachers to carry out this role more effectively, not for its own sake but in order to improve the product of the interaction between pupil and teacher.

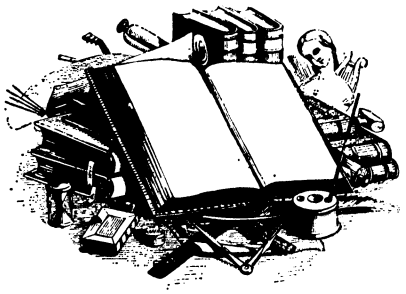
(7) Will not a fairly complex assessment procedure place an undue emphasis on what should be incidental rather than a primary function of the teacher?

Teachers have at least two functions that are relevant to this discussion, the first is that they should motivate and interest their pupils, the second is that they should select and direct their pupils in learning experiences which their previous knowledge and experience suggests would be profitable. In order to select the most effective learning experiences and in order to direct their students in these experiences in an informed way, teachers will presumably be helped by the more precise information available.

(8) Even if it is accepted there is a value in assessing individual attributes in some way, is it not a supremely pointless operation?

I think we need to be clear at this point as to what we mean by an attribute. If we are not exclusively concerned with innate, inherited components of behaviour but are concerned with the interaction between these and selected learning experiences, then I would suggest that the operation is far from pointless. The only way in which we can provide evidence on the basis of which a curriculum as a set of learning experiences can be compared with a different curriculum, is by providing comparative measures of attainment. There is a widespread opinion among many workers interested in assessment that profiles, making clear all the information available about a student, will be more effective instruments of prognosis, diagnosis and as measures of attainment. The point which Mr Chapman then makes concerning the way in which this information is normally described, as a global score, is not a characteristic of all assessment procedures. Mr Chapman goes on to identify the 'good points about these developments'. He describes them as indirect and diagnostic, he says 'it is good that teachers think about what they are trying to do and ... that work on assessment procedures gives teachers much more diagnostic material'. With this we heartily agree. Where I think we differ from Mr Chapman is in thinking that these advantages are indirect. We are not so concerned with a single-score-predictive-measure as he seems to imply. The motivation for many who would attempt to improve assessment procedures is the hope that they can provide both diagnostic data and the data by which different curricula can be compared for effectiveness, so that the interests of pupils may be better served.

Reviews



Comprehensive Education

Teaching in Comprehensive Schools, a second report. Incorporated Association of Assistant Masters, Cambridge University Press, (1967), pp 174, 8s 6d.
London Comprehensive Schools 1966, Inner London Education Authority (1967), pp 144, 6s 6d.
Comprehensive Schools Research (Reports on Education, No 36, May 1967), Department of Education and Science.
The Middle School, a symposium, The Schoolmaster Publishing Co Ltd (1967), pp 52, 4s.

Published material on comprehensive education, based on actual experience in the schools, is at last becoming more abundant. The list above includes publications by teachers' organisations, a local authority, and the DES. Circular 10/65 has certainly marked a new phase.

It is not generally known that in the 1920's it was the Association of Assistant Masters, a grammar school organisation, that first came down heavily, by conference resolution, in favour of the 'multibias' school, in which all children from a given area would be educated under one roof. After the war the AMA changed its standpoint, but in 1960 published a report on 'Teaching in Comprehensive Schools' based on the experiences of members in these schools. This year a second report has been published, a very useful, down to earth document covering most aspects of teaching and organisation in these schools and generally stressing their positive aspects. Indeed the report is extremely favourable and contains a great deal of fascinating material, perhaps particularly in the section on streaming (or non-streaming) and on the new sixth form. The AMA is to be congratulated on this fair and objective appraisal which adds to our knowledge of these schools 'from inside', and is particularly valuable in that it gives the reactions of many ex-grammar school teachers to the new situation.

The ILEA's survey is also a second report. Their first survey was published in 1961 and for years was about the only important source as to the internal organisation of all-through comprehensives. This second survey contains a mass of information, well set out and analysed, which is indispensable for any serious study of developments. Students of 'new trends' will be interested to compare the section on streaming in this survey as compared with the last – the change in tone is considerable.

The Report on Education summarising some of the material collected by the NFER and published by the DES is a little disappointing. Nonetheless this is the first enquiry on a national basis which has attempted to discover some of the elementary facts about comprehensive schools – how large they are, where they are, who teaches in them, and so on. This kind of enquiry represents stage one of the NFER's large research project, a general survey of schools carried out by postal questionnaire. A total of 385 schools were identified as 'comprehensive', containing just under 20,000 teachers; these range in size from 400 to over 2,000, and among them the investigators identified nine types of school systems. There is a certain amount of material on the quality of the pupil intake at different schools, on the content of education, and on the 'teaching force'. This material is seen as providing a starting point for further research, and no doubt, in time, a mass of detailed material will be made available. This long-term research project, however, will not obviate the need for research by teachers themselves into aspects of the functioning of their own schools.

Finally there is space only to draw attention to the NUT's publication on the middle school. It is clear that many more authorities will develop the three-tier system than was originally expected, so that the pamphlet is timely. The articles are reprinted from a series in **The Teacher,** opened by Sir Alec Clegg; they are not based on experience of existing middle schools, because none as yet have been brought into being. For those interested, this pamphlet should be read in conjunction with the DES publication **Middle Schools: Implications of transfer at 12 or 13 years,** Building Bulletin (No 35), where very interesting proposals are made concerning the structure and planning of such schools.

Is this spate of literature on the comprehensive school a harbinger of things to come?

B SIMON.

Sub-Cultures

Social Relations in a Secondary School, by D H Hargreaves. Routledge and Kegan Paul (1967), pp 226, 32s 0d.

Despite its somewhat simplistic statistics and atheoretical sociology, this is one of the most illuminating accounts of social relationships in a secondary school yet. The excellence springs from the author's skill in the techniques of participant research used in a year spent with the staff and boys of 'Lumley' secondary modern school in its socially handicapped area. As a result he has captured in his chapters the explosive conflict of values between staff and boys and the ways in which the conflict is initiated

in the junior forms and develops ever more sharply in the senior forms. As a means of expressing this state of affairs the boys defiantly wear their jeans more frequently or grow their hair to ever greater lengths. For their part the staff react with predictably greater intolerance and themselves cut some of the boys' hair (notably only the lower status ones) whilst the Headmaster refuses to allow boys with long hair to have time off school to visit their future employers. The disappearance of rationality and the ascendancy of triviality is in the best tradition of Dean Swift.

The book is not only illuminating for teachers but also for those who plan the reorganisation of secondary schooling for, as Hargreaves reminds us in his closing chapter, the schools will be unlikely to overcome the hostility and lack of communication between sub-cultures by reorganisation alone. Fundamental attention to the nature of the values in conflict and the internal structure of schools is also required.

S J EGGLESTON.

Race Relations

Immigrants in the Youth Service: Report of a Committee of the Youth Development Service, Department of Education and Science, HMSO, 1967, 8s.

With every major social problem, when all the plausible solutions have been considered, we have said in the end, 'The answer is education'. It is not that the answer is wrong, for education can be a powerful instrument of social change, but that the answer raises another, and an equally difficult, problem: 'Who will educate the educators?' There are signs that the teaching profession is now slowly coming to grips with the intricate problems of education for a multi-racial society. Schools, colleges of education, schools of education are now beginning to hold conferences on race relations, to organise special courses in race relations.

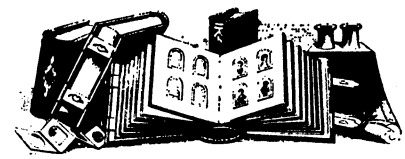
For all those concerned with this issue, this Report must henceforth be compulsory reading. Although it has little directly to do with education in the school, there are two points it establishes convincingly. The first is that race relations is not a subject, but rather a confluence of social tendencies which may, at their inception, be wholly unrelated to race. To be concerned with race relations in the school is thus to be concerned with the whole social context in which racial tensions develop. The second is that if the school is to educate its pupils for tolerance, mutual acceptance, for equality, it must itself understand and cope with the problems and pressures from the surrounding society that spill over into the school.

Race relations, as this Report describes it, shows how delusive is the hope that the school can be an autonomous institution, how inescapably it is a focal point for the community in and for which it exists. 'Our evidence left us in no doubt about the vital nature of the school's contribution to helping young immigrants and their families to settle in this country, understand new ways of life, meet new conditions, requirements and responsibilities and thus become full citizens ... Apart from teaching English to the young immigrants, the school seeks to teach white and immigrant children about each other's ways of life and, through social education, encourages them to live amicably together ... The notion of the school as educator, information and advice centre, helping agency and community link, which is already gaining acceptance, is one which we would wish to see developed, particularly in the immigrant areas.' (Para 252-3).

Chapters two and three of this Report are worth singling out as an exceptionally good account of the sorts of demands that a multi-racial community can make on teachers. I know of nothing that dissects, with the same patience, sensitivity and succinctness, the complex tangle of attitudes generated by inter-group tensions. They relate the social and cultural characteristics of migrant groups to the pressures likely to develop on the 'second generation' children who stand at the frontier between two cultures. What is outstanding about these chapters is their conspicuous success in avoiding that suspect excitement with which such things are usually described, as though we had lately discovered an exotic flora and fauna in our midst.

Perhaps the most important conclusion of this Report, more important than any of its specific recommendations, is its call for a change of attitudes: 'If there is one single recommendation, applying at all levels, which emerges from our report, it is this: there is a need for a new attitude in our society towards immigrants, a conscious desire to create the new society ... Racial integration is a moral issue, and it affects the newcomer as well as the native resident. We have to learn to live together, to understand one another's outlook and background, to recognise beneath the differences of class, customs and colour the common element of human dignity.' These things have been said before, and they will need to be said again often. But their practical implications have seldom been spelt out with comparable clarity and sensitivity.

DIPAK NANDY.



Programmed Learning

Aspects of Educational Technology. The Proceedings of the Loughborough Programmed Learning Conference, April 1966. Edited by Derick Unwin and John Leedham, 545 pages, 5 gns.

This attractively produced volume contains the forty-three papers presented at the first national conference of the Association for Programmed Learning. They are arranged in sections, the longest dealing with programmed learning in schools; other sections include those on programmed learning in industry, in the services, in higher education and overseas, on mathematics and computer assisted instruction, and on the wider aspects of educational technology. The emphasis is mainly on work in progress in this country although there are papers from Germany, Russia and America. Each paper is preceded by a useful abstract, and the book contains both name and subject indexes.

The editors have contributed an excellent introductory survey, in which they have summarised each section. They point out the lack of rigour in many of the studies and the fact that 'probably only a minority would qualify for inclusion in a major educational or psychological journal'. One is forced to agree with this judgment, but also to suggest that some of the most interesting, and valuable, studies are those that would be excluded. To substantiate this remark we need to look at the major trends in programmed learning as indicated in this book.

There has been a welcome move away from the early work on such questions as linear versus branching, texts versus machines, and programming versus chalk and talk. The trend now is towards a realistic attempt to integrate programmed instruction with conventional instruction, both in the schools and in the services. Anyone with any experience of educational research will know the immense difficulty of controlling variables – of even *defining* variables – as soon as the teacher is introduced, and consequently the inevitable lack of rigour. But the days when programmed learning was greeted with cries of 'Goodbye, Mr Chips' are long past, and few would disagree with the statement that its future in the classroom is dependent on its integration with the teacher. We therefore welcome any evidence – suspect though some of it may be – from those who are working in this field.

One comment frequently occurs: the classroom atmosphere and the attitude of the teacher are vitally important factors in the successful use of programmed instruction. Nor is this confined to classes of young children, since we find the same sort of comment in the papers presented by the RAF School of Education and by HMS Collingwood.

The great value of this work is the overall picture it gives of the state of programmed learning in this country at the time of the conference. It does not set out to explain the techniques to the uninitiated, but to those with the basic knowledge it is an indispensible guide.

P R BUCKLAND.

Infants and Others

The Pre-School Years by W van der Eyken. Penguin (1967), 144 pp, 3s 6d.
11,000 Seven-Year-Olds, by M L K Pringle, N R Butler, R Davie. Longmans (1966). 246 pp, 21s.
Four Years On, by S Gooch & M L K Pringle. Longmans (1966). 167 pp, 17s 6d.

'The central theme of this book (**The Pre-School Years**) is that if we are really serious about educating our youth ... then our efforts should be concentrated on a group of some four millions who at present are not included in the system at all', the pre-school children. In two historical chapters which are highly significant in view of the Plowden Committee's recommendations in chapters nine and ten of the Report, Willem van der Eyken shows how these children have been persistently neglected despite reiterated pleas for nursery schools in official reports in 1905, 1907, the 1918 Act, 1929 and 1933. Discussion of various kinds of deprivation and their effects and of present knowledge of maturation is well documented from recent research studies. There are lively descriptions of the Malting House Garden School, the Eveline Lowe School in Camberwell and two London nursery schools today, one in an affluent district and the other 'in the heart of the hotel trade and flanking some of the seamier East End areas'.

At a time when it is beginning to be recognised 'that a rich environment has a marked and measurable effect on the intellectual growth of children, and that this environment is likely to be particularly crucial in the early stages of a child's life,' this writer suggests that our contemporary society is creating an environment for all social classes that is largely inimical to the pre-school child's intellectual development. He is therefore concerned that the nursery school abjure its traditional social rescue rôle and establish, instead, its claim to provide the intellectual stimuli that alone can 'do justice to the demands of the under fives'.

The interim Report of the National Child Development Study, **11,000 Seven-Year-Olds,** may well supply further ammunition for such a campaign. But it must be emphasised that this is an incomplete and tentative report on the very first stages of an ambitious longitudinal

study of children born in Great Britain between 3 and 9 March, 1958. Much medical and sociological data was collected then, but the study was not taken up again till October 1964; hence data on the intervening years had to be obtained retrospectively, some of it rather crudely. The compilers are careful to point all this out and to stress the tentative nature of many of the conclusions; they also indicate what further analyses they intend to make of data already obtained but not fully presented in this report, and the direction of future lines of inquiry. Undoubtedly, their future reports are likely to be of great interest.

The present tentative findings can be summarised in three comparative sets – those relating to sex, social class and age of starting school. It appears that girls tend to be superior to boys in reading, 'oral ability', 'creativity' and adjustment to school, and boys to girls in arithmetical ability and 'awareness' of the world around', although in arithmetic there is 'no marked difference between the sexes in the proportions below average'. Parents have shown more interest in girls' educational progress than in boys', though teachers have sought more discussions about boys than girls.

The relationship between higher social class and attainment was not so clear for arithmetical ability as for reading. Although the compilers stress that the 'relationship is not necessarily a causal one', they found 'that children of the same age who commence full-time infant schooling before the age of five are, as they approach the transfer to junior schools or classes some two years later, more advanced educationally and better adjusted in school than those who commenced school after the age of five, irrespective of the socio-economic status of their families'.

One finding of considerable import to the primary school is 'that given the present age of transfer, junior schools and departments have to be prepared and equipped to continue the specific teaching of reading skills to a substantial proportion of their first year children'. This was true for 47%.

In comparison, the so-called follow-up study, **Four Years On,** is unsatisfactory and indeterminate. It was only possible to follow at fifteen years eighty-one of the 250 children on whom the previous longitudinal study from seven to eleven years had been made. This earlier study had tried to compare the effects of a 'traditional' and 'progressive' junior schooling on children in, respectively, a semi-detached owner-occupier area on the edge of a large industrial town and a new council estate in a small country town. Only the secondary modern pupils were studied at fifteen, the former group being in single-sex and the latter in co-educational secondary schools. The size of the sample and the number of variables were such that no very worthwhile or reliable conclusions could be drawn, and those attempted are tendentious. This study has some interest if viewed simply as a portrayal of variations and patterns in adolescent development.

NANETTE WHITBREAD.

More Literature

Scottish Educational Studies, Vol 1. No 1 (June 1967), University of Glasgow.

New Research in Education, Vol 1 (June 1967), National Foundation of Educational Research, 15s.

Two new journals, which may interest **Forum** readers, have launched their first numbers this summer. **Scottish Educational Studies** is published by the Department of Education, Glasgow University, in association with the universities of Aberdeen, Edinburgh, St. Andrews and Dundee. It is, therefore an all-Scottish affair, but this should not imply that the material published is not of interest to educationists south of the border.

This first number covers a wide field and several of the articles are on matters of general concern. These include a study of the evolution of Labour Party policy on comprehensive education entitled 'The Road to the Circulars', a very useful critique of current thinking on 'Language, Intelligence and Social Class', by D F McDade, and another on 'The Nurture of Intelligence' by James Drever. Others are more specifically related to Scottish affairs – on social class and opportunities in Scottish higher education, changing patterns of school inspection in Scotland, the new Stirling University's plans for the preparation of teachers, and on the study of education in Scotland by Professor Stanley Nisbet. About fifteen pages are devoted to summaries of research in progress.

This is apparently the first educational journal produced by a Scottish university. Its editor, W Kenneth Richmond, will be well known to English readers, particularly those who have been concerned with the movement to comprehensive education.

New Research in Education is intended to supplement the NFER's existing journal **Educational Research.** It is intended mainly as a vehicle for interim reports derived from the Foundation's own programme, but will carry similar reports from others as well as shorter reports and abstracts. This first number contains two 'interim' reports on streaming in junior schools and several other articles. The intention appears to be to issue one volume a year to begin with, perhaps more later. The Scottish journal, unfortunately does not give details of expected frequency nor of price.

Measure for Measure

ed. James Winny

This controversial and puzzling play is rewarding to study, but requires careful presentation at sixth form level. This edition has a sound text, based on folio sources, as well as glossarial notes at the foot of each page, further notes on points of detail at the back of the volume, and finally a selection of critical writings on the play. The book opens with a perceptive introduction by the editor, who is lecturer in English at the University of Leicester.

To be reissued in October, 1967 Library edition 15s Laminated paperback 6s 6d non net

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Sydney Bolt

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To be published in January 1968

Weekend in Dinlock Clancy Sigal Introduced by Sid Chaplin *About 9s 6d non net*

Already published

The Plague Albert Camus Introduced by John Cruickshank *9s 6d non net*
The Fire Next Time James Baldwin Introduced by John Wain *8s 6d non net*

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