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THE POST-PRIMARY EDUCATION OF NON-ACADEMIC BOYS.

A THESIS IN EDUCATION

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THE POST-PRIMARY EDUCATION OF NON-ACADEMIC BOYS

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T H E N E W Z E A L A N D P R O B L E M .

CHAPTER I

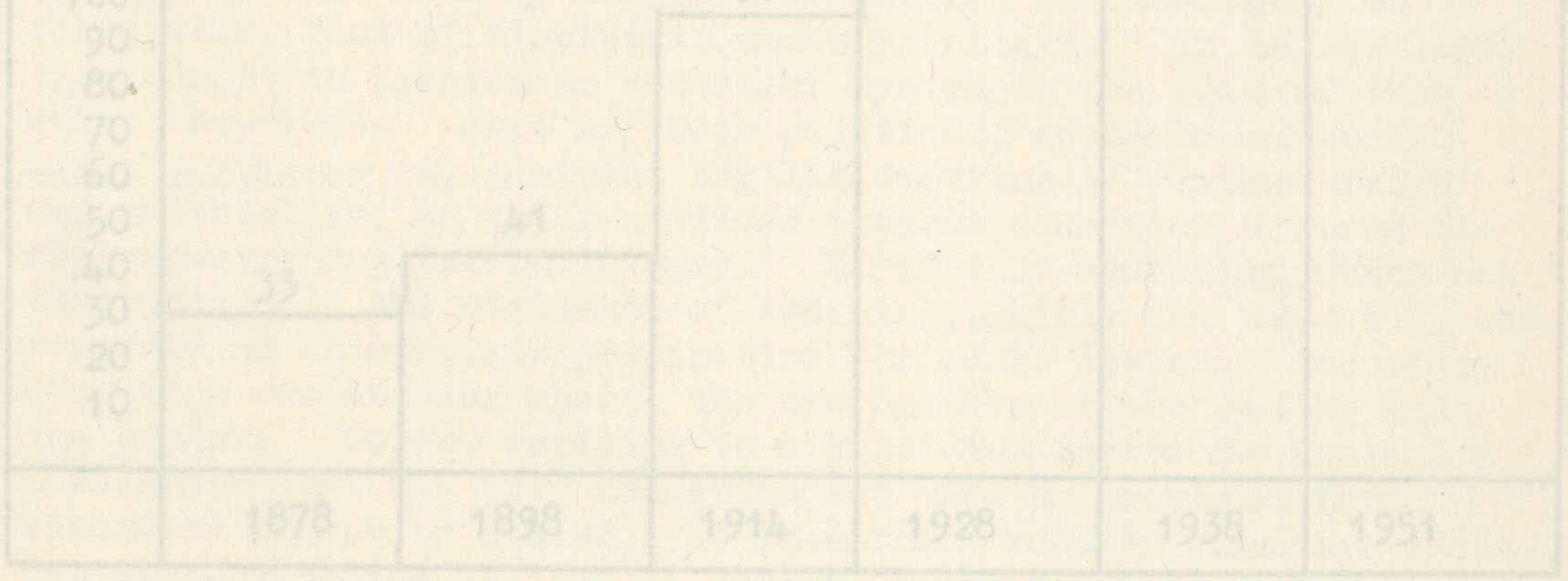
THE PROBLEM DEFINED

This thesis is an attempt to examine what is probably the greatest single problem in New Zealand education; the problem of the non-academic child in the New Zealand post-primary school. It is an urgent problem, on the solution of which depends the welfare of a large section of our post-primary population. Our post-primary schools have gradually ceased to be selective and must now cater for an adolescent age group which omits only the most mentally defective and the most physically handicapped. This movement towards "secondary education for all" received fresh impetus in 1944 when the minimum school leaving age was raised to fifteen years. During the last eight years, post-primary schools have been faced with an increasing number of new entrants of a wide range of intelligence and ability. Among these are found pupils who, under an earlier education system, would never have entered the door of a secondary school. The requirements of the Proficiency examination would have eliminated some, economic factors would have debarred others. Many would have found in a job the success and satisfaction which they had never achieved in a school. Now, as a result of educational and economic changes, these pupils are legally compelled to remain at school until they reach the age of fifteen years. The practice of social promotion in the primary school has resulted in most of these adolescents entering a post-primary school at thirteen, fourteen or fifteen years of age. These are the pupils who have been commonly labelled "non-academic".

No attempt has been made in this survey to define the term "non-academic" in qualitative psychological terms of intelligence, aptitude or ability. Instead it is here applied to a group of pupils who, through lack of intelligence, special abilities or aptitudes, lack of interest or incentive, or for some other psychological reason, fail to profit from the traditional post-primary curriculum. Such a definition lacks scientific exactness, but the writer does not feel that it is possible to express in terms of intelligence quotients or mental ages the degree of intelligence required for success in post-primary education. Not only is the range of courses so great that other factors such as special abilities and vocational interests must have a bearing on success, but also the writer has assumed throughout this thesis that a pupil's success or failure is intimately related both to the content of the course and to methods of learning and teaching employed. Such an assumption may at first appear unwarranted. Yet, unless we admit the possibility that the child who is a failure when faced with a traditional curriculum presented in the traditional way may profit from a different approach to it, we are condemning a section of our post-primary population to futility. Furthermore, without such an

assumption, this thesis would itself be futile, for unless we are prepared to assume that these non-academic children are capable of obtaining an education which is of real value, all atempts to plan curricula for them are also foredoomed to failure.

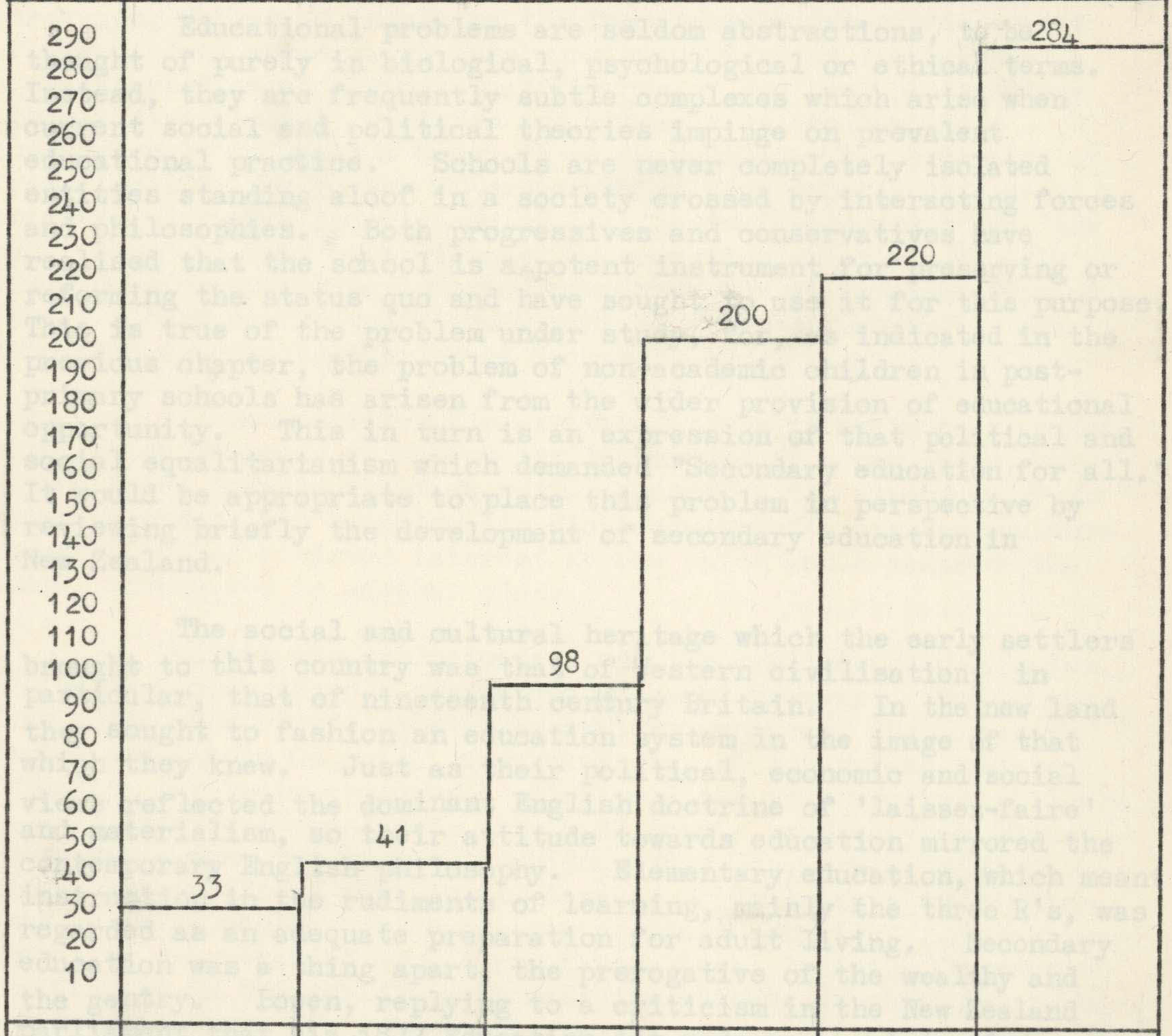
GROWTH OF NEW ZEALAND POST-PRIMARY POPULATION 878-1951



- From figures given in "The Quest for Security in New Zealand" - W.B. Sutch and "The New Zealand Year Book"

TABLE 1

GROWTH OF NEW ZEALAND POST-PRIMARY POPULATION 1878-1951



- From figures given in "The Quest for Security in New Zealand" - W.B. Sutch and "The New Zealand Year Book".

CHAPTER II

THE HISTORICAL BACKGROUND TO THE PROBLEM

"SECONDARY EDUCATION FOR ALL"

Educational problems are seldom abstractions, to be thought of purely in biological, psychological or ethical terms. Instead, they are frequently subtle complexes which arise when current social and political theories impinge on prevalent educational practice. Schools are never completely isolated entities standing aloof in a society crossed by interacting forces and philosophies. Both progressives and conservatives have realised that the school is a potent instrument for preserving or reforming the status quo and have sought to use it for this purpose. This is true of the problem under study, for, as indicated in the previous chapter, the problem of non-academic children in post-primary schools has arisen from the wider provision of educational opportunity. This in turn is an expression of that political and social equalitarianism which demanded "Secondary education for all." It would be appropriate to place this problem in perspective by reviewing briefly the development of secondary education in New Zealand.

The social and cultural heritage which the early settlers brought to this country was that of Western civilisation; in particular, that of nineteenth century Britain. In the new land they sought to fashion an education system in the image of that which they knew. Just as their political, economic and social views reflected the dominant English doctrine of 'laissez-faire' and materialism, so their attitude towards education mirrored the contemporary English philosophy. Elementary education, which meant instruction in the rudiments of learning, mainly the three R's, was regarded as an adequate preparation for adult living. Secondary education was a thing apart, the prerogative of the wealthy and the gentry. Bowen, replying to a criticism in the New Zealand parliament that his 1877 Education Act made no provision for secondary education stated, "It is not intended to encourage children whose vocation is that of honest labour to waste in the higher schools time which might be devoted to learning a trade when they have not got the special talent by which that higher education might be made immediately useful."

Furthermore, the secondary schools established before 1877 were closely modelled on the English prototype, with its stress on corporate school spirit and skill in games. Their curriculum was essentially academic, usually classical in spirit. The 1877 Act defined this curriculum as "All the branches of a liberal education

comprising Latin and Greek classics, French and modern languages, mathematics and such other branches of science as the advancement of the colony may from time to time require".

Just as the statement by Bowen, quoted in the previous paragraph, failed to recognise the increasingly democratic spirit of New Zealand society, so this curriculum ignored the needs of a country based on an agricultural economy. New Zealand secondary schools have strongly resisted any attempts to broaden their curriculum or to admit a wider range of pupils by the extension of free places. The forces of conservatism have stoutly defended this exclusiveness and claimed that an academic education was "the real thing". They have regarded an education which was broadly vocational as something inferior, designed for an inferior type of pupil. Here was a social order such as Professor MacMurray has described in "The Boundaries of Science":

" 'Knowledge for its own sake' tends to arise in a society which is quite ready to accept the techniques of a new order, but is not ready to accept any essential change in the structure of an existing order, nor to allow the displacement of a standard culture in which it has a vested interest by one which would transfer the social advantages to another class."

Neither the exclusiveness nor the traditional curriculum of the secondary schools passed unchallenged however. During the last two decades of the nineteenth century, workers, through their Trades and Labour Councils, were demanding secondary and technical education for their children. They realised that if their children were to "better themselves", they must have a secondary education which would open the door to a white collar job. Similarly, in technical education, parents saw a means of learning a trade which they believed would provide greater economic security. Post-primary education was regarded as a form of vocational training, a means to "getting on in the world", a process the success of which was to be measured in terms of examinations passed and qualifications acquired. The development of the personality, training for citizenship, the cultivation of aesthetic sensitivity were all subordinate to this end.

When Hogben became Inspector-General of Schools in 1899 he forced secondary schools to accept free place pupils either by establishing, or by threatening to establish, district high schools or technical schools within their areas. Faced with the choice of accepting these pupils or seeing financially assisted schools reduce both their rolls and their revenue, secondary schools gradually capitulated. Finally, the 1914 Education Act legally compelled all

state schools to accept pupils who had passed the primary school proficiency examination. Such pupils were entitled to a minimum of two years' free secondary education which, if an intermediate examination were passed, could be extended to the age of nineteen. The abolition in 1936 of the external proficiency examination removed the last educational barrier to secondary education for all. Social legislation providing for minimum wages, family benefits and social security has tended to reduce the financial burden which in the past limited educational opportunity.

One problem remained to be solved however, namely, the content of the post-primary curriculum. Essentially academic in scope, content and in methods of presentation, the traditional curriculum had lost contact both with the cultural environment from which it had sprung and with the social environment for which it was educating. Two major influences contributed to this rigid formalism. Since 1888 the University Entrance Examination, known as Matriculation, had dominated the work of the secondary schools. As its title indicates, it was originally a test of the pupil's fitness to commence university study. Unfortunately both employers and parents began to regard it as a certificate of a good secondary education. The extent of its influence is shown by the following figures taken from the Hon. H.G.R.Mason's "Education To-day and Tomorrow" published in 1944:

"Broadly speaking, two-thirds of the children leaving the primary schools of recent years have gone on to secondary schools; of these, about one-third again have sat for Matriculation; of these, less than half have passed; of those passing, about half have begun a degree course; of those beginning such a course, considerably less than half have completed a degree. It is obvious that a secondary-school system organised primarily to cater for this much-sieved minority to the relative neglect of the majority would involve enormous wastage of effort."

The second major influence which militated against any attempt to readapt the curriculum to current needs came from the supporters of the status quo. Teachers of academic subjects had a vested interest in the continuation of the traditional curricumum. Parents recognised the monetary advantages which Matriculation bestowed and urged their children to this goal. The tacit faith which public opinion held in the disciplinary value of mathematics and foreign languages was reinforced by the belief that equality of educational opportunity meant that every child had the right to compete for the same examination.

Hogben attempted to liberalise the curriculum and make it more responsive to New Zealand conditions by the introduction of manual and technical subjects. But the district high schools which

he had established to compel secondary schools to accept non-fee paying pupils had themselves adopted the traditional curriculum. Attempts to introduce agriculture and practical subjects were unenthusiastically received, for the rural district high schools had already determined their function. Their mission was to push the more intelligent country pupils through Matriculation so that these young people might obtain a white collar job in the public service. In his 1940 Centennial Survey publication "New Zealand Now", Oliver Duff describes how the first district high school established at Lawrence in the South Island, carried out this function under its famous headmaster John Stenhouse:

" ..... For forty years without a break he drove, pushed, flogged, and frightened three generations of boys and girls out of the street into the examination room and sooner or later into government jobs; for local opportunities were few, and he made his school a source of supply for what was then called the Civil Service."

A more recent survey, Professor F.L.W. Wood's "This New Zealand" summarised Hogben's efforts thus:

"In theory, Hogben could have ridden roughshod over the prejudices of teacher and parent alike; but in practice, the tradition he was attacking was impregnably entrenched in the human material with which he had to work. He could give a powerful impulse but could not impose a revolution; educational conservatism was shaken and dismayed but not destroyed."

During the last decade, the teaching profession has become increasingly aware of the limitations of the post-primary curriculum. This extract from a survey by the Secondary Schools' Association in 1936 is indicative of the change of mood:

" ..... the curriculum, through prescriptive deference to external examinations and to false valuations thereby engendered of foreign languages and mathematics, fails entirely to interpret social studies as a preparation for citizenship, sectionalises when it should integrate science, and neglects the rich cultural province of art. It fails culpably on the creative, artistic and physical sides."

The Association went on to recommend that "The curriculum should contain a cultural core consisting of English, social sciences, general science, health, handwork, art and music, and arithmetic..... ..... and the Matriculation examination so far as it effects secondary schools should be abolished." These were revolutionary ideas but this was a period when educational theory and practice were in the melting pot. The 1935 general election had brought a Labour

government into power and placed the portfolio of education in the hands of one of its most capable ministers. The 1937 New Education Fellowship Conference had aroused wide interest and disseminated modern overseas ideas. The atmosphere was favourable for reform.

The 1939 report of the Minister of Education stated:

"The Government's objective, broadly expressed, is that every person, whatever his level of academic ability; whether he be rich or poor, whether he live in town or country; has a right as a citizen to a free education of the kind for which he is best fitted, and to the fullest extent of his powers. ..... continued education is no longer a special privilege for the well-to-do or the academically able; but a right to be claimed by all who want it to the fullest extent that the State can provide."

This statement is worthy of careful study, for not only does it indicate a new attitude to post-primary education, but it also poses a problem which is the basis of this thesis. Whereas "equality of educational opportunity" had previously meant that every child had the right to receive the same type of education, this quotation clearly revealed a new interpretation. Enlightened opinion thirty years ago would have completed this sentence after the words "free education". The onus would then have been placed upon the child to profit from the type of education offered. Now educational authorities were expected to fit the education given to the child. This was a complete re-orientation. It is not surprising that the "new education" and the idea of a "child-centred curriculum" should have met with such vigorous opposition, not only from the defenders of the traditional curriculum, but also from those of more moderate views.

Those who were in enthusiastic agreement with the Minister's statement found however, one major problem confronting them, namely, what kind of education some of these pupils required. Even before the minimum school leaving age was raised to fifteen years, there were many children in the schools who could not adequately handle the conventional curriculum. Whereas the traditionalist could stress the disciplinary and cultural value of mathematics and languages and show that intelligent pupils needed this type of education for entry to the professions, the teacher of the non-academic child seldom knew what his purpose was or how he was to fulfil it. Schools approached the problem in various ways. Some provided courses which were predominantly practical in the belief that the child who was intellectually dull must have practical and manual abilities. Others retained the conventional curriculum but inserted semi-practical subjects of a utilitarian value. From the less intelligent pupils they expected a lower standard of work. This organisation seemed to be based on the theory that the new post-primary population differed only in intellectual ability from their more able companions. A few schools endeavoured to provide "rounded-off" courses of two or three years'

duration, but most seemed to be more concerned with the demands of Matriculation and the needs of the more intelligent.

The Consultative Committee set up by the Minister of Education in 1942 to consider the implications on the school curriculum of the proposed introduction of accrediting for entrance to the University defined the purpose and the type of curriculum in more detail. As the present post-primary educational pattern is based on this Committee's recommendation, they are worthy of careful study.

CHAPTER III

THE 1942 CONSULTATIVE COMMITTEE REPORT

After a preliminary statement that all post-primary pupils "irrespective of their varying abilities and occupational ambitions" should receive "a generous and well-balanced education", the Committee proceeded to define such an education in terms which were essentially social:

"Such an education would aim, firstly, at the full development of the adolescent as a person; and, secondly, at preparing him for an active place in our New Zealand society as worker, neighbour, home-maker, and citizen. Up to a point one aim implies the other; and such qualities as strength and stability of character are fundamental to both. In the words of one writer: "The aim of modern education is to create people who are not only self-disciplined and free in spirit, gifted in work and in enjoyment, worthy and desirable as persons, but also responsible and generous in social life, able to give and take freely from others, willing to serve social ends and to lose themselves in social purposes greater than themselves."

This stress on the needs of society is significant, for earlier statements of educational philosophy had implied that individuality was supreme. Now: "The schools have the over-riding duty ..... of assisting to build up a democratic society capable both of defending its essential values and of widening and deepening their influence." To this end the Committee recommended that the curriculum should consist of a compulsory common core of subjects; English language and literature, social studies, general science, elementary mathematics, music, art and craft, and physical education. The Committee hastened to add that it was not stressing general at the expense of vocational education. This division was deprecated and a recommendation added that for many children general education might well develop from the study of the social implication of vocational topics.

The second major recommendation is particularly apposite to this survey. Recognising the wide range of abilities and aptitudes of the new post-primary population, the Committee recommended an "active and realistic approach" to learning and teaching, but again hastened to add that it was not suggesting that intellectually bright children should receive a "bookish" general education while those who lacked the requisite verbal ability should receive an education which was predominantly "practical".

"A general education can be secured in practical ways; and a differentiation should often be considered not so much as a problem of curricular content as one of method - i.e. of adapting the approach to the abilities of the pupil."

However the Committee did realise that some differentiation of subject matter would be necessary to cater for individual interests, and recommended a wide range of optional subjects. By such methods it was hoped that education would succeed in tapping the creative energies of adolescents. As proof that methods were successful, the Committee referred to the results of an experiment recorded in Dr. Aikin's "The Story of the Eight-Year Study".

It was recognised that schools would need a large measure of freedom to plan and organize curricula and courses in order to implement these recommendations. The Committee was anxious that restrictive controls such as external examinations and prescribed syllabuses should be reduced to a minimum. The core subjects which were pre-requisite to School Certificate would not be examined externally, but at the end of four years (three years for the bright minority), pupils would sit an external examination in English and at least three, but not more than four, optional subjects. Clearly, the freedom which the Committee had conferred on schools was a freedom within certain limits imposed by basic topics within the common core and by the requirements of an external examination at the end of three or four years. It was a freedom to select, to plan and to interpret, not a freedom to strike out boldly.

Aware that the majority of post-primary pupils would not proceed to university, the Committee recommended that all courses leading to School Certificate should be regarded as unities complete in themselves rather than as a preparation for later schooling. Furthermore, the Committee deplored the too rigid division into subjects characteristic of the traditional curriculum. One suggested method was that the subject boundaries between English and social studies be partially abolished and that one teacher should handle the composite topic. Again, the Committee approved the principle that the School Certificate examination should be attainable from any of the recognised courses in the school. To ensure that there should be no 'soft options', the Committee admitted only substantial subjects and considered that the standard of attainment should be sufficiently high to demand "not only powers of application but also an adequate level of general intelligence."

The Committee then discussed each of the subjects forming the common core and outlined aims, approach and content. It was frankly stated that the approach to each subject was that of an educated layman rather than of an academic specialist. Therefore the subject matter of the core contains "what any intelligent parent might expect his son or daughter to be given at school." Much of the syllabus, therefore, is based on the environment of the child, the approach is realistic and the purpose frequently utilitarian.

These are the major recommendations upon which the present post-primary syllabus has been framed. Clearly, the curriculum has been broadened and the content revised. But before attempting to assess the new syllabus in relation to the education of non-academic pupils, we should have a clear, general idea of what the pupil will actually receive in any school which is making an honest attempt to implement this syllabus.

Under the post-primary regulations, certain minimum allocations of time are required. These are set out in Table 2 on the following page. Here the core subjects are divided into four major groups with a minimum allocation to each group. Few schools however reduce the time devoted to core subjects to the compulsory minimum. Table 3 is an analysis of practical courses in a secondary school, a technical high school and a district high school. In each case more time is devoted to core subjects than the regulations demand. In general, the optional subjects chosen by non-academic boys tend to be practical and are usually selected from the following: animal husbandry, agriculture, horticulture, dairying, woodwork, metalwork, trade drawing, workshop practice, heat engines. The pupil's choice is conditioned both by the environment in which he lives and by the courses available at the school. For example, district high schools in small towns surrounded by a large rural area tend to develop a course with at least one subject taught at the manual training centre - woodwork or metalwork, and either agriculture or horticulture.

The actual content of the syllabus also varies from school to school, depending both on the scholarship and the interests of the teacher. This is as the Committee desired. However, it is possible to distinguish certain common features:

ENGLISH

The basic aim of English teaching is the communication and comprehension of ideas. The writing of clear, concise English, devoid of insincerity and artificiality, is now the ideal. Approximately one-fifth of the time is occupied in the writing of essays, paragraphs, letters, summaries and related exercises. Another fifth of the time is spent in oral work such as short talks, discussions, and debates, although in some schools there is a tendency to place more emphasis on written exercises than on oral work. Most classes have at least one textbook, usually of the conventional type, which contains several short extracts taken from classics and from books supposedly of interest to adolescents, followed by a series of comprehension questions, grammar and vocabulary exercises, and suggestions for further written work.

Literature occupies about two of the five periods. In some schools this means that poetry anthologies and books of prose extracts are read aloud in class or that the group works its way through such novels as "Treasure Island" or "Oliver Twist". In other schools the approach to literature is more vital, with the

TABLE 2

MINIMUM UNITS IN NEW ZEALAND POST-PRIMARY SCHOOLS

SUBJECT	UNITS (one unit = one hour)		
	First Year	Second Year	Total For School Certificate
English & Social Studies	5.5	5.0	14.5
General Science & Elementary Mathematics	3.5	2.5	8.0
Music, Art or Craft - including Homecrafts	2.5	2.5	7.0
Physical Education	2.0	2.0	6.0
	13.5	12.0	35.5

TABLE 3

AN ANALYSIS OF TIMETABLES OF PRACTICAL COURSES IN POST-PRIMARY SCHOOLS

SUBJECT	UNITS		
	Secondary Schools	Technical High Schools	District H. Schools
English	4.2	4.25	4.0
Social Studies	2.2	2.75	3.6
Science	2.75	2.25	3.4
Music	.75	1.5	1.4
Art and Craft	-	1.5	1.3
Core Mathematics	2.25	2.2	2.1
Physical Education	2.2	2.0	2.6
Options			
Woodwork	2.0	3.6	1.35
Metalwork	2.75	-	1.35
Agriculture	-	-	3.1
Motor	3.0	-	-
Technical Drawing	2.75	2.25	-
Technical Electricity	.75	-	-
Engineering	-	2.2	-
	25.6	24.5	24.2

stress placed on play-reading and acting, enjoyment of vigorous writing and frequent use of a well-equipped school library.

SOCIAL STUDIES

The Committee regarded an integrated course of history, geography and civics as a means of deepening the pupils' understanding of human affairs and of developing effective citizenship. The work in social studies is based on the theme of the life of man in society. Beginning with a social survey of their local community, the children proceed to apply the techniques acquired and the basic information gained to a study of the life of the major peoples of the contemporary world.

To place the work in historical perspective, the pupils also study the development of Western civilisation, both in its technological and cultural aspects. Most schools try to avoid too much detail and treat this section in broad outline to illustrate the growth of democracy and development of Western culture.

Pupils are generally required to keep notebooks containing maps, diagrams, illustrations and notes. Although textbooks are still in common use, the broadening of the syllabus has necessitated greater use of library facilities. In addition, most schools now make regular use of films, sets of maps and illustrated material. It is usual also to devote part of the social studies time to discussion of current events arising from newspaper reports and news broadcasts.

GENERAL SCIENCE

The Committee decided that the role of science in the development of the modern world was of such vital importance that all pupils should have some knowledge both of its methods and its contributions. Furthermore, since most pupils have a vital interest in scientific and technological topics, the general science course should be based on this "common experience of children" and should develop from their interests. It was considered that a course in "general" science rather than the study of one particular science was of greater value. Accordingly, a syllabus of twenty major topics arising from chemistry, physics, heat, light, botany, biology, anatomy, physiology and nutrition was framed on the basis that these topics all formed part of the "common experience of children." As most schools contain well-equipped laboratories, practical and experimental work can be carried out. Again it is usual for pupils to keep notebooks in which notes and labelled diagrams record experimental work. Textbooks are still in use, although more progressive schools are relegating the textbook to background reading and concentrating on practical work supported by use of the school library.

ELEMENTARY MATHEMATICS

The elementary mathematics course is designed to cater for "the needs of those pupils who may not have much mathematical ability and yet must be able to perform accurately the simple calculations in number, money, and weights and measures required in everyday life." The content of the course is therefore essentially utilitarian and the recommended approach practical and realistic. The Committee considered that much of the data used in mathematical calculations should arise from the daily life of the family. The keeping of accounts, the use of tables of statistics, the simple geometrical calculations required in building or construction should all be utilised.

MUSIC, ARTS AND CRAFTS

New Zealand post-primary education has always regarded the arts as subordinate to the major function of the school - the teaching of academic subjects. Consequently, school choirs and orchestras, drama and painting groups have usually been extra-curricular activities inaugurated by some enthusiastic teacher for a small group of interested children. The Post Primary Regulations, 1945, require all pupils to receive music and art or craft as part of the normal school curriculum. The actual content of these courses was left to the individual schools, but the Committee recommended that the following topics should be included:

Music: Choir and instrumental work, classroom singing based on sight-reading, appreciation of music.

Art and Craft: In addition to woodwork and metalwork for boys, and homecrafts and embroidery for girls, provision should be made for the teaching of the following crafts; drawing, modelling, design, bookcrafts, textile crafts and puppetry. In addition, appreciation and discrimination should form an essential part of all work in art and crafts.

PHYSICAL EDUCATION

Physical education has always been an article of faith in New Zealand post-primary education, particularly in boys' schools. The new syllabus has broadened the scope and made the work less formal. Greater emphasis is placed on the acquisition of a wide range of skills and on the development of games which can be continued after leaving school. In addition, the work in physical education should include the keeping of weight and height records, instruction in health education, and the carrying out of simple remedial work.

THE OPTIONS

In addition, it is usual for pupils to select two subjects from the list of options. Non-academic pupils tend to select one practical subject taken at the manual training department and one subject, frequently pre-vocational, taught by a specialist teacher on the school staff. As the range of subjects is wide, no attempt is made to discuss the content of these subjects.

CHAPTER IV

AN EVALUATION OF THE 1945 SYLLABUS

IN RELATION TO THE NEEDS OF NON-ACADEMIC PUPILS.

In the previous chapter an attempt was made to explain the philosophy behind the new syllabus and then show what kind of education children receive in our schools. This syllabus has been in use for eight years and the consensus of opinion is that it is an improvement on the previous system. However, it has not escaped criticism both from professional and from commercial groups. Many teachers have felt that the course in social studies lacked the unity and continuity of the former history and geography syllabus, while some science teachers have regarded general science as a collection of scientific odds and ends. Those who supported the traditional curriculum have deprecated the decline of mathematics and foreign languages.

"The modern languages have never been a completely undisputed article of faith in New Zealand, I imagine, but there undoubtedly is a tendency today to whittle down the importance both of Classical and Modern Language Studies."

- the Chairman's Address to the Language Teachers' Refresher Course, Auckland, 1951.

The evaluation of these general criticisms is not relevant to this thesis. It is necessary, however, that the syllabus as a whole should be evaluated in relation to the needs of the non-academic pupils. Recently, post-primary teachers have become increasingly aware that despite the liberalising effects of the Consultative Committee's recommendations, there was still a large group of pupils who were not coping successfully with normal classroom instruction. This general uneasiness caused the Post-Primary Teachers' Association to undertake a survey which would reveal both the extent and the nature of the problem. This report is summarised and discussed in later chapters.

But it is not necessary to read the Association's report to realise the magnitude and importance of this problem. A brief inspection of the work of a large school will reveal adequate proof that the provision of secondary education for all pupils has not meant that all pupils are obtaining a secondary education. Among the lower forms one finds abundant evidence of untidy and careless work, and of work which is well below a reasonable standard of scholarship. The first is frequently the result of an attitude towards school which is expressed in the slang expression, "I couldn't care less," the second, an indication that the work is badly adjusted to the degree of

intelligence and ability of the pupils. It is noticeable too, that the rate of early leaving is higher in these classes, and this again is symptomatic of the educational complex: lack of ability - lack of success - lack of interest - desire to leave. The problem is fundamentally one of maladjustment. The school is providing a type of education which is not suited to the calibre of the pupils; and the pupils, because they can not cope with the education offered, transfer their interests and efforts to activities beyond the classroom. Since the educationalist can not increase hereditary endowment, the school must adjust itself to the pupils. Before it can attempt this it must decide the cause of this maladjustment.

Despite the inclusion of cultural and practical subjects in the curriculum of all pupils, New Zealand post-primary education remains predominantly abstract. This is understandable since one of the fundamental aims of education is to teach pupils to think, and thinking involves the use of abstractions. For children of above average intelligence, conceptual thinking creates no real difficulty. Once they have grasped the significance of a concept it becomes a part of their thinking and an instrument for attacking new ideas. The non-academic child too, needs to be capable of thinking conceptually, but because of his intellectual limitations, he needs to grasp not just the symbol, but the reality behind the symbol. This difference may become clearer if the two methods of learning are contrasted. A skilful teacher using diagrams can convey to able pupils the meaning of geographical terms such as 'contour', 'gradient', 'scale', and 'orientation'. Once grasped, these concepts can be used to describe or interpret a geographical region. The non-academic boy finds the idea of contours as a series of imaginary lines at fixed intervals, representing the height of the terrain, a difficult concept to grasp. But if he uses a theodolite, a chain measure and a compass to survey an area and from these facts draws his own map to represent what he has seen and measured, these terms cease to be meaningless words and acquire a new significance. The symbol has acquired a meaning and he is now equipped to interpret topographic maps of unknown regions because these basic terms have become part of his thinking.

The greatest danger in planning for these pupils is that of confusing real knowledge with the acquisition of facts. Knowing is an active process which requires the conscious effort of the learner. Until meaning and significance have been grasped, the learning process is incomplete. The acquisition of facts gives the semblance of knowledge, although it may be little more than a feat of memory. It requires little comprehension or appreciation to commit to memory potted literary verdicts such as, "Shakespeare was a great poet," "Keats and Shelley were Romantics," '"Gulliver's Travels" is the greatest prose satire in the English language." Similarly, the ability to reproduce ten facts about the climate, topography, mineral resources, and settlement patterns of Brazil is no proof that the pupil has any

real understanding of the area. Yet in an education system dominated by examinations, these pass for knowledge, and the ability to regurgitate them under examination conditions is more valued than the more faltering expression of genuine appreciation. If ducation is to be a vital force in the life of non-academic pupils it must increase understanding, not merely provide information.

This danger exists in the teaching of all subjects, but particularly in the teaching of social studies. The new syllabus contains a section dealing with the growth of Western civilisation, which has been inserted to give children a knowledge of the development of the modern world. This chronological approach appeals to the adult mind both because it is logical and because it is analytical. Those who have attempted to teach this subject have found themselves in something of a dilemma. If pupils are to understand the various ancient civilisations, they need to study their way of life; dress, housing, social organisation, customs, culture, etc. To treat fully each civilisation in this manner requires more time than the school can provide. To obviate this difficulty, other teachers have attempted to treat the subject in broad outline, concentrating on the various contributions which each civilisation has made to Western culture. Again this creates a difficulty, for to talk about freedom, political organisation or justice requires the ability to think abstractly and to generalise; two abilities which young adolescents find difficult. Either a limited scope will be covered intensively, or pupils will acquire a pseudo-knowledge of the whole. Neither adequately fulfils the requirement of the syllabus.

A particularly sound feature of the new social studies syllabus is the importance attached to the survey of the local area as a key to the understanding of the social life of the home community. This provides an opportunity for that purposeful activity which is too frequently lacking in post-primary education. Ideally, this should involve first-hand research which would bring pupils into direct contact with the work of the community. Having gained an understanding both of the local area and of the methods of study, pupils can move on to examine the social life of other people in other regions. They would now have a basis for comparison, a yard-stick against which to measure other human communities. For non-academic boys the local survey might well be the centre of the whole social studies course. A survey of the various occupations has an obvious interest to young adolescents who will soon be entering the world of work. A study of the various social organisations and of local government at work opens up the whole field of the duties of responsible citizenship. Most important, the local survey requires physical and mental activity. It destroys the type of teaching which consists of facts taken from a textbook or from the notebook of the teacher, and compels class and teacher to work out their own salvation.

The third aspect of the social studies course which deserves commendation is the emphasis now placed on the study of current affairs. An understanding of the modern world seems to me more vital than a knowledge of some ancient civilisation. Furthermore, to understand events in the contemporary world the pupil needs to know something of the geography and history of the region. To comprehend the problems of the nationalisation of oil in Persia, pupils must discover information on the history of the country as well as realise the geographical significance of the Middle East, the importance of oil in modern transport, and the political forces at work behind the scene. For non-academic pupils this approach appears preferable to the regional study of geography and the chronological study of history.

These are some of the strengths and weaknesses of the new syllabus as revealed by an examination of one subject, social studies. In the following chapter on the teaching of English, I have set out several suggestions which should obviate some of these difficulties.

CHAPTER V

SUGGESTIONS ON THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH TO NON-ACADEMIC BOYS

In a series of radio broadcasts last year Professor Gordon dealt with the question, "What is good English?" His answer was that it is English which is good for its purpose. Until this purpose is known, we can not judge whether the English used is adequate or appropriate. The same criterion might well be applied to the English taught to non-academic pupils in post-primary schools. It is generally recognised that these pupils require special treatment, but those who have attempted to design an English course for them have been confronted with two major problems, "What shall we teach them?" and "How shall we teach them?" These problems become simpler if teachers recognise that the test of a good syllabus is its suitability for the type of pupil for whom it has been prepared. Too frequently schemes of work are based on textbooks in use or prescriptions for external examinations and the pupil and his needs are ignored. The term 'needs' should not however be interpreted in a narrowly vocational sense, but should include the pupil's needs as an adolescent and as a future responsible citizen.

English is primarily a means of communication. This communication may be the expression of ideas, thoughts and feelings as in speech or writing, or the reception of them as in reading, listening or seeing. Literacy in the modern community involves competence in these five basic skills. In the following sections I have suggested ways in which the school can help non-academic pupils satisfy these needs.

SPEECH

The first problem is to get pupils to speak; the second, to encourage them to speak well. The greatest difficulty encountered by most teachers is the apparent lack of ideas among non-academic pupils. Many of them have a limited literary background and come from homes in which discussion seldom rises above immediate interests. For these children the first essential is to start them thinking. It does not matter much at first whether their ideas are right or wrong. We should be wary however, of accusing them of lack of ideas merely because they are not interested in topics which we consider should concern them. If you have listened to them talking in groups at morning break or as they wait for a bus after school, you will know that their grasp of sporting

information, mechanical knowledge and farming lore is considerable. If this is used as the basis for discussions, the boy has overcome one problem; he has something to say. He faces now only one difficulty; how to say it.

The value of informal and spontaneous discussion is not always realised and teachers often feel that time is being wasted if boys suddenly want to discuss a topic on the fringe of the lesson. I think that we tend to place too much emphasis on the prepared talk on a set subject, and ignore the necessity for intelligent, unbiased conversation. Few adults are ever required to deliver an address but all need to be able to converse sensibly or contribute to a discussion. As pupils begin to express their ideas more fluently, the range and difficulty of topics can be increased. One of the advantages of having social studies and English taken by the one teacher is that the subject matter of the former is excellent for oral discussion. It is desirable too that errors resulting from illogical thinking and prejudice should be examined and discussed, but the treatment needs to be light, informal, and, if possible, amusing. Nothing is more detrimental to spontaneous discussion than a formal pronouncement at the beginning of a period, "To-day we will discuss ....."

It is difficult to obtain good speech from non-academic boys. The speech habits of the local community are strong upon them, and the adolescent boy rather scorns refinements of speech. These two suggestions may be of value:

(1) The standard we should set is that of good New Zealand spoken English.

(2) Speech training in itself is of limited value at the post-primary school level unless pupils are conscious of a real need to improve their speech. Tape recorders have proved a valuable adjunct to foreign language teaching and might well be used in the teaching of English. Hearing one's voice for the first time can be a shattering experience, and could be just the shock to their complacency that adolescent boys require.

WRITING

It would be interesting to know how much writing the average manual worker or farmer does after he has left school. I suspect that the amount would be surprisingly small and would consist mainly of business letters, official forms, and accounts. It would seem, therefore, that much of the time devoted to the correcting or joining of sentences, the writing of so-called "essays" and the composition of synthetic adventure stories, if not wasted, would at least be better spent in cultivating a simple, direct style of

communication English and using it in contexts similar to those which pupils will encounter on leaving school. These would include the following:

(1) the writing of letters ordering goods, enclosing payments, applying for a position, sending and accepting invitations, booking accommodation, requestion information, etc.

(2) the writing of a paragraph setting out clear directions, e.g. putting down a concrete path, mending a puncture, explaining how to reach a street, etc.

(3) the writing of summaries which involve organising materials and careful tabulation, simple precis.

(4) the correct method of filling in Post Office Savings Bank forms, telegrams, money order forms, registration forms, cheques, etc.

Model letters and actual forms are kept in the pupil's English reference book and he is encouraged to add other information which may be of use after he has left school. The writing of 'friendly' letters is not set as a school exercise to be marked. The knowledge that the letter will travel no further than his exercise book and that it will be read and marked by a teacher reduces it to a purely academic exercise. Instead, pupils are encouraged to write to sick classmates and correspond with members of visiting school sports teams. Suggestions are made on what to say and how to say it, but the finished letter is not read by the teacher.

Regular practice in spelling, which might well be continued for all third and fourth forms, is essential for these pupils. Many of them have difficulty in spelling correctly because they have never learned how to look carefully at wordsl Spelling lists based on word frequency (Schonell "Essential Spelling List") are useful and to them are added words encountered in class. Teachers need to distinguish between words which will form part of the child's working vocabulary and those which are required for comprehension only. The first group requires intensive teaching, e.g. use in speech by teacher and pupil, use in writing, practice in spelling, word-building exercises, etc.

READING

The ability to read well is so essential for success in all subjects that the English teacher should ascertain early which pupils require remedial attention. Tests of word recognition (Burt: Test of Mechanical Accuracy), fluency and comprehension (Metropolitan Reading Test), are required to determine the pupil's reading age.

A comparison of reading age with mental age reveals wheher attainment has matched ability. District High Schools shoul be able to help adolescents with reading difficulties, as teachersin the primary department can give advice and assistance.

If these pupils are to develop the reading halit they require a classroom library which caters for their readng taste. This library should contain good modern writing such as"The Kon-Tiki Expedition", "Elephant Bill", and "The Wooden Horse". Modern books of war experiences, books of adventure, and animal stories appear to be more popular than traditional boys' classics such as"Treasure Island". Schools with limited library resources can oltain specially selected loans from the National Library Service.

LITERATURE

The keynote of the literature period should be enjoyment. Unless the keeping of literature books, reading lists and poetry anthologies contributes to this enjoyment, they are valueless and the time spent on them would be better devoted to more reading or dramatic work. These suggestions may be helpful:

(1) During early adolescence literary appreciation seems to develop from the emotions, and of these, humour and excitement are the easiest to arouse.

(2) Literature which deals with matters beyond the normal experience of adolescents is difficult for these pupils to fully comprehend and appreciate. Illustrative material and films help to extend this experience.

(3) For non-academic boys in a rural course a book such as "Me and Gus" is a useful beginning. The stories have a broad slap-stick humour, and deal with events within the experience of boys from farms. In addition, the local setting gives them an added interest.

(4) Extracts are useful only if they entice pupils to read the whole book. This means that these books must be readily available in school or classroom libraries.

(5) The short story has several advantages; it can be read in a period, good New Zealand short stories are easily obtainable, children can be introduced to major writers through their short stories.

(6) For non-academic pupils dramatic work is perhaps the best approach to literature. These boys show quite surprising ability when given a play to perform. The biggest problem is the availability of suitable plays such as, "Pirates Can't Be Gentlemen", "Oliver Twist", "Tom Sawyer". Again, the National Library will assist with class sets.

(7) Good narrative poems, e.g. "The Man from Snowy River", "Right Royal", "Reynard the Fox" make the greatest appeal. Music or art can sometimes be used to heighten appreciation of the poem. The poetry records obtainable from the British Council in Wellington are excellent, although they are more suitable for senior forms. We should try to avoid turning the appreciation of a poem into a comprehension exercise. Too much analysis can destroy appreciation.

THE RADIO AND THE FILM.

" To any body of men interested in the better shaping of the world, the influence of the cinema is a serious matter. By romanticising and dramatising the issues of life, even by choosing the issues it will dramatise, it creates or crystallises the loyalties on which people make their decisions. This, in turn, has a great deal to do with public opinions. "

- John Grierson, writing in the early thirties and quoted by Forsyth Hardy in "Grierson on Documentary".

" To what extent people draw their ideas from fiction is disputable. Personally I believe that most people are influenced far more than they would care to admit by novels, serial stories, films and so forth, and that from this point of view the worst books are often the most important, because they are usually the ones that are read earliest in life. "

- From an essay on 'Boys' Weeklies' by George Orwell.

"The most dangerous aspect of bad films ... is the repetition and glorification of false patterns of life .... The regular portrayal of false values in films is more pervasive and dangerous than the depiction of crime or impropriety .... It stands to reason that the moral values, social habits, and standards that are dinned into the public by film after film, must make a mark if only by repetition."

- From the "Report of the Departmental Committee on Children and the Cinema", presented to the British House of Commons, 1950.

The film and the radio have become powerful media of popular culture. Whether we regard them simply as means of mass entertainment, or as insidious forces undermining our ethical patterns and moral code, we can not afford to ignore this influence on impressionable adolescents. The school has the duty of establishing the habit of critical thinking and of assisting young

people to develop standards of criticism and good taste. This is particularly true of non-academic pupils for whom the radio and the film are all-too-frequently the only source of intellectual stimulation.

If English teaching is to be really effective, teachers must completely abandon the idea that this subject can be taught from a textbook. Just as the plays of Shakespeare can never become fully alive until they are acted on the stage, so English is not a vital force until it is used in speech and writing. The weakness of much of our teaching is that the English taght in schools bears little resemblance to the English of everday use.

CHAPTER VI

THE NEW ZEALAND POST-PRIMARY TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION

SURVEY OF CHILDREN OF LOWER INTELLECTUAL ABILITY

In 1952 the Post-Primary Teachers' Association decided to make a survey of children of lower intellectual ability and obtain the views of teachers on the most suitable provision for these pupils. Early this year the Association circulated a questionnaire to which sixty post-primary schools replied, and in May a report was presented to the annual meeting.

For the purpose of this survey the term " of lower intellectual ability" was applied to children with an I.Q. of below ninety. The selection of this figure was purely arbitrary and, the Association admitted, had no special significance. Clearly this definition of the problem is open to criticism, but this will be discussed later when the report is reviewed.

The first section dealt with the number of pupils of lower intellectual ability who were in the third form in 1950, the fourth form in 1951 and the fifth form in 1952. Schools unable to supply this data were asked to give the number of such pupils in the respective forms in 1952. The results obtained are set out in Table 4. On the basis of these figures the report estimated that 12.52% of the school population in the schools concerned had an I.Q. below ninety.

Most of these results were based on the Otis Higher Tests about which several schools expressed doubt especially when applied to non-European pupils. Allowing for such doubts and for errors in testing procedure, we may still compare the figure 12.52% with the figures taken from the Otis Higher normal distribution table. They are:

I.Q.	STANDARD DEVIATION	INTERPRETATION
Below 70	0.6%	Feeble-minded
70 - 80	4.2%	Border-zone
80 - 90	15.2%	Dull

Ignoring the group with an I.Q. of below seventy, since they do not normally enter post-primary schools, we see that 19.4% of a normal distribution would belong to the group labelled "pupils of lower intellectual ability." Yet from the data supplied in the report only 12.52% of these pupils were at post-primary schools

TABLE 4

NUMBER OF PUPILS OF LOWER INTELLECTUAL ABILITY IN SIXTY POST-PRIMARY SCHOOLS.		
Third form	Totals	1,934
Fourth form	Totals	1,042
Fifth form	Totals	294
GRAND TOTAL		3,270
Total roll of Schools		26,115

- from figures given in N.Z.P.P.A report.

TABLE 5

COURSES SELECTED BY PUPILS

OF LOWER INTELLECTUAL ABILITY

COURSE	Numbers given in P.P.A. Report	LARGE DISTRICT HIGH SCHOOL		
		European	Maori	Total
Agricultural	22	39	26	65
Home Science	25	39	15	54
Commercial	12	11	7	18
General	1	18	4	22
Industrial	37	No Industrial Course		

during 1950-52. This is clearly not a representative group of adolescents. There are three possible explanations for this discrepancy. It is possible that the sixty schools which replied to the questionnaire do not represent a fair cross-section of post-primary schools. As H.C. McQueen has shown in his book "The Background of Guidance", there is a significant difference in mean I.Q's. for secondary and technical school pupils. It is also seen from the report that at least one school has a large proportion of Maori pupils for whom the Otis tests may not be valid.

The second possible explanation is that many of these pupils designated 'border-zone' or 'dull' do not reach post-primary school. This is very probable although it is not possible to prove the statement from the figures given in the report. It is unfortunate that the questionnaire did not request the total number of third form pupils and thus allow the number of children of lower intellectual ability to be compared with the number of pupils in third forms.

The third explanation seems to me the most valid. Consideration of the totals for third, fourth and fifth form pupils shows that slightly more than half these children return for a second year but only a sixth of the original group enter the fifth form. As Mr. McQueen has shown in his book, dull children tend to leave school earlier than their more intelligent companions and one reason for their earlier leaving is their lack of success in school work. In designing any curriculum for these children, two points must be kept in mind; that 'nothing succeeds like success', and that courses which omit vital sections of the work until the fifth form will reach only a small number. This comparatively high rate of early leaving among dull children seems the most important reason for the discrepancy between the two sets of figures.

The second section of the report deals with the courses selected by these pupils. There seems to be a general preference for practical and prevocational courses and an avoidance of those containing foreign languages. In Table 5 there are given two sets of figures showing courses selected by these pupils. The first set is considered by the report a typical distribution, the second, compiled by the writer, is based on one district high school over a period of years. It would seem that this selection of courses is made by the pupils and their parents with schools giving tactful advice and endeavouring where possible to dissuade these children from entering the full academic course.

To question No. 6, which asked if it were desirable that all these children should be directed to one course, forty-four schools replied 'No' emphatically. A variety of reasons were given: character training, social contacts, interests, determination and

the belief that these pupils could attain reasonable results in all courses. It was pointed out however that in actual fact these pupils tended to enter the same course.

The question of special treatment within courses brought a large number of replies, many of which were contradictory, but all revealed that schools were aware of the problem and endeavouring to find a solution. It should not be assumed however, that this is necessarily the general picture in New Zealand schools. The fact that a number of schools did not reply to the questionnaire reveals that not all teachers regard the problem as particularly vital.

If the replies to this question are summarised, these generalisations appear. Some advocate additional practical work to compensate for failure in academic subjects. Others: "They should not have to go to a practical course - it is a betrayal of pupils whose mental powers are low." The second suggestion is that the work in the course should be shallower and the rate of progress slower; against which is the advice to restrict the scope and allow the pupils to study a restricted field more intensively. There are also contradictory views on the content of courses: "It is valuable that such a class should feel it is doing the same work as the rest of the school - it gives the child basic confidence, and a measure of satisfaction", "the whole treatment of some subjects is different, e.g. English." The general impression one gains on studying these replies is that professional concern is accompanied by some confusion and that professional efforts are restricted to repairing the more obvious defects.

Questions eight and ten discussed the problem in relation to the School Certificate examination. The report stated that there was almost unanimous agreement that these pupils could ultimately fit into a School Certificate course if they wished to do so, but that in practice few remained to try. The few who did remain usually spent four years before sitting the examination.

In Table 6 there is set out what little information is available concerning the ultimate vocations of these pupils. It shows that there is a tendency for these pupils to select clerical, semi-skilled and unskilled occupations . This aspect of the problem and the related topic of vocational guidance will be discussed later in the thesis.

The final section of the questionnaire asked for suggestions both on other aspects of the problem and on the teaching of special subjects or special groups. On some aspects there was complete difference of opinion, particularly on the merits of special classes. One group considered that there should be special classes of not more than twenty children for whom special staffing should be provided.

TABLE 6

VOCATIONS SELECTED BY PUPILS OF LOWER INTELLECTUAL ABILITY.

OCCUPATION	NUMBER
Farming	24
Shops and Warehouses	23
Offices	16
Home or Domestic	14
Factory	14
Less skilled trades	10
Carpentry	8
Post and Telegraph Dept.	8
Nurse or Nurse Aid	8
Easy apprenticeships	4
TOTAL	129

Another school recommended the formation of a forms three four and five composite class. Completely opposed to these vews was the school of thought which viewed special classes as a sigma, and felt that these pupils could profit from normal classroom teaching if they received sympathetic attention from an interested teacher. The importance of the teacher's attitude was frequently mentioned.

Several schools regarded the group as too broad and stressed that these pupils fell into at least three sub-divisions, each with its own needs. Particularly valuable was a report on an experiment, here quoted in full:

"After a year there was an astonishing improvement in a group, all under eighty I.Q., given one teacher for English, social studies and mathematics. They had extra time at physical education, woodwork, metalwork and painting. Each boy was studied as an individual and there were frequent conferences among teachers. After a year many were able to be absorbed in the ordinary courses."

Part II of the report listed the conclusions reached. These were as follows:

" 1. The problem of the low I.Q. child is a general one, although its present extent varies from school to school.

2. It is probably an increasing problem. Later figures tend to be larger than earlier ones. Well-established social promotion in the primary schools is likely to make the numbers continue to increase.

3. The problem has been accepted by the post-primary schools as part of the changing pattern of education and they are doing their best in a variety of ways to give these children the best possible education.

4. The problems outlined are not confined to the group examined in the present survey, but extend above the arbitrary figure of ninety. "

N.Z. POST-PRIMARY TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION (REG'D.)

QUESTIONNAIRE REGARDING PUPILS
OF LOWER INTELLECTUAL ABILITY.

THESE QUESTIONS REFER IN EVERY CASE TO PUPILS WITH AN IQ BELOW 90

1. How many such pupils were in your 3rd Form in 1950?
2. In your 4th Form in 1951?
3. In your 5th Form in 1952? (Ages on 1st January)

Under 14	14 & Under 15	15 & Under 16	16 and over	Under 14	14 & Under 15	15 & Under 16	16 and over	
								3rd Form
								4th Form
								5th Form

NOTE: If this information is not available, will you please give numbers in 3rd, 4th, and 5th Forms this year, and indicate accordingly. If not possible to give in age groups, give totals.

4. Indicate the courses in which such pupils enrol:

5. Do you bring any pressure to bear on their choice of course?

6. Do you consider it desirable that they should all be directed to one course?

7. Is there any special treatment provided within the course, e.g. in making it slower or shallower than the School Certificate Course, or in the provision of different subjects. (please elaborate).

8. Is any provision made for them to fit in ultimately to a School Certificate course?

9. What ultimate vocations do they choose?

QUESTIONNAIRE (Contd.)

10. Do any of them sit for the School Certificate examination

(a) in 3 years? .....

(b) in 4 years?.....

11. Please indicate separately any views you wish to express on any other aspect of the problem, either of a general nature, or in the form of an account of the teaching of a special subject or a special group.

CHAPTER VII

AN EVALUATION OF THE POST-PRIMARY TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION REPORT

As this report is the first effort to review the problem of children of lower intellectual ability in New Zealand post-primary schools, I shall attempt to evaluate it briefly and indicate what contributions it makes to the understanding of the problem. Before assessing it, we should note these three limitations; that this report is regarded as "a first step in what is intended to be a fuller inquiry", that it is an attempt to gain a "general picture of the existing situation", and, that no statistically accurate conclusions were expected to be drawn from the figures given.

The first criticism of the report deals with the definition of the pupils concerned. By dividing these pupils on the basis of an intelligence quotient, the report stresses unduly the role of intelligence in education. This is a definite weakness because, as a result of overseas research, we know that other factors such as mathematical and verbal ability, special aptitudes and interests all contribute to success or failure in education. For this reason I prefer the term "non-academic" which, although less scientifically exact, is more exacting, because it places the onus upon teachers to determine on the basis of school results whether a pupil is profiting from the curriculum provided. Comments in the report indicate that a few pupils whose I.Q's. fell below ninety do make satisfactory progress and, in a few instances, have passed the School Certificate examination. It is also clear that there were children whose I.Q's. were above this limit but who needed special attention.

Without attempting to draw detailed conclusions from the results given, we may safely say that the number of children requiring special provision is fairly large and is increasing as a result of social promotions in the primary schools. On the nature of this special provision there seems to be little agreement. Yet when replies are analysed the controversy over special classes seems to resolve itself. In actual practice these children tend to enter the more practical classes, perhaps as a result of parental pressure, school advice or the pupil's own preference. In this sense, whether a school approves of special classes or not, it contains at least one group requiring special attention. It does not follow, however, that schools have the right to draft all pupils of lower intellectual ability into this class. The parents' choice is the deciding factor.

In dealing with the content of courses, the report indicates that opinion is divided on the relative merits of practical and non-practical courses. One of the major weaknesses of the report is its failure to reconcile these claims. The fact that from this study no definite plan upon which schools might design a curriculum emerges, is indicative of the general confusion in New Zealand. If the various comments are analysed one gains the impression that schools' efforts are restricted to adapting, improvising, and repairing the more obvious defects. There seems to be little attempt to rethink the whole problem, to determine first the aims and purpose and then the methods to achieve them. This confusion of purpose is the most significant impression to emerge from the report.

Two approaches to the solution of this problem exist; the psychological and the comparative. A psychological study of adolescents reveals their abilities, needs and ambitions. Education then becomes a process of designing a curriculum which is adjusted to their abilities and satisfies their needs and ambitions. The second approach is based on a study of comparative education. Although each national system is unique and reflects national character and aspirations, social and economic forces and political systems, most systems are confronted with similar problems. The ways in which countries seek to solve these problems differ greatly. The value of the study of comparative education lies not only in the insight into the forces behind the education system, but also in possible approach to problems which it reveals. It is true that just as an education system can not be transferred without major adaptations, so must a suggestion derived from overseas be adjusted to suit local conditions.

The second section of this thesis is a comparative study of this problem as it occurs in England, the United States of America, and Canada. In each of these countries the concept of secondary education for all pupils is well established. We might reasonably expect, therefore, that each country has been confronted with this problem of children of lower intellectual ability. Our purpose is to discover how each country has met the problem and whether any solution has been discovered which is applicable to New Zealand. Because the New Zealand education system is modelled on the English pattern, we shall begin with that country.

SECTION II

A SURVEY OF SECONDARY EDUCATION IN ENGLAND.

CHAPTER VIII

THE ORGANISATION OF SECONDARY EDUCATION IN ENGLAND

Although grammar schools have existed in England since the Renaissance, the idea that all pupils should receive secondary education is modern. The 1944 Education Act provided for the first time genuine secondary education for all children over the age of eleven. Local education authorities were required to provide facilities "sufficient in number, character and equipment to afford to all pupils opportunities for education offering such a variety of instruction and training as may be desirable in view of their different ages, abilities and aptitudes, and of the different periods for which they may be expected to remain at school."

Section VIII
Duty of Local Authorities to Secure Provision of Primary and Secondary Schools.

This recognition of individual differences has caused the reorganisation of the English education system and created three main types of secondary schools; grammar, secondary modern, and technical schools. In cities these are usually separate entities, but in small towns and country areas they may be combined in various ways to form bilateral, multilateral, or comprehensive schools. Under the 1944 Act all three types of schools were to enjoy parity of facilities and prestige. All fees in schools controlled by local education authorities were abolished so that the child's ability to profit from the type of education given became the only test for his admission.

The decision on what type of school the child should enter was based on the assessment of the child's aptitudes as revealed by school records and intelligence tests. But, as the White Paper on Educational Reconstruction, 1943, states:

"The choice of one type of secondard education rather than another for a particular pupil will not be finally determined at the age of eleven, but will be subject to review as the child's special gifts and capacities develop. At the age of thirteen, or even later, there will be facilities for transfer to a different type of education if the original proves to have been unsuitable. The keynote of the new system will be that the child is the centre of education, and that so far as it is humanly possible, all children shall receive the type of education for which they are best adapted."

This does not simply mean that if a child makes good progress in a secondary modern school he may be promoted to the grammar school as a reward for industry. It does mean, however, that no system of classification at the age of eleven is infallible or final. One of the major criticisms of this system of classification has been that children who fail to be selected for grammar or technical schools consider themselves failures. Teachers of secondary modern school pupils feel that this attitude militates against the success of their schools.

The three types of schools provide for pupils of different abilities, interests and ambitions. The grammar school caters for a small group of secondary school entrants whose interests lie predominantly in books and ideas. For them the grammar school provides a curriculum containing mathematics and foreign languages, sciences and the social studies. Most of these pupils will enter the sixth form which is one of the distinctive features of grammar schools. Those children who are interested in industry and commerce enter technical schools where they receive an education in which mathematics and the sciences are essentials. These courses are not narrowly prevocational although the work in schoolroom and workshop is closely related to the industries and occupations beyond the school gates.

The majority of pupils, estimated at between seventy and seventy-five per cent, enter secondary modern schools. Most of these children have vague ideas about their future careers and lack the specialised interests of the pupils who enter grammar or technical schools. This apparent lack of interests is frequently mentioned in studies of secondary modern school pupils. J.J.B. Dempster in "Education in the Secondary Modern School", advances the theory that the intense curiosity in the surrounding world which characterises the young child is replaced during adolescence by an interest in ideas and ideals. But, for less intelligent pupils and for those pupils with a less favourable home environment, this transition is either very show or does not occur at all.

It would be a mistake however to assume that all the pupils who attend secondary modern schools are dull or mentally retarded. As seventy per cent of secondary pupils enter these schools, two-thirds of them are pupils of normal intelligence. In addition, provision must be made for those pupils who are below normal in intelligence and ability. English educationalists have appreciated the problem and have sought to design courses which will provide all pupils with a purposeful education. The following chapters examine the principles upon which these curricula are built, discuss the content of the courses and endeavour to evaluate them.

CHAPTER IX

THE SECONDARY MODERN SCHOOL

Secondary modern schools developed as an upward growth from the old elementary school. Encouraged by the recommendations of the 1926 Hadow Report on "The Education of the Adolescent", these schools attempted to provide facilities for higher education for children of eleven, twelve and thirteen years. Hampered by lack of finance, lack of prestige and a low permissive leaving age, they were a limited success. The 1944 Act raised them to equal status - which does not mean equal prestige - with grammar and technical schools, and encouraged them to develop a type of education suited to their own needs. This was a major problem for, whereas the grammar school had a long tradition to sustain it and the university to act as a guide, the secondary modern school lacked tradition and possessed no pattern of education which it could follow.

In the Ministry of Education Pamphlet, "The New Secondary Education", there is this significant statement:

"The aim of the modern school is to provide a good all-round secondary education, not focused primarily on the traditional subjects of the school curriculum, but developing out of the interests of the children. Through its appeal to their interests it will stimulate their ability to learn and will teach them to pursue quality in thought, expression and craftsmanship. It will interpret the modern world to them and give them a preparation for life in the widest sense, including a full use of leisure. It will aim at getting the most out of every pupil that he is capable of, at making him adaptable, and at teaching him to do a job properly and thoroughly and not to be satisfied with bad workmanship, and to be exact in what he says and does. Freedom and flexibility are of its essence and are indeed its great opportunity."

The most important point to emerge from this rather idealistic statement of aims is that the work of the secondary modern school should arise from interests of the child. But, as Dempster pointed out, one of the characteristics of many of these children is their apparent lack of interest in any topic associated with schooling. Repeated failure at school work may have prejudiced some and given them a distaste for anything connected with books. For this reason some of the most successful secondary modern schools have discarded the more academic approach through books and classroom instruction and set themselves the task of discovering the real interests of their pupils. Then they have attempted to let education develop from these interests which became motivating forces. This is a complete reorientation of education for whereas previously the

teacher tried to interest the child in the work of the school, now the work of the school stemmed from the interests of the child. This in turn meant that the teacher's interest which previously tended to be centred on the subject taught now became focused upon the child. The problem confronting teachers was the discovery of the interests of their pupils.

In a previous chapter we noted that the grammar schools were designed to cater for those pupils whose interests were predominantly academic and abstract. An analysis of the interests of secondary modern pupils revealed that they were essentially practical and focused on concrete experiences. The second point to emerge from this analysis was the need for activity, for planning, making and doing, rather than the more passive reading or listening. Furthermore, these activities were always purposeful, they were undertaken not merely for the satisfaction of doing, but because they were a means to an end which was itself satisfying. Finally, the child's interests were found to develop out of the material of his environment. Children in rural areas possessed a considerable knowledge of farming lore and practice, city children knew a great deal about life in the city. The problem then became how best to utilise this interest and knowledge so that the child's education assumed a new meaning and significance. Schools found the solution lay in the method of approach. Discarding the older 'chalk and talk' techniques with their logical presentation of information to be assimilated, the schools conceived the idea of selecting central topics, the significance of which could be comprehended only by extending research into several related fields. To be suitable, the topic must also allow for varying approaches which would appeal to children of different interests and abilities. It was felt that as the research and practical work required would involve much reading, writing, calculating and constructing, the work in the basic subjects would arise naturally and spontaneously. The teacher's function would then become that of guide, counsellor and friend, giving assistance when children met difficulties which they could not solve by themselves. Much of this assistance would be individual, but occasionally the whole class would be taught as a unit. Those who advocate these group project methods stress that children are more willing to accept formal instruction when they appreciate its value in solving some difficulty which they have already encountered.

To illustrate the way in which this method might be used, here is a summary of the suggested treatment of the topic "Houses", as reported in the Ministry of Education pamphlet, "The New Secondary Education". This is a topic of immediate interest to all pupils. If an additional stimulus is required, visual aids can be used to engage the children's curiosity. Groups then undertake the investigation of certain æspects among which might feature the following:

A study of the materials with which houses are built - bricks, stone-concrete; their nature and properties; reasons for use; comparison between local building materials and those used in other regions of England.

A study of building construction This could lead to a study of varying styles of architecture.

A study of the history of houses from the earliest forms to modern steel and concrete houses.

A study of interior decoration Home furnishings - applied art and craft.

A study of town planning

In addition such topics as rents, mortgages, ownership, insurance might be discussed as well as the work of local bodies in providing electricity, sewerage and water.

"There is scope for work in the library among books, maps and plans, for visits and surveys, for model-making and construction, and for the collection and ordering of information and material. In addition to the discovery and collection of factual matter, there will also be opportunities for creative effort in planning a house or the lay-out of a neighbourhood, or in evolving schemes of decoration and furnishing. The field of study might be small and detailed and confined to questions of local or personal significance, or it might broaden out to embrace questions that have wide social implications."

Critics of this method counter these assertions by claiming that the results are too fragmentary and the whole work lacks unity and continuity. Pupils who concentrate on one aspect fail to see the work as a whole. As a result their education consists of a mass of unrelated facts without logical pattern or form. This criticism is applied particularly to the social studies and sciences where logical development and continuity are essential features. Another criticism is that whole sections of the work may be neglected simply because the topic which the child is studying does not require a certain skill. For example, a child engaged in a project on the development of houses would probably not be faced with the necessity for learning long multiplication. It is therefore possible that he could leave school without ever receiving instruction in this basic skill. Finally there is the criticism that if a child undertakes a task merely because he is interested in it, he is simply playing. For these critics, real education is to be acquired only by concentration on a task which is not intrinsically interesting.

In reply to these criticisms, those who advocate project methods admit that to the teacher or to the critic the new methods lack the logical arrangement and order of the teacher's exposition of his topic to a passive class. But, they counter, do pupils always recognise this logical and orderly presentation? Do they always gain that clear, balanced view of the whole topic, grasped as a unity, which the teacher is so earnestly trying to convey? A cursory glance at examination scripts reveals clearly what an inadequate grasp, and what misconceptions children can gain from an apparently clear and simple exposition. The error lies in assuming that what is logically satisfying to the adult must also be logical and satisfying to the child. Perhaps a child finds that unity and inner satisfaction in dealing with heterogeneous material which the adult mind obtains only from the homogeneous.

It is doubtful whether any school could allow all its work to evolve from projects. Not only would too-frequent use dull the pupils' interests, but also the strain which research under the stimulus of a compelling interest imposes upon adolescents is considerable. In addition the wise school knows that a variety of approaches and methods is more likely to reach the largest number of pupils. Some schools are organized so that one teacher is responsible for the arithmetic, English and social studies and sometimes science of the class while specialists handle the work in art, music, physical education and the manual training subjects. In the core subjects schools endeavour to maintain a balance between projects and the more formal work of the class. During these formal periods basic skills can be taught and remedial work undertaken. The fear, expressed previously, that important sections of the work would not be taught is therefore groundless.

The third criticism, that education founded on interest is not real education, has, I think, already been answered. If to ignore the child's interests is to achieve nothing, education becomes futility. If interest can be harnessed to creat a motivating force, education can become the key that unlocs a new world for these children. It is true that the education which the boy at the secondary modern school receives difers both in content and emphasis from the more academic education acquired by the grammar school boy. Both seek knowledge; but with this important difference: The knowledge which the grammar school boy accumulates tends to be more formal, more abstract and more systematically arranged in logical patterns. That which the secondary modern pupil acquires develops from his interaction with his environment. His knowledge tends to be more concrete and more intimately related to his own life. To him, knowledge is a means to an end, not an end in itself. From it develops an understanding of men and of things which is essential for responsible citizenship.

CHAPTER X

THE WORK OF THE SECONDARY MODERN SCHOOL

English secondary schools, which are largely autonomous, have considerable freedom in planning curricula. As a result, many secondary modern schools have carried out bold experiments in providing education suitable for children of "different ages, abilities and aptitudes and of the different periods for which they may be expected to remain at school." This chapter is a survey of three such experiments which illustrate the type of education which these schools offer.

The first deals with the work of a secondary modern school built to serve the needs of a small town and the surrounding farming districts. As the ages of the pupils ranged from eleven to sixteen years, the school was divided into upper and lower departments. Realising that the younger pupils were not ready to work on their own, the headmaster decided that the first two years would be devoted to developing basic skills and to teaching pupils how to carry out research. This included methods of obtaining and checking information as well as instruction in the use of the library, on how to listen to radio and how to analyse the newspaper. At approximately thirteen and a half years of age pupils entered the upper school where they were able to select courses which appealed to their interests.

The curriculum of the school contained certain essentials; religious worship and instruction, physical education, reading, writing, arithmetic, 'general' science, and social studies. In addition, music, art, and literature were grouped as 'expression' subjects. This was the basis of a timetable purposely designed to be extremely flexible and responsive to the interests of the pupils. The material of the curriculum arose primarily from the pupils' own environment with textbooks and library facilities being used for reference purposes and for additional knowledge. Much of this research was carried out by groups, who were required to keep a written record of their activities. In the lower schools these methods were used in science and social studies with work in reading, writing and arithmetic directly related to the pupils' activities. The following list of group topics indicates the nature and extent of their research:

During the first two and a half years pupils took a rural science course, "My Surroundings", which dealt with such topics as climate, water, air, sanitation, and in an introductory way, with farming and gardening. In addition to an aquarium for the study of pond life, rabbit hutches, poultry houses and beehives were constructed and maintained by small groups of enthusiasts. Each

group formed a properly constituted committee which held regular meetings, kept minutes and accounts and compiled records of stock. In the upper school children were free to select from a number of courses among which were "Around the Machine Shop", and "Around the Engine Room." These courses were carried out in a machine shop built by the boys themselves and equipped with simple machinery found on farms or in factories. As an alternative to the engineering and agricultural courses a "Business of Living" course was planned. This would bring senior boys and girls together in planning and working to make a home. From this, the work in cookery, needlework, laundry work and nutrition would develop while the boys' syllabus in carpentry and cabinet making would contribute to furnishing the cottage.

The work of this school, summarised from R.N. Armfelt's "Our Changing Schools", illustrates one attempt to adapt the curriculum to the child's interests by utilising the raw material of his environment. Without seeing the scheme in action and observing the results, it would be unwise to attempt to judge it. Its particular relevance to this thesis is the approach to the problem which it reveals.

The second experiment is taken from "Theory and Practice in the New Secondary Schools" by Greenough and Crofts. This is an account of a two years' experiment at the Manor Secondary School, Chesterfield. In his introduction, Mr. Greenough stresses that in the Senior School, which preceded the Secondary Modern School, children were divided into streams according to standards of attainment. This attempt to secure homogeneous groupings failed because a group which was uniformly 'good' at English would include pupils whose attainment scores in other subjects varied widely. Mr. Greenough condemns ability grouping on another ground. Education does not mean only greater efficiency and wider knowledge. If children are to become mentally alert and emotionally stable they must mix freely with children of varying abilities and interests. The school which is rigidly organised into streams can not meet this requirement. For these reasons the staff established the following principles upon which the education of these children was developed:

i. That the child should be viewed as an individual.

ii. To allow for the wide range of ability the work should be as finely graded as possible. These abilities and aptitudes should be measured by standardised tests at regular intervals.

iii. That the child's interests as well as his abilities should be considered in deciding, not only what should be taught, but how this should be taught.

iv. That the school should attempt to adapt itself to children.

v. That the school should have full knowledge of the child's environment, particularly of his home life.

vi. That there was a need for remedial teaching, particularly in English and arithmetic, and that this teaching might best be under the general direction of one teacher.

To find out as much as possible about the attainments and potentialities of these pupils the following tests were administered:

a. Intelligence.
Otis A, Otis B.

b. Attainment Tests in Arithmetic and English.
(Dr. C.M. Fleming - "Measurement of Ability").

c. Interest Questionnaire.
(Dr. Uprichard).

d. Music.
(Dr. H. Wing - "Tests of Musical Intelligence").

e. Art.
A series of unpublished tests by Dr. Peel.

f. Manual Skills.
The Shoreditch Manual Skills Tests.

On the basis of these test results, children were divided into three classes, the first of which contained pupils whose abilities were mainly verbal. Class II was comprised of pupils with strong practical interests and abilities, while Class III was composed of children of low intelligence, whose verbal and practical abilities were about equal. Rigid groupings were avoided, particularly in English and arithmetic. For example, children with some aptitude in English formed a separate group which received a more academic and intensive course; children of mediocre ability formed a second group, the work of which was more concrete and the approach more practical; while the third group received remedial exercises in reading, writing and spelling. A similar organisation was devised for arithmetic so that pupils formed fairly homogeneous groups. In this way the rigid division into 'superior', 'average', and 'inferior' groups was changed so that a child could be in the 'A' stream for English, move into the 'B' stream for arithmetic, and be classified as 'C' in art and craft. As a result, children were working among pupils of approximately their own ability and consequently were able to feel that they were achieving a standard.

During the first two years all pupils followed a common course although the subject matter and the approach was modified

to suit varying abilities. In subsequent years fifty-five out of the seventy periods were devoted to 'core', and the remaining fifteen were made available for 'activity' subjects. The latter were subjects of vocational interest to older pupils, or, in the case of English and arithmetic, were subjects essential for success in some vocation. These catered for small groups of senior pupils still requiring personal tuition.

The following activities were offered by the school:

BOYS	GIRLS
Woodwork, metalwork, plastics	Housecraft
Mechanical drawing	Biology
Science	Needlework
Art	Art
English	English
Mathematics	Mathematics

The results of this scheme are of interest. The work in the activity periods was marked by a new sense of purpose as children recognised its vocational significance. This in turn led to better pupil-teacher relationships because teachers were dealing with subjects in which they were particularly interested and working with children who were enthusiasts.

The third example of the work of secondary modern schools is taken from an article in the May 1950 number of the magazine "Education." It is written by Joan Mirrielees, who had visited schools in the district controlled by the Lancashire Local Education Authority.

" The approach to education in these Secondary Modern Schools is extremely interesting. The English child is encouraged to develop as an individual through following his own interests, and the curriculum must be planned to this end. Formal work in English and arithmetic is individual and incidental, and applied to the actual experiences necessary for following through these interests. In social studies most of the work is preceded by ten to fifteen minutes of instruction by the teacher, after which pupils act, model or draw the history or geography lesson. To learn contours, altitudes, and physical features they make maps to scale in clay or papier mache. Leyland Secondary Modern has in the playground a huge sunken concrete map of the world, where the children sail ships from port to port, and place models of products, animals, trees, and peoples in their correct localities.

" Perhaps I can best illustrate this freedom by describing the organization and curriculum of a few schools I visited. I am

aware that these schools are the more progressive and unconventional ones, that there are still many schools in Lancashire that are mere extensions of the primary schools, and that all my observations on the English attitude are made after visiting only about twenty schools and talking with a limited number of teachers.

"At Blackrod Secondary Modern (mixed, about 250 pupils) the formal syllabus has been scrapped by a young and enthusiastic headmaster and replaced by projects on which the year's work in English, arithmetic, science, social studies, and art and crafts is based; he is supported unreservedly by the Education Authority. I shall outline his year's programme :

First Year (11 plus)

The Bus and Bus Driver. In arithmetic the calculations are not imaginary but real ones covering bus fares over all local routes, conductors' way-bills, mileages, petrol consumption, vehicular traffic passing the school, time-tables, speeds, rates of pay, cost of upkeep, etc. The English syllabus covers lecturettes on journeys; debates on all aspects of the subject; descriptions of the work of busmen, conductors, mechanics, road builders; road safety; highway code; writing letters for information. Reading is connected with travel. Social studies covers communication and transport; making maps to scale of local bus routes; where and how buses are manufactured; where and how raw materials and petrol are obtained; transport in other lands.

Second Year (12 plus)

Farming. A neighbouring farm has been adopted. Children visit it regularly, record information, and at school keep goats, fowls, bees, and white rabbits. During first periods of the afternoon and in the weekends, the children in unsupervized groups attend to the live stock.

Third Year (13 plus)

Boys: The Greenhouse. Girls: Housing and Interior Decoration.

Fourth Year (14 plus)

Survey of the Village. The staff has prepared sheets of instructions and questions on every subject for the year's project, but all the recording, letter writing, arranging visits to new housing schemes, sewage farms, factories, mills, and foundaries is done by the children. In craft lessons scale models of the project are made. There is little stress on academic work, and I found that much of the arithmetic, English, and social studies was done informally. The children were eager for work, and absorbed in carrying out their assignments.

"A feature of many schools is the annual visit to the Continent, or to London, Liverpool, Stratford, or some other place of interest. Before the visit considerable research is done by the teacher and pupils, and I saw many grand individual notebooks prepared after the visit, with detailed records, maps, diagrams, timetables, fares, expenses, descriptions of places visited, and their histories. These notebooks were usually completed during several whole days following the visit.

Not in any school did I find spelling on the time-table, either as an isolated or daily subject - it is incidental as required. Consequently some of the words misspelt would make a New Zealand teacher shudder, but on the other hand (except in the lowest ability groups) there were fewer 'common errors'. After all, if the twelve, thirteen, or fourteen year old child cannot use 'their, there', 'were, where', 'to,too', correctly after all the weekly drill we have given him over a period of at least five years, mightn't we have used that time more profitably? Such provocative thoughts carry over into other aspects of English. If the non-academic child at this age still hasn't mastered the use of the possessive, for instance, and is unlikely to use it often in the very little written work he will do after leaving school, couldn't the many half hours spent in teaching and revising possessives have been better spent in reading that would interest him and broaden his outlook? Selected books and extracts, read by the teacher, form a large part of the English programme, and these lessons are highlights in the day. Most schools have libraries containing many expensive and very attractive books, which are quite often duplicated in the classroom library. All schools have plentiful supplies of textbooks in all grades. Although the cupboards were bulging with them, new sets (selected from publishers' samples by the teachers, not by the Education Authority) were bought each year. Perhaps our lack of variety of textbooks makes our teaching of English more stereotyped. "

The practice of these schools illustrates the philosophies behind the education of secondary modern children. The remarkable features are the willingness of schools to experiment freely; the stress placed on interest as an incentive, and the emphasis on pupil activity as an essential concomitant of the learning process.

S E C T I O N I I I

S E C O N D A R Y E D U C A T I O N
I N C A N A D A.

CHAPTER XI

THE ORGANISATION OF SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN CANADA

Education in Canada is under the jurisdiction of the provincial governments, but though each of the ten systems varies in detail the general plan is similar. Except in Newfoundland and Prince Edward Island, schools are organised on the 6-3-3 plan, or some modification of it. The first six years (Grades I - VI) are devoted to elementary schooling, the second three years (Grades VII - IX) to intermediate, and the final three (Grades X - XII) form the senior school. A brief outline of the organisation of secondary education in two provinces, Alberta and British Columbia, illustrates the general pattern.

In Alberta the intermediate school, known also as the junior high school, provides general education and some exploratory experience through the system of options. These include music, art, industrial arts, home economics, oral French, typewriting and community economics. High schools can be divided into academic, vocational, commercial, or composite, according to which aspect predominates in the work of the school. Within the last ten years the tendency has been to develop composite schools on a regional basis so that pupils with varying needs and interests are educated within a single school. The curricula of all schools contain these compulsory subjects: English, social studies, health and physical education. Pupils then select a group of optional subjects from the following:

Academic Electives - Mathematics, sciences, languages.
Commercial Electives - Bookkeeping, typewriting.
Technical Electives - Woodwork, metalwork, electricity, automotives, printing, arts and crafts, home-making, fabrics and dress, animal science, plant science.
General Electives - Music, art, drama, and a variety of less intensive courses from the fields noted above.

In the First Report of the Canadian Research Committee on Practical Education there is reference to the growing interest in vocational subjects although a purely vocational high school is not envisaged. Authorities are trying to encourage the growth of agricultural courses which would foster a scientific attitude to farming, but this development is handicapped by the sparseness of the rural population and by high building costs.

Three main groups of secondary schools are found in British Columbia. The junior high schools (Grades VII - IX) are designed for children of the early adolescent period and provide a gradual transition from elementary to secondary education. Superior schools (Grades I - X) cater for elementary and secondary pupils, while the senior high schools (Grades IX orX - XII or XIII) are of several kinds. In Vancouver there are two commercial schools and one technical high school. The vocational schools offer a variety of practical courses designed to meet local employment needs. The trend in British Columbia is towards the establishment of composite high schools with special technical and commercial departments. The majority of secondary schools are orientated towards a general rather than a vocational education although there has been a move towards the incorporation of vocational training in high school curricula. During the last three years there have been important developments in curriculum adjustment which are particularly relevant to this thesis. The first of these has occurred in British Columbia.

CHAPTER XII

CURRICULUM ADJUSTMENT IN BRITISH COLUMBIA SECONDARY SCHOOLS

In an article in the Department of Education publication, "British Columbia Schools", Dr. Johns lists the principles which have guided the designing of curricula during the past quarter century. They are:

"1. That all schools, secondary as well as elementary, should serve all youth capable of adult citizenship.

2. That individual children differ materially in the needs that education must serve.

3. That schools should assume a responsibility for the whole child, for his total all-round development - social, emotional and physical - as well as intellectual growth.

4. That the years spent at school should be worthwhile experience in themselves and not be regarded merely as a preparation for some future instruction superimposed on public schooling."

The 1926 Putnam-Weir report found that the doctrine of formal discipline and the belief that secondary schools were essentially preparatory to the university college, had dominated the curriculum. The result was a curriculum essentially academic in character, catering for a small group who would enter university colleges. Suggested reforms included a curriculum which would provide for individual differences; the determination of the pupils' courses on the basis of standardised tests of ability and achievement in place of the entrance examination; and thirdly, the recognition of the prevocational importance of secondary education. As a result a new curriculum consisting of a group of essential subjects and a choice of five separate programmes was instituted. These were Matriculation, Normal Entrance, Commercial, Technical and General; and formed five distinct departments in High Schools.

The limitations of the new programme were soon apparent. The 1935-37 revisions of the curriculum eliminated the five distinct courses and substituted a single course which contained a number of "constants", or core subjects, and a wide choice of optional subjects. This in turn led to the development of the "composite" school in which a number of options could be offered. The second important change was the stress placed on graduation

TABLE 8

TIME ALLOCATIONS IN

BRITISH COLUMBIA HIGH SCHOOLS

SUBJECT	MINUTES PER WEEK		
	GRADE VII	GRADE VIII	GRADE IX
English	280	280	280
Effective Living	200	200	200
Social Studies	200	200	200
Mathematics	240	240	200
Science	120	120	
Art	80		
Music	80		
Library	40	40	
Industrial Arts	160	160	
Woodwork			
Metalwork			
Electricity			
Drafting			
*Home Economics	160	160	
*Industrial Arts	80 - 160	80 - 160	
Home Economics	80 - 160	80 - 160	
Electives	No electives	160	520
TOTAL	1,400	1,400	1,400
Electives:			
Agriculture		80	120 - 200
Art		80 - 160	80 - 200
Home Economics		80	200
Industrial Arts		80	80 - 400
Music		80 - 160	
Typewriting		80	
Study		10 - 160	
Drama			80 - 120
French			200
German			200
Home-making			80 - 200

* These are courses which may be given where it is not possible to establish regular industrial arts and home economic centres.

- Adapted from Administrative Bulletin 1950, British Columbia.

as the mark of a completed secondary education. Although the new programme was a definite improvement, the 1942 Chief Inspector's report stated:

"The high school is probably too selective, for some of the thirty per cent who do not reach Grade IX and of the forty per cent who do not reach Grade X are surely educable above the elementary level, but are not likely to remain in high school unless they are presented with a programme adjusted to their capacities and interests."

The failure of the 1935-37 curriculum revisions was attributed to the influence which the university entrance prescriptions exerted on the content of the curriculum. The number of 'constants' required was so great and the time devoted to each so excessive that children seeking university entrance had little chance to pursue elective courses and the smaller high schools, little opportunity to provide a varied programme. As in New Zealand post-primary education, the demands of the university had dominated the work of the schools and caused children of lower intellectual ability to be sacrificed to the needs of the intellectual elite.

The 1950 curriculum revisions recognised that "the main problems of the secondary school are the inculcation of democratic citizenship and, closely allied, the provision for individual differences." To satisfy the first need the committee required every child to receive instruction in the 'citizenship' subjects of English, social studies and effective living. (See Table 8). The latter topic "includes health, physical education, guidance, mental hygiene, home and family living. In a word, it encompasses the more personal aspects of the young person's living." The second problem is met by providing a varied group of electives. To ensure that children do not select indiscriminately all pupils graduating must have studied one or more major topics through the senior high school. To major in a subject, pupils must satisfy certain requirements. Here is one such prescription:

ENGLISH MAJOR

"Requirements: 1. Four years of study in the field of English.

2. A minimum of twenty-five credits in English - to be obtained by the satisfactory completion of -

Prescribed Courses:

1. English, 10, 20, 30 and 40, and

2. One of the English courses numbered "91" or above, which may be taken concurrently with English 40. English 93 (Business English) may be counted toward a Major only by students who are taking a Major in Commerce. "

TABLE 9

HIGH SCHOOL GRADUATION

(GENERAL PROGRAMME)

To graduate from high school in the general programme, students who complete Grade XII must present 55 credits in prescribed constants and a minimum of 65 credits in electives. These constants and /or electives must include one MAJOR subject of the student's choice.

CONSTANTS	COURSE NOS.	ACADEMIC YEARS	CREDITS
English	10 20 30 40	4	20
Social Studies	10 20 30	3	15
Effective Living	10 20 30	3	15
Mathematics	10 or alternative	1	5
			55
Electives -	A minimum of		65
			120+

- Adapted from Administrative Bulletin 1950, British Columbia.

TABLE 10

HIGH SCHOOL GRADUATION

(UNIVERSITY PROGRAMME)

To graduate from high school in the university programme, students who complete Grade XII must present at least 85 credits in prescribed minimum constants and 35 credits in electives. These constants and /or electives must include three MAJOR subjects of the student's choice.

CONSTANTS	COURSE NOS.	ACADEMIC YEARS	CREDITS
English	10 20 30 40	4	20
Social Studies	10 20 30	3	15
Effective Living	10 20 30	3	15
Mathematics	10 20 30	3	15
Science	10 20	2	10
Languages	10 20	2	10
			85
Electives -	A minimum of		35
			120+

- Adapted from Administrative Bulletin 1950, British Columbia.

To graduate from high school, pupils must attend for four years and fulfil the requirements as set out either in Table 9 or Table 10. Only one diploma now exists, but it is endorsed either 'general programme' or 'university programme' according to the requirements satisfied. The first of these is designed for those requiring a certificate as evidence of four years' secondary education; the second for those who wish to enter university colleges.

The British Columbia programme contains certain features which contribute to the study of non-academic pupils. The first of these is the system of electives and constants, the former allowing children to select according to interests and abilities while the latter ensures that all children receive instruction in the essentials. This is a progression from the organisation which divided education into courses each of which contained a common core and a number of options. While recognising that the British Columbia system provides greater freedom of choice, we should note also that it permits children to select a most heterogeneous curriculum. Some believe that a pupil's interest can give unity to an apparently disparate group of subjects. Others stress the possible danger of mental indigestion.

The second feature of interest is the inclusion within the curriculum of the subject "effective living". Although this is a fusion of the work in health, guidance, home and family living, and physical education, it indicates a new emphasis in education. Much has been written about the needs of adolescents, but schools have been so concerned with knowledge and prevocational training that they have ignored this aspect. At the time of writing, the content of the course in effective living was not formulated, but here is an extract taken from the departmental bulletin "British Columbia Schools" which indicated one approach to the topic:

"

EFFECTIVE LIVING

In a recent address to the West Virginia Guidance Conference, Dr. Clifford E. Erickson, Director of the Institute of Counseling, Testing and Guidance, Michigan Stage College, and one of the test-known writers on guidance topics, said a few things and quoted an article by L.N. Morrisett in "The Clearing House" that seem timely. Speaking on "Today's Teacher", Dr. Erickson had this to say:

"Every child faces the problem of planning the next step, the next day, the program of studies, the out-of-class activities, the long-time vocational goals and many other things. He feels lost in the multitude of possibilities. He encounters little help in choosing wisely. He dreams of wonders and then is shocked when his castles tumble to dust around him. Every child needs

help in planning. In retrospect, one individual looking back on his fourteen years following graduation from high school, expressed some of these difficulties in this way:

" 'I wish I had been taught more about family relationships, child care, getting along with people, interpreting the news, news writing, paying off a small mortgage, household mechanics, politics, local government, the chemistry of food, carpentry, how to budget and live within the budget, the value of insurance, how to figure interest when borrowing money and paying it back in instalments, how to enjoy opera over the radio, how to detect shoddy goods, how to distinguish a political demagogue from a statesman, how to grow a garden, how to paint a house, how to get a job, how to be vigorous and healthy, how to be interesting to others, how to be popular, how to be thrifty, how to resist high pressure salesmanship, how to buy economically and intelligently, and the danger of buying on the instalment plan. ' "

Another feature of the British Columbia system is the graduation scheme which enables the diploma to be endorsed as 'general programme' or 'university programme'. This may help to obviate the problem encountered by children of limited ability. Many are discouraged from continuing their education by the knowledge that they have little hope of qualifying for a school certificate. The programme leading to a 'general' endorsement allows these children to study subjects within their scope although they must still collect the one hundred and twenty credits required as a minimum, and, if not accredited by the school, sit the departmental examinations in English 40 and social studies 30. It would be unwise however, to claim that British Columbia has solved the problem of awarding certificates or diplomas. Much depends on the attitude of the business community. A tendency to regard the 'university' as superior to the 'general' endorsement would defeat the whole scheme by causing pupils who had no intention of entering the university colleges to attempt to satisfy the university entrance programme.

CHAPTER XIII

THE OTTAWA EXPERIMENT

In 1944 the Ottawa Curriculum Committee distributed a questionnaire to high school teachers asking for suggestions about changes in the curriculum. The replies revealed that teachers considered that the work of Grade IX should be better articulated with that of Grade VIII, and that too many subjects were being taught in Grade IX. The committee designed a curriculum which provided for socialised classes in English, social studies, health and guidance, and in 1945, experimental classes were established in a number of high schools.

The preliminary organisation enabled the form teacher to teach these socialised subjects and to help with the physical education of his form. The timetable was arranged so that each class spent three consecutive periods with its form teacher on one half-day each week. This arrangement permitted school visits to be made. The number of pupils in these experimental classes was restricted to thirty and they were not co-educational.

This experiment is significant because it is an attempt to provide a socialised education. Recognising the complexity of the modern world and the adolescent's need to be educated for effective citizenship, the Committee endeavoured to provide a curriculum in which the values of democracy would be realised through the processes of democratic living. To do this adequately, the individual must learn to act as a member of a group, contribute to the common welfare and learn the techniques of group and inter-group activity. This was realised in practice by the institution of the committee system. The class was divided into committees of various sorts, with permanent and temporary executives, rotating and joint chairmanships, recorders and reporters. Most of these committees developed from the work of the class but some arose from athletic and social activities. Here is an example of committee work taken from the report "The Ottawa Experiment":

1. Class as a whole acting as a committee of the whole:

In the opening class, the teacher from a group of three volunteers selected a pupil to act as chairman for that first class period. When the first composite, written, blackboard report began, the chairman selected from the volunteers a blackboard report writer. As mistakes in spelling appeared, the chairman of that period selected a volunteer recorder of misspellings. Similarly, a discipline recorder, and a recorder of students participating in class discussions were selected. As the enthusiasm for the positions increased, the pupils took turns in offices by periods.

2. Class in groups acting as committees of the groups:

The class divided itself into five groups for visits and for reports. In the classroom each group had its own chairman, summary writer, spelling recorder, discipline recorder and contributor recorder. In so much as the groups may have to conduct their discussions in the same room simultaneously, the class may seem noisy, unless school accommodation permits the groups to meet in more suitable rooms, or unless meetings are held other than in school hours. The competition between groups stimulated more vigorous individual effort.

3. Standing Committee System:

The elected class executive may act as a class planning committee, meeting in many cases after school with the teacher to plan the activities. The president of the executives appoints for the year chairmen for spelling, "thank-you letter" writing, scrap book, display board, and discipline committees. The chairmen select from volunteers their committees. The committees report monthly to the president and class. Everyone in the class participates in committee work.

Spelling Committee - to correct spelling in letters, in reports, in examinations, and hold monthly spelling contests.

"Thank-you Letter" Committee - to select the best letter to be mailed from all those written by the class.

Display-board Committee - to select display materials and to file used display for future reference.

Scrap-book Committee - to select and post material.

Discipline Committee - to discipline the tardy worker or the negligent student, subject to approval of the teacher.

Social Committee - to plan parties, to visit the ill, deal with correspondence.

Clean-up Committee - to see to the appearance of the room, the teacher's desk, the library and blackboard.

Bulletin Board Committee - to arrange a weekly display.

Helpers Committee of Class Leaders - to help the academically weaker pupils.

Marking Committee - to mark students' level tests.

Library Committee - to check books and book reports.

Ticket Promotion Committee - to campaign for school's dramtic and social affairs.

Monitors in charge of class when in other rooms to deal wih infractions and to report difficult ones to teacher. "

The second feature of this experiment is the ue made of the local community as the basis of correlating work in soial studies, English, guidance and health. Much of the work was plannd to develop fron children's efforts to solve problems by the obsevation and investigation of their own environment. In this way, it as hoped that the work would assume a sense of purpose and the chilren would realise that they had a place in the social organism whichthey were studying. To develop this awareness, children made frequnt excursions to study the community at work. These class tours ere most successful when they involved action and when the informaton gained was of educational value. A display of exhibits was stard at politely, but the children were fascinated by even quite smple mechanical operations carried out in a factory. A successfulexcursion would stimulate children to use library facilities and cary out further research in their own time. The manner in which unit of study was developed is revealed in these summaries from Chpters VI and VII of "The Ottawa Experiment":

"Planning:

Within a framework of a year's course of study
Meeting of Planning Committee; the executive and the tacher prepare suggestions
Decision by class
Obtaining permission of host whose plant we propose tovisit

Studying Historical Background of Subject:

Research by each student - a classroom reference libray is a necessity, and may be built up
Reports to class, as preparation

Assignment of Special Topics:

Explanation by teacher or a student of what class shoud see on trip - each pupil gets a subject on which to reprt
Opportunity for pupils to choose their special topics,within reason

The Trip:

Meeting guide and going on conducted tour
Keeping notes, asking questions as each pupil checks hs assignment
Thanking guide

General Reports:

Composed evening after trip, by each student as homewok
Examined next day, orally, and written reports turned n to the teacher

Letter of Thanks to Host:

Collection and evaluation by Letter Committee of all letters, which have been written at home
Letter to be mailed selected by Committee

Special Oral Reports:

Student chairman in charge of meeting (position held in alphabetical order or some other rotation system)
Reports given by students when called upon by chairman (illustrated by diagrams, pamphlets or pictures)
Question period after each report or group of reports

Written Reports:

Prepared by each student on his special assignment, as homework
Collected by Display Committee and arranged on display board, along with appropriate picture material
Mistakes in spelling marked and listed by Spelling Committee
Better reports selected by Scrapbook Committee. Scrapbooks make valuable additions to classroom library, and for review

Testing:

Tests are given before reports are removed from display board

Guidance:

This type of study is ideal for discussion of occupations, qualifications

Spelling Improvement:

Spelling rules, and contests based on lists published by the Spelling Committee

Grammar and Composition:

Usually based on errors made in written work
Text often used; some forms request a course in formal grammar when the need becomes obvious. "

"Teacher A. TOUR OF THE SCHOOL Unit One.

Since this is the initial excursion of the class, it has special importance in our scheme of things.

Purposes Served:

1. Basis for orientation of the pupils to the school. Catering to the need for belonging; being a part of the school; being significant in the school and school-life. Getting to know the principal and staff.
2. Opportunity to get to know the physical set-up of the school. To get an over-all picture of the work of our school.
3. An opportunity to demonstrate that our approach is different from that of other classes.

Preparation:

1. Pupils introduce themselves; tell something about the school from which they have come.
2. Collecting information about the school which they already know.
3. Planning the trip, use of handbook to aid in planning; making the necessary arrangements with teachers, principal and others concerned.

The Trip:

As complete a tour of the school as is practical ends up in the office where the principal has a little chat with them and tells them about accumulative records and shows the final result of schooling in terms of records made.

Information about courses.
Sometimes necessary to break it up into two trips.

Conclusion:

Review of trip through discussion and questions.
Discussion leads to place of school in community and becomes the starting point for work in guidance and in the study of the community.

No formal test about this trip. "

The report ended with an evaluation of the results of the first six years of this experiment. The Committee and the teachers concerned agreed that there had been positive gains. The standard of work in English composition, guidance and social studies was higher than in classes working on the normal syllabus. The information gained differed from that of the traditional syllabus, but teachers considered that the amount of residual knowledge was greater. They stated also that there had been a gain in basic skills, and that children re-entered the regular stream with an advantage over pupils in non-experimental groups. Other advantages frequently mentioned were the improvement in pupil-teacher relationships, the development of the pupil's sense of responsibility and the growth of pupil leadership, encouraged by the committee system. The report noted that the school leaders in athletics, social activities, students' councils and in scholarship emerged from those pupils who had been members of the socialised course classes. It was considered too that the work in guidance gained new significance and meaning because pupils developed the ability to assess the possibilities of the industry which they had visited. Teachers stated that these children thought about their futures more carefully and consequently were less likely to make unwise choices.

A surprising feature of this Canadian experimentwas the composition of the classes. Although administratively itmay have been advantageous to have separate classes for boys and girls, the experiment would have gained in significance had they beenco-educational. The presence of the other sex is itself a socialiing influence during adolescence.

The Ottawa experiment represents another approac to the problem of giving meaning and significance to the work of he school. The report suggests that it has succeeded in this immediat aim. A follow-up study of these young people as citizens would benecessary before the fulfilment of its ultimate aim can be assessed.

CHAPTER XIV

THE CANADIAN RESEARCH COMMITTEE

REPORT ON PRACTICAL EDUCATION

The Canadian Research Committee on Practical Education is a national organisation comprising representatives of industry, commerce, agriculture, labour, the home, and education, which in 1949 published its first report on what constituted a suitable secondary education for students who enter employment directly from schools. This first report discussed the organisation of the secondary school system in Canada with special reference to vocational education. The second report, "Your Child Leaves School", is an analysis of why only twenty-two of each hundred children who enter Canadian schools complete the high school course. The report then examines the occupations entered by these pupils. This study is continued in the third report published in 1951, "Two Years After School", in which the success of these pupils and the value of the education they received is assessed. The final report embodies the conclusions reached and the recommendations which the Committee makes.

Although these reports deal specifically with Canadian problems they are valuable both for the insight they provide on the reasons for pupils leaving school, and for the assessment of the adequacy of the education provided. Fundamentally the problems confronting Canadian education are similar to those encountered by all countries trying to provide universal secondary education. The importance of the Canadian approach lies in the focus of the research. Starting from the point at which children leave school, the investigation tries to discover why they left, then attempts to measure their vocational success or failure.

In the first report an indication of the rate of leaving or 'dropping out' is given (see Table 11). This rate was found to vary among provinces and was greater in rural than in urban areas. To analyse the problem more fully the Committee decided to study pupils of Grade VII and above, who left school during 1948. A representative cross-section of schools based on approximately twenty per cent of the total enrolment in each province for the grades concerned was taken. A questionnaire (Table 12), was designed and principals were requested to fill in a card for all pupils leaving during the year. The results set out in "Your Child Leaves School" are obtained from the twenty-six thousand questionnaire cards received. Table 13 indicates the distribution of withdrawals and shows that fifty-nine percent of boys leave before graduation. When reasons for leaving were analysed (Table 14), they were found to fall into three broad groups: reasons relating to the school, economic reasons, and personal reasons, in that order of importance.

TABLE 11

RETENTION OF STUDENTS IN SCHOOL, BY PROVINCES

	GRADE				
	6	8	10	11	12
Prince Edward Is.	100.0	78.6	64.0	21.4	-
Nova Scotia	100.0	69.6	43.3	31.6	-
New Brunswick	100.0	68.6	29.3	20.4	-
Quebec, Catholic	100.0*	58.5	29.3	18.7	-
Quebec, Protestant	100.0*	80.4	56.1	42.4	-
Manitoba	100.0	79.4	53.6	43.8	-
Saskatchewan	100.0	75.7	44.9	33.7	-
Alberta	100.0	80.4	52.0	41.8	-
British Columbia	100.0	95.2	68.7	53.2	43.0
Ontario	100.0	86.3	52.5	36.1	27.5
TOTAL CANADA	100.0	81.5	51.0	37.2	30.0+
UNITED STATES	100.0	88.4	74.6	64.0	53.7

* Based on enrolment figures for Grades 6, 7, 9, 10.

* Quebec (Catholic) not included in this total.

\+ This figure for Grade 12 is computed on the basis of 100 in Grade 6 in British Columbia and Ontario only.

- From "Canadian Education",
March, 1949.

TABLE 12 QUESTIONNAIRE

STUDY - STUDENT WITHDRAWAL FROM SCHOOL

(GRADES 7-13 INCLUSIVE)

A. ..... B. 1. Boy ☐ 2. Girl ☐
(Name of student) (Sex)

C. .....(Age) D. .....(Grade)

E. .....(Province) F. .....(Address)

G. Learning Capacity - Above ☐ Average ☐ Below ☐

H. Number of times this student repeated a grade .....

I. Occupation of Father (or Guardian) 1. Professional ☐
2. Proprietor, Managers ☐ 3. Clerks & Kindred Workers ☐
4. Skilled Workers & Foremen ☐ 5. Semi-skilled ☐
6. Unskilled ☐

J. Economic Status of Family - Above ☐ Average ☐ Below ☐

K. School enrolment, Jan. 1st.....

L. (Office use only) 1..... 2..... 3..... 4..... 5....

M. If student withdraws during Grade 7, 8 or 9 was Industrial Arts, Home Economics, Commercial work or Agriculture included in his course? ..... (Yes or no)

N. Type of course taken beyond Grade 9 - Academic only ☐
Academic with one or more practical electives ☐
Vocational (at least 50% time) ☐

O. Type of Vocational Course taken beyond Grade 9 - Commercial ☐
Industrial (Trade) ☐ Home Economics ☐ Agriculture ☐
Art ☐ Other .....(Specify)

P. If Industrial (Trade) Course taken beyond Brade 9 indicate major elective - Drafting ☐ Electricity ☐ Machine Shop ☐
Motor Mechanics ☐ Woodworking ☐ Other.....(Specify)

Q. Date of withdrawal..... R. Name of employer.....
S. Address of employer..... T. Nature of job .....
U. Initial weekly wage..... V. (Office use) 1... 2.... 3.....
W. Destination of those going on for training beyond High School -
University ☐ Normal School ☐ Business College ☐
Nursing ☐ Other ..... (Specify)

X. If this student withdraws from school before completing Senior High School, indicate the principal reasons in order of importance:

1. Inadequacy of family income ☐ 2. Opportunity for good position ☐ 3. Lack of interest in school work ☐ 4. Needed to help at home ☐ 5. Selfishness of parents ☐

(Over)

QUESTIONNAIRE (Cont.)

6. Indifferent attitude of parents ☐ 7. Insufficient ability to do prescribed work ☐ 8. Desire to be earning money for self ☐ 9. School curriculum not adjusted to child's needs ☐ 10. Personal or psychological maladjustment ☐ 11. Other.....(Specify).

Y. Name of School .....

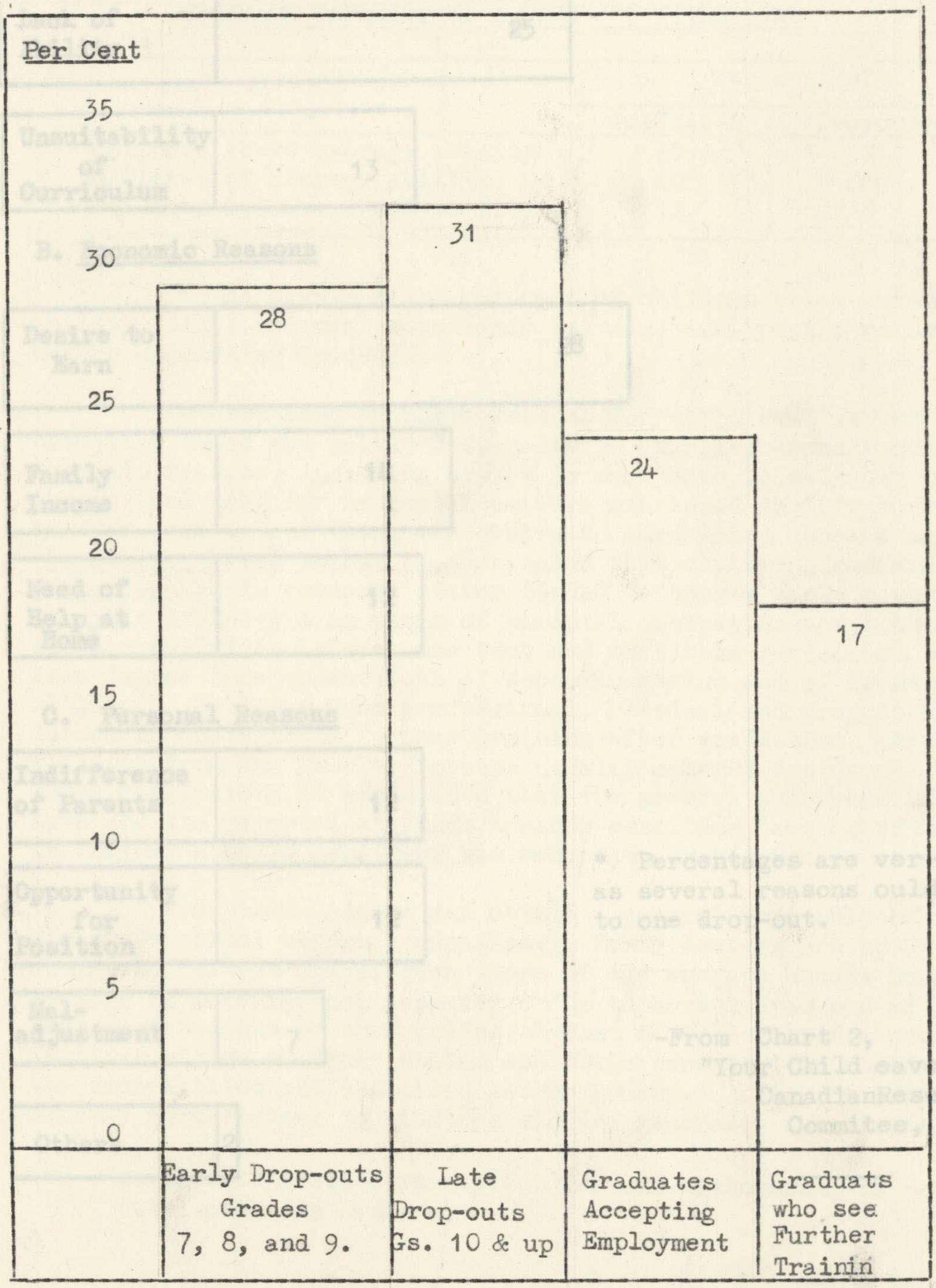
(Note: Indicate Answer by Placing ✓ in Box Where Provided.)

- From "Your Child Leaves School", Canadian Research Committee, 1949.

TABLE 13

PERCENT DISTRIBUTION OF WITHDRAWALS BY

DROPPING OUT AND BY GRADUATION

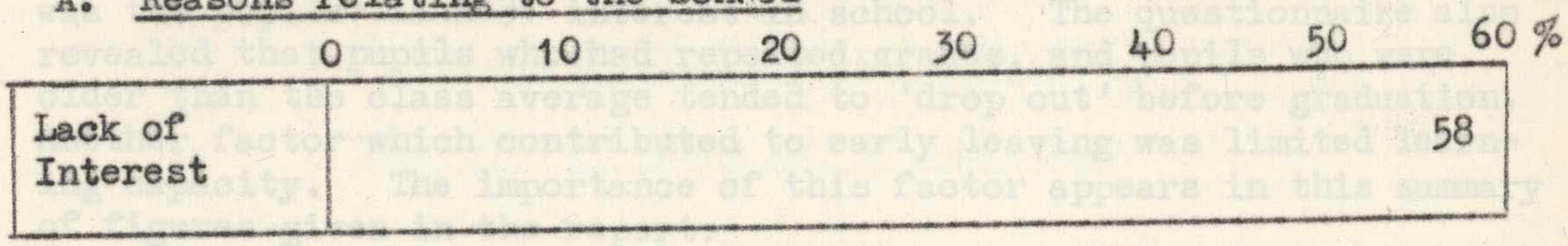


- Adapted from table in "Your Child LeavesSchool", Canadian Research Committee Reprt. 1948.

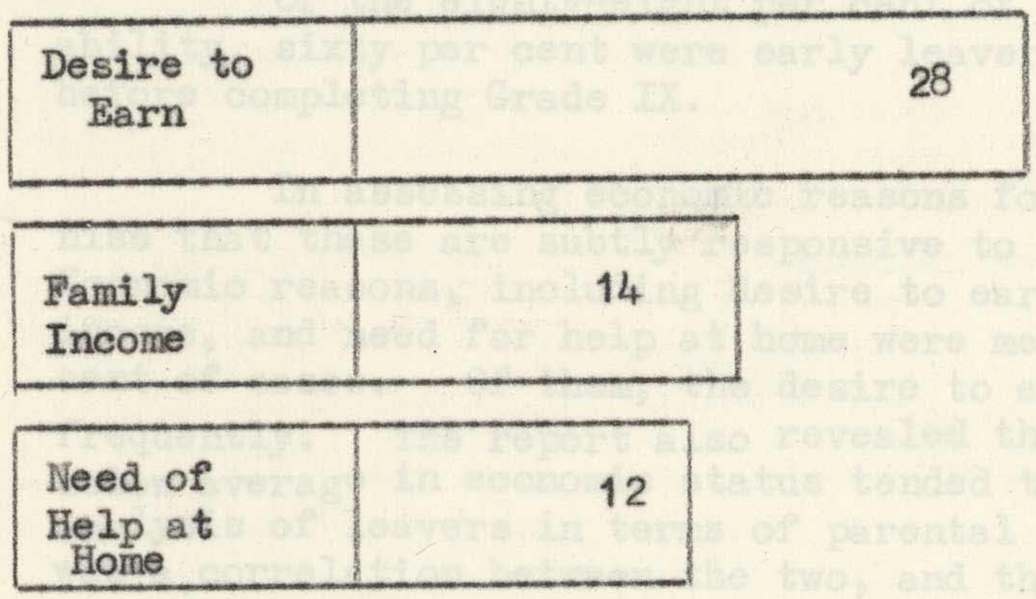
TABLE 14

PERCENTAGE OF DROP-OUTS ACCORDING TO REASONS*

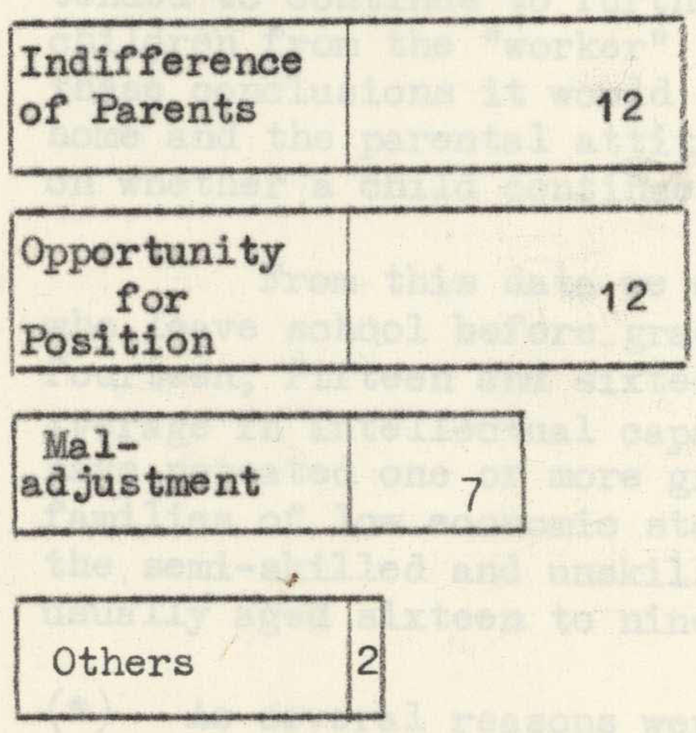
A. Reasons relating to the School



B. Economic Reasons



C. Personal Reasons



* Percentages are over-lapping, as several reasons could apply to one drop-out.

-From Chart 2,
"Your Child Leaves School",
Canadian Research
Committee, 1948.

It is significant that 96% (*) of the replies mention the school among reasons for leaving, and that the most important single reason was the pupils' lack of interest in school. The questionnaire also revealed that pupils who had repeated grades, and pupils who were older than the class average tended to 'drop out' before graduation. Another factor which contributed to early leaving was limited learning capacity. The importance of this factor appears in this summary of figures given in the report:

TABLE 15

LEARNING CAPACITY AS A CAUSE OF WITHDRAWAL

	Per cent of:	
	Graduates	'Drop-outs'
Children above average ability	75	25
Children of average ability	40	60
Children below average ability	12	88

Of the eighty-eight per cent of children below average in ability, sixty per cent were early leavers, i.e. pupils who left before completing Grade IX.

In assessing economic reasons for withdrawal we must recognise that these are subtly responsive to changing economic conditions. Economic reasons, including desire to earn money, inadequacy of family income, and need for help at home were mentioned in fifty-four per cent of cases. Of them, the desire to earn money appeared most frequently. The report also revealed that children from families below average in economic status tended to become early leavers. An analysis of leavers in terms of parental occupation showed that there was a correlation between the two, and that this correlation was to some degree independent both of economic status and of learning ability. Children from professional, clerical and proprietor groups tended to continue to further training after graduation, whereas children from the "worker" groups usually entered employment. From these conclusions it would seem that the general atmosphere of the home and the parental attitude towards education have an influence on whether a child continues his schooling or becomes an early leaver.

From this data we can obtain a general impression of pupils who leave school before graduation. Early leavers are pupils of fourteen, fifteen and sixteen years of age who are usually below average in intellectual capacity. Up to seventy per cent of them have repeated one or more grades. Most of these children come from families of low economic status and their parents tend to belong to the semi-skilled and unskilled labour groups. Later drop-outs are usually aged sixteen to nineteen and are generally superior in

(*) As several reasons were given for one withdrawal, the percentages total over one hundred.

TABLE 16

AVERAGE INITIAL WEEKLY WAGES OF

DROP-OUTS BY GRADE AND OF GRADUATES

SAMPLE	DROP-OUTS				GRADUATES
	GRADE 7 & 8	GRADE 9	GRADE 10	GRADE 11 & UP	
General	£20.16	£22.62	£23.67	£24.86	£26.46
City	£20.91	£21.12	£21.22	£23.46	£25.27

- From Table 9, "Your Child Leaves School",
Canadian Research Committee, 1948.

learning capacity and economic status to the early leaver. When reasons for leaving are analysed, lack of interest, desire to earn money, lack of ability, and inadequacy of family income appear most frequently. Of these, lack of interest was most commonly given. On closer study this lack of interest was found to be closely associated with four other factors; the attitude of parents, maladjustment of pupil, desire to earn money and insufficient ability to do prescribed work. It is significant also that early leavers gave a number of reasons for leaving whereas late drop-outs tend to give a single reason for withdrawal. This suggests that it is a general dissatisfaction with school which causes early leaving.

The investigation revealed that early leavers tended to enter unskilled labour and were more liable to unemployment than later 'drop-outs' who chose office positions and trades which offered higher initial wages. (See Table 16). Sixty per cent of all boys entered trades, primary industries and offices. In general, pupils tended to select jobs which had a close relationship with the type of training received in school; e.g. sixty to seventy-five per cent of all boys who selected the industrial course begin work in related trades. That there is an intimate relationship between parental occupation, selection of course and type of occupation entered, is shown by these findings taken from the report:

" (c) Boys taking trades and apprenticeship jobs come largely from homes where the father is a skilled or semi-skilled worker. They are somewhat above average in grade attained and in learning capacity. A high per cent take a vocational course and receive training related to the type of work they undertake. The pay is relatively high.

(f) Factory, transportation and communication, personal service, and labour jobs are taken largely by children from working class homes. They stop school at relatively early ages and about one-half do not progress beyond grade IX. Generally they are average or below average in learning capacity.

The one exception to this pattern is the group of boys whose parents are engaged in primary industries:

(e) Boys beginning work in primary industries are largely sons of farmers, or sons of proprietors or managers in the city. They stop school at relatively early ages after taking an academic course or an academic course with practical electives. Of those who have taken a vocational course few have received training related to their jobs. Initial rates of pay are high. "

CHAPTER XV

THE REPORT OF THE CANADIAN RESEARCH COMMITTEE ON PRACTICAL EDUCATION. (THIRD, AND FINAL REPORTS)

The third report of the Canadian Research Committee was published in 1951 and recorded the follow-up study of the same boys and girls, two years after they had left school. The report attempted to assess how adequately they had been prepared both for earning a living and for enjoying life. A unique feature of this research was the approach to the problem through the children's assessment of the value of the education which they had received. Questionnaires were sent to former pupils (Table 17) and to their foremen or supervisors (Table 18) and from those returned a representative sample was obtained.

When the replies were analysed (Table 19), the most striking impression to emerge was that 'education pays'. Not only had graduates made greater progress, financial and potential, but also they were better satisfied with their jobs and had achieved greater stability. Graduates, and late drop-outs enter a wide range of jobs while opportunities for early leavers are more restricted. Replies from employers indicated that early leavers change jobs more frequently because work is temporary, because they are dissatisfied, or because they are discharged. Graduates leave because they can gain promotion, because they see no future in the present position, or because they wish to further their training. In addition, there was adequate evidence that graduates enjoyed life more fully, had more recreations and hobbies, and participated to a greater extent in club and group activities. Although other factors such as degree of intelligence, character, powers of application and perseverance, social and economic status of family contributed to progress, the evidence indicated that personal adjustment and advancement consistently favoured those with higher education.

The second major inference to be drawn from this report is that since education has so much to contribute to individual welfare, it is to the advantage of the individual and of society that as many pupils as possible should continue their education. The influence of factors which contribute to early leaving needs to be countered.

The 1948 study revealed that:

1. repetition of grades
2. age
3. general ability
4. economic status of family
5. father's occupation

were major causes of 'dropping-out'. The 1950 research added these

additional causes:

6. No part-time jobs
7. Non-participation in recreations
8. Lack of hobbies
9. Size of the community, if population less than 10,000.

A study of the inter-relation of these factors caused the Committee to decide that some were more important than others:

" 1. Retardation or repetition of grades, whether due to illness or failure, particularly if retardation is more than one year.

2. General ability which places a pupil in the lowest fifth of the class. Although no attempt was made in this study to collect data on school marks or standardized educational tests, it is known that the same would apply as for general ability.

3. Non-participation in recreations.

4. No part-time jobs.

5. Economic status of the family which places a pupil in the lowest fifth of the class. "

The role of retardation is significant and emphasises the need for diagnostic tests and remedial teaching.

In 1948, teachers were asked to give reasons for pupils leaving school. In 1950, pupils were asked to give their own reasons for leaving. When the two sets were collated there was fairly close agreement on the relative importance of the three main groups. This apparent unanimity is deceptive, for in actual fact teacher and pupil gave the same reason less than one-half of the time. Agreement on reasons relating to the school was fair, but there was considerable difference on economic and personal reasons. Closer contact between home and school is therefore required if teachers are to be of assistance in helping pupils to stay at school.

Pupils were asked which three subjects taken at school had been of most help to them, not only in their work but in all their activities. Boys emphasised the importance of English and mathematics, and stressed that the school could have helped them by better training in expressing ideas clearly, both in speaking and writing (Table 20). This view was endorsed by supervisors who placed the "Three R's" first among suggestions on how school training could be improved. This is not surprising, since these basic skills are essential for success in all activities.

The final report of the Research Committee formulated the objectives for which the secondary school should strive:

"The secondary school should enable each pupil, at least,

(a) to continue to refine and improve by constant practice the various skills in the fundamental processes, especially in the cursory and study types of reading, in oral and written expression, and in the fundamentals of arithmetic;

(b) to develop the ability to solve problems, to think critically, to formulate generalizations from concrete situations, and to apply such generalizations to other fields;

(c) to develop high standards of behaviour and to develop habits of action which will reflect the ideal of service, the ideal of sportsmanship, the faithful performance of duty, and the assumption of personal responsibility for conduct;

(d) to develop and establish the understandings, habits, and ideals which form the basis of sound mental health and physical fitness;

(e) to have experiences which will lead to tolerance and to an insight into modern social problems and which will develop an understanding of the privileges and obligations which are to be shared with others in a democratic society;

(f) to have opportunities to explore the possibilities of the general fields of knowledge, in science and mathematics, in language and literature, in fine arts and commercial and industrial arts; and in so doing to learn not only the possibilities in the major fields of learning but also his own dominant interests, capacities, and limitations;

(g) to develop marketable skills and those understandings and attitudes that make the worker an intelligent, co-operative, and productive participant in the economic life of the community;

(h) to learn how to manage household affairs skilfully and economically, and to develop an understanding of the significance of the family for the individual society through a knowledge of the conditions conducive to happy and successful family life.

(i) to learn how to make proper use of leisure time through combining activities that are socially useful with those that promote personal growth and satisfaction, and to develop capacities to appreciate and enjoy the best in life. "

The Committee then discussed how the school could reduce the rate of 'dropping-out' :

"We recommend

2. that education authorities provide educational programs which, by their availability to all pupils, however economically or geographically situated, by the quality of the instruction and supervision, by the variety of courses, by the adequacy of the accommodation and equipment, and the atmosphere of democratic freedom under wise authority, will be conducive to retaining pupils until the completion of the secondary school course of study upon which each has entered (for some this will be Grade XI or XII, for others Grade IX or X) ;

3. that the legal school-leaving age should be 16, subject only to certain specified exemptions; and that there should be no differential between urban and rural areas;

4. that school administrators and teachers be more vigilant to recognise promptly any sign that a pupil is failing to make progress in any of his subjects, to discover the reason for such weakness, and to take steps to remedy it;

5. that education authorities be ever mindful of the effect of the "lack of income" factor on withdrawal from school and minimise the influence of this factor by:

   a. keeping to a minimum the "hidden costs" which sometimes make it unnecessarily difficult for students to continue at school, e.g. expensive equipment not provided by the school authorities, high fees for membership in school organizations and for participation in school activities;

   b. recognising the value of part-time work not only as a means of oncome, but as providing training and experience, and also as assisting the student to make his choice of occupations;

   c. trying to secure more financial assistance for deserving students in the form of school bursaries, scholarships, and student loan funds, not only through federal, provincial, and municipal sources, but also through community organizations;

6. that school authorities strive for a closer contact between the school and the home through such media as parent-teacher consultations, visitations, parents' group meetings, and informative progress reports;

7. that school authorities undertake a well-planned program of public relations to make known the objectives and opportunities offered in local schools, and to impress upon parents, pupils, and the community the benefits to be derived from better education. "

Recognising that the suitability of courses and curricula influenced retention of pupils, the Committee recommended:

" 8. that schools offer a variety of courses to suit the varied interests and aptitudes of the pupils and make provision for the ready transfer of pupils from one course to another;

9. that all courses have a core of common subjects that will assist in developing those understandings, attitudes, habits, and skills that make for well-integrated, socially responsible citizens who can think critically and independently;

10. that courses be planned with the special employment opportunities of the local community in mind, and that educators consult leaders in the community in adapting the curriculum to local needs;

11. that special courses be provided for pupils who will not complete a regular secondary school course, and that, in these special courses;

(a) the development of good citizenship in its broadest meaning be the main objective;

(b) this general objective, which is possible of attainment through many features of school organization and administration and instruction methods, be used to develop in the students a real love of learning, a sense of achievement and a desire to continue to develop proficiency in their vocations in after-school years;

13. that education authorities periodically determine the effectiveness of the various courses in meeting the objectives of secondary school education.

14. that the general principles of guidance be included in all teacher-training programs;

15. that special training be required of teachers assigned specific guidance duties, and that business and industry co-operate with education authorities to assist these teachers in securing first-hand knowledge of the various types of employment opportunities and job requirements;

16. that all secondary schools provide pupils with available up-to-date educational and occupational information;

17. that all secondary schools provide a guidance service to assist pupils;

(a) to become orientated to the program, activities, resources, and regulations of the school;

(b) to identify educational needs and plan appropriate programs of studies and activities;

(c) to identify difficulties in school progress and plan appropriate remedial steps;

(d) to identify occupational interests by planning appropriate investigations, studies, or work experience.

18. that the school maintain complete cumulative pupil records in order that principals, counsellors, and teachers may better understand their pupils; and that these records be transferable between schools;

19. that all secondary schools take a definite interest in job placement so that, through direct contact with employers and in co-operation with employment agencies, the pupils will receive assistance, if needed and desired, in securing suitable employment;

20. that the school maintain a "follow-up" of pupils after placement to help them, when necessary, through the adjustment period, and to secure information which will be of great value in planning and evaluating school programs;

21. that the school co-operate with other community agencies which are interested in guidance such as Children's Aid Societies, Y.M.C.A., Y.W.C.A., Big Brothers, Big Sisters, local health units, and personnel organizations. "

It was felt that contemporary problems demanded that young people be adequately trained for the responsibilities of citizenship.

To do this, it was recommended:

" 22. that the content of courses, the methods of teaching, and the organization of special activities all have as a primary aim the development of good citizens;

23. that the teaching methods be such as to develop in pupils the ability to use the scientific method of enquiry in order that they may learn to weigh issues and arrive at logical conclusions on the basis of sound and reliable evidence;

24. that school programs, curricular and extra-curricular, be conducted in such a manner that pupils will have ample opportunity to make group decisions, to participate in policy formulation, to assume responsibility, and to work co-operatively;

25. that the school should exemplify democracy in its own life and work - that is, teachers and administrators should embody the best practices of democratic living both in their relations with pupils and in their relations with one another. "

Both employers and employees had commented on the necessity for a solid grounding in the fundamentals of arithmetic and oral and written expression. Both had considered that there were serious weaknesses in basic education. To remedy this the Committee suggested:

" 26. that all teachers strive to develop clear and logical thinking by their pupils;

27. that all teachers insist on high standards in oral and written expression;

28. that, as one method of obtaining better oral and written expression and clear and logical thinking, greater use be made of oral and written reports based on assigned tasks and projects, both group and individual;

29. that more emphasis be placed on the fundamentals of arithmetic computation and every-day arithmetic problems, and that short daily periods of drill in these fundamentals be continued through the secondary school grades. "

Although the Committee admitted that there was little agreement on the degree of specialised vocational training to be attempted at the secondary school level, it advocated the inclusion of some occupational work, both because good citizenship demanded

occupational competence and because vocational training tended to motivate school work. Supplementary committees from agricultural, constructional and distributive industries agreed that:

" (a) The school should aim to develop basic skills, rather than highly specialized skills, to the end that pupils will be adaptable to new situations.

(b) There should be a strong emphasis on thoroughness and insistence on higher standards of performance in all work.

(c) The development of desirable character traits is highly important.

(d) The school should endeavour to develop a recognition of the dignity and worth of all types of work.

(e) Studies in social sciences should include units which will provide some understanding of the world at work; the organization of business and industry, the significance of social security, wage-hour laws, government ownership, the economic cycle, and related matters. "

In general the Committee approved of the gradual transition from school to work through part-time employment in an industry and continuation of related studies in the classroom. Other recommendations included:

" 30. that, in order to provide more time for general education, specific training of the individual pupil for particular occupations be deferred as long as possible;

31. that the emphasis in vocational training be on the development of basic skills and sound work habits, rather than on the development of highly-specialized skills;

32. that general education programs include adequate pre-vocational exploratory courses designed to assist in the selection of areas of specialization;

33. that work experience be utilized to provide practical experience and to give students an opportunity to explore various avenues of work, and that business and industry co-operate to this end;

34. that teachers of practical subjects have a thorough knowledge of their trade and have training as teachers;

35. that home economics be offered in all secondary schools and that more girls be encouraged to enrol in these courses;

36. that courses in business education be extended to include training for workers in the distributive trades as well as for office workers;

37. that courses in industrial arts be offered in all secondary schools and include, where required, specialized courses designed to develop specific skills needed in industry;

38. that agriculture be offered in all secondary schools in rural areas and include, where possible, practical courses such as farm mechanics, farm management, soil conservation, and marketing. "

Finally, the Committee dealt with the need for further education:

" 39. that steps be taken to strengthen further the concept that education is a continuing process th that does not terminate upon leaving school.

40. that part-time education between the ages of 16 and 18 be extended as rapidly as possible;

41. that community institutes be established to provide training in part-time education in daytime and adult education in the evenings;

42. that community institutes provide vocational training courses as well as cultural and avocational subjects, and that their facilities be available for community recreational purposes in order that they may become centres of community life; "

Before leaving this report, I would like to summarise some of the main contributions which it makes to the understanding of the education of non-academic children. The report produces abundant evidence of the value of education for success in earning a living and for the fuller enjoyment of life. This evidence refutes any suggestion that non-academic pupils would be better engaged in working at a job than in 'wasting time' at school. Although education can not increase the number of opportunities in industries, and as this reply from the manager of a chocolate and confectionery factory indicates, there are jobs in which the graduate is of no value more than the employee with no secondary education, the report indicates that occupational stability and degree of satisfaction is greater among those who have had at least some secondary education:

"

> Paul ..... is operating a machine in our Box Department, and any education he may have acquired would be of no benefit to him. All he requires are two hands, two eyes, and a willingness to work. There is nothing I know of that the school could do to make him a better employee. If he were not suitable for the job, we would have not hired him. "

More important still, the report shows that further education contributed to the fuller enjoyment of life and the proper use of leisure time.

The second feature is the stress placed by employer and employee on the necessity for an adequate grounding in the "Three R's". Main difficulties noted by employees in order of frequency were: arithmetic, spelling, English and writing. The importance of this aspect of education becomes clearer when it is realised that weaknesses in basic subjects lead to retardation, and that retardation is a major cause of early leaving. The report has recommended that the diagnosis of difficulties and the provision for remedial education should be included in the work of the guidance programme of secondary schools.

This stress on general education caused the Committee to advise the postponement of specialization as long as possible, and to recommend that vocational training should emphasise " the development of basic skills and sound work habits, rather than the development of highly specialised skills. " Close contacts should be maintained with industries and occupations, and work experience programmes are commended as suitable means of exploratory vocational experience. There is no suggestion that pupils of lower intellectual ability need special classes or a special type of education. There is a recommendation that :

> "Schools offer a variety of courses to suit the varied interests and aptitudes of the pupils and make provision for the ready transfer of pupils from one course to another."

The report implies that there is general satisfaction with the type of education offered, and that special provisions for pupils should be some variation of the general pattern and not a radical departure from it.

TABLE 17

QUESTIONNAIRE TO FORMER STUDENTS OF CANADIAN SCHOOLS

1. Please check: Single ☐ Married ☐ Number of Children .....

2. How long is it since you left school? Check the one which is the closest: 1 year ☐ 2 years ☐ 1½ years ☐

3. If you left school before graduation from High School (completion of grade 12 in Ontario and British Columbia, grade 11 in the other provinces), what were the main reasons?
.....
.....

4. List below any part-time jobs you held while attending school (During holidays, after hours, etc.)

	Type of Work	Length of Service (Weeks)
1st job	.....	.....
2nd job	.....	.....
3rd job	.....	.....
4th job	.....	.....

5. Did you find this work experience referred to in (4) above to be of help to you? Check all the following which apply:

a. it helped me learn how to work ☐
b. it helped me decide what type of work I wanted to do ☐
c. it helped me get my first full-time job ☐
d. it gave me more self-confidence ☐
e. other (specify) .....

6. How did you get your first full-time job? (Check one)

National Employment Service ☐ Through the school ☐
Through friends or relatives ☐ On your own ☐
Other sources (specify) .....

7. Name of firm or company where you are employed at present .....
..... Address .....
How long have you been in its employ?..... (Months)

8. Name of foreman (immediate superior) .....

9. List other jobs you have held since you left school

	Type of Work	Length of Service	Reasons for Leaving
1st job	.....	.....	.....
2nd job	.....	.....	.....
3rd job	.....	.....	.....
4th job	.....	.....	.....

(Over)

QUESTIONNAIRE (Cont.)

10. (a) Have you had any period of unemployment? Yes ☐ No ☐
(b) If so, what was the total term of unemployment (months)...
(c) Why were you unable to secure a job during this time?.....

11. What type of work are you doing now? Be exact: e.g. typist, salesman in a store, garage mechanic, machine operator, etc....

12. (a) Do you plan to change your present type of work? Yes ☐ No ☐
(b) If so, do you know <u>now</u> what type of work you wish to do permanently? .....
(c) Do you need more education or training for such work?
(d) If so, can you get this education or training? Yes ☐ No ☐
How? ..... Yes ☐ No ☐

13. How do you like your present job?
Very much ☐ Just fair ☐ Do not like it ☐

14. Have you had any promotions or raises since starting with your present employer? Yes ☐ No ☐
How many promotions? ..... How many raises?.....

15. What is your weekly wage? Check one of the following:

Up to $16.00 ☐	$25.01-$30.00 ☐	$40.01-$45.00 ☐
$16.01-$20.00 ☐	$30.01-$35.00 ☐	$45.01-$50.00 ☐
$20.01-$25.00 ☐	$35.01-$40.00 ☐	$50.00 or over ☐

16. What courses have you taken since leaving school? Indicate below the course and length of the course opposite the proper heading.

	<u>Course</u>	<u>Length of course</u> (Mths.)
Apprenticeship	.....	.....
Correspondence	.....	.....
Trade School	.....	.....
Night School	.....	.....
Other (Specify	.....	.....

17. (a) What <u>three</u> subjects taken in school do you think have been of most help to you, not only in your work, but in all your activities? 1..... 2..... 3.....

18. (b) Why have you selected these three subjects?.....

18. What special activities such as sports, music, clubs, etc., have been of most help to you? .....

19. How do you think your school experience could have been of more help to you? Rank the <u>five</u> most important of the following suggestions. Use 1 for the most important, 2 for the second, etc.

(a) more help in finding your interests and abilities .....
(b) better training in expressing your ideas clearly, either in speaking or in writing .....

(Over)

QUESTIONNAIRE (Cont.)

(c) better training in mathematics and science .....
(d) better training in the skills needed in your job .....
(e) more information about jobs .....
(f) more training on how to get along with people .....
(g) other (specify)..... .....

20. (a) To what clubs or groups do you belong? .....
(b) What offices do you hold in these clubs or grops?.....
(c) What are your recreations? .....

- From "Canadian Education,"
March, 1951.

TABLE 18

QUESTIONNAIRE TO FOREMEN OR SUPERVISORS

1. If this employee is not now with your firm, why did he (or she) leave? .....

2. Exactly what type of work is (or was) this employee doing?.....

3. (a) What are the main skills needed to do this work?.....
   (b) Do you think this employee is generally suited for this type of work? Yes ..... No..... If not, why?.....

4. (a) Does this employee have an adequate general education to do the job well? Yes..... No.....
   (b) If answer in (a) is "No", what are the main deficiencies?...

5. (a) Does this employee have adequate practical training to do the job well? Yes..... No.....
   (b) If answer in (a) is "Yes", where was it received?.....
   (c) If answer in (a) is "No", what are the main deficiencies?...

6. (a) Does this employee have satisfactory personality and character? Yes..... No.....
   (b) If answer in (a) is "No", what are the chief weaknesses?....

7. (a) Are there opportunities for promotion within your organization for this type of work? Yes..... No.....
   (b) If answer in (a) is "Yes", do you think this employee is likely to progress along the lines of promotion? Yes... No...
   (c) What further education or training does this employee need to make such progress?.....
   (d) Does your firm have a training program by which this further education may be obtained? Yes..... No.....

8. What could the school have done to make him (or her) a better employee?.....

- From "Canadian Education," March, 1951.

TABLE 19

RELATION OF SCHOOLING TO BOYS' POST-SCHOOL CAREERS*

CRITERIA	+CENTRES	EARLY DROP-OUTS	LATE DROP-OUTS	GRAD-UATES
Promotions or raises	under	47*	52	62
	over	65	78	78
Average number of promotions or raises	under	1.0	1.2	1.5
	over	1.5	2.0	2.1
Likely to advance	under	70	81	88
	over	70	81	88
Average wage increase from 1948 to 1950	under	$ 7.50	$ 6.07	$ 8.33
	over	$ 6.92	$10.28	$ 8.73
Average weekly wage in 1950	under	$27.22	$30.61	$31.96
	over	$28.22	$32.74	$33.91
One job only	under	43	41	36
	over	30	45	45
No unemployment	under	58	66	73
	over	50	72	78
Average period of unemployment in months	under	5.2	4.2	4.0
	over	5.2	3.6	3.6
Job satisfaction	under	56	61	64
	over	66	70	72
Club membership	under	46	60	66
	over	48	65	67
Club offices	under	13	29	30
	over	17	27	33
Recreations	under	63	78	84
	over	69	83	86
Hobbies	under	29	49	50
	over	42	50	54
Further training	under	18	38	45
	over	34	48	54

* In per cent unless indicated otherwise.
\+ Centres under and over 10,000.
* 47% of early drop-outs in centres under 10,000 had promotions or raises.

- from "Canadian Education", Mar. 1951.

TABLE 20

PER CENT DISTRIBUTION OF SUGGESTIONS

FOR IMPROVING SCHOOL EXPERIENCE

SUGGESTIONS	EARLY DROP-OUTS			LATE DROP-OUTS			GRADUATES			TOTAL		
	CHOICE			CHOICE			CHOICE			CHOICE		
	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3
(b) Expressing ideas	*16	16	11	19	16	17	23	19	17	19	17	15
(a) Interests and abilities	14	11	12	21	16	14	22	18	16	19	15	14
(d) Job skills	16	13	11	18	14	12	15	13	15	17	14	12
(c) Mathematics and science	12	12	9	12	14	10	12	13	10	12	13	10
(f) Getting along with people	8	11	9	9	15	13	11	15	15	10	14	13
(c) Information on jobs	5	9	10	5	12	11	6	14	13	5	12	11
No selection	29	31	38	16	16	23	11	11	14	18	18	25

* Of early drop-out boys 16 per cent select item (b) as a first choice.

- From "Canadian Education", March, 1951.
Canadian Research Committee Report.

SECTION IV

SECONDARY EDUCATION

IN THE

UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

CHAPTER XVI

THE ORGANIZATION OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

IN THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

As in Canada, education systems vary from state to state, but among this multiplicity of organization a general pattern can be discerned. Schools are organized either on the eight years elementary - six years secondary (8-4), or the six years elementary - three years junior high school - three years senior high school plan. (6-3-3).

A distinguishing feature of this organization is the American Junior High Schools which have been in existence for about forty years. These normally cater for grades VII, VIII and IX. According to Gruhan and Douglass* their main functions are :

" 1. integration
2. exploration
3. guidance
4. differentiation
5. socialisation
6. articulation "

Originally the junior high school, by giving a preliminary grounding in secondary school subjects, provided a transitional education for those pupils who would continue to secondary education; and for those pupils who would leave on completing grade IX, it offered a functional curriculum in terms of adolescent needs. The raising of the school leaving age which resulted in pupils spending a longer period at school has eliminated the last function, so that the junior high school's sole 'raison d'être' is its ability to provide an education suited to young adolescents. Some educators have criticised it because it has not achieved this any more successfully than the 'regular' high schools.

The term 'regular' is applied to high schools which normally include grades 9, 10, 11, and 12, or 8, 9, 10 and 11. During the twentieth century, the demand that secondary education be provided for "all the children of all the people" caused the extension of educational facilities to include grades 13 and 14. Where numbers justify it, separate junior colleges have been built. In other districts these grades have been added to existing secondary schools. To avoid the breaks resulting from a pattern such as 6-3-3-2, there is a tendency to reorganise schools into a six (elementary) - four (high school) - four (senior high school) plan.

* Gruhan W.T. and Douglass H.R. - "The Modern Junior High School", 1947.

The provision of secondary education for all produced controversies on the nature of this education. During the last twenty-five years there has been increasing agreement that the school has a social purpose. In an article on "Secondary Education in the United States", J.G. Umstattd states this aim:

"It is to establish and perpetuate in our country a growing democratic order consonant with the four freedoms, a society which will not become static through processes of indoctrination but which will constantly regenerate itself through processes that eternally seek better modes of human relationships."

American educators have become imbued with the mission of permeating the work of the school with the values of democracy. Classrooms have become social laboratories in which the principles and processes of democratic living are applied. Other countries have accepted "education for democracy" as an aim, but the Americans insist that teaching the values of democracy is not sufficient, pupils must participate in the experience of democratic living.

To ensure communal solidarity in a country containing so many races and nationalities, the United States has developed the comprehensive high school which provides a number of courses - academic, agriculture, industrial arts, home-making, etc. It is felt that adolescents should intermingle freely and that society loses through too early division into occupational groups. Furthermore, all courses in the lower grades should contain a central core of subjects or experiences which are essential for complete living.

"After much deliberation the group accepted a working definition of the Core Curriculum as that body of experiences needed by every pupil for his optimum development as a social being in a democracy, but not necessarily achieved by the same organization of subject matter or experiences for all children." *

These compulsory topics include elements of English, social studies, mathematics and applied sciences.

As centralised control of education is an anathema to Americans, there is no uniform curriculum. Instead, each school system must develop its own programme and devise its own syllabus. Committees of classroom teachers, administrators, superintendents and university teachers meet frequently to organise research, construct curricula, and publish programmes. In the next chapter, the principles upon which curricula are planned are discussed, as they provide an insight into the understanding of American educational philosophy.

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* "Proceedings of Curriculum Conference of Oct. 26, 1948", Board of Education of the City of New York.

- building and refinishing old furniture
  (correlated with shop work)

3. Draw or build models of
   - layouts for arrangement of furniture in different rooms of house

4. Devise
   - a scale for measuring the value and usefulness of furniture

5. Write
   - a letter requesting information about the purchase of an item of furniture

6. Read
   - HOMES TO LIVE IN - pp. 14, 22-28.
   - STRETCHING THE HOME FURNISHINGS DOLLAR "

In section III of the programme guide there is a list of learning skills for which teachers are expected to design suitable evaluation techniques:

" - reading and understanding graphs, charts, maps
- getting information from books
- getting information about neighborhood facilities and their uses
- participation in community improvement
- techniques of interviewing
- writing a letter
- what to look for when observing a motion picture or participating in a visit or trip
- the use of words
- reading, speaking and listening skills
- leadership and co-operative planning and working
- actions for improving oneself. "

C. "EDUCATING FOR CITIZENSHIP", a manual published by the DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION, COMMONWEALTH OF PENNSYLVANIA.

Many Americans have become uneasy about the subversive influences which are at work in the United States. They believe that democracy is imperilled and that the school must range itself with other social organisations which are seeking to defend the "American Way of Life". This manual is an elaborated statement that education should be oriented to inculcate the values of democracy.

The main thesis of this manual is that the teaching of factual knowledge about democracy is not sufficient. To be effective, democracy must be both practised and preached in the schools. This means that autocratic rule by the teacher must give way to increased student participating on committees and student organisations which have real functions to perform in the running of the school.

CHAPTER XVII

THE AMERICAN APPROACH TO CURRICULUM CONSTRUCTION

In the article on American secondary education mentioned previously, J.G. Umstattd summarises the principles upon which curricula have been developed. He explains that the term 'curriculum' can be used in a narrow sense referring to the group of studies included in a course, or it can be used to indicate subjects and those "pupil activities" which in New Zealand are normally called extra-curricular activities. The significance of this latter use is more clearly appreciated when one examines the educational aims which the American curriculum is designed to satisfy. In general these are broader and more comprehensive than are usual in New Zealand education.

Although, as previously stressed, curricula vary widely from school to school, there are certain basic principles which underly curriculum development. Umstattd lists twelve of these, some of which, he says, "have been established empirically, others experimentally". Not all of the principles listed below are invariably used, but most of them are applied in the programme of curriculum development in the modern school" :

" 1. Each part of each subject or activity should contribute toward one or more of the purposes of education, and in the aggregate they should contribute toward all the purposes of education.

2. The present and assured future needs of a pupil should be the major determinant in the selection of the educational activities for that pupil. Content or experiences that bear no relation to the present or assured future needs of the pupil should not be forced upon him.

3. Both the mental maturity and the brilliance of the pupil should be governing factors in determining the difficulty of the content or experience.

4. Content and experience suited to one pupil or group of pupils, but not suited to another pupil or group, should be offered only to those to whom they are suited.

Core of Subjects

5. In each curriculum there should be a core of subjects or experiences for all students, but it should be limited to subjects or experiences clearly needed by all pupils in attaining the general aims of education.

6. The core should be planned so that every industrious normal pupil can succeed in it within a reasonable time.

7. There should be some curriculum adapted to the average or less than average pupil. This principle may be achieved in two ways; first, whole curricula may be set up for pupils of ability too low to succeed in the usual secondary school subjects; or secondly, within each curriculum ample provisions may be made for the growth of each normal pupil.

8. The proportion of courses required of all pupils should decrease as the pupils progress from grade to grade.

9. Wide exploration in fields of possible future value should be provided in the earlier years of the secondary school.

10. The content and experience in the exploratory courses should in themselves be of value to the student and not be considered solely as try-out material.

11. Each curriculum should be flexible. Pupils should be able to transfer from one curriculum to another within a minimum of lost motion.

12. The sequence of work within each subject and from subject to subject should be such as to provide the best possible order of learning. "

In the sections which follow, I have selected three American school programmes and have endeavoured to show how these principles are translated into action. Those chosen are the Illinois Secondary School Curriculum Programme, 1950; the Benjamin Franklin High School programme, "Improving a Neighborhood for Better Community Living" ; and "Educating for Citizenship", a manual prepared by the Department of Public Instruction of the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania.

A. THE ILLINOIS SECONDARY SCHOOL PROGRAMME, 1950.

This Illinois programme has been selected because it illustrates clearly one American approach to curriculum planning. The keynote of the whole scheme is that the essential function of education is the satisfying of human needs. Junior high school pupils (ages twelve to fifteen years) are confronted by three basic problems: the necessity for understanding and accepting bodily changes resulting from adolescence; the achievement of status among peers; and the development of a sense of self-esteem and personal adequacy. The planning of a curriculum to cater for these needs

draws upon two sources; the knowledge of the growth and behaviour patterns for each maturational level, and the knowledge of the society in which these pupils are to achieve a degree of effective living.

The programme is set out in the form of a chart, the first column of which indicates the growth and behaviour patterns of young adolescents; the second lists the problems which adolescents face as a result of these changes in growth and behaviour, and what they need to do and learn to achieve normal development; and the third suggests ways in which the school should try to help them. The chart is then divided horizontally into three sections; physical growth characteristics, social and emotional characteristics, and the development of ethical standards and religious feelings. It is not possible to summarise the actual material of the report, but I have included an outline of the topics covered in Section II of the programme, Social and Emotional Characteristics, and in addition, there is appended a sub-section of the report which gives some indication of the approach to planning, curricular material, and methods used.

"II. SOCIAL AND EMOTIONAL CHARACTERISTICS.

A. Changing Relationships with Home and Family;

1. Elaborate Resistance to, yet need for, parent and home control.
2. Intolerance of Younger Brothers and Sisters.
3. Use of Family Possessions.
4. Increasing Reticence Concerning His Ideas and Daily Activities.

B. Need for Affectional Relationships Outside the Home.

1. Selection of Heroes.
2. Selection of Chums.

C. Substitution of Standards of Peer Group for Those of Home and Family.

1. Exaggerated Desire for Conformity to Standards of the Peer Group.
2. Changing Patterns of Social Acceptability.

D. Changes in Boy - Girl Relationship.

1. Growing interest in Opposite Sex.

E. Need for Social Experience in Groups.

1. Importance of Group Membership for Feelings of Belonging.
2. Desire to Find Meeting Places, Which Are Removed from too-close Supervision by Adults.
3. Need for Identification with Groups which Have a Social Service Objective.

F. Feelings of Social and Personal Inadequacy.

1. Wide Swings of the Pendalum between Childish and Adult Behaviour.
2. A Tendency towards Exaggerated Emotional Response.
3. A Tendency to Daydream, to be Disorganised in Work, to be Easily Distracted. "

" D. CHANGES IN BOY-GIRL RELATIONSHIPS

Growing Interest in the Opposite Sex

Characteristics and Behavior Related to Growth	Tasks the Pupil Faces	What the School Can Do
In the seventh grade most boys are in the period of later childhood, whereas many girls have reached puberty. Their interest patterns, therefore, are divergent. On this level there is voluntary segregation by sexes in most out-of-school activities. With the transition from childhood to the pubescent cycle indifference to the other sex gives way first to exaggerated withdrawal and thence, temporarily, to elaborate disapproval. By the time they reach the ninth grade most girls and some boys have become actively interested in the opposite sex. They enjoy clubs and other social groups in which both sexes are represented. Many boys and girls however, have not yet gained sufficient social experience to enjoy dating. They prefer to do things in crowds. The junior high school is not likely to be a self-contained social group. The fact that girls are physically and socially two years older than boys of the same chronological age, often results in their seeking the companionship of boys older than junior high school age. The most precocious girls may feel especially out of place in classrooms where the	To make the transition at the appropriate age from childhood interest in single sex groups to heterosexual groups. To learn acceptable behaviour with the opposite sex; to refrain from teasing, annoying, or other unfortunate attention-getting devices to attract the opposite sex. To find opportunities to join clubs, attend dances and engage in other social activities in which both sexes are approximately on the same developmental level. To learn to feel at ease in groups representing both sexes.	Encourage boys aid girls to work together on curriculum projects and i extracurricular ativities such as damatics, chorus, ochestra, the shool newspaper, ec. Pan social events uder school auspces which do not dpend upon dating; iclude many mixers ad games which do nt require an equl number of girls ad boys. Hlp boys and girls bcome increasingly cnsiderate of each oher by giving tem appreciation fr considerate bhavior. St up a club pogram sufficiently fexible so that bys and girls of aproximately the sme social age can gin membership. (Tis means eliminaing grade lines fr certain clubs).

boys and even some of the girls seem childish in behaviour.

Chronological age seems least appropriate on the junior high school level as a means of grouping for extra-curricular activities or other social purposes.

Help boys and girls acquire the social skills they need to feel at ease with each other - games, folk and square dancing, social dancing, etc.

Provide opportunity for the most mature junior high school girls to attend some senior high school affairs, o work with community agencies to find satisfying recreational activities for these girls.

Give guidance on an individual basis to girls who feel out of place because of sexual and social precocity. "

B. THE BENJAMIN FRANKLIN HIGH SCHOOL PROGRAMME, "IMPROVING A NEIGHBORHOOD FOR BETTER COMMUNITY LIVING."

A feature of the work of many American high schools is the studying of the local environment with the purpose of revealing the needs of the community. This is no purely academic exercise as these examples from Umstattd reveal:

"In an economically poor community a source of fine clay was discovered by one school, and the school, through a course of ceramics, helped the community to develop a profitable industry; in another community, malaria was checked by the swamp clearance programme of the science classes. In many rural communities the school improves the agricultural methods of the farmers. Such work is done as a part of the curriculum of the school and new opportunities for such service are sought in the curriculum development programme."

The Benjamin Franklin High School has set itself the task of improving the living conditions of the Poplar Area, Philadelphia, and has made its classrooms social laboratories for the study and planning of the problems of community living. Not only does the community gain from this research but the pupil develops an understanding and an appreciation of society which foster good citizenship. The programme is divided into two sections, or resource units. The first of these develops around the theme of problems arising from the physical aspects of better community living. Topics selected are housing, public services in the community, and community planning. Unit two continues the research to include problems associated with personal and social aspects of better community living and encompasses the topics of community health and safety, family life, and crime and juvenile delinquency. This synopsis of work based on the central theme of housing, illustrates the nature and scope of the work as well as

provides an insight into learning techniques. The programme sets out as its objective in studying the topic of housing: "To develop a consciousness on the part of the pupils of the problems of housing, and to instill in them a desire to discover ways in which to achieve better housing for themselves and for their community."

Aspects of the problem studied include:

1. What do we mean by housing?
2. What is the history of housing?
3. What is standard and substandard housing?
4. What are the problems in furnishing a house?
5. Is it wiser to rent or buy a house?
6. What is the function of our government in housing?

To illustrate how these topics can be developed, here is the suggested treatment of topic 4 from the programme guide:

" 4. What are the problems in furnishing a house?

a. Expenditure for furniture depends upon
- family income
  The value of furnishings should not exceed half of the family's annual income.
- size of family and housing space
  Does it meet the needs?
  Will it fit the available space?
- family standard of living.

b. Getting your money's worth in furnishings
- make a plan for buying - begin with urgent needs first
- installment buying versus cash buying
- buying used furniture
- the value of co-operative buying by tenants of public and private housing projects. "

- Benjamin Franklin High School Programme Guide.

Each of these themes provides opportunities for learning experiences in related fields. For topic 4, above, these would include the following:

Learning Experiences

1. Mathematical experiences
   - budgeting
   - interest (installment buying)
   - measurement (room size)
     (these activities will be considered under separate cover for related mathematics work)
2. Shop activities
   - building one's own furniture

Furthermore, the processes whereby democracy functions must become an integral part of the curriculum. The election campaign, the ballot-box, trial by jury, and committee procedure will be equally as important as the study of modern languages and mathematics. A change in the curriculum content will not in itself produce the desired result unless it is accompanied by changes in those attitudes, purposes and motivations which are conducive to the growth of democratic ideals.

The other theme underlying this manual is that the core curriculum should be based on the needs of American youth in developing a sense of citizenship. While not belittling the importance of book learning, the report stresses that the curriculum should also contain areas of experience derived from situations which demand practical problem-solving techniques. Many of these should arise out of difficulties encountered during the child's growth to responsible citizenship.

The manual then becomes a study of how each of the school subjects can be reoriented to contribute to these social objectives. This short extract from the home-making course illustrates one approach:

" V. SERVICE TO THE COMMUNITY.

A. The type of community in which I live.
B. The needs and problems of the community.
C. Knowledge of community history.
D. Acquaintance with people of the community.

1. Develop a community survey.
2. Have representatives of community organizations meet with chapter.
3. Distribute remodeled clothing, revamped dolls and toys to the needy.
4. Pack baskets for the needy.
5. Have a scrap paper drive.
6. Develop a project for beautifying the community.
7. Study history of community.
8. Have established citizens speak to the chapter.
9. Support programs of community agencies.
10. Participate in "Teen Canteen" programs. "

CHAPTER XVIII

THE AMERICAN CONTRIBUTION TO THE PROBLEM OF THE NON-ACADEMIC PUPIL.

These three programmes represent three different approaches to curriculum construction. Although none deals specifically with the non-academic child, each contains implications which are relevant to this thesis.

The Illinois programme has developed the theme that education is a process of satisfying the needs of young people both as adolescents and as future citizens. These needs are, in the main, psychological and arise from the individual's interaction with the social environment. The programme is built on the premise that such needs can be revealed by research and are capable of tabulation. Most educationalists will agree that present needs can be gauged, but doubts have been expressed whether research can probe the future with any real degree of accuracy. If reality is always in a state of flux, any education which attempts to plan for the future is being built on shifting sands. Furthermore, critics would argue, there is the attendant danger of mortgaging the educational present for the educational future.

If however, one accepts the view that the future is sufficiently stable to be predictable, this approach has several advantages. An education system based on needs is an education shorn of the superfluous and the redundant. This reduction of educational waste means that pupils gain maximum value from their education. Secondly, human needs are valuable sources of pupil interest, and therefore, of pupil motivation. This overcomes the greatest difficulty experienced in educating non-academic pupils; their lack of interest. There is a danger however, that an attempt to cater for the future is an attempt to force pupils prematurely into situations of which they have no real experience. Such a tendency is to be deprecated.

While believing that this approach may be the key to the problem of the non-academic child, I think that it contains an inherent weakness. The concept of 'needs' is a limiting one and may too easily be interpreted in a purely utilitarian sense. If the school restricts its endeavours to satisfying the needs of adolescents as adolescents, there is a danger that these young people will never be awakened to experiences which are essential for complete living. These include the need for music, art and literature. In any society in which minimum standards tend to be accepted as adequate standards, this danger is very real, and the consequences very terrible. If, on the

other hand, educationalists recognise that the proverb "Man does not live by bread alone", is as true in education as in other aspects of living, this concept has much to contribute to the education of non-academic pupils.

The Benjamin Franklin High School programme regards the school as an institution for improving human society. This is to be achieved by raising the standards of community living within the local area. Again, for non-academic pupils this approach has much merit. The first advantage is that children are dealing with people and their way of life, topics which are of greater interest than the contemplation of abstractions. Secondly, they are working in an environment which they know at first-hand, and they are engaged in activities which have an obvious social purpose. The latter has particular value because these pupils need to feel that their work has a purpose beyond that of mere knowledge. In addition, this programme provides learning situations outside the classroom, but these situations are of sufficient difficulty to require training in techniques and in the use of reference books.

In chapter four, I discussed the value of the local survey in social studies. Those comments are equally applicable to this scheme which is an extension of the more humble local survey to a wider field. One particularly satisfying feature of this extension is the unity which it provides. The work in English, mathematics, mapping, art and craft is a development of the central theme. This appears more satisfactory than the traditional division of work into subject compartments, a division which tends to confuse pupils.

It is not possible to evaluate how successfully this programme achieves its objective of creating better community living. Nor is it possible to determine how effectively it succeeds in educating pupils. Although such an approach would be readily adaptable to New Zealand conditions, I feel that it would be better restricted to selected topics rather than made the basis of a complete education.

The third programme, "Educating for Citizenship", must be accepted with some reserve. While recognising that the school has the duty to the community of promoting a sense of responsible citizenship, few New Zealand educationalists would agree that the school should engage in the intensive propaganda which the manual recommends. If we except this peculiarly American trait, the programme has several features which are worthy of adoption. The first of these is the American stress on pupil participation in the running of the school. It is one of the peculiar paradoxes of New Zealand education that our schools, which are mainly authoritarian, are expected to train pupils to live in a democracy. This is due partly to the force of tradition,

partly to an unwillingness to believe that pupils can really contribute much to the successful running of a school. The American attitude is that adolescents need to be trained to be citizens as well as to be students, and that practical work in citizenship is equally important as practical work in chemistry. This is a view with which I am in substantial agreement.

I am less convinced that a curriculum in citizenship is as suitable as this manual would suggest. Unless American teen-agers are more interested in civic topics than New Zealand adolescents, I suspect much of the work might fall on stony ground. There is a very real danger that this type of education might degenerate into a new formalism with pupils using terms such as 'democracy', 'franchise', 'the liberty of the individual', and 'human rights' as meaningless words. This is particularly true of non-academic pupils. Provided pupil interest is high and enthusiasm is maintained, this curriculum has much to recommend it. Once interest flags or the pupils feel that they are merely playing at running their school community, it becomes a meaningless ceremonial.

SECTION V

THE POST-PRIMARY EDUCATION OF NON-ACADEMIC BOYS.

CHAPTER XIX

THE POST-PRIMARY EDUCATION OF NON-ACADEMIC BOYS

In the previous three sections of this thesis I have endeavoured to summarise and evaluate the education which is being provided for adolescent boys in England, Canada and the United States of America. Although none of the programmes was specifically designed for non-academic boys they were all clearly intended to cater for pupils of a wide range of abilities. In this final chapter I do not intend to review each of these again, but I think it is important that the principles upon which they have been based should be summarised. They are:

i. That the increasing complexity of the modern world requires a more advanced education than can be provided by the elementary school.

ii. That the traditional secondary school curriculum designed for an intelligent elite is unsuitable for the majority of the secondary school population.

iii. That education can no longer be regarded as a purely intellectual process but must contribute to the growth of the whole personality including the development of emotional maturity and aesthetic sensitivity.

iv. That education is essentially a social process with an implied social purpose. This is frequently expressed in the concept of education for citizenship and translated into action by providing opportunities for increased pupil participation in the affairs of the school.

v. That the school should provide a diversified education appropriate to the varying abilities and needs of its pupils.

vi. That such an education requires the breaking down of the active teacher-passive pupil relationship and the substitution of a curriculum which necessitates pupil research and activity within suitable fields of experience.

vii. That children work most successfully under the stimulus of a personal interest. Educationalists have endeavoured to harness these interests to motive the curriculum.

viii. That the interests of the adolescent boy are intimately related to his needs and his vocational ambitions.

In this summary no attempt has been made to select any one of these programmes or approaches to curriculum construction and recommend its application to New Zealand post-primary schools. The problem of the non-academic pupil contains so many variants that any attempt to prefabricate a plan and apply it indiscriminately would create more problems than it would solve. The proportion of such pupils and degree of ability vary from district to district, as do the resources of the school environment, the vocational possibilities of the area, and the educational facilities available. Each school must therefore study its own problem and devise its own solution in terms of its special needs, its difficulties and its opportunities. If this thesis has any practical value it should lie in the general survey of the problem, and the possible solutions which the study of overseas practice has revealed.

In planning its own curriculum, there are certain values that the school should keep continually in mind. These include

Attitudes

The most important benefit that an adolescent derives from his post-primary education is not factual knowledge, but good attitudes. It is vitally important that the school should be so organised that all pupils develop healthy attitudes towards work and play, towards other people and towards society. These are seldom produced by moralising but are a natural development from the tone of a good school. Initially, much depends on the teacher's own attitude towards these pupils. A defeatist approach is indefensible. It has been said that pupils do what is confidently expected of them. They need to feel that they have something to contribute to the welfare of the school. Instead of attempting to disguise the real nature of non-academic groups, the school should frankly recognise them, but attempt to provide opportunities for these pupils to acquire personal and group prestige within the school. These children know that they are mentally inferior and despise any well-meaning attempt to disguise it. They also react enthusiastically to praise for work which they know is the result of good, honest effort.

Standard of Work

There is no justification for the belief that non-academic pupils are incapable of producing work of a good standard. Shoddy, careless work should no more be accepted from these pupils than from the top ability group in the school. Too frequently low standards are accepted by teachers either as a mistaken form of kindness, or as a concession to intellectual inadequacy. But the solution of the problem lies deeper than merely demanding a higher standard. Teachers must ensure that the work set fulfils these three requirements:

1. That it has meaning and significance to the pupil.
2. That it is sufficiently within his experience to allow a sincere, honest effort.
3. That it should develop from his interests.

It is obviously both impossible and undesirable to demand that all pupils achieve a set standard. What really matters is that each pupil has made a genuine effort and produced work which reaches his own personal standard.

Curriculum

On first appearance, it would seem that the core requirements of the 1945 syllabus must restrict any attempt to plan a new curriculum for these pupils. In actual fact, this restriction is illusory, for, if interpreted liberally, this syllabus offers suitable methods and material for all pupils. As indicated in Chapter 4, some sections might well be omitted and others developed more intensively. If work is selected in terms of pupil need and capacity, the 1945 syllabus provides a fundamentally sound education.

Within the framework of this syllabus there is scope for the application of suitably modified approaches which the study of English, Canadian and American education systems has revealed. For example, the work in the core subjects might well develop from a research unit in an agricultural or practical topic. Several schools have experimented with relating class work in arithmetic (measuring and costing material) and English (writing of letters ordering material), with the work of the manual training classes, e.g. the building and selling of farm gates. Provided the class work is a natural development from the practical work and not a forced correlation, this is to be recommended.

Organisation

The Post-Primary Teachers' Association report revealed that professional opinion was divided on the merits of special classes. It also indicated that whether schools wanted such classes or not, non-academic pupils tend to congregate in lower forms. Although the direction of all non-academic pupils into these forms is neither desirable nor permissable, schools should frankly recognise the position and endeavour to give these pupils the fullest education of which they are capable. If they succeed, they will remove the stigma which is so frequently attached to these classes.

There are three general patterns of teacher organisation:

1. One teacher handles all core subjects with specialist teachers assisting with cultural and practical subjects.
2. Teachers take groups of subjects. (Mathematics - Science - Agriculture; English - Social Studies)
3. A specialist teacher for each subject.

In general, the pattern selected depends on the teaching strength of the school and the intricacies of the timetable. If a suitable teacher with the right qualities of sympathy, patience and enthusiasm is available, the first organisation has several advantages. Not only does the teacher really get to know the children, but also the pupils are spared the confusion caused by a succession of new teachers. I believe that the most important consideration is that these classes should have the best teachers. The practice of allocating these classes to the youngest and least experienced teachers can not be condoned.

Educational and Vocational Guidance

An effective educational guidance programme should be the responsibility of one teacher. His duties should include the following:

1. Acting as friend and counsellor to these pupils both in scholastic and extra-curricular activities.

2. Watching for symptoms of early leaving, e.g. lack of progress, dislike of school work, lack of interest in sports, school clubs and cultural groups.

3. Mental testing.

4. Establishing liaison between home and school.

5. Accepting responsibility for making the fullest use of information derived from autobiographical sheets.

If, in addition, the same teacher is the school careers adviser, he might carry out the following programme:

SUGGESTED PROGRAMME FOR CAREERS ADVISER

IN POST-PRIMARY SCHOOL

Nov. - Dec.

Arrange through Home & School Association a meeting with parents of prospective pupils. A special effort should be made to encourage the attendance of parents of pupils from country districts and contributing schools. This would be an opportunity for the staff to meet parents of new pupils and an occasion for the headmaster to explain various school courses and their purposes, extra-curricular activities and distribute copies of school prospectus.

January

Attend at enrolment of new pupils and note any information about the child given by the parent. This information should be added to the confidential section of the pupil's file.

February

Arrange for filling in of questionnaire form or autobiographical sheet. File these alphabetically and make information available to class teachers.

Before end of first term

Interview all new pupils and check to make sure that no pupil is in a wrong course. Discuss with him his reaction to new school, his progress in new subjects and his general adjustment. Discuss occupations in very general terms but note early leavers. These will require information about immediate occupations. Data from this interview is to be recorded on pupil's file.

During year

Organise and supervise all mental testing.

Interview all pupils who propose leaving school during year. Make occupational information available to them. During November interview all School Certificate and University Entrance candidates so that these pupils may have a clear idea of the requirements for entry to the professions and know what financial assistance is available for continued education.

If possible, interview remainder of pupils and encourage them to think for themselves about their own future occupation.

Recommend to headmaster changes of course where pupils are clearly incapable of handling the work adequately.

Pay special attention to children with behaviour problems, maladjusted pupils and those who are not making reasonable progress in school studies.

Arrange visits to factories, offices, etc. Co-operate with the social studies teachers. Arrange visits from representatives of various trades. "All pupils interested in carpentry are invited to hear Mr. X, secretary of the Carpenters' Union."

Arrange staff meetings to discuss pupils. This should be an opportunity not only for the careers adviser to acquire wider knowledge of pupils but also a chance for him to make his more specialised knowledge available to teachers.

Supervise the record cards and keep filed the autobiographical sheets and questionnaires.

Provide a suitable placement service for those pupils who wish to avail themselves of it.

I feel that the school might well accept this latter function as part of its responsibility towards non-academic pupils. This means more than merely keeping them out of blind-alley occupations. It includes the provision of reliable, up-to-date information, placement in jobs which match as nearly as possible interests and aptitudes, and the institution of an efficient follow-up system. These services should be available to the pupils although its use is optional.

A Summary of the Needs of Non-Academic Pupils in a Small New Zealand Town.

As stated earlier in this thesis, I do not believe that curricula can be planned without reference to the pupils for whom it is intended, and the environment in which they live. Although literature on adolescents in New Zealand is limited, overseas research on this stage of development is extensive and readily available. In this final section I wish to summarise the basic needs of adolescents living in small New Zealand towns (*). This is the age group and the environment with which I am most familiar, this summary being based on eight years' experience of teaching in the secondary departments of large rural district high schools.

(*) Population 1,000 - 5,000.

1. The need for an adequate grounding in the basic school subjects, particularly in those associated with the use of the English language.

2. The need to understand the methods of propaganda and advertising. To teach a child to read and then allow him to be swayed by every piece of emotive writing is merely to create a new form of illiteracy.

3. The need to become socially responsible.

4. The need to develop an appreciation of music, literature, the arts and crafts. If the school could become an institution for the cultural enrichment of community living it would satisfy the aesthetic need in the life of a small town.

5. The need for normal social development both in homogeneous and heterogeneous groups. Much of this should arise from the day-by-day work of the school. All cultural, athletic and social activities which promote such development should be encouraged.

6. The need for a general education which will enable adolescents to obtain a job, hold it and make progress in it.

This is no panacea for all the educational ills arising from the problem of non-academic boys in New Zealand post-primary schools. The problem is of such scope and complexity that this thesis can do little more than endeavour to place it in focus. I believe that future progress depends upon the willingness of schools to experiment freely, and of teachers to rethink the problem in terms of their pupils.

TWO EDUCATIONAL GUIDANCE FORMS

1. AUTOBIOGRAPHICAL SHEET

DATE ..... NAME ..... FORM .....

We want you to tell us about yourself so that we can help you at school and advise you when you are thinking about a job.

Tell us candidly what you think about school. Do you find school work difficult? easy? pleasant? Do you worry about your work or about examinations? Do you find it easy to make friends at school?

How many years do you hope to stay at school? How long do you think you will be able to stay?

Tell us about the job you hope to enter when you leave school. Why does this job appeal to you? Would you like some information about it?

---

2. QUESTIONNAIRE (For Use With All New Entrants)

Name ..... Date of birth .....
Address (home)..... Name of Parent (or Guardian).....
If boarding state boarding address .....
Why do you board? .....

1. How many older brothers and sisters have you?
2. How many younger brothers and sisters have you?
3. Do you live at home with both your parents?
4. If not, with which parent do you live?
5. Father's occupation?
6. Mother's occupation?

Activities

7. What are your chief interests and entertainments?
8. What sports do you play?
9. To what clubs do you belong?
10. Which of these activities take you out at night?
11. How many times a week do you go out at night?
12. Do you work after school or during the weekend? (Give hours)
13. If you live on a dairy farm, do you milk at night /in the morning? (Give times).
14. Have you a quiet room in which to do homework?

Health

15. Have you any serious disabilities such as deafness, bad eyesight, or weak heart which trouble you?
16. Have you had any serious illness?
17. Have you any serious disabilities which might handicap you when seeking a job?
18. Are you frequently absent from school as a result of sickness?
19. Do you think your health is hindering your schoolwork?

Occupation

20. What occupation do you hope to enter?
21. Would it be necessary for you to leave home to enter this occupation?
22. What are your second and third choices?
23. What occupation would your father /mother like you to enter?
24. How long do you intend staying at school?

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17 OCT	H.L PU 85/3773
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