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Who is for Crowther?

L. F. W. WHITE
Secretary, National Association of Divisional Executives for Education

Many readers will remember that a Council for Educational Advance was set up in the early 1940s to conduct a public campaign for the measures subsequently embodied in the 1944 Education Act. There is no doubt that the progressive character of this Act was partly the direct result of the work of this Council.

At the conference of the National Association of Divisional Executives for Education in September last, Dr. White made a plea for the formation of a similar Council to carry out a campaign for the implementation of the main principles of the Crowther Report.

'FORUM' is glad to print an article by Dr. White elaborating this proposal. We believe that such an organisation could play an important part in determining educational developments in the 1960s. We ask our readers to press for the formation of such an organisation by every means in their power.

'It's a shocker ! A startler ! And it will shake every parent in England.' ('Daily Sketch'). 'It faces the Prime Minister with a challenge no Cabinet dare refuse.' 'Is your Government prepared to start now on a twenty year plan to revolutionise British Education?' ('Daily Mirror'). 'This morning we are plainly told how our poverty-stricken education must be revolutionised.' ('Daily Herald'). 'It is not a question of whether we can afford to do it, but of whether we can afford not to.' ('Observer'). 'Obviously,' wrote the 'Observer', 'all newsmen nowadays assume all of us, the general public, are vitally interested in our children's education.' Yet here is an extract from a letter written at the time to the 'News Chronicle' : 'The teacher's job is difficult enough at the moment, especially in the cities and large towns, he has to educate surly toughs and brazen hussies of 15. And now the planners want him to cope with the tougher and more brazen breed of 16.'

A forgotten text book ?

Nearly a year later, only vaguely remembered by the general public, the Crowther Report is in danger of becoming a text book for academic discussions or professional controversy. Its bold strategy has been forgotten in brilliant but purposeless debate on its minor issues. The Ministry has been effusive in praise of its analysis but hesitant in approval of its recommendations. Who can chide the Ministry when there has been no clear lead from educationists generally? And who can expect popular enthusiasm when there is professional indifference ? The public will ignore what we advocate with hesitation.

Undoubtedly there is a greater personal interest in education than ever before but it would be a mistake to think of it as a popular acceptance of its unquestioned right to further expansion. Historically, popular approval to the development of compulsory education has come reluctantly and grudgingly, driven by the philanthropic idealism of a small minority, the economic necessity arising out of modern techniques of production, the family urge to provide a higher standard of living for the offspring so that they can enjoy better social prestige and the fear of the political consequences of a democracy founded upon a mass of untutored voters. If there is to be further educational advance the vague, general interest in the service must be channelled into a popular agitation. Educational progress will be achieved only by definite objectives, clearly stated, simply formulated and enthusiastically advocated. It will be a tragedy of this decade if we flounder through Crowther. The opening sentences of the Report assert, 'This Report is about the education of English boys and girls aged from 15 to 18. Most of them are not being educated.' And the major issue is 'Does it matter ?' It is our task to convince people that it matters enormously. What education needs at present is a sense of urgency of purpose, of missionary zeal in advocacy.

The age must be raised

The case for raising the school leaving age to 16 during this decade is overwhelming. The existing secondary modern school is a revolt against educational capitulation at 15. The sooner we realise that without a minimum age of 16 the experiments of

recent years are doomed to failure, the better. It may be suggested that there is an economic argument for asserting that it is preferable to educate a few graduates, leaving those who want to leave at 15 to do so, but in the long run economic prosperity demands a higher level of education all round. Indeed it can be claimed that the case for the average and less than average pupil to remain at school is stronger than for the intelligent pupil to do so. The latter is in any case more equipped to face the world than the former. From the economic aspect industry cannot permanently be organised on the basis of a highly (although narrowly) educated minority with an ill-equipped mass of poorly trained workers. Recent experience has shown that the extent and rate of day release is not sufficient as a base upon which to build a part-time system that will be adequate to meet the demands for a higher content of education during the 15-16 age. Again, if the assertion that young people are maturing earlier is valid, the case for a prolongation of a controlled social environment becomes all the stronger. Finally, if everyone is to have a vote in determining the political and economic future, indeed the actual preservation of society, a basic content of knowledge and ideas such as can be obtained by the age of 15 under the existing conditions of secondary modern education is wholly and lamentably inadequate. It is not safe either for society or for the individual that the vast majority of young people should be sent into full time employment at the age of fifteen.

All the social, economic and political factors demand action. The future pattern of further education is dependent upon recognition of the urgency of reaching a final decision on the main principles of Crowther.

What is required is a united front by the education profession. It is therefore suggested that a Council of Action be established representing the professional teachers and administrators, the education committees and, indeed, all those who have the welfare of the service at heart. The Council for Educational Advance should, when established, be charged with the purpose of stimulating public opinion. By meetings, publications, advertisements, radio and television presentations, it should create a body of support for the realisation of the main objectives of Crowther. Every part of the service, from Primary Schools to Colleges of Advanced Technology, would gain from the stimulus of a well co-ordinated and conducted campaign, directed towards implementing the main purposes of the Crowther Report during this decade.

A Challenge to the Minister

J. L. DIXON

John Dixon teaches English at Walworth school, a London comprehensive. With Dr. S. Galin he wrote Wanted, 100,000 Teachers, *a pamphlet published in 1958 by the National Association of Labour Teachers.*

The Minister of Education last year accepted the chief recommendation of the Crowther Report—the urgent need to raise the school-leaving age to 16. Unfortunately he accepted it in principle. In our dog-eared use of the term, in this nether-Wonderland, an acceptance in principle turns out to imply a complete rejection in substance. The time-table set out in detail by Crowther was rejected. The very idea of laying down a time-table now, by which future governments could be measured, was rejected. And more recently the Minister has even questioned the priority that was to be given to raising the school-leaving age.

Ironically, the main reason offered for refusing to extend compulsory schooling to 16 by 1968 was the need to bring down the size of classes. I say ironically because the Minister has since announced that this reform of over-riding importance should be completed by 1970—all classes should then be within the maximum he permits.

'We cannot go faster,' says the Minister. His position is difficult to challenge, first because he has not revealed his grounds, and second because the speed of progress is partly determined by complex administrative procedures within the Ministry and its advisory committees. (After all, three years were spent in producing the Crowther Report and a further six months elapsed before the Government reached a decision.) However, Crowther himself was convinced that a mandatory time-table could force the Ministry into a new, major effort to produce the teachers needed to eliminate oversize classes as well as to staff the new fifth forms. Allowing for the latest predictions of the school population in 1963-70, is there still a chance that Sir Geoffrey was right—that both reforms could be completed by 1970?

The Minister's actions

Let us examine first what the Minister is doing. So far he has agreed to increase the number of students entering general training from about 13,000 to 16,000. The necessary places will be ready in 1964. (Meanwhile, by overcrowding, the general colleges are taking about 14,000 students annually.) Two questions need answering: is 16,000 a necessary upper limit? Is 1964 the earliest date possible for a 16,000 entry?

A limit to the number of students in training is set partly by the demand for training from suitably qualified people, partly by long-term programmes of training college provision. Let us take demand for places first. In 1959 the 18 year old age-group in England and Wales numbered less than 550,000. During the three years 1964-7 it will average over 750,000, and it will not fall significantly below 650,000 thereafter. Thus the main pool from which students are drawn will be rising rapidly during this decade. The standards that will be achieved cannot be predicted with the same certainty; nevertheless one can point to significant trends. The recent trend has certainly been towards a higher academic standard among training college applicants. This is not surprising. For example, the total number of passes gained at 'A' level (or H.S.C.) has increased as follows:

TABLE A

	Total Number 'A' Level Passes (or H.S.C.)
1938	30,000
1948	60,000
1958	120,000

By 1968 a figure of 200,000 passes seems likely—perhaps more, when the increase in the age-group reaching 18 is taken into account. It is with trends such as this in mind that the proposal has been made roughly to double the number of university places 1958-75. By 1970 the expanding universities should be drawing at least a further 10,000 students annually from the sixth forms; in some departments at least the government seems confident that the number of academically qualified 18 year olds is bound to rise. Against this background is it likely that an increase of 3,000 in the annual intake to training colleges will drain the pool of well-qualified aspirants? Surely the suggestion is that well over 16,000 entrants will be available annually.

Of course, if education is deliberately turned into

The Living Tradition

FRANCES STEVENS, *Lecturer at the University of Leeds Institute of Education*

The grammar school has a long tradition, but has it a future? Educationalists and politicians argue up and down, comprehensively and tripartitely. It is time for the quiet voice of the schools themselves to be heard.

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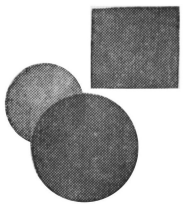
The Fabric of the Heavens

STEPHEN TOULMIN & JUNE GOODFIELD, *of the Nuffield Foundation Unit for the History of Ideas*



The Nuffield Foundation Unit for the History of Ideas, which Dr. Stephen Toulmin is directing, began its work on 1st July, 1960. The aim of the Unit is to produce films and books on the history of ideas, to encourage an appreciation and understanding of the development of scientific ideas and their place in our life and culture.

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the Cinderella of the professions, any hopeful predictions could be falsified. A feeling that no progress is being made, that reforms are merely shelved, or that the whole system is just a rat-race to see the best 5% through to the top, will not encourage anyone to enter teaching. The best recruiting campaign must start from a vision of exciting new developments in all sectors of education.

Getting the teachers

We return then, inevitably to the question: can the Crowther target be achieved by 1970, given a determined programme of teacher training? I believe that it can. The methods suggested in the remainder of this article offer one of many solutions, and make no claim to be the best available.

The gap to be bridged by 1970 amounts at the most to 18,000 teachers over and above the present Ministry plans (v. Crowther p. 150). There are still ten years in which to recruit and train them. The next three years will prove the most critical and testing. In 1959 about 1,000 students of good quality failed to find places in our overcrowded training colleges; this is the testimony of Sir Ronald Gould. In September 1960 about 2,400 'possibles' were turned away; in the guarded language of the Ministry, 'most of these had only minimum academic qualifications and by no means all had the necessary personal qualities'. It seems a fair implication that over half had the necessary qualities! Some of these potential teachers have undoubtedly been lost to the profession. How many more will the colleges be forced to turn away in 1961 and 1962? For two factors are now combining to exacerbate the situation. First, as Table B illustrates, the number of qualified applicants is likely to increase.

TABLE B

	Age Groups (E & W)		Total 'A' Level
	18	19	Passes
1956	576,000	568,000	105,466
1957	570,000	576,000	112,850
1958	547,000	570,000	120,396
1959	535,000	547,000	126,694
1960	603,000	535,000	———
1961	633,000	603,000	———
1962	693,000	633,000	———

The number of 'A' level passes has continued to rise despite a fall in the main age-groups that enter; in 1961 and 1962 there will be a sharp rise in these age-groups. The second factor is due to Ministry intervention. The colleges have been asked to swing over their programme to the point where 85% of their entry are training for primary schools (and at the same time to reduce the proportion of male students).

The inevitable outcome seems to be a mad scramble for places, especially by men wishing to train for secondary schools. The universities will have no room to spare; they are likely to be more selective than ever next year. The training colleges can take no more boarders, that is certain. And yet the irony is that their secondary courses, as these run down, will contain some half-empty classes at the very time when potential students are being turned away.

Only emergency measures, initiated by the Ministry, can deal with this situation. Boarding out, emergency hutments, requisitioned accommodation — these are three ways by which space could be provided. The overcrowded colleges have done their best—and got a raw deal in return; now it is the Minister's turn. In the three years 1961-3 he might well recruit a further 6,000 - 9,000 teachers, given the will.

Then, in 1964, the age-group reaching 18 makes its most dramatic rise, as Table C shows:

TABLE C

18 year olds (E & W)	
1963	628,000
1964	767,000
1965	829,000
1966	733,000
1967	693,000
1968	663,000

Can extra places be found for the potential teachers in these, the peak age-groups of the Bulge? At present 3,000 extra places are planned for 1964, 2,500 each for 1965 and 1966; these will remain permanent training college places. But if by 1967 a regular 16,000 trainees are expected annually, why not make extra provision in the three previous years?

The new universities

Special provision over a short period would raise complicated problems, but I am not convinced that these problems are insoluble. For example, the necessary buildings could be planned on the campuses of the new universities that are due to develop in the later sixties. This would have a number of advantages. It would give the students easy access to university facilities (including lectures)

and encourage them to share in the university activities, the clubs and conversation that make learning exciting. Moreover the future of such buildings could be decided on either a short-term or a long-term view. In the short term it would be cheap and convenient to move in university students as the student teacher entry was cut. But in the long term it might seem wiser to build up these colleges as the need to develop a graduate profession is recognised in the seventies. More isolated, older, and less well-equipped colleges could then be converted for use in Further Education, etc.

Supposing a solution along these lines were tried, how many extra students could be expected from the three peak years of the Bulge? If 16,000 teachers can be produced from a year group of 660,000, then roughly 3,000 more may well be produced from a year group of 770,000. So by 1969 an extra 8,000 - 9,000 teachers from this source could be added to the planned total. Thus, by immediate emergency action and a planned burst in the mid-sixties, an extra 14,000 - 18,000 teachers could be trained. At the worst a gap of 4,000 would remain to be filled if the school-leaving age was to be raised in 1970.

Filling the gap

4,000 teachers is not far short of the present annual increase and it would face the Ministry with a difficult task to recruit even that many more. However, in 1962 a very similar position will occur: the Minister has already announced that we shall face a shortage of 9,000 primary school teachers owing to the Year of Intermission caused by starting three-year training for teachers. In an attempt to bridge this gap the Minister has succumbed to those local authorities who wish to start day training colleges and is encouraging others to do so. He has followed his predecessor, who finally accepted the offer, voluntarily made by the training colleges, to increase the entry numbers and to put up with the overcrowding that results. He has agreed to support the talks, which the Head Masters and Head Mistresses associations are starting, for undergraduates who are thinking of teaching as a career and he will initiate further action—he has promised a press and TV campaign, reaching a climax in February 1961, to draw back more married women into service, to appeal to teachers nearing retirement to stay for a further year, and to recruit more part-timers. In this way he hopes that some of the 9,000 teachers will be found. But why not tackle the problem of raising the school-leaving age with the same urgency? If in two years he is setting himself to provide 9,000 extra teachers, is it impossible to recruit not nine but twenty thousand extra over the next ten years?

The Beloe Report and After

The Beloe committee was appointed in July 1958 to consider the whole position as regards examinations for secondary school pupils other than G.C.E. It was, therefore, specifically concerned with the question of examinations in secondary modern schools. It reported in September 1960.

The Committee believe that, under certain conditions, an external examination is desirable for many modern school pupils. They hold that this need cannot be met by a wider use of G.C.E. 'O' level examinations or by the introduction of a new level of the G.C.E. below 'O' level. Their main points are : (1) that the new examination should be taken at the end of a five year secondary course (at about 16), (2) that it should be designed so that, assuming the first 20% of the 16 year old age-group take G.C.E., the next 20% could pass in 4 or more subjects and the 20% below them attempt individual subjects, (3) that candidates should be able to enter and pass in individual subjects, (4) that the examination should be controlled largely by teachers through about 20 Regional Examining Bodies and (5) that these bodies should work under the general guidance of a central body that would be attached to the Secondary School Examinations Council.

These proposals have aroused a good deal of controversy and a cold welcome from the Minister. They may, however, closely affect the future of education in secondary modern schools. The Editorial Board has, therefore, invited contributions to a forum on this subject from four people who are intimately connected with this question : a secondary modern school headmaster, a comprehensive school headmaster, a borough education officer whose authority operates a local examination scheme, and the secretary of the College of Preceptors whose organisation took the lead some years ago in promoting examinations for the secondary modern school.

Beloe, But When?

(1) A. D. HEELEY

Headmaster, Wheatley Hills Secondary School for Boys, Doncaster

With the 1944 Education Act the concept of secondary education for all became fact and as a result many problems were posed, the answers to which could only be found by experience. Fifteen years have now passed during which experiment has been made, experience gained. As a result a large body of opinion amongst educationists now seeks to put more purpose into the secondary modern school. That this is an urgent problem can be judged by the number of reports which have recently been published, all connected with secondary stages in education. The Beloe Report was one of these and it was an attempt to look into examinations other than G.C.E.

The Report has been more than useful, but at times the accuracy of the statistics given must be in doubt. The Committee feel that 'up to 20% of the total sixteen year old age-group may be expected to attempt G.C.E. 'O' level in four or more subjects'. From experience the writer suggests that 20% is a low figure and that 30% would be nearer the mark, especially bearing in mind the parental support, the excellent teaching and willingness to work associated with this extra 10%, who are usually the best boys, academically, in the modern school. Another point of interest is that many selective schools now enter their most gifted pupils for the G.C.E. 'O' level at the end of four years of secondary education (at 15 years of age). This is done with the Minister's approval on educational grounds. Can it not therefore be argued that whilst the bulk of the pupils of an age-group will take the G.C.E. 'O' level at 16 and some very bright ones will do so at 15 so there must be a good number of pupils who could reasonably take it at 17 after six years in a secondary school?

The Committee indicate that for about 40% of any age-group an examination would be undesirable. It would be difficult to question the wisdom of this statement.

It means therefore that the new examination envisaged by the Beloe Committee will, in the writer's opinion, be aimed at the remaining 30% of any age-group. The proposed examination might then be taken in four or more subjects by half of these pupils and in individual subjects by the rest, the standards being fixed accordingly. That the examination should be a subject one and that there should be more than one level of attainment are welcome features. The Committee recommend that the examination should be on a regional basis and they are aware that some comparability of standards between the regional boards is necessary. Do their recommendations ensure this? Would it not be better to appoint a new sub-committee of the Secondary School Examinations Council whose specific job is to bring about correlation of results between the regions?

But what about Jack?

English is a living language. New words and phrases are always being added to it, making it a vivid contemporary vehicle of expression. Occasionally a new phrase may debase our native tongue; others become acceptable idioms—and how difficult they are to translate or to explain to foreigners !

"I'm all right Jack" has received a new life and usage in recent months—but what about Jack?

There are many Jacks (and Jills) in our classes today, and teaching them English is one of the major tasks which all teachers in the Primary School have to face. However easy you make it for the children, they must be given a solid foundation on which to build : reading, writing, spelling, punctuation, and the elements of grammar.

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For Jack's friend, in the 'A' stream presumably, there is a companion Blue series, which gives more material and more grammar—yes grammar. Do you ever talk to Secondary School teachers, and hear them say—"If only the children came up from the Primary School with at least a little grammar, how much easier it would be to start teaching them French, Latin, and other languages—including their own !")

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That the Beloe Committee have produced a good report is without doubt. Most secondary modern teachers will welcome it as a sign that the days of wandering are over, that sufficient universal experiment has been done and that we should now define our aims more clearly and more specifically.

It is important that the Minister should approve the Report and allow pilot schemes to be started immediately, otherwise more uncontrolled schemes than at present exist will come into being. This is a sign of the times. It cannot be ignored. The need is immediate.

Examinations in the Comprehensive School

(2) M. HOLMES

Headmaster, Elliott School, London

Since the comprehensive school covers so wide a range of ability and is often the only school affording secondary education to pupils of a given area, it is all the more important in the early stages of its life to think clearly about examinations. I should like, in welcoming the Beloe Report, overdue as it is, to suggest certain principles.

(1) There is very little evidence that children suffer in mental or physical health from the pressure of examinations unless excess weight is placed on them by outside bodies.

(2) Examinations should be a tool in the hands of the teacher, serving clearly defined purposes, but should never be allowed to become his master.

(3) An external examination can prove a valuable incentive to children of a wide range of ability if the syllabus is carefully controlled by the teaching profession.

An examination at 16

Applying these principles to the comprehensive school, the first point to note is that pupils are usually taught a wide range of subjects for the first three years while courses involving a narrowing of range or a certain bias begin in the fourth year. A full two years work would normally be required at this stage so that the external examination should be taken at 16. This is in line with the Beloe Report and I would consider it most unwise to consider an external examination for pupils of 15.

Pupils aged 14 in the comprehensive school can be divided into three categories : (1) those leaving at 15, (2) those aiming at the G.C.E., (3) those taking other two-year, or longer courses, leading to the proposed, or another, external examination.

The first group should, I suggest, be encouraged to complete the school year and aim at an internal school leaving certificate. It is essential that this should remain an internal examination under the full control of the teachers involved in teaching this group. Success in the school's leaving certificate should represent a real standard of achievement in, say, four subjects at the minimum, though these might well include purely practical subjects.

Little needs to be said here about the second, or G.C.E. group, since syllabuses are already laid down, perhaps too inflexibly. It would probably be wise, in the comprehensive school, to restrain the widely felt desire to aim at G.C.E., when the pupil concerned has little hope of gaining more than one or two passes. Ambitious pupils might proceed from one of the special courses to take G.C.E. at the age of 17 or 18.

The third group

It is in the provision of courses for the third group that the comprehensive school has most to offer. Some of these may well be general, others with a definite bias. In each case the ideal arrangement should be a careful balance of examination and non-examination subjects, and, within the examination subjects, a balance of practical and written papers. The examination which best suits present needs is that of the Union of Educational Institutions, but no doubt the new examination proposed would be even better. What must at all costs be avoided is a watered down G.C.E. or an 'O' level of a lower standard. The examination must make full provision for independent syllabuses, for practical work in subjects like science, history, geography, even mathematics—above all, the approach must be other than a literary one.

For the special courses a new examination is a vital need. At present the schools find themselves in a veritable jungle of examinations and the time has come to make a fresh start. Schools would gain immeasurably from having an examination of known standard to aim at, and the pupils would certainly be encouraged to remain at school for the full five years in order to attempt it. The result should be that a high proportion leave school with some hall-mark of success, with some evidence of capacity to work independently, as well as with the qualities of character which the school has tried to develop and which the satisfaction of achievement has greatly assisted.

The Beloe Report and Local Examinations

(3) G. W. CUTTS

Borough Education Officer, Widnes

This report has some complimentary things to say about local examination schemes, but having said them, goes on to express the opinion that they are no longer appropriate to the situation or will soon cease to be so. As one who has been operating a local certificate scheme since 1956, and who has compiled and published information about similar schemes in many parts of the country, this was news to me.

Local schemes are spoken of in the Report in the context of 'external' examinations, whereas the Widnes scheme, and most of those known to me, consist of *internal* examinations which are *externally* assessed. The content of the examination papers is determined by teachers from the schools taking part in the scheme and is framed to fit the work of each school, and not vice versa. Thus the Beloe Committee's statement in paragraph 98 of the Report that 'at the end of the fourth year nothing other than a purely internal examination is desirable', should apply to the Widnes type of local certificate scheme. The Report makes much of the fact that most local examinations are designed to be taken at the end of the fourth year and regards this as a mark against them. It overlooks the fact that, for this very reason, the local certificate has already helped to raise the school leaving age for many children by encouraging those who could leave during the year to stay for the whole year. In Widnes at all events it has done more, in that a number of children each year decide, because of their success in the local certificate, to undertake a fifth year's work—and what is perhaps more pertinent, their parents are persuaded thereby to allow them to do so. Nevertheless, in spite of the undoubted trend towards a fifth year, more than half the children in even the most fortunate schools will, until Crowther is implemented, leave after four years, and there is nothing in the Report to persuade me that these children should be denied the opportunity of at least a local qualification.

Local currency

The fact that the local certificate is 'unlikely to have more than local currency' seems to strike the Committee as a serious obstacle. In fact the majority, if not all, of the children who leave school

after obtaining their certificate are seeking local employment, and a certificate with well established 'local currency' is of considerable value to them. For example, after the Widnes certificate had been in existence for three years I discovered that eleven major local employers were giving it serious attention when recruiting young people.

There is one strange comment in paragraph 99 of the Report, in which local examinations are dismissed, which I find difficult to understand. The committee objects to examinations being 'provided' by a single Local Education Authority for schools within its area and suggests that the Authority might thus exercise 'excessive influence' over the curriculum and teaching of the schools. In all the local schemes known to me the local authority (including for this purpose the Divisional Executive) does no more than sponsor and finance the certificate. The examination in Widnes, for example, is managed by a committee of head teachers with the college principal, and the subject examinations are in the hands of teachers' panels. I act as secretary/convenor of all meetings and my office services the scheme. It is difficult to see where in this arrangement the Authority, either through its committee or its officers, can interfere with the work of the schools.

Local relationships

The Report fails to acknowledge two considerable benefits which can accrue from a local certificate scheme. First, the effect upon teachers of being engaged in a co-operative educational enterprise. Our panel meetings often continue long after the immediate business of the panel has been concluded and turn into miniature educational conferences in which the whole aim and purpose of teaching in a particular subject is re-examined. Second, the close link which has been established between secondary schools and their local technical college, through the partnership between heads and principal on the Examination Committee, and between school and technical college teachers on the panels. Through this work teachers in both types of institution have obtained knowledge and understanding of each other's work and aims. It is difficult to see how such close relationships could be established in any regional scheme.

Far from having in the words of the Beloe Report 'ceased to be appropriate to the needs of the situation', the Widnes scheme is constantly finding new growing points. In every year since it was introduced standards have been raised in all subjects. In every year additional subjects have been added to the examination list. New experiments have been carried

out in techniques of assessing and examining—for example in art, in practical tests, and more recently in spoken English. The development of fifth-year courses in all the contributory schools led last year to the introduction of fifth year endorsements for those pupils who continued for a further year after obtaining their Widnes certificate. The scheme began in 1956 with three participating schools. In 1960 there were five, in 1961 there will be seven, and in 1962 there will be eight. This is not the picture of a languishing and sickly child ready to be swallowed up in the capacious maw of the Beloe Regional Examining Boards.

A Commentary on the Beloe Report

(4) J. VINCENT CHAPMAN

Secretary, College of Preceptors

There is so much in the report on 'Secondary School Examinations other than the G.C.E.' with which the policy of the College of Preceptors is in agreement that it is a pity that the sub-committee could not have accepted all the evidence supplied by the College. The College Council has had only a preliminary discussion and referred it to regional and central advisory boards before reaching its final conclusions. There is, however, no reason to suppose that so long as the leaving age is 15 years the College will reject the very strong evidence of the need, at least for a time, for an examination at that age as well as at 16. Nor will the College Council find it easy to accept that its activities should be confined to more or less one county. This may seem after consideration to be formulating an examination plan so rigid as to be manifestly discriminatory against secondary modern as compared with the freedom of secondary grammar schools. It may be that on further consideration the cost of running twenty examining boards compared with that for ten will prove prohibitive.

But to write about this report a few weeks after its first impact on the educational world is to write about it in perspective. It is significant that the daily press hardly knew what to make of it, the educational papers not linked with a particular interest were critical, and the teaching profession took it so calmly as almost to have ignored it. We seem in the profession's reactions to this report to have an indication that a new, unorganised but quite firm body of opinion is emerging. The headmasters and headmistresses of the secondary modern schools, in the face of an evident reluctance on the part of the Minister to make a decision about examinations, have quietly decided policy for him. It rather looks as though so far as they are concerned the matter is settled. Examinations at the level they think appropriate are in. This may be the beginning of a movement which will decisively shape secondary education during the next decade.

More than this, the Beloe Report has brought very sharply into focus the negative approach of the last ten years to the kind of education the secondary modern schools should be offering. The problem of the secondary modern school is the problem of the less able child. This was approved a quarter of a century ago, when the senior school was emerging as the forerunner of the present day secondary education for all. And since that time there have been many small and often individual attempts to solve that problem : there has not been a drive on such a national scale as to catch the imagination. Mr. Segal and his Guild of Teachers of Backward Children are struggling on. Either they are doing a good job and should have massive backing (including money) or they are not, and a body should be set up to do the job.

A nationally organised effort of sufficient size and importance would not only take positive steps to solve the problem of the lower levels of the secondary modern school. Its force would be felt all the way up the school and make unnecessary all this elaborate machinery proposed by the Beloe Report. Examinations would fall into their right place as just one of the educational methods available to teachers.

AN EXPERIMENT IN APPLIED EDUCATION

(*Continued from page* 59)

a prestige and a publicity that surrounds such a new idea.

A serious attempt has been made to bridge the gap between the person, the character, the individual, the specialist and the outside world of local government, the traditional Them. The gap between the organisations which care for youth but fail to connect and those which connect and fail to care is at last being made.

Here is an experiment in applied education for the staff, for the committee and for the members of an on Town club. An entertainment self-programming centre exists and its socialising influence on the Town is growing. As one lad said 'It could be like the start of the Co-ops ! Something big', an important advance in the education of young people who have left school at 15 and 16.

An Experiment in Applied Education

RAY GOSLING

Mr. Gosling was born in 1939 and educated at Northampton grammar school before entering Leicester University to read English in 1958. He stayed the course for one year during which he made sufficient contacts to enable a 'grass roots youth club' to be formed with the support of Youth Ventures Ltd. He has been employed as Secretary to this Leicester club and its organisation since March 1960.

Youth clubs have existed in this country for many years, designed to cater for the non-student population between 15 and 20. Most of them have been organised by well-intentioned adults working through voluntary organisations—the Boy Scouts, National Association of Boys' Clubs — or in statutory Local Education Authority Youth Centres. Since 1939 these many and varied organisations have been grouped together very loosely under the co-ordinating wing of a 'Service of Youth' — a branch of the Further Education Department at both Ministry and local level.

They have been based on the assumption that young people gain from being members of a community of their own, apart from home, work or school. The question of the young person's gain from such a 'community within a community' has been constantly debated, but the question of a young person's desire for such a community is a fact. Today is the age, more than any other, of the cult of the adolescent, the teenage world, the teenage market, the teenage culture. The much quoted figures from Dr. Mark Abrams' L.P.E. pamphlet deserve to be put down once again. The figures were published late in 1959 under the title 'The Teenage Consumer'. Britain's five million unmarried young people between 15 and 25 have a total uncommitted spending power of just under £1,000 million. Twenty-five per cent of this is spent on clothing, 14% on alcohol and tobacco; 12% on snacks and coffee bar refreshments, and 14% on the 'pop' entertainments.

The traditional clubs

Against this background can be set the 'Service of Youth'. The traditional youth clubs have been staffed by a few professional, full-time and underpaid organisers and leaders, and a large number of dedicated men and women who have devoted a portion of their time, and in some cases the whole of their lives to helping the youth of the nation.

The aims of these traditional clubs include the reformation of the delinquent, the education of the subnormal, building of character, training in citizenship and in particular general skills designed to fit the young person with the necessary physical, mental and spiritual equipment to play his or her active part in the community at large. This, very briefly, is the picture of the traditional youth service of today both in fact and more importantly in the public image.

Leicester experiment

In Leicester an experiment is being carried out to put the service of youth into the genitive case, and in contact with the teenage society it has not, as yet, attracted. The idea has been to create a club by young people for young people; rather than by the enlightened for the unenlightened, by the adult for the youth: a youth club in which young people themselves have the controlling power over finance, policy and programme.

This experiment has grown up through catering for the leisure-time needs of young people in a large city, and in particular the 'hard core', the 'power groups', and leaders of the intricate society working-class teenagers have created for themselves. It is an experiment by and for the unclubbed, the unclubbables, those not attracted to traditional youth organisations, the teddy boys, the absolute beginners. The theory has been that if a club could be opened in the centre of a city, the old 'Town', and operated by those young people with gifts of leadership and influence who could hold the balance of power between the rival power groups of old town, inner estates, outer estates, a start would have been made in establishing the self-programming group as a part of the young person's life. The right has been recognised of young people operating their own club in their own way for their own entertainment and leisure. Any ideas, education, any 'higher aspirations' must rise from below and not be imposed from above or outside the patrons of the club. The club arose from the grass roots and is still self-programming throughout.

The reasons for educationalists' support for such a club?

The traditional youth service has 60% of its members under the age of 15. For the young person who has left school at 15 or 16 the youth service appears out of contact with his everyday life. If he has religious or specific affiliations or inclinations

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—to Methodism or canoeing—it may appeal. If he is aimless, on a new estate or in a depressed area it may appeal, but for the ordinary school leaver of 15 or 16 it has no appeal.

When a youth club has competed (educationally or socially) with the Technical Colleges it has fallen below the standard required by the young person. When it has competed with the Palais, the public house and coffee bar as a social centre it has fallen short.

Yet the boy or girl 'on the Town' is second only to the student in his membership of a closed circle, his desire to belong to an exclusive social club, or clique. He or she wants and deserves a social centre.

City centre

The Town :

In every large town or city there is a central area, an up-town, a city centre; a focal point for the leisure-time activities of well over 60% of the 15 - 25 age group in and around the urban area. For these young people the 'Town' includes the cinemas, the sporting arenas, amusement arcades, and some of the dance halls, public houses, coffee bars, caffs and clubs. There is a beaten track for these activities. Some streets in the central area are on the Town. Others are not, dependent on position and nearness to other entertainment centres, bus stations, car parks, railway stations, etc.

In this area live a few young people, generally from the labouring and criminal fringes. For them the Town is their local area. For a far larger number from the inner and outer estates this central area has become by choice their local area. These two groups consider that they belong to the Town, and the Town belongs to them. It is their home, and they know it as well as their parents know their own back gardens. These make up the hard core of a city's teenage society. For the remainder, the majority, the Town is 'up-town' used for fun, for leisure, and for pleasure; their focal point, their talking point. But whatever the happenings on the Town, from the film at the A.B.C. to the wrecking of a coffee bar the Town is news. The comings and goings of the hard core are talked about throughout the city. It is obvious that this hard core have a great influence on teenage society in the urban area as a whole. If they know you, and they don't like you, they can have you removed from the Palais. Their power is real, and is used.

Youth clubs have existed in most local areas and suburbs, but have failed to establish themselves on the Town. They have therefore become social centres for the suburban and the local but have failed to attract the Town society. 'I go down the youth centre when I int got the bus fare for up-town.' The effect and influence of the traditional club, however good, is thus very greatly reduced.

The aim of the Leicester experiment was for a club for young people on the Town, controlled and operated by the Town.

As an idea the average, ordinary young person is not interested. He prefers his youth centre, his particular and specific interests, his trips up-town. But to the hard core the idea was great, for the following varied reasons :

1 'We can give something to a place like that.'
2 'It's the sort of thing we've always wanted. We might get something more than coffee and rock out of that idea.'
3 'We can take this place over, build up our big name; and just look at the fiddles in the set-up.'
4 'If any of his crowd come in on it, it'll give us the chance we've been waiting for. We'll see it don't stay open more than half a night.'

With most people, the reasons for their support for the scheme was a combination of more than one of these reasons.

The dangers in being on the Town are obvious.

But what is the difference between such a club and a commercially operated entertainment centre ?

A sense of belonging

Operated on a policy of 'by the Town for the Town', it can and has given a sense of belonging, to some degree a feeling of social responsibility, a chance for many 'up-town crazy' young people to give vent to their imaginations, their generous impulses, feelings they would feel out of place in expressing on the 'commercial Town'. These feelings extend from wanting to scrub floors, to work in a kitchen, behind an espresso machine, to painting, reading and talking. And perhaps most of all, it is democracy at work on the ground floor. Locally and among their own they have to solve their own crises, problems and operation of a communal enterprise, competing on equal terms with established commercial undertakings.

How far is it possible for such a programme to be carried out within the framework of the Town, its power groups and its pressures ?

The influence of the Town and its hard core is bound to be greater than that of any member of the staff, leader, individual or other group. And having decided to be on the Town, the club has to abide to some extent by the code of the Town, and naturally its roughest and toughest elements are attracted to such a club, and rapidly become its most vocal elements. This influence has to be worked with, and not against, or in spite of.

A climate of educated opinion was necessary for such an experiment to be carried out, and this was found in the Albemarle Report, the Minister of Education's policy that followed that report, the attitude of the L.E.A., Local Government, and Police Departments; and in the attitude of most parents from the large council estates and the 'in Town street blocks'. But the vocal righteous general public still expects good works to be performed, the kids to be taken off the streets, delinquency to cease, crime to be reduced. Yet such a club, although applying education, teaching social responsibility as by-products, is primarily a social club and not an education or social reform centre. The youth club is no more an extension of school than it is a mild approved school. It is commercial in the sense that it is or should be fulfilling a social need in young people during the years immediately after leaving school. There is no element of compulsion. In catering for the non-student population of the 15 - 25 range the freedom must be as complete as possible.

External Organisation

Initial costs of this particular club have been met by the parent organisation of Youth Ventures Limited in the form of loans which are paid back from the takings from the juke box. They have agreed to provide a loan of 25% towards the capital cost. Another 25% of this comes from local sources, business houses, etc., as gifts that do not have to be repaid. And the remaining 50% is provided by the Ministry of Education as a capital grant under the Social and Physical Training Regulations. This also is a grant and does not have to be repaid.

Legal responsibility and ownership are in the hands of a trust body formed to comply with the requirements of the Ministry and the parent organisation. Day to day decisions and general practical operation of the enterprise are in the hands of the management committee, which is composed entirely of the young people themselves. Decisions on staff, finance, development are all made by this committee to the upper house, or trust body. The committee have found that the arrangement works well. They have the responsibility of operating their own club without the financial and legal burdens. They have found the upper house invaluable as a court of final appeal, in backing unpopular or difficult decisions, and in stabilising the organisation in its moments of crisis. The upper house normally intervenes only when requested by this working committee. The relationship bears some relation to that of a school staff and school governors. For all practical purposes from staff to development and operation full control is in the hands of the young people.

The club is at present situated in temporary premises, but during the next twelve months will move to a new purpose-built building. Both are in the heart of the city. Both are on the Town's beaten track. The facilities in both temporary and permanent premises are based on a three-tier principle :

1 a juke box caff to be entertained by;
2 a dance hall to entertain with;
3 quiet rooms and offices for further activities from television and billiards to the 'higher things' from welfare to discussion and committee work.

The club offers no facilities for specific skills and interests, but its organisation can immediately put any person interested into touch with the best local facilities for their particular interest.

Maintenance costs of youth clubs are usually met in part by the local authority. One of the fundamentals of the organisation being described is that it should pay for itself. The coffee bar and facilities must cover the wages, salaries, upkeep and running costs for the entire organisation. It has to stand on its own feet.

Argument on prices for services and refreshments has been interesting, and the reaction among the patrons has nearly always been : if the prices are not commercial the attraction will flag. One of the status symbols of being a teenager is this ability to pay top prices for goods irrespective of their value. But being a social and not a commercial undertaking one encourages patrons to come into the club, and enjoy its gratis facilities even if they cannot or do not want to purchase.

1. *Internal Structure and Problems :*

The traditional concept of the youth leader has to be abandoned. To take its place there is a staff team — an administrative head combining intelligence with Town wisdom, secretary to both upper and lower committees and in charge of development— and a manager for the commercial side, combining business acumen with an understanding of the clientele. The remaining staff work as assistants to these two departments. None of the staff on this youth club are over 25, and this has been proved in such an organisation to be an advantage. All members of the staff are local, having been either brought up or grown up with the Town. The jobs are not regarded as a lifetime career but as a stepping stone to other occupations—creative activity, social research, youth administration, traditional youth leadership, catering and business management, etc. There is no sense of dedication or vocation. They consider they are doing a job, a tough job, and fulfilling both a social need and an economic demand.

2. *The Committee :*

These are elected from the members and they can be roughly divided into four categories :

a. The supporters of vested interests, be it a particular power group, or a band, or a place on the staff. 'It's an easy life int it. There's easy money in this.'
b. The traditional who back the staff, as if they are youth leaders. 'If it weren't for you this place'd fall apart.'
c. The trustee-conscious, again traditional in their attitude. 'I'll tell the trustees. They'll understand what's going on.'
d. The concerned and the purely interested. 'It's like the Co-ops. It's the start of something really big, I'll tell you.'

3. *Crime :*

Pilfering is bound to occur, in cigarettes, food and cash. The pilferers can be divided into two categories :

a. Those too shy to admit they are broke, or starving; and therefore they steal.
b. Those who are out to get something for nowt. Those who believe they are onto a good thing. In some cases the only solution to this is to call in the police.

The seducers of women, the prostitutes, and the receivers of stolen property are all problems that have to be settled as they arise. The general policy is that only when an attack on the public, the members in general or unwilling innocent parties is made is any action taken. The first action taken is always to do the best possible to settle the problem internally, without resort to the police, or the upper committee.

4. *The Attitude to the Police and Authority :*

At the level of the manager and the administrator/secretary the relations are good.

At the level of the ordinary staff and the committee the relations with the police, on a lower level, are also good.

At the level of the ordinary member with the copper on the beat the relations are good. But throughout there is this attitude to the Law—a force the entire Town is against.

5. *The Voluntary Helpers :*

These are young people, members, and friends who should help the club and coffee bar to function smoothly and economically. The value of the work to the voluntary helper has also to be set in the balance against the great problems they create. Some are genuinely interested in the club, concerned at its problems; helpers who have the interests of the club as a whole at heart. But there are also those voluntary helpers to whom some of the above does apply, but who have vested interests in helping—in gaining support for themselves or their clique with the committee or staff, in monetary gain or in the opportunities for pilfering.

More difficult still are those helpers who are out of work. Some are suspect. Others, although they may have a criminal record of petty thieving, can be trusted, are willing to work hard for the club, without actual reward yet are out screwing every night.

6. The attitude towards Integration with Society is curious. The club was in agreement in helping with a survey on attitudes towards Christianity, being conducted by a spurious religious organisation. Yet when a painter, who was known and respected by the entire club, offered to give two of his rather good pieces of modern art to the club they were ripped in two and used to cover holes in the wall.

7. The big man control. It had been thought necessary to have the active support of at least one big man of the Town, one gang leader—yet the reaction to him, and the effect on the club, are now considered after some experience to be doubtful. This does present a problem.

The results :

It exists, and this in itself is an achievement. There exists a club on the Town, run by the Town —a place of their own, which they respect to a greater or lesser degree. A start has been made to produce an organisation similar to the Students' Union for the non-student population, a junior version of the Club and Institute Union.

A connection has been made in a local sense with their own culture, through local leaders, personalities as against an admass worship of national popsters and heroes. This is a great encouragement to criticism of their own way of life and culture. There is a care as in a traditional welfare club, yet the care is connected with the Town in a concrete way that has not been seriously attempted to date. Young people are offered power, on a democratic scale, power in the operation and control of a large section of the teenage market. For the staff and the committee the sense of power is helped by a connection with the upper body, trustees, the business concerns the organisation has of necessity to deal with. There is an integration with society, on a democratic level, with youth and other specialist organisations, with city controllers and planners, with authority, the police, and the Local Education Authority. There is

(*Continued on page* 54)

Discussion

Perspective for the Junior School

When I first read Mr. John England's article on 'The Neglect of the Primary School' early this term (FORUM, Vol. 3, No. 1), I must confess to having felt a vague dissatisfaction with it.

It seemed to me, at that time, that Mr. England had confined himself too much to the situation of the junior school as it is, and had not gone on to look at it against that kind of developing educational background which FORUM has so much at heart.

Now, later in the term, after a few weeks of the frustration induced by tight staffing and the constant effort to keep ideas within the bounds of the capitation grant, I am not quite so sure.

It is, indeed, difficult to work imaginatively against the whole impetus of a policy which, despite the protestations of the policy makers, seems deliberately designed to relegate primary education to an inferior level.

As one would expect from such an honoured leader of the teachers, and a Primary one at that, Mr. England has presented the case fairly and squarely.

Too many junior schools are housed in out of date and unsuitable buildings. We have nothing like enough teachers. The official staffing ratio discriminates against us and it is reinforced by the structure of the salary scale.

The flight from the primary school has been on now for some time. The graduates who went to work there out of a genuine interest have left or are leaving, as they were meant to do, attracted by a generous display of special posts at the secondary level.

They will find conditions better there in many ways and certainly there will be more financial backing for them. Our capitation grants are too low to buy the expensive books and modern equipment which are being produced, and which ought to be available to help primary teachers in their arduous work.

Certainly, then, all is not well with primary education and the teachers, who carried the bulge honourably through the over-crowded infant and junior schools, now suffer from a deep sense of injustice.

And yet I do not think that we, in the primary school, should attempt to fight this issue alone and in isolation from the wider movement towards a new and developing system of education suited to modern needs.

In this context the fight for proper primary conditions takes its place with the other big issues of the day, the full implementation of Crowther, the raising of the school leaving age to sixteen, the easing of the bottleneck at eighteen plus. Such a programme at the post-primary level obviously changes the emphasis in the junior school away from selection and towards a creative concept of teaching which seeks to give the majority of the children a firm basis for a proper four year course at the secondary level.

It revivifies the junior school and enhances its importance in the system as a whole. In the overall planning involved it forces attention on the needs of primary education and on the easing of those handicaps under which we suffer so seriously at the moment.

GEORGE FREELAND,

Headmaster, Mowmacre Junior School, Leicester.

Teaching and Examinations

Please permit me to comment on the article about Examinations in Secondary Schools by my friend and colleague Mr. A. E. Howard ('Forum', Vol. 3, No. 1). The article bristles with points which I should like to mention but I must confine myself to three major topics.

First, the teaching of English. Mr. Howard says that the essential thing for 'modern school pupils' is that 'they shall be able to write clear, though simple, English'. *Clear though simple?* The implied antithesis here is not at all clear to my simple mind. It might be better if our aim were to help our pupils, whatever their classification, to write English which shall be accurate and pleasing.

Mr. Howard declares that the writing in which modern school pupils should be examined (and therefore, presumably, trained) is the writing of reports—reports of journeys, of visits, of experiments, of books read. 'Abstract titles have no place here.' And so we are to assume that some pupils have no imagination; or, if we find any evidence of such a God-given gift, we are carefully to refrain from fostering it. Many of these children will perforce spend much of their lives in repetitive jobs; may it not be part of our duty to train their imagination so that their eyes are lifted beyond the lathe and the drilling-machine to the limitless horizons of the human spirit? Or are we, after all, to yield to the demands of those industrialists with whom Mr. Howard and I have so frequently done battle—those hardfaced men who think and say that the purpose of education is to provide their machines with 'hands'?

'Too much formal grammar should be avoided.' This sentence might well be offered as the perfect example of 'begging the question'. What *is* too much formal grammar? The man who spends two periods out of five on gerunds and impersonal constructions and long-ossified syntactical niceties will agree with Mr. Howard that too much formal grammar should be avoided; but he will not agree that he himself is teaching too much formal grammar. On the other hand, this condemnation of a surfeit of formal grammar is usually offered by those who believe that *any* formal grammar is too much. I have heard a science master declare that he would horsewhip any teacher who sought to torture his children with such 'abstractions' as *noun, verb, adjective, adverb*; yet he expected those same children to

familiarise themselves with such terms as *nitrogen, oxygen* and *specific gravity*.

Secondly, Mr. Howard says, 'Learning a language is an intellectual exercise'; he decries what he is pleased to call the play-way to French or German conversation. But this attitude ignores the splendid successes achieved by many of our colleagues who teach modern languages by modern techniques. Learning a language is far more than an intellectual exercise, so much more that no teacher can succeed if he approaches his work in the belief that the 'intellectual exercise' is the main purpose of his teaching. A language is primarily a means of communication between mind and mind, communication which is one of the ultimate ends of all education. To expand the field in which such communication is possible is one of the aims of the teacher of modern languages; and another aim is the opening of a door to a new literature.

But it is the third point on which I disagree most strongly with Mr. Howard. He includes religious education in his survey, it seems, because it is specifically named in the 1944 Act as compulsory. After some hesitation, he thinks it should be examined 'for prestige purposes and to ensure that the subject is properly taught!' (The exclamation mark is Mr. Howard's).

I do not see how any headmaster can hope to give 'prestige' to a subject by including it in an examination scheme when it is so clearly an afterthought, and given a minimum place because it is compulsory. A man cannot teach at all without revealing those values which he believes to have fundamental importance; in this sense all education is religious.

I fully appreciate the basic difficulty which gives rise to Mr. Howard's hesitation: the Agreed Syllabus adopted by the Authority which he and I serve makes it clear that the purpose of religious education is to present the Christian faith as a way of life; and one cannot test a faith by means of examination papers. But the Christian faith is founded on recorded facts, the facts of a historical life—facts which have been more minutely and critically challenged than most scientific hypotheses. It is the business of religious education to present those facts and to show children how the faith has been built on those facts, a faith which has sustained millions of human beings all over the globe for nineteen centuries, a faith for which men have been willing to die.

I agree that such teaching should be subject to examination—in order 'to ensure that the subject is properly taught', just as this purpose is implicit in all other examinations. The tragedy of the generation to which Mr. Howard and I belong is that in our day religious education was presented so hesitantly and half-heartedly that if teachers generally had reached the same stage in other subjects few of us would know our arithmetical tables, few of us would be able to spell or to read a map or to perform the simplest scientific experiment. I am sorry to detect a similar half-heartedness and hesitation (or is it my imagination?) in Mr. Howard's references to religious education.

Of course I agree that an adult has the right to accept or reject the Christian faith; but we should ensure that our pupils grow up with a sound knowledge of what they are accepting or rejecting; and it is precisely this knowledge which so many of their elders lack.

J. E. BROWN,
Headmaster, Sedgehill School, London.

Delinquency and Extended Courses in the Modern School

Mr. Rapstoff was very rightly given an opportunity to comment on my article 'The Secondary Modern School Continuum' ('Forum', Vol. 3, No. 1), but it is quite clear to me that he did not understand what I wrote. Let me illustrate by taking *one* of his points, namely: the relationship between extended courses and delinquency. Mr. Rapstoff says: "If 'academic aspirations' in modern schools are going to shriek to the dull and backward the word 'Failure', we shall be paying in the streets, cafés, remand homes, borstal institutions and prisons a far too heavy price for the G.C.E. label." *My* point is that by staying on longer at school and spending the time on studies geared to some end, a boy in the Extended Course has more sense of purpose and achievement than the boy who leaves as soon as he can and whose studies are geared to no end. Mr. Rapstoff tries to infer that there is a relationship between the increased juvenile crime and Extended Courses. If there has been any study of the relationship between the anti-social behaviour and remaining at school to take an extended course I have yet to read it.

Now I am putting forward the view that the development of extended courses is a means of bringing about scholastic *success*, simply because there *is* a known connection between juvenile delinquency and low mental ability. Even a boy of low mental ability requires to work purposefully and to an end and Extended Courses are designed to meet his needs as well as the needs of the boy who wishes to try his luck in the G.C.E.

In order to deliver his coup-de-grace Mr. Rapstoff throws famous names at me, including Mr. Ferguson and his book. He refers to this book as a *recent* work. But Mr. Ferguson's book was written in 1952 and deals with pupils who left school at the end of the term in which they reached the age of 14! Extended Courses were not thought of! The school-leaving age was not even 15, and on page 146 the author states quite clearly: 'The contribution of school life to the production of delinquency is a question of special interest at this time, in view of extension of compulsory school attendance. The group of "ordinary" school leavers who provided the main bulk of material for this study left school in January 1947, when the minimum school-leaving age was still 14 years. Among them the ages of maximum occurrence of crime were 14 and 15 years, *following relaxation of school discipline; but it appears that changes are afoot in the age distribution of juvenile delinquency and it may well be that these are not*

unassociated with recent changes in the age of compulsory school attendance.' The italics are mine.

There is not a single table in Ferguson's book which leads one to suppose that effort in the scholastic field—the passing of examinations at whatever level—has any connection whatever with juvenile delinquency.

K. PORTMAN,
Headmaster, Secondary School for Boys, Clacton-on-Sea.

American Education Today

A report on changes in the American educational system has been published in your columns ('Forum', Vol. 1, No. 3). I should like to supplement it from my own experience as a pupil in the United States and as a teacher here.

I attended as a pupil a large high school with a good reputation in a prosperous suburb. There was no attempt at streaming, with the result that standards were very low and the better pupils were held back. Nor did the system benefit the less able pupils, for the good ones were dominant in all class work and the poor ones soon despaired of playing an active part in the classroom. The result of all this was that I knew less of the subjects in which I was most interested at the age of 18 than a child here at G.C.E. 'O' level.

It is true that my school days ended in 1950, and that changes have taken place since. But last summer I attended several classes in American high schools, and found the standards even lower than I had recalled. In one history class the group wandered all over their subject, a boy delivered a long and partially inaccurate talk which the teacher did not correct, even leaving the room during the course of it. Meanwhile the children were supposed to be taking notes, but the few hands raised were ignored by the speaker, and eventually the note taking stopped. Two boys slept peacefully during most of the talk. When at length it ended the discussion led by the teacher lasted about five minutes and centred mainly on method of presentation, not content. The children were aged 17. In another class of 16- and 17-year-olds, pupils went to a rostrum before the class and summarised, each in turn, a paragraph from a textbook supposedly already read by the class. The 'summaries' tended to be quotations, and the atmosphere in this room was even more soporific than in the other one. Nor were the textbooks such as to create any interest in the pupils.

It is true that changes are being made. But the base from which change must start is so far from being a true education that one wonders how much good mere amelioration can do. It is a revolution which is needed in the American system, not mere tinkering. Experiments in streaming and determination to set higher standards are growing. Education policy is in the melting-pot of controversy, many different types of groups and individuals taking part. It is difficult to hope, however, for very sweeping changes in the near future, especially when local authorities are so parsimonious that two sessions of school a day, each for a different 'shift', and slum schools are common. In the wealthiest nation in the world teaching the young is one of the lowest priorities in most communities and in most minds.

And yet this is not the whole story. For one thing, many children indeed go on to university. There are so many American colleges and universities, and so many American children attend them (ten times as many, proportionately, as in Britain), that the better students receive an excellent education, and even the poorer ones partly rectify their deficiencies from school days.

Moreover the average and backward child is not dumped in a blackboard jungle and forgotten while his abler contemporary has a first-rate education. A good education for all was the American aim, and it has become derailed and almost caricatured. Only recently has it been an English aim, and it is very far from reality. Thus we are faced with the spectacle of two systems which together contain almost all the virtues and vices, and appear to touch each other at no common point.

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The Schoolmaster and Teacher Training

I found your comments on the Crowther report ('Forum', Vol. 2, No. 3) most stimulating. I was particularly interested in the section on the training of teachers and the part that could be played in this by experienced teachers in schools.

A week or so before reading your editorial I had discussed this very question with a senior Training College lecturer. He was particularly concerned about the time and effort consumed by subject lecturers in training colleges in supervising students during school practice periods: time and effort which he considered would be much better spent on work connected with his own subject. He felt that if academic standards among training colleges were to be raised to university level and if lecturers were to achieve university status, they should not be asked to undertake work for which they have no special competence and have had no special training: work which could well be undertaken by experienced teachers in the schools under the direction of the College Education Department.

He suggested that a list be compiled of experienced teachers able and willing to supervise students on school practice. These teachers could be nominated by head teachers and approved by the College Education Department. Students would then be allocated to schools on the basis of this list and would work under the guidance and supervision of the selected teachers in those schools. Education lecturers would of course continue to visit schools to see any particular student or group of students as at present.

Such a scheme need not unduly disrupt school organisation since it follows that the classes of the teachers approved for supervisory duties would be those taken by students for their teaching practice. Thus teachers who would normally be teaching could be available for

Drama in the Secondary School

ALAN GARRARD

Mr. Garrard is head of the Speech and Drama department at Woodberry Down school, a comprehensive school in London. He is an actor, producer and adjudicator, lectures on school, youth and adult drama, and is co-author of Leap to Life!, *an experiment in school and youth drama.*

The purpose of all the arts in education should be towards a deeper understanding of the art of living.

There is an inherent love of acting in all children, who are usually eager to dramatise situations, knowledge, and even themselves. This characteristic should be cultivated, for drama can be of immense value as the child develops his personality by imaginative impersonation of other people's experiences. His sympathies are broadened through having to act out other people's problems and get inside their minds. His physical qualities of speech, gesture and movement are improved, confidence and poise are gained and self-consciousness is overcome. No one will deny that this is essential for a child of secondary school age. The capacity for co-operation and the subordination of the individual to the group can be learned and enjoyed through creative drama.

So, for the past fourteen years, my aims as a teacher of drama have been:

1 To provide an opportunity for the development of imagination and expression.

2 To give an incentive to good speech and movement.

3 To provide an outlet for the emotions and to allow children to explore characters other than their own.

4 To develop self-confidence and team work.

Later come the more academic ambitions when the children are introduced to the whole sweep of classical and contemporary drama. In general terms, my task has been to expand the child's innate love of drama from the first 'let's pretend' stage so that it leads to a state of mind and body where the greatest benefits can be gathered.

Woodberry Down, where I now teach, is a mixed comprehensive school of approximately 1,450 boys and girls, situated in the centre of a large L.C.C. estate in North London. We are fortunate in having an independent drama department with a staff of four specialists who are responsible for speech and drama throughout the school. This is a great experiment which is achieving considerable success. All children in the first three years have two drama lessons a fortnight; in the fourth and fifth years they can opt for either music or art or drama, and in the sixth form, those who are taking English Literature at 'A' level have a two-year course on modern drama.

Mixed ability groups

With the exception of the sixth form, all drama lessons are given to mixed ability groups—children of the same age-range, but of varying ability. It is most interesting and rewarding to see how the more academic child stimulates and helps the less able, although it is not unusual to see the less able taking the lead in practical and group work.

Art, music and drama lessons are time-tabled together and all children to the fifth year have these

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DISCUSSION *(continued)*

supervision, though it is not suggested that students should be under supervision throughout their teaching practice.

The teachers selected would of course be required to work in close co-operation with the Education Staffs of the Training Colleges. They would be required to attend meetings for 'briefings' before each school practice period, and again after school practice to discuss any difficulties that may have arisen.

It has always seemed somewhat strange and professionally unsound that an experienced teacher who knows the children in a class, and usually has come to know the student who is taking the class, should leave the class on the appearance of a stranger who cannot know the children, may not know the student and often has no knowledge of the subject.

I feel strongly that the scheme suggested would work to the advantage of all concerned. It would help the Education Department of the Training College by relieving them of a great deal of work; free specialist subject lecturers from work which they are not necessarily qualified to undertake and enable them to concentrate their time and effort on their own field of studies and, as you yourselves suggest, do much to raise the status of the teacher in the community, and assist in forging those links between the schools and training colleges which at the moment are virtually non-existent.

SENIOR ENGLISH MASTER.

lessons at the same time. There are 300 children in each year, and in rotation one-third does art, another does music and a third drama.

When the children first come to drama lessons they are divided into four house groups (irrespective of forms) with a teacher who is in the same house, and they remain with him for the whole school year. In following years they continue in the same group, but with a different teacher. Each child has two lessons of 55 minutes per fortnight, one a practical session in the assembly hall or dining hall, and the other an informal speech period in a class-room.

The drama staff believe that their function as a team is to create the right atmosphere for the natural development of the child's personality. We must use our skill to stimulate his imagination and inspiration, taking care not to impose techniques until the child has reached the point when we feel that formal play production would be a valuable exercise and discipline. At first we suggest ideas for dramatic expression, but only act as guides, avoiding demonstration so that we can preserve the child's spontaneity of expression. We try to establish personal relationships with the children based on friendliness and mutual respect.

The drama course begins with movement training and the first stage is to make the body into a plastic instrument. All good movement comes out of relaxation and relaxation has to be learnt. We use various methods, for example, stimulation through music, and imagination. Once the children have felt the power of relaxation they move on to the simple rules which govern movement, such as its dimensions: up and down, side to side, forward and backward. This is followed by practice in How to Move —the elements of time, space and weight; time is given for them to experience some Basic Efforts, such as pressing, thrusting, slashing, flicking, dabbing, etc. We suggest dramatic examples for all these practices and the children work either individually or in small groups. The significance of the open or outward advancing movement and the closed or inward withdrawal, which is the basis of all movement gestures, is also shown, and then the children continue with the second stage, namely, to use their bodies as instruments for conveying character, emotion and thought.

Here the emphasis is on mime. Rose Bruford's method of dividing the body into four sections is used; the Torse or main directing structure, the Feet and Legs which are the base, the Head and Neck giving poise and the Hands and Arms which do the work. Simple basic exercises for each part of the body are practised, followed by expressive examples. Speech is often added if children feel that it is necessary, and music is used on occasions. As they listen to a piece of music ideas are evoked and simple mime or dance dramas are created.

With the groundwork covered in this way, children in the second and third years come quite readily to Improvisation with speech. Improvised scenes are built up around situations and things; for example, a case of theft, a tape measure, a key, 'The Locked Door', climbing a mountain, a noise and so on. At first, the scenes are very short, but as the children gain experience and confidence, they develop into group plays and it often becomes necessary to prepare scenarios. Eventually, the time comes when they want to write their own plays and a link with written English is at last achieved. Play-making leads to simple play production with volunteers as producers or the preparation and presentation of radio plays with sound effects, using a tape-recorder.

When the children reach the fourth year they are allowed to opt for either music or art or drama, and the drama course provides for experience in play production including practical work on lighting, make-up and planning stage sets, mime drama and voice production. In the fifth year the work is more academic, with a history of drama from the medieval period to the present day covering three main features of each period, namely, the theatre, the plays and the costume. The 'A' level English literature students take a two-year course on 'Landmarks in the Development of Modern Drama', starting with Ibsen and Tchekov and finishing with Anouilh, Arthur Miller and Tennessee Williams.

Speech training

One weakness in the mixed ability lessons has been the difficulty of organising adequate training in speech. The groups contain children of high intelligence as well as those with low I.Q.s, and formal work is impossible. However, a further experiment was started last September with the appointment of a speech specialist who is time-tabled for all mixed ability drama lessons. She gives speech training and voice production classes to selected groups of children and individual coaching to members of the sixth form. In this way it has become possible to give training in speech to a reasonable number of children of the same ability range in small groups. This is not an ideal arrangement, but with the present emphasis on external examinations, it must be considered a useful concession.

A great deal of dramatic work is done out of school. There are junior and senior mime drama

groups, each with a membership of 50 boys and girls from the first to the sixth forms, and a spoken drama group of about 30 children drawn from the middle and senior school. Attendance is voluntary and the groups meet once a week immediately after school for about two hours. The children help in the creation and presentation of the mime dramas and it is interesting to see how their background has been broadened by some of the themes they have chosen. A mime drama set in the Stone Age sent some of them to the library to delve into Frazer's *The Golden Bough,* and after creating in mime the story of Palinurus and the Sirens, several children became intensely interested in the legends of Greece and Rome. Through the mime, movement and music work done in the out-of-school clubs, their appreciation of music has been heightened and visits to the ballet, opera and music concerts are regularly arranged, as well as theatre parties in the holidays and in their own time.

Once a year a programme of mime and spoken drama showing the type of work done in out-of-school clubs is presented in the form of a Festival of Drama. This usually involves well over a hundred children because the art, music, needle trades and handicraft departments combine with the drama department in designing and making scenery, costumes, properties and furniture, and in printing tickets and programmes. Last year we wrote our own pageant drama of the Borough of Stoke Newington to celebrate its diamond jubilee, and over 120 children took part in the mime and spoken drama scenes, and another 50 were responsible for the many historical costumes and period furniture required.

After five years of experimentation we are beginning to make headway. Many mistakes have been made, but they are gradually being put right. Each member of the drama staff has his own approach, but in the long run we achieve the same end. The children have accepted drama as a subject on their time-table and come to their lessons willingly and happily. Those of us who started the experiment can see how pupils in the senior school and those who are now Old Scholars have gained poise and confidence. Now they are able to communicate their ideas and feelings with fluency and ease. They have become responsive to music and the arts and are rapidly becoming aware of the needs of others. In fact, they have 'discovered' themselves, and, in all humility, I feel certain that this personal and social development has been brought about in some measure by the creative drama in which they have taken part.

Reserves of Ability

JEAN FLOUD

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'The pool of ability', as the notion is usually invoked, is not a fact, but a point of view. It is important to be clear about this. There is no Iron Law of the national intellect imposing an upper limit on what can be done by education. What only the outstanding could do yesterday, the great many can do today (e.g. read, write, multiply); so that although the gap between the outstanding and the average does not widen, the educational threshold of mediocrity is continually rising. Moreover, the challenge produces the response, and the response itself is self-consolidating. (There is a nice elaboration of this pedagogical platitude, with reference to the teaching of mathematics, in Volume II of the Crowther Report, p. 206.)

As soon as we can bring ourselves to acknowledge these commonplaces we can share the profound and liberating educational optimism which is the *leitmotiv* of the Crowther Report. But confidence in the potential yield of the educational plough (to use a Crowther metaphor) does not make it unnecessary to gauge the task or estimate the harvest; and this the Report does, in striking fashion, with the aid of three substantial surveys presented in some detail in Volume II. The result is to provide us with the most up-to-date account available of the social distribution of educational opportunity for boys in Britain, and a valuable analysis of some of the major social influences of educability. This short review is confined to some aspects of the former question of the distribution of educational opportunity.

The Report offers a rough-and-ready analysis of the distribution of what is termed 'latent ability'. This is based on the results of objective tests administered to recruits to the Armed Forces between 18 and 21 years of age, in order to decide which of them it will be more profitable to train for the more skilled, responsible, or exacting tasks. These tests, says the Report, are intended to be dependent to the least extent on the amount of education beyond the minimum that the recruit has had, and dependent to the greatest extent on his natural talent. To the degree that this has been achieved, 'the tests serve as an indication not only of *developed* ability but of ability where it is latent—that is, where it has not shown itself, in the recruit's progress up the ladder of formal education'. (II, p. 114)

The test battery comprises a non-verbal test of reasoning ability; tests of mechanical knowledge and aptitude, simple arithmetic and mathematics, spelling, comprehension and verbal facility; and a test of ability to understand complex instructions and to carry them out rapidly and accurately. The sum of his scores on all these tests allocates the recruit to one of six so-called 'summed selection groups' dubbed by Crowther (I think unnecessarily and somewhat misleadingly) 'ability groups'. The highest group 1 accounts for approximately 10% of recruits, groups 2 to 5 for another 20% or so each, and group 6 for a final 10%.

The second ability group

In its brief commentary on a valuable series of tables analysing the educational level achieved by boys in these ability groups, the Report makes clear its view that the largest pocket of latent ability is of the second order, and located in the main among the 'very important group of skilled workers' sons who provide about half the sampled population and nearly half of the two highest ability groups' (II, p. 127). Most recruits falling into the highest order of ability, it points out, stayed at school at least until the age of 16, and sat the 'O' Level examinations for the G.C.E. but for the second order of ability the position is different. Of boys in this group, two-thirds left school at the minimum age. Only 24% sat the 'O' Level G.C.E. examinations; but of these 56% sat in four or more subjects, and the average number of passes per candidate is 3.7. The potential yield is therefore considerable; but it is unevenly distributed among the broad social groups into which recruits were divided on the basis of a conventional classification of their fathers' occupations. One half of the fifteen years old leavers in ability group 2 were the sons of skilled manual workers; but within all the ability groups at each educational level 'the distribution by the occupational group of the recruit's father suggests that the educational yield depends very much upon the climate of opinion in each group' (p. 117).

It is worth trying to get a more detailed picture from a closer look at the evidence. Of the entire group of recruits, only 2% were graduates or had achieved a comparable educational qualification. This élite accounted for less than one in five (18%) of the young men in the top ability group, and for

a minute proportion (1%) of those in the second. Underlying these figures, moreover, are marked social differences. Thus, in ability group 1 the son of a non-manual (professional, managerial or clerical) father is at least twice as likely to have graduated as the son of a manual worker. In ability group 2 the sons of professional and managerial fathers are three times as likely as the sons of skilled workers to have graduated, and at a lower level, three times as likely to have got a good 'A' level G.C.E. (two or more passes) and twice as likely to have got a good 'O' level G.C.E. (four or more passes).

These facts reflect the social distribution of educational opportunity as the following figures show:

trast reflects the difference in social composition of the two types of school. Only 6% of recruits from independent efficient schools were the sons of manual workers, as compared with 56% of those from the maintained schools, of whom 70% left before they were 17.

In short, then, the post-war movement of educational reform has brought the abler sons of skilled workers into the grammar and technical schools. However, the proportion of working-class recruits even in the highest ability groups with a selective secondary education is below that for the sons of non-manual workers; and at the second ability level, and for the sons of semi- and unskilled workers in particular, it is very much lower. Moreover, the

Social Class differences in the schooling of Army Recruits (1956-8) at two levels of ability[1]

Secondary Schooling	Fathers' occupation									
	Professional and Managerial		Clerical and other Non-manual		Skilled Manual		Semi-skilled Manual		Unskilled Manual	
	Group 1	Group 2	Group 1	Group 2	Group 1	Group 2	Group 1	Group 2	Group 1	Group 2
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Independent or Grammar ..	89·4	58·6	86·8	32·4	76·0	22·1	77·0	18·0	55·0	14·0
Technical ..	6.8	10·5	7·5	14·2	10·8	11·0	9·0	11·3	22·2	12·3
All Selective ..	96·2	69·1	94·3	46·6	86·8	33·1	86·0	29·3	77·2	26·3

[1]Source: Compiled from Table 2a, *The Crowther Report*, Vol. II, p. 120.

In the second order of ability, 58.6% of recruits whose fathers were of the professional and managerial class have attended grammar or independent schools. At the same level of ability, only 22% of the sons of skilled workers have done so—and it is not the case, as might be hoped, that more of them had attended technical schools instead. Even in the first order of ability, the social differences in schooling are marked. Crowther makes a point (Vol. I, p. 199) of emphasising the similarity of the maintained and independent schools in the ability of their pupils. Yet, as is well known, there is a tremendous difference in the proportion staying on for advanced work in two types of school.

Of recruits in the Crowther sample who attended independent efficient schools, 60% had stayed on to 18+ as against 24% of those from maintained schools; the corresponding figures for 17 year old leavers were 23% and 16% respectively. This con-

propensity for all working-class boys to leave school well before the sixth form is very marked.

That there is a substantial reserve of uneducated ability in the offspring of working-class fathers cannot be doubted. It is worth adding, however, that any calculations based on the Crowther distributions would underestimate its size. Tests administered at 18 or 21 are only in a limited sense tests of ability. Even more than is the case with tests of the same kind administered at 11, they are tests of attainment rather than potential. Part of the differences they reveal are attributable to differences in the kind and amount of formal schooling, and in occupational experiences after school. Thus, the graduates and others similarly qualified among the Crowther sample of recruits were being tested immediately on, or shortly after, leaving an institution of full-time education; whereas those who had left school earlier were at a disadvantage with regard to

Teaching and Discrimination

PADDY WHANNEL

Children today are open to a wide variety of new forms of popular entertainment. The quality—or lack of quality—of much of this material is leading to considerable disquiet. In this article Paddy Whannel, Education Officer of the British Film Institute, opens up this question, which we hope to take further in future issues of FORUM.
Mr. Whannel taught art, history and social studies in various secondary schools in Surrey before taking up his present position four years ago.

Part of the function of education is to extend the pupils' knowledge of the world and to provide the tools for acquiring such knowledge.

Another part, and ultimately the more fundamental part, is to develop the ability to judge the quality of the experience thus gained.

In the study of the arts the emphasis should be on the latter and not the former. Where it is on the former—the mere accumulation of cultural facts—the teaching is bad. The facts remain disconnected from each other and from life. The pupils may know that there is a novelist called Dickens, but this knowledge will not mean anything because it remains unrelated to their experience. This of course is unfortunately the common rather than the rare experience.

So much is clear, and the solution is to substitute for the accumulation of cultural facts either for personal prestige or for examinations, a critical appreciation that seeks to connect the work with experience, and to judge it in those terms.

Modern life, however, has inserted a complication into this question. A very important part of the experience of most people is that offered by films, television, advertising, the press, popular reading matter and popular music. All of these operate as forms of art. Most advertising is more concerned to seduce than inform. The popular press with its magazine sections and its dramatised presentation functions more as a part of the entertainments industry than as an information service. In one case, that of the cinema, the art is sometimes mature and richly expressive, in the others it is almost always a corrupted form of art. But because it is art, because, as the Himmelweit survey of television found out, fiction is more powerful than fact, it has an important influence.

It is almost certain that, with the exception of the influence of the home and the immediate school or work situation, popular entertainment culture represents the most important environmental factor which teachers have to take into account.

Take into account ? The first people to take it into account in an educational context were F. R. Leavis and Denys Thompson when in 1933 they wrote *Culture and Environment.*

These writers saw that what was required was a training in how to read rather than an introduction to literature, *Culture and Environment* offered therefore a detailed analysis of texts mainly taken from advertising. The analysis aimed to reveal the underlying assumptions, the hidden values and the elements of appeal and persuasion embedded in the copy. From this book came a valued tradition in teaching. It is still virtually the only book of its kind and while it is still worth reading and using it is very much out of date and needs revision.

(*Continued from page* 67)

the capacities measured by the test, and even probably at a varied disadvantage according to the kind of occupation they had followed between leaving school and being called up.

Assessments of 'latent ability' based on intelligence test or other attainment test scores probably have diagnostic value; but they are at best poor guides for long-term educational policy, which had much better be based on some operational definition of 'equality of opportunity'. Thus, one can aim at abolishing social, as distinct from academic selection in education, searching for and eliminating particular manifestations, as, for example, the 'early leaving' problem in secondary schools : or one can aim at equalising educational chances at all social levels, by providing a highly differentiated secondary and further system of education, such that the social composition of students in each of its branches approximates closely to that of the relevant population at large, and the differential 'class chances' for achieving a given educational level are eliminated.

Admittedly, 'equality of educational opportunity', like 'the pool of ability', is a point of view and not a fact; but it has the advantage (quite apart from its undeniable social philosophical merits as a principle of distributive justice) that it can be translated into valid operational terms from which can be derived propositions for concrete investigations, of which the findings can serve as a basis for educational policy.

Specifically it needs revision in two main directions.

The first of these can best be expressed by saying that what is required today is as much a training in how to see as a training in how to read. It is not only that to the cinema has been added television, which means that more people are seeing motion pictures than ever before. Today the popular papers most read by young people make much of their impact by pictures and the arrangement of typography, and so of course do many of the magazines; the cheaper ones, indeed, tell their stories almost exclusively by drawings and photographs. In particular there has been a marked change in advertising. Now in most of its forms the appeal is conveyed primarily in the pictures; the text merely amplifies and comments on the pictures. A vast amount of money and talent is put into the design of these advertisements. In a recent article in *Sight and Sound,* Derek Hill revealed that, minute for minute, the budget for a TV commercial can be anything from ten to three hundred times as much as that for a programme and that Associated Rediffusion's programme 'An Arabian Night' (the most expensive programme ever presented on British TV) cost less per minute than the *cheapest* 60 second commercial.

The way in which visual discrimination can be taught is close to the methods of literary analysis presented in *Culture and Environment.* What is involved is an attention to all the details of expression in the work. It is in these details—the way in which a subject is lit, the composition, the viewpoint (i.e. the camera angle) and in the cinema the relationship of the different images, the gestures of actors and so on — that the meaning is carried. It is important to emphasise this as the meaning of a film, its 'message' if you like, is not to be found in the plot alone. That is, it must not be judged as literature even if the basic intention of the analysis is the same in both cases, i.e., the discovery of values through a response to the style of the whole work.

Such a training in awareness is not exclusively destructive. It does of course destroy the false but equally it sharpens the response to the true, revealing richer qualities and increasing pleasure.

The approach to mass media

This brings me to the second way in which I think *Culture and Environment* should be revised. In that book the criticism of the popular material was wholly destructive. Given the material chosen for analysis this was perfectly proper, but the context was essentially that of the antagonism between traditional and mass culture. The purpose was the training of an élite dedicated to preserving the former against the latter. In the terms in which the argument was presented this was again an understandable position. But if the terms are extended to include, say, the cinema and jazz music the argument is no longer so simple. Few people would argue that we need to be defended against the films or Renoir or Visconti or the music of Duke Ellington or Dizzy Gillespie. There is also, at a different level, a whole body of popular work represented by Tony Hancock, Ella Fitzgerald, a John Ford Western, the Goon Show, and a Gene Kelly musical, that seem to most people to have a perfectly valid function. While the mass media still in large part represent a threat to standards, they have also produced work of quality which can only be approached positively.

A genuine response

This is particularly important in the context of teaching. We are considering here an area of life that offers to most young people genuine enjoyment. To blunder into this world with exclusively destructive intention would set up a resistance to discrimination and intensify the problem. So, too, would the now more common attitude of patronisingly regarding popular art as a stepping stone to higher things. The kind of training that is now required must be based on a pleasure shared in common. It is often argued by 'progressive' educationists that teachers should go to the cinema, and buy a TV set to 'keep up with their pupils' and be able to talk to them. I am sure that this sort of opportunism is damaging to the relationship of teachers and pupils. Good teaching and a satisfactory relationship can only come from a genuine response to the new arts. This is where the cinema has a special role. In any course of the kind I am suggesting I would give the study of the cinema a central place.

It is here that the rewards are richest. Because the cinema is a mature and expressive art form there is no question of an exclusively sociological concern. The cinema is worthy of study in its own right.

If we exclude architecture, films offer the only continuous experience of consciously created art shared by the majority of people. It is in this field also that most work has been done, and through the efforts of the British Film Institute and the Society for Education in Film and Television a fair amount of practical teaching is now being carried out and a valuable body of experience is being built up.

The need now, however, is for a planned extension of this work, not only in the schools but in the teacher training colleges and within the universities.

The recent conference, 'Popular Culture and Personal Responsibility', organised by the National Union of Teachers, was an encouraging sign that things are moving in this direction. There was no

*Creative Writing in English

BY GORDON TAYLOR

CREATIVE Writing in English is an English Language course essentially concerned with helping children to write and speak creatively, but incidentally leading to the G.C.E. examination at 'O' level. It also helps them to develop the skills and powers which, in whatever field these same children labour in adult life, will enable them to function at high level.

The author says, "In every chapter I have set myself three main tasks: to explain an important writing technique; to show how a master writer has employed that technique; and so excite the child, imaginatively and emotionally, that he develops the power which will carry him through creative work involving the technique he has been studying."

Though it is splendid that a child should read many books, it is necessary, even in the lowest forms, that he should be trained to read in depth a few carefully selected books. The book chosen by Mr. Taylor to be read with Book One is *The Eagle of the Ninth,* by Rosemary Sutcliff.

The mechanics and science of language are not neglected. Indeed, out of admiration of and deference to teachers who maintain an older tradition in their teaching, far more work in spelling, punctuation, and grammar has been provided than is generally required today. John Ward's lovely illustrations will deepen the reader's appreciation of the text.

doubt of the disquiet felt by most of those attending this conference, a disquiet increased by the smug complacency shown by some of the providers of popular entertainment. It was clear that many teachers wished to meet the challenge. For them to do this we need courses of training and text books and other teaching materials.

The idea of such a training is now widely acceptable. Most of the previous points of opposition have been abandoned. There remains, however, one last ditch objection which must be faced.

It is argued that the attempt to introduce yet another study into the curriculum would place an intolerable burden on the teachers and lecturers.

Now one way of countering this is to say that the study of film and television and the other media need not be conceived of as a distinct subject with a special place allotted to it on the timetable. Obviously a great deal of valuable work can be done within the English lesson for example.

An English teacher could well turn aside from the study of a novel or a play to consider the development of character in 'The Treasure of Sierra Madre'. The teacher in Religious Knowledge might ponder on the questions of personal responsibility raised by 'Twelve Angry Men'. The Music teacher could find worthwhile material in 'Singin' in the Rain', and the Art teacher in 'An American in Paris'; while the History teacher could find no more revealing evidence about the nature of American society than in the contrast between 'The Grapes of Wrath' and 'Rebel without a Cause'.

Ultimately, however, I think that the study does deserve separate consideration. There are obvious dangers in the partial viewing of films for secondary purposes.

The danger of overcrowding is of course real. But in a sense the curriculum has always been overcrowded and as long as we see education in terms of isolated subjects and the imparting of knowledge it always will be.

Worse than overcrowding is the fragmentation: a fragmentation that convinces many young people who have not the crude incentive of an examination that much of what they learn at school is of no use to them.

In the teaching of the arts breaking through to the pupils, making contact with them, is often a problem. There is not a background of experience to rely on, and as well as an aesthetic barrier there is a social one which shows itself in an open or concealed hostility to culture. Here at any rate response is genuine. An appreciation that not only can one film be judged better than another but that reasons for the judgment can be discovered, and that this discovery can lead to greater pleasure, may well lead to the application of this to the less accessible arts.

Seen in this way, as an experience in judgment, the introduction of the study of cinema and the popular arts in general could well serve to ease rather than increase the strain on the teacher's time because, after all, making judgments is the heart of the matter.

Mixing in the Comprehensive School

G. V. PAPE

After having taught in most types of schools within the successive stages of education, and having been the headmaster of two schools for a combined period of seven years, Mr. Pape was appointed in 1956 to the service of the London County Council as a District Inspector.

In essence the argument over comprehensive schooling resolves itself into whether it is regarded as a good thing or a bad thing that adolescents of differing ability and diverse social backgrounds should mix in school. At the same time it is sometimes said that, in fact, even in the milieu of the comprehensive school, they don't. Like keeps to like. In the classroom they are of similar ability, and outside, it is said, they cleave to their form mates. But is this so?

This inquiry was prompted by the view of girls, at mid-morning break, strolling around or seated on the grass in their informal friendship groupings, which is obtained from the window of a strategically sited headmistress's room in a large new school. With their summer uniforms in house colours a colour pattern was produced the arrangement of which gave rise to some conjecture and when five in red together beneath the window were found to belong to 3A, 3B, 3C, 3C and 3E, the significance of this, it was thought, should be tested over a wider field.

In this school, as in most comprehensive schools, the house system embraces many aspects of pupil welfare as well as a wide range of extra-mural activities. In addition, music, drama, art and physical education are taught here in house groups, though there is the usual ability grading for all other subjects. Each girl is thus for some purposes in a form

[The views expressed in this article are those of the author and should not, of course, be taken as committing the London County Council.]

and for some in a house. Wherein, then, do they find their personal attachments?

The situation in the middle school, that is when the girls had grown into the school and before they had been diverted into special courses, was selected for examination. The two hundred girls of the third year were asked, when they returned to their classrooms after two sunny mid-morning breaks, to write down their own names, forms and houses and those of the girls in the groups in which they spent their time outside.

In the analysis of the results only groups composed entirely of third formers or with a majority of third formers have been considered and they have been counted separately only when the composition of a group was radically different from that of any other. Even so some mis-recording must be accepted as unavoidable, and, with the larger groups, overlapping is such a complicating factor that groups of over eight girls have not been tabulated.

The results are given in terms of *complete homogeneity*, i.e., all the girls of a group in the same form or all in the same house.

TABLE 1 (Comprehensive)

Size of group	*Number of groups*	*Homogeneity as to House (4 Houses)*	*Homogeneity as to Form (6 Forms)*
1	5	—	—
2	41	24	27
3	18	10	7
4	17	6	4
5	23	4	4
6	21	4	4
7	8	1	nil
8	8	3	nil

At a glance, homogeneity for house would appear to be comparable to homogeneity for form, i.e., in this school the mixed ability house groups determine personal attachments to the same extent as the graded form groups.

A more accurate comparison can be made if the proportion of homogeneous groups in each total of groups is matched with the proportion which would occur in a random distribution. For example a group of two children can be drawn from the four houses in these ways *RR, YY, GG, BB,* RY (YR), RG (GR), RB (BR), YG (GY), YB (BY), GB (BG), i.e., four homogeneous groups out of ten possible groupings. In the same way, six homogeneous groups of two children can be found among the 21 groupings possible over the six forms. Among the larger groupings, four homogeneous groups of eight children can be expected to occur in 165 possible house groupings. It is suggested then that the 24 groups of two children that are homogeneous for house out of the total 41 groups of two children (see Table 1) shall be related to the four homogeneous groups out of ten possible groups as shown above, and that this shall be given as a ratio, e.g., $\frac{24}{41} \div \frac{4}{10} = 1.5$, and so on in all the other cases. This produces the following table :

TABLE 2 (Comprehensive)

Size of group	*Homogeneity ratio for Houses*	*Homogeneity ratio for Forms*
2	1·5	2·3
3	2·8	3·6
4	3·1	4·9
5	2·4	7·3
6	4·0	14·7
7	3·8	nil
8	15·5	nil
	33·1	32·8

This confirms the impression gained from Table 1. *When the girls of this school get together outside the classroom they do not stick to their form-mates. They are just as likely to be found mixing with other members of their house who are in different forms. Here girls of differing ability mix in school.*

In the tripartite or bipartite arrangement of secondary schooling the selection process quite obviously prevents this. The house system in the selective school also usually embraces less than it does in the comprehensive school, often being confined to competitive sports, so that in such schools the pupils even within the narrow bounds of a school's ability range can be expected to stratify themselves still further within the confines of their form groupings rather than as fellow house members.

A check on this was made in a grammar school by the same procedure as that adopted in the comprehensive school. The third year group this time was three-form and the informal groupings at only one mid-morning break were examined. The school had six houses.

Tables 3 and 4 are derived in the same way as 1 and 2 (see over).

The sample studied is small, but the manner of the informal groupings is so marked that the results must be accorded some significance. *The pupils of the grammar school, already creamed off as the top fifth of the ability range, are here seen to separate themselves off within the school, both inside the classroom and outside, into still finer ability groupings corresponding to the graded forms.*

TABLE 3 (Grammar)

Size of group	*Number of groups*	*Homogeneity as to House (6 Houses)*	*Homogeneity as to Form (3 Forms)*
1	1	—	—
2	2	1	2
3	3	nil	nil
4	3	nil	3
5	1	nil	nil
6	6	nil	2
7	8	nil	2
8	2	nil	1

TABLE 4 (Grammar)

Size of group	*Homogeneity ratio for Houses*	*Homogeneity ratio for Forms*
2	1·8	2·0
3	nil	nil
4	nil	5·0
5	nil	nil
6	nil	3·1
7	nil	3·0
8	nil	7·5
	1·8	20·6

One further question might be asked. Do the friendships formed in school persist outside ? If this is so to any large extent for the comprehensive school then the mixing together of adolescents of differing abilities which we have found to occur in these schools can be deemed to have a social impact which is of some consequence. The girls of our study were asked if their school friends were also their home friends, with the result :

TABLE 5 (Comprehensive)

		%
Yes	105	52
No	25	13
Indeterminate	71	35

The conclusion is that boys and girls of differing abilities in comprehensive schools do mix in school to an appreciable extent informally and spontaneously as well as organisationally and that there is some indication that these attachments extend to their out-of-school lives.

Except inasmuch as there is some correlation between ability and social level, nothing has been proved about the mixing of children of differing *social* backgrounds in these schools, but as the writer, if anything, is an educationist rather than a sociologist, he feels himself even less competent to assess social levels than he is to appreciate ability gradings, so he will not venture further.

Book Reviews

French Books for the Secondary School

A Survey by G. RICHARDSON

Typical of the textbooks in use for the teaching of French before the war was a three-volume course-book in which the grammar was treated thoroughly but formally, in which translation into French was a feature from the first lesson, and in which the lessons were arranged according to a fixed pattern. 'French' was thought of as consisting merely of the language, and there was little or no attempt to teach 'France' at the same time.

There were, of course, exceptions to these generalisations: courses such as *Apprenons le Français* (Dent) gave full expression to the tenets of the Direct Method school, avoiding translation throughout, perforating the pages of its vocabulary to facilitate removal, laying great emphasis on the oral approach and on doing everything—even the teaching of grammar—in French. Yet even these exceptions frequently owed much to the traditions of the formal approach and to the atmosphere of the times: the School Certificate course was of four years' duration, and teachers tended to think of 'three years to cover the ground and one for revision'. Only slowly are we coming to realise that the G.C.E. assumes a five years' course, and that one might as well take five years over it: that it is both possible and desirable to postpone English-French translation until the third or fourth year, giving emphasis instead to an active, oral, creative approach, to comprehension, to speaking the language, and to Free Composition—and finding time to include plays, poems, songs and some knowledge of France.

So the famous *Cours de Français* (Ginn), although it has all the liveliness, interest, and activity one could wish for, still works within a framework of four books, and the vocabulary-load is heavy. Harrap's *À la Recherche du Français,* whilst setting out with the admirable aims of teaching the grammar inductively and planning for Free Composition from the start, also has four books only, and includes English-French translation from the earliest stages. Heinemann's *Creative French,* appealing to the pupil to use his French and enabling him to learn something of France too, uses English-French translation as an exercise from lesson 1, and consists of three books only. The view is sometimes expressed in prefaces that Book I, for instance, may be expected to take four terms in a grammar school with an 'above-the-average' form, six with an average form, and at the same time to serve in a secondary modern school for the whole of a three-year course. Quite apart from the inconvenience and financial outlay involved in duplicating sets of books and overlapping the school year, it would seem obvious that no book can appeal equally well to the interests of a grammar school 11 year-old and those of a secondary modern 14 year-old. There is an overwhelming case for 'one book, one year', for writing with a definite age-group in mind, for catering for one level of attainment at a time.

This is admirably done in Cambridge's *Cinq Années de Français,* which is excellently planned and attractively executed. There is no translation as an exercise until the fourth year; the subjunctive is left until the fifth, and there are songs, poems and exercises in abundance, planned essays throughout, and a real attempt to make contact with the country. Minor flaws, which exist, could easily be rectified in the subsequent editions which the course deserves.

Longmans' *A First French Book* sets out to provide 'a new standard of thoroughness in dealing with the early groundwork of French', and to avoid overloading in either vocabulary or grammar. In this the first two books of the course are very successful, the last two less so, and (since one cannot have everything) the emphasis on and authenticity of 'background' suffers. The Longmans book for the fifth year is, of course, the ubiquitous *Simpler French Course for First Examinations* (there is now a *New Simpler French Course for First Examinations*) which restricts itself entirely to revision and examination practice.

Also planned to consist of four books plus one for examination practice is Edward Arnold's *French,* in which the fifth book is either Book V of the course, or a very similar *French for First Examinations.* The format and layout are attractive, the grammar sound and comprehensive, but the pace is fierce indeed: there are passages in Book II, some even in Book I, which would not be out of place in an 'O' level translation paper. There is, too, little on 'France'. Nelson's *Modern Method French Course* also devotes Book V to examination preparation: this is a sensibly planned course, restricting the grammatical material attempted, especially in the first books, and not unduly burdened with vocabulary. There is a wealth of exercises, and noteworthy features of the course are the *petits dialogues* in the text, and the closely associated *Modern Method Reading Scheme,* a truly excellent series supplying additional reading material in short chapters. Other courses make use of this close relation

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between the textbooks and the readers: there is, for instance, the University of London Press' *Fluent French for Secondary Schools* (with its *Fluent French Readers*), which aims at ensuring that the class shall be as active as the teacher, and which makes good use of sketches, games and songs; and there is Oxford University Press' *New Oxford French.* This consists of *Nos Voisins Français, Books I-III,* taking the pupil to within one year of 'O' level, laying emphasis throughout on creative use of the language and on the French scene, people and culture; the *New Oxford French Readers,* and the *French Reference Grammar.*

Such a list does no more than scratch the surface of the field of books available for the grammar school—it does not even mention such eminently usable books as Methuen's *Bonjour Charles* and *Charles à Paris.* By comparison, the choice for the secondary modern school (and for the slower streams in the comprehensive schools) is poor indeed. The position is admirably stated in the preface to Longmans' *French: A New Approach*: our aims in teaching French have usually been such that reasonable competence in all of them requires a course of five years at least. The secondary modern child, with only three or four years at his disposal, is usually subjected to courses which attempt proficiency in the same fields. The secondary modern course of three years, say the authors, should omit formal translation from English, and should concentrate on reading French, understanding spoken French, speaking French, and gaining some knowledge of France.

Unfortunately, these wholly admirable aims are not fully implemented; Book III takes us up to the subjunctive; Books I and II tend to be uninspired and pedestrian, and altogether the series' greatest importance is as a manifesto. It would be a pity if the series should prove to be a mere *Préface de Cromwell,* for this way salvation lies.

Thinner in appearance, but with a finger right on the pulse of the slower pupil, is Harrap's *Apprenons avec Anatole,* which moves with sensibly slow pace towards deliberately limited objectives. Attractive and amusing, it does a little at a time, emphasises oral work and repetition, and is full of songs, puzzles, games, dialogues—and French.

Excellent readers exist in such plenty that the only difficulty when ordering is *l'embarras du choix.* Some are the old favourites; some fit in with their parent course-books; some—e.g. Blackie's *le Bibliothèque Moderne*—are 'simplified editions of modern texts of considerable literary merit'. There is even evidence to show that the readers available are being used more as readers and less as translation material—witness Edward Arnold's excellent new *Michel et 'Le Loup'*, a reader which sets out to encourage the pupil to read more and more French just for the fun of it, omitting a vocabulary and substituting attractive explanatory pictures in every margin.

Free Composition is taught from the very beginning in the better course books, but for those who find it necessary or advisable to treat it as a separate skill, there is Heinemann's *La Composition Libre,* in which it receives a highly systematised treatment, with some English-French translation, and much grammatical jargon, the same publisher's *Petites Compositions,* and, of course, the books which seek to avoid and prevent translation by means of the picture or picture-strip, for instance, the University of London Press' *French through Pictures,* and Edward Arnold's *Petites Histoires* and *Histoires Illustrées.*

Comparative Cosiness

Other Schools and Ours, by Edmund J. King. Methuen (1958), 238 pp., 25s.

This book, of course, was first published in America and designed presumably for the general reading public—for the 'many types of people (who) are keen to know how their neighbours live in cultures different from their own'. And, because the book is 'primarily intended to be read—that is, read rather than studied', we are conducted on a cosy lecture tour through six selected countries. Denmark has been chosen for our delectation because it is a country which with few resources and a short school life has achieved 'a standard of urban civilisation that others might envy' France is offered up on a dish as the country of unerring logic, the country of rationalism and intellectualism. The United States represent liberty and the land of luxury. 'The Soviet Union's achievements are colossal by any criterion'. India is the example of a country which, with meagre resources, is trying hard to modernise herself. And Britain—yes, you have guessed it—is 'the home of cautious empiricism'. There are some excellent photographs, a full bibliography and useful index, and a far too short and condensed appendix on changes that have taken place in Denmark, France and the Soviet Union since the book first went to press.

Now I personally have a very high regard for Dr. King—for his scholarship, his acumen and his lively intelligence—and I find it disconcerting to have to review a book which does not do anything like full justice to his gifts and his other work in the field of comparative education. Somebody, sometime, must have told him that all books on education are inescapably dull, dreary, weighty tomes. He leans over backwards and produces a curious chatty style to disprove all this. Somebody must have told him that Americans cannot read unless they are breathlessly sneeded along and coaxed to make the extra effort. On the other hand, once he forgets his mythical audience—once he forgets

to write down to this mythical audience—the real Edmund King takes over and he has some pertinent and penetrating things to say. Understandably he is better on India and the Soviet Union, countries presumably he knows least well and about which he finds it difficult to make facile generalisations.

However, one must not fall into the trap of accusing Dr. King of not writing the type of book the reviewer would have had him write. It is a lively and contentious contribution to the study of comparative education. It raises in provocative guise the old bogy of 'national character'. It deserves its place on the shelves of any serious student on the subject.

VERNON MALLINSON.

Stimulus to Experiment

The Education of Slow Learning Children
by A. E. Tansley and R. Gulliford.
Routledge & Kegan Paul (1960), 255 pp., 28s.

This book will be warmly received by teachers struggling with backward children. It covers an immense field in a small lucid volume, is responsive to new trends in practice and has an approach which is helpful yet searching, refreshing and challenging.

Long before the war it was fully recognised that a substantial proportion of the children within our schools were so backward as to require special educational treatment. Often they required much else first which the schools were not designed to provide. This was particularly evident where the socio-economic inheritance rendered the child incapable of profiting from his school work. A fraction of these backward children—those found to have I.Q.s in the 50-70 band—were 'certifiable' as feeble-minded and could have been sent to the old 'M.D. Schools'. Such children were often looked upon as a different species. Within the ordinary school the problem of backwardness remained, however, and most teachers felt ill-equipped to provide the kind of assistance required.

With 'the Welfare State', the 1944 Education Act and the vision of 'equality of opportunity', a new look was taken at the whole problem of backwardness. A tremendous and varied field was surveyed and the category 'educationally subnormal' was defined. It was clear that an educational rather than a medical or psychological assessment was beginning to replace the old practice. All children, who were more than 20% below average for their age in attainments, were E.S.N., irrespective of the assumed causes of such backwardness. It was impossible to gauge just how many children came within this broad group though estimates varied upwards from at least 5% of the entire school population. It became the duty of each L.E.A. to ascertain precisely how many of its children were E.S.N. and to make the necessary provision—whether in ordinary or special schools.

Only a fraction of the E.S.N. children required *special school* provision. These were the children who could be 'ascertained' as E.S.N. and were generally at least 30% below average in attainment. Such children usually (but by no means always) fell within the 50 to 70 I.Q. band. It might seem that the label 'ascertainment' was deceptively replacing the old label 'certification' as far as the special school was concerned. Certainly the habit has grown of narrowing the category 'E.S.N.' to apply only to those within our special schools or special classes—thus replacing 'M.D.' with the new term 'E.S.N.'. This book, while it is pre-occupied with the special school population which it designates as 'slow-learners', is concerned with education. It recognises that while many E.S.N. children may solely require smaller classes, individualised treatment and sympathetic climate to make substantial academic advance, others require much more skill of the teacher.

With the beginnings of a more honest confrontation of the whole problem of backwardness, with the post-war expansion of provision, the new studies of child development, the application of educational psychology, and the training of specialists in the education of handicapped (E.S.N.) children, special schools were able to move forward from being protective institutions to becoming child-centred experiments in education. The results of these experiments may well contribute to teaching practice in ordinary schools just as work with handicapped children in the past has inspired much that is progressive in our present infant schools. The area of educational subnormality is vast, however, and the contributory research is scattered and limited. Progress to date required that someone should bring together the theory and practice and present it as a further stimulus to experiment and practice.

In Mr. Tansley and Mr. Gulliford we have two experienced colleagues—the one a headmaster of an E.S.N. school, the other a tutor to a course of teachers of E.S.N. children—who together have provided a concise and detailed guide. One feels throughout that the child is seen 'longitudinally' rather than as a fragment of a series of horizontal, statistical concepts. After discussing 'Special educational treatment' and describing Intellectual Development, Emotional Development and Physical Conditions, the knowledge is applied to aims, principles and organisation. The 'subjects' are then discussed in detail beginning significantly with 'language'. The curriculum has clearly been re-thought in several aspects and provokes even where one may disagree. Notable is the inclusion of 'Education for Social Competence' with its influence on the educational programme.

In my view these colleagues have done a service in producing a book which should be in every staff-room library.

S. S. SEGAL

OUR REVIEWERS

Geoffrey Richardson *is lecturer in education at the University of Leicester.*

Vernon Mallinson *is lecturer in education at the University of Reading.*

S. S. Segal *is head of a secondary E.S.N. school and honorary secretary of the Guild of Teachers of Backward Children.*

The English Educational System, by G. A. N. Lowndes. Hutchinson (revised ed. 1960), 183 pp., 12s. 6d.

The author of *The Silent Social Revolution* provides double value in this little book, which contains much new material.

First, he has digested and summarised an astonishing amount of material from Government reports and other sources. He has not flinched from the jungles of technical and further education, statistics and finance; and for this alone he deserves our gratitude.

Second, and just as important, he has emerged from this ordeal not only sane, but fresh and readable. Nowhere else, I believe, can one find a survey of the English educational system at once so comprehensive in range and so concisely bringing out the main issues and principles. It is thorough, authoritative, and absorbing. R.P.

What About Us? A Plan for Comprehensive Schools in Nottingham. Nottingham and District Branch of the National Association of Labour Teachers. (1960), 20 pp., 3d.

This excellently produced pamphlet contains practical plans for the development of a full system of comprehensive education in Nottingham. Produced by a group of school and university teachers, it is a model of what local groups could do to place this issue squarely before the public. There are clear plans for the development of each school (or pair of schools) as fully comprehensive schools, together with a well drawn map of the city. Obtainable from E. Stones, 7 Barnfield, Ruddington Lane, Wilford, Nottingham. B.S.

BOOKS RECEIVED

(Mention in this column does not preclude a future review)

Grimm's Fairy Tales Ed. M. W. and G. Thomas ..	Hutchinson	5/-
The Water Babies Charles Kingsley Ed. M. W. and G. Thomas	Hutchinson	5/-
The Adventures of Pinocchio Carlo Collodi Ed. M. W. and G. Thomas	Hutchinson	5/-
Alice's Adventures in Wonderland Lewis Carroll Ed. M. W. and G. Thomas	Hutchinson	5/-
The Day of the Triffids John Wyndham	Hutchinson	6/-
Troilus and Cressida Ed. James Winny	Hutchinson	7/6
Selections from Tennyson Ed. H. M. Burton	Hutchinson	6/6
Savage Gold Roy Fuller ..	Hutchinson	5/6
The Treasure of the Sierra Madre Ben Traven	Hutchinson	5/6
The Unicorn Leacock Ed. James Reeves	Hutchinson	6/-
Mutter Courage und ihre Kinder B. Brecht	Heinemann	6/-
The Black Cloud Fred Hoyle ..	Heinemann	5/6
Problems of Adolescent Girls James Hemming	Heinemann	18/-
An Approach to General Science Ed. D. H. Brehaut and B. E. Dawson	Methuen	8/6
Education: Some Fundamental Problems A. G. and E. H. Hughes	Longmans	14/-
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A Correction

In our last number, Mr. Mortimer was incorrectly described as head of the geography department at Great Barr Comprehensive school, Birmingham. It is, in fact, Mr. W. S. Dean who holds this position. Mr. Mortimer was an assistant master in geography at Great Barr Comprehensive school until July, 1960, and since then has been in charge of geography at Park Hall High School for Boys, Castle Bromwich, Warwickshire.

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