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ASPECIS OF THE ACTIVITY MOVEMENT

Wyatt

THE 'ACTIVITY MOVEMENT': A STUDY OF ITS ANTECEDENTS, WITH SOME REFERENCE TO THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS FOR THE ACTIVITY SCHOOLS OF ENGLAND, AND SOME IMPLICATIONS FOR THE PROVINCE OF QUEBEC

by

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PREFACE

Any examination into the training of teachers should specify the purpose for which teachers are trained, and the role or roles forecast for such teachers. In the Province of Quebec, largely as a result of the report of Royal Commission of Enquiry, that role and purpose has been designated as preparation for 'activism', or 'activity' (a term less frequently employed). These words activism and activity are probably the two most frequently used words in the educational vocabulary of this Province today. Much of the discussion involving these terms is ill-informed and contradictory.

The purpose of this thesis is to seek some clarification for the correct use of the terms, and to seek the implications of such theories and ideas when applied to the training of teachers who are to be called upon to put into practice the kinds of teaching as envisaged by the Commission of Enquiry. It seemed appropriate to examine in a single country, England, how teachers were trained to carry out such methods. One of the major reasons for the choice of England was the fact that "even before World War II the primary schools had, whenever possible, become 'child-centred' schools, characterized by activity programs".[1]

Preliminary search through the standard educational journals provided a list of the most quoted texts. It was possible to check

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[1] J.F. Cramer and G.S. Browne, Contemporary Education (New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, 1956) p.243.

these against other information obtained by correspondence with educators in England, and by interviews of such English educators as were visiting Montreal from time to time. It then became possible to present an overview of the development of the activity concept, particularly in its English setting. Certain principles underlying this concept have been enunciated, although many questions still remain unanswered. Chief amongst these are the following: Is there a distinctively English interpretation of activity? How widespread is the use of activity in English Junior Schools? How are teachers trained so that they can use this approach?

Whilst it may seem relatively easy to obtain information by correspondence, in fact a fairly widespread correspondence, both by the writer directly, and by others who intervened on her behalf, has proved far from satisfactory. Even visiting educators from England have seemed somewhat reluctant to give any reasonably precise answers to these three questions.

In the work that follows more attention has therefore been directed to the study of what may be underlying principles than to its definitive statements about English practices in so far as they relate to the extent of their use, or their place in the training of teachers for service in the Junior Schools. In a final chapter, an attempt has been made to relate much of the foregoing to the contemporary educational scene in the Province of Quebec.

Now I wish to express my indebtedness to my director, Professor Reginald Edwards, whose clarity of thought and insight into the problems connected with the study provided me with a deeper understanding of the material treated herein. It is by no means an overstatement to say that without his invaluable assistance this work would not have been completed.

I am also grateful to Professor Shirley McNichol, not only for reading the manuscript, but for her constant encouragement and inspiration from the very inception of my interest in this topic.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

> What is 'momentum' or 'bureaucracy' or 'hysteria'? The question in each case is not: What does the concept "really" mean? For it means what we say it does. The question is one of words and is answered in the same way. Words themselves do not "mean". We "mean" by their use. We stipulate what we mean by them by definitions. 'Momentum' means 'mass times velocity'. But what is 'mass' and what is 'velocity'? We keep exchanging one word for others. On pain of infinite regress or circularity, definition must stop somewhere. It stops where on expects it to, namely, when there is no longer ambiguity or disagreement about the referent of the term.[1]

It is in keeping with the times to introduce the topic of this research with an enquiry into the meaning of words, particularly the words 'activity' and 'activism'. We would have to stop 'when there is no longer ambiguity about the referent of the term'. An examination of the way in which ideas about the educational value of activity have developed down the ages might provide the answer.

'Activity' is not a neologism. According to The Oxford Concise Dictionary, it was derived from the French word activité, which in turn came from the medieval Latin activitatem. As a pedagogical principle activity is as old as man's earliest

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[1]M. Brodbeck, "Logic and Scientific Method In Research On Teaching," N.L. Gage (ed.), Handbook Of Research On Teaching (Chicago: Rand McNally, 1963) p.48.

education. It was often the means whereby primitive man transmitted skills and knowledge to his children. It was emphasized in Athenian and Spartan education, was adopted in part in many medieval and renaissance schools, but may not have reached an early flowering until the Post-Renaissance era.

The Post-Renaissance Era

Though many had written about educational reform in earlier periods, it is widely accepted that it was in this Post-Renaissance period that certain educators seeking to reform the education of their own day contributed much towards the ideas now current in activism and activity methods. Schoenchen,[2] reviewing their work in The Activity School: A Philosophy for Teachers, states that the first to advocate that the pupil be required to do things for himself was Comenius (1592-1670). He outlined a three-fold method of instruction which provided for the bodily activity of the pupil's eye, tongue and hand. Activity, in this context, was merely a principle of method. It was to take on far greater importance. In the work of Rousseau (1712-1778) experience and pupil activity were held to be the chief means of education. In the writings of Fichte (1762-1814), the purpose of education was the development of the innate drive for self-activity. For Pestalozzi (1746-1827), who built on the ideals of his predecessors, school organization was to

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[2]G. Schoenchen, The Activity School: A Philosophy for Teachers (New York: Longmans, Green, 1940) p. 6-19.

be based on the spontaneous activity of the child. It remained for Froebel (1782-1852) to proclaim that to learn through doing contributes more to development than to learn through verbal communication, and for Herbart (1776-1841) to add the recognition of the value of interest in the training of the mind and the development of character. We see already the emergence of an individualistic kind of education and the many-sided nature of the word 'activity'.

The Late Nineteenth Century

By the late nineteenth century, the increasing mechanization of life and work reduced the need for the exercise of personal skills and activities. The schools, particularly those using the monitorial system, expected the children to sit immobile and passively absorbent.[3] There was much dissatisfaction with this state of affairs among those who cherised the ideal, a legacy of an earlier day, that good education must be based on personal interest and participation. Numerous attempts to break away from the acknowledged system, evident in different parts of the world, became known as the 'new education' or the 'new schools'. The increasing tempo at which changes were introduced, and the manner in which developments in one country were paralleled by developments in others, makes the dating of such events important to any

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[3]J.S. Brubacher, A History of the Problems of Education (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1966) p. 211-212.

one seeking an over-all or synoptic view of these developments.

In The Story of the New Education, Boyd and Rawson[4] report that the Country Boarding Schools were among the first of the new schools to appear. In England, Abbotsholme founded by Reddie in 1889 and Bedales established by Badley in 1893 introduced a further interpretation of activity. Besides providing for manual work, for sports, and for the cultivation of spontaneity, they allowed for pupil self-government. The idea soon passed to Germany through Lietz who in 1898 founded the first of the Landerziehungsheime for young children, and to France through Desmolins who took Bedales as a model for l'Ecole des Roches. Country Day Schools were also established in the German Cantons of Switzerland.

The second group of 'new' schools had its beginnings in the experimental efforts of Parker who at Quincy, Massachusetts between 1875-1883 sought through activity to encourage the child's nature to soar to full expression; and of Dewey who in his Laboratory School in Chicago from 1896-1904 employed the principle that:

> "the primary root of all educative activity is in the instinctive, impulsive attitudes and activities of the child and not in the presentation and application of external material."[5]

The third group of schools, also experimental in approach,

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[4]W. Boyd and W. Rawson, The Story of the New School (London: Heineman, 1965) p.2.

[5]A.C.F. Beales, "The Historical Development of 'Activity Methods' in Education", National Froebel Foundation Bulletin (June 1957) p.7.

was founded by doctors whose success with abnormal children led them to adopt their methods for use with normal children. Montessori (1869-1952) introduced the idea of self-teaching through specially devised materials and Decroly (1871-1932) developed a programme of work based on centres of interest and educative games. Claparède furthered the principle that education must be adapted to the needs of the individual child not only through his writings but as a result of his leading part in the creation of the Institut Jean-Jacques Rousseau in Geneva (1912) which, under its first director Bovet, produced such scholars as Ferrière and Piaget who have done so much to promote the ideals of activity.

All of these pedagogical developments were encouraged by the wave of scholarship which pervaded every field of knowledge during this period. Of particular importance was the birth of the new psychology which was dedicated to the scientific study of human behaviour. While the paternity of this psychology was German, deriving from the work of Fechner, Helmholtz and Wundt, the maternality was English and was to be found in the work of Galton and Spencer. In the United States, it first became popular through the works of James and Thorndike. Then came Hall who was responsible for shifting the educational and psychological emphasis from theorizing about children to the observation and study of children. His work had a ripple effect for his interest in child-study spread from Clarke University, the headquarters of the Child-Study Movement, to other parts of the country via his students Terman and Gesell. Even more than this, it influenced not only the practical reformers mentioned

above but many of those who came later.

The Early Twentieth Century

By the turn of the century a revolution was clearly at hand and progressives found themselves with a growing body of theory to support the pedagogical reformism they so dearly espoused. Much progress was made towards the creation of methods of organization and instruction which would make the ideals of the new school, now often called the activity school, effective in the ordinary schools. Three countries especially interested in this approach to the problem of reform were the United States, France and Great Britain.

In the United States, the disciples of Parker and Dewey were active in designing methods which would take each child's needs and abilities into consideration. Among the methods in vogue at different times, Parkhurst's Dalton Plant (1911), Washburne's Winnetka Technique (1919), Kilpatrick's Project Method (1910) and Wirt's Platoon School (1914), are all well known.[6]

In France, in 1919 and 1920, special methods such as The School Co-operative initiated by Profit, the Free Group Method started by Cousinet and the Printing Press begun by Freinet introduced a measure of freedom and social equality into French schools.[7]

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[6]A.E. Meyer, The Development of Education in the Twentieth Century (New York: Prentice-Hall, 1951) p. 72-7, 488-498.

[7]Boyd and Rawson, op. cit., p.41-5.

That the new ideas flourished in Britain is attested to by the establishment of the Beacon Hill School by Russell, Hurtwood School by Allen and Dartington Hall by the Elmhirsts. The writings of MacMunn: The Child's Path To Freedom, Edmond Holmes: What Is And What Might Be and A.S. Neill's: The Dominie's Log also provide confirmation. Practices such as Froebel's Kindergarten, the Montessori Method and the Dalton Plan received more respect here than in the countries of their origin. Two English educators, Rachel and Margaret McMillan, realizing how much learning in the early years depends upon environment, devised ways of educating slum area nursery school children - thus originating the Nursery School Movement which later was so influential in extending activity practices.

Concern for the new approach was also evident elsewhere. In Germany, Kerschensteiner (1854-1932) organized the industrial and manual sides of the schools of Munich around the principle that activity liberates the 'potential creative energy'; Geheeb (1870-1961) extolled the importance of the expressional part of the learning process at his coeducational Odenwald;and Steiner set out to develop the threefold nature of the child-physical, emotional and intellectual - as it is revealed in his various stages of development.[8]

Similar efforts were apparent in India at Tagore's Sanctuary School; in Austria in Cizik's (1865-1947) art classes for gifted children; in Switzerland where Dalcroze (1864-1950) transformed

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[8]A. Ferrière, The Activity School (London: Allen and Unwin, 1929) p.176, 218-219, 286.

music into motion to enable pupils to experience it actively; and in Russia where Shatsky (1878-1934) broke down the rigidity of traditional subject matter into a programme based on the child's activities.[9]

While the roots of the new education may be said to lie in the philosophies of the Post-Renaissance revivalists, it is evident that its conception is closely associated with the practices developed since the late nineteenth century. There were, of course, varying versions of what the new education meant in thought and practice. At one extreme, there were the radicals who saw the child as both the starting point and the end of their efforts. Freedom and self-expression were set up to secure the free-thinking individual. Exponents of this view felt that the education programme dare not be specific since one could not forecast the future to which the child was heir. At the other extreme, the conservative group held the child to be the starting point for all programmes. They believed that out of the child's own activity comes his growth and that he must therefore be provided with a rich environment, for second-hand experiences are less vital. Schools organized on such lines were nonetheless revolutionary as compared with the established system.

Our review of the emergence, in different parts of the world, of the new kind of school has revealed a great diversity in ideals and practice. This was no doubt due to differences of social and

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[9]Meyer, op. cit., p. 129-134.

national background. Yet there was the unmistakable evidence of a common spirit at work. In all of them, the child rather than subject matter became the focus of attention. The significant features were the recognition of the importance of childhood as a stage in the development of the mature personality and acceptance of the idea that learning can only be fostered through providing individuals with the freedom to think and act independently. This placing of the child in the centre of the stage led many people to refer to the new school as 'child-centred'. At the same time, a new role for the teacher became evident. Teaching became a matter of watching and understanding, of helping the growth of the child's inner powers and confidence by the right kind of encouragement.

An International Organization

Along with these early developments went the formation of several organizations whose aim was to give the work of reform greater cohesion and to make its results more generally known. The International Bureau of New Schools, founded by Ferrière in Europe (1899), was followed by the organization of the Progressive Education Association in the United States (1919) and the New Education Fellowship (N.E.F.) in Calais (1921) by representatives from Britain, France, Germany, Switzerland and the United States.[10]

Under the enthusiastic leadership of Mrs. Ensor, editor of

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[10]Ferrière, op. cit., p. 241-244, 299.

the Fellowship's periodical The New Era In Home and School, and Ferrière, directors of the English and French associations respectively, the movement spread to all corners of the globe. It then became necessary to form a more effective directing body consisting of such well-known educators as: Boyd (Glasgow), Decroly (Belgium), Dent (London) Piaget (Geneva), Rawson (London), Rugg and Ryan (U.S.A.).

Since the history of the new education in England is so inextricably related to the growth of the N.E.F., it is appropriate to continue the search by tracing the development of activity methods within the framework of this organization.

In the early years of its existence, the N.E.F. like many other reform enterprises had only been concerned with the freedom recognized as important for personal development. Most members believed that the active school could provide this but there was as yet no hard and fast doctrine of activity. In spirit it was eclectic, taking the best in ideas and practice and adapting them as experience and experiment might require.

However, events in the nineteen-thirties - the economic slump and the increasing threats from the aggressive dictatorships - brought about a change in outlook. That the N.E.F. had begun to reconsider what was implied in educating for social service and world brotherhood was reflected in their conference themes: 'Education and the Changing Society' (1933) and 'Education and a Free Society' (1936). What emerged was the recognition that a new kind of human relationship was required in the classroom. Dominance and subservience should give way to a mutual sharing; teacher and child should each influence the behaviour and conduct of the other. As Montessori saw it, there

should be an end 'to the war that exists between them'. It was also a declaration that society, and the relations between races, classes and nations, ought to be based upon the same mutual relationships.

Educational Reconstruction 1939 - 1946

The ways and means of conceiving 'activity' in education have to this point been part and parcel of the time in which they emerged. This is no less true of the World War II era. Of all the schools in Europe, among the combatants, those in England were able, in spite of difficulties to continue to provide an education to the greatest proportion of children. But the conditions of war permitted many changes from the more formal methods of pre-war years. Concern that wars start in the mind of men, and concern for the future, contributed greatly to the psychological and sociological enquiries which burgeoned during this period and to the extensive planning for post war life of which they formed an important part. Though the N.E.F. as an international organization was no longer effective, its spirit was certainly kept alive. Perhaps developments in England can be considered as merely more nearly optimum than in the other European countries.

At the start of the war, concern was expressed for the safety of the children and vast evacuation schemes were arranged. Some of these never materialized and those that did, though considered failures, yielded farreaching results. One such outcome, prompted by the conclusions of the Cambridge Evacuation Survey edited by

Isaacs, was that people involved in the care and training of children were forced not only to reconsider their notions about the child and his needs but the whole way of life in the community.[11]

As the war progressed, other changes became expedient. With classes held in temporary buildings and on a shift basis, with more women being engaged to replace the men who had gone to war, and with increasing interest in the physical well-being of the students, there was a trend towards a freer interpretation of the curriculum, a less rigid, in fact often irregular, timetable and greater informality between teachers and pupils. Post war writers, Mellor and Gardner, went so far as to suggest that this should not be considered a temporary arrangement but the real organization of the school.

As the threat of Hitler's air attacks subsided, the thoughts of the British people turned to their present and future problems. The N.E.F. wartime conferences at Oxford profited from the wisdom of Karl Mannheim, who insisted that modern society must plan for democracy, but it was Stead who attempted to devise methods of meeting this need by collating and summarizing large numbers of reports and recommendations in preparation for the study commissions which were to provide data for the 1944 Education Act.[12]

Other wartime actions directed towards the future included

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[11]S. Isaacs, Cambridge Evacuation Survey (London: Methuen, 1941).

[12]W.H.G. Armytage, Four Hundred Years of English Education (London: Cambridge, 1964) p.238.

the drawing up of the Children's Charter (1942), a document which recognized the basic and minimum rights of children whatever their race or creed, by delegates from nineteen Allied countries along with numerous British representatives;[13] the Government's White Paper on Educational Reconstruction (1943) which among other things emphasized the importance of equalizing educational opportunity to make way for a more closely knit society and introduced such social services as free meals and milk served under conditions ensuring social training;[14] and, the Flemming Committee Report (May 1944) which proposed an Emergency Training Scheme to train the teachers necessary to enable the Education Act to be realized, and, incidentally, revolutionized all future teacher training programmes.[15]

UNESCO And The N.E.F. 1946 - 1966

"... since 1945 the seed sown earlier has ripened on its own in many countries ...."[16] Thus runs the commentary by Rawson. Most people had come to accept the importance of the child personality in education and with this acceptance the older ways had been modified in many schools. However, as Boyd reminds us, "the good became the enemy of the better. The Fellowship and other educational

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[13]Boyd and Rawson, op. cit., p.121-2.

[14]H.C. Barnard, A History of English Education (London: University of London, 1961) p.294-295.

[15]H.C. Dent, Growth in English Education (London: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1954) p.2-19.

[16]Boyd and Rawson, op. cit., p.viii.

bodies came closer together and the need for crusading diminished".[17]

The ideals by which the N.E.F. lived had to go on developing if they were to keep their ability to inspire in a period of rapid change. From the beginning, it had placed emphasis on the individual person, the individual pupil, and the individual teacher. But the war brought social factors to the forefront and made life in the school community its special concern.

When the new education had passed from the private and experimental schools into the ordinary ones, the idea of community had become obscure. Since the schools were anything but democratic in organization, it was evident that there must be changes in their ways and in their spirit. There was need, for example, of a change in discipline and in methods of living and teaching, in the relationship of authorities and teachers, and teachers and pupils. It followed that the N.E.F. should embark on a programme of educational research and experiment to discover what form the expression of this reform in home and school might take. The big question was - Where after that?

The answer came when the N.E.F. was called upon to assist UNESCO after its formation in 1945. What began as an international study of prejudices broadened into a consideration of group dynamics as displayed in the social life of the school. It became clear that if methods of attitude change could be devised they might be employed in the training

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[17]W. Boyd, "The Basic Faith of the New Education", G.Z.F. Bereday and J.A. Lauwerys (Eds.), The Year Book of Education (New York: World, 1957) p.206.

colleges for teachers, to produce a generation of teachers better able to establish right relations with their pupils.

At the same time the N.E.F. found more appropriate methods for conducting its 'conferences'. Instead of the lecture and discussion, or even the discussion in small interacting groups, members now came together to enjoy creative experiences by working at new arts and crafts, and then discussing their own experiences and the feelings engendered, as well as their applicability to education. It was agreed that utilizing such activities was capable of more general application in the new efforts being made to develop a more mature teaching 'personality'.

Finally, as the result of providing UNESCO with guiding papers on 'Education and the Mental Health of Children in Europe', there came the restatement of the Fellowship's aim as an education for mental wholeness and maturity. It was to be individualistic rather than social but with sufficient emphasis on the social factors to prevent it being one-sided. Teaching would be much less direct, activities of individuals would be less controlled by others, but both should contribute to producing human beings who whilst living in and partaking of the actions of the communities of which they were a part, would at the same time have sufficient inner resources for a personal life.

If, thus far, activity and activity methods have been sought for in a historical perspective, it should be possible to substantiate this more fully by a more detailed examination of the writings and practices of some of those who have been mentioned above. In more modern terminology, it may then be necessary to consider more

specifically what each has held to be true of the nature and characteristics of the child and of the teacher, and what are the necessary concomitants by which teacher and child interact. The next section of the work will be directed to these questions.

CHAPTER II

A SEARCH FOR THE PRINCIPLES OF ACTIVITY: THE POST-RENAISSANCE MODELS

Although eventually an examination is to be made of the manner in which teachers in England are inducted into methods of using activity principles, it is none the less exigent to conduct more fully the search for the necessary principles in the writings and methods of those considered influential in the adumbration of those principles. The questions are then raised - Which writers and which writings? It was decided that what had been found to be most relevant by English educators would be found in texts, and journals used by English educators, and that matters of fact could be elicited by correspondence with some of them.

These authors invariably attribute the roots of the activity movement to such Post-Renaissance writers as Comenius, to whom Foster Watson, for example, attributes the founding of modern experimental training in English schools;[1] Rousseau, whose educational ideals were disseminated by the writings of Day and the Edgeworths;[2] Pestalozzi, whose teacher training methods were adopted by

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[1]W.H.G. Armytage, "Foster Watson: 1860-1929," British Journal of Educational Studies (Vol. X, No. 1, Nov. 1961) p.11.

[2]E. Lawrence, Friedrich Froebel and English Education (London: University of London, 1952) p.36.

the Home and Colonial Society,[3] whose use of object lessons had been adopted by the Mayo,[4] and whose school at Yverdon was visited by Bell;[5] Froebel, whose philosophy had been brought to England in 1851 by the Ronges;[6] and Herbart, whose psychological justification for a technique of teaching was popularized by Hayward and the Felkins, but particularly by John Adams in his Herbartian Psychology Applied to Education.[7]

Among the experimentalists, we hear mention of Dewey, who "although he is an American professor, ... has exercised a great influence"[8] in England; and Susan Isaccs, whose word is still gospel in many teacher training colleges today.

Many contemporary scientific child-study proponents have influenced current British thought. Those most highly revered seem to be Gesell, of whom Gardner has said "he gives us a starting point from which many others can go and are going further";[9] Tanner, who has tested Gesell's findings on English children and who has published several texts and numerous articles on the subject of child

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[3]Ibid., p.35.

[4]Ibid., p.96.

[5]S.J. Curtis, History of Education in Great Britain (London: University Tutorial, 1957) p.296.

[6]Lawrence, op. cit., p.36.

[7]H.C. Barnard, A History of English Education (London: University of London, 1961) p.307-308.

[8]Ibid., p.314.

[9]D.E.M. Gardner, "Personal and Social Relationships," Studies in Education: First Years in School (London: Evans, 1963) p.152.

development; and Piaget, whose works have been interpreted and publicized in England by Nathan Isaacs.[10]

The foregoing then, are those whose works will be most carefully scrutinized. The fact that most of them are not English does not, however, lessen their influence upon educational reform in England, nor should the slow movements of reform in England obscure the genuine progress which has been made.

As to the second problem, a partial solution may be found in a recent work by Belth. He states the study of knowledge in a given field is, in fact, the study of the models in use in that field. Such an approach, he believes, "facilitates the examination of events or concepts which would otherwise be beyond us."[11] As for models, we may take up the definition of education given by Smith,[12] who faced with the question, What is education? suggests that it is the personal development of the child, the practice or art of the teacher, and a social undertaking between the child and his teacher. These are precisely the models which will be considered when examining the writings of the proponents of activity methods and principles.

Original writings, or authorized translations will be used, so that what Ferrière[13] has labelled the "misuses and abuses" of the term will be avoided. Even so, it may not always be possible

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[10]N. Isaacs, The Growth of Understanding in the Young Child: A Brief Introduction to Piaget's Work (London: Ward Lock, 1964).

[11]M. Belth, Education as a Discipline (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1965) p.91.

[12]P.G. Smith, Philosophy of Education (New York: Harper and Row, 1965) p.24-5.

[13]Ferrière, op. cit., p.5.

to find in a given writing explicit references to these models - since such concepts were not utilized by earlier writers there may be a corresponding difficulty in their identification.

Jon Amos Comenius

The Model of the Child:

Comenius, frequently considered the first of the modern educators, designates the period of a child's life between six and twelve years as 'childhood'. In his scheme, it is the vernacular school which must cater to the needs of this age level.[14] The needs to which he referred were the cultivation of the internal senses (the external ones had been cultivated in the mother school of the previous six years), the imagination and the memory:

> ...for all knowledge begins by sensuous perception; then through the medium of the imagination it enters the province of the memory; then, by dwelling on the particulars, comprehension of the universal arises; while finally comes judgment on the facts that have been grasped, and in this way our knowledge is firmly established.[15]

Inherent in this plan is the fact that there is an order or sequence in the child's learning but more important is the fact that education must form the man. Although the child has full potentiality for humanity, it must be brought to perfection by some external force:

> The seeds of knowledge, of virtue, and of piety are, as we have seen, naturally implanted in us; but the actual knowledge, virtue, and piety are not so given. These must

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[14]M.W. Keatinge, Comenius (New York: McGraw - Hill, 1931) p.199.

[15]Ibid, p.85-6.

be acquired by prayer, by education, and by action.[16]

This is why Comenius defined education as formation and went so far as to call the school "a true forging place of men."[17]

To the question, How is this perfection to be achieved? Comenius replies that instruction must be given "even as their tender age permits, that is, according to their capacities".[18] This has often been designated his 'fundamental principle'. No doubt it is, for in it he recognizes the individuality to be found in children and recommends that education take into account the nature of the learner. How unfortunate that he stopped at this point without describing the characteristics of the age levels.

The Role of the Teacher:

Comenius goes on to give the bulk of his attention to methods and the content of instruction. The idea from which he commences is the fundamental sameness of the universe in every phase of nature and in every activity of man. He therefore outlines in some detail, part of which follows, what he calls nature's method:

> Nature observes a suitable time....
> Nature prepares the material, before she begins to give it form....
> Nature chooses a fit subject to act upon, or first submits one to a suitable treatment in order to make it fit....
> Nature is not confused in its operations, but in its forward progress advances distinctly from one point to another....

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[16]J.A. Comenius, The Great Didactic, trans. M.W. Keatinge (London: Adam and Charles Black, 1896) p.204.

[17]Ibid., p.228.

[18]J.A. Comenius, The School of Infancy, trans. D. Betham (London: Mallalieu, 1858) p.32.

> In all the operations of nature development is from within....
> Nature, in its formative processes, begins with the universal and ends with the particular....
> Nature makes no leaps, but proceeds step by step....
> If nature commences anything, it does not leave off until the operation is completed....
> Nature carefully avoids obstacles and things likely to cause hurt...[19]

In following the principle that education should follow the order in nature, Comenius made an attempt to incorporate the above ideas into practical classroom operation.

In the Orbis Pictus, Comenius brought the bodily organs of sight to the support of the struggling intellect. Here the beginner in Latin was helped to an understanding of Latin words by having the printed words accompanied by pictures illustrating their meaning. Nevertheless, this was but a particular instance of Comenius' generalized conception of the teacher's method.

In his Didactica Magna, a term signifying the art of teaching, he laid down the general rule that everything should be taught through the medium of the senses. Furthermore, one should try to employ more than one sense at a time, for senses like hearing and seeing will reinforce each other.

He expounds also the theory that the child learns through taking an interest in his tasks and puts the onus on the teacher to develop this attribute:

> The acquisition of knowledge depends on the will to learn and this cannot be forced .... The desire to know and to learn should be excited in boys in every possible manner.[20]

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[19] Ibid., p.264-278.

[20] Comenius, The Great Didactic, p.199.

In the School of Infancy, he emphasizes the importance of expression in teaching and warns us against the dangers of inactivity in children:

> In a word, whatever children delight to play with, provided that it be not hurtful, they ought rather to be gratified than restrained from it, for inactivity is more injurious both to mind and body than anything in which they can be occupied.[21]

Whilst thus commenting on some characteristics of the child of which the teacher should be aware in formulating a method of approach, there is nothing which relates specifically to the third aspect, the model of the mutual interaction of teacher and child.

Jean-Jacques Rousseau

The Model of the Child:

In the hope of learning more about the nature of the child, one turns to Rousseau who has often been called the progenitor of the child study movement. He begins with the principle that "every age, every station in life has a ripeness of its own".[22] Then in trying to define the characteristics of childhood, as a preliminary to the prescription of the appropriate education, he notes that this is the time of the emergence of the child's instinctive nature:

> Nature provides for the child's growth in her own fashion, and this should never be thwarted .... Let them run, jump and shout to their heart's content. All their own activities are instincts of the body for its growth in strength.[23]

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[21] Comenius, The School of Infancy, p.39-40.

[22] J.J. Rousseau, Emile, trans. B. Foxley (London: Dent, 1933) p.122.

[23] Ibid., p.50.

that the child's mind is dominated by the senses:

> In the dawn of life, when memory and imagination have not begun to function, the child only attends to what affects his senses. His sense experiences are the raw material of thought .... He wants to touch and handle everything; do not check these movements which teach him invaluable lessons.[24]

that the child learns and achieves much happiness through play:

> Love childhood, indulge its sports, its pleasures, its delightful instincts. Who has not sometimes regretted that age when laughter was ever on the lips and when the heart was ever at peace? .... As soon as they are aware of the joy of life, let them rejoice in it.[25]

that the child learns through the synonymous activity of the mind and body:

> It is a lamentable mistake to imagine that bodily activity hinders the working of the mind, as if these two kinds of activity ought not to advance hand in hand, and as if the one were not intended to act as guide to the other.[26]

and that the child's attention is fostered through interest:

> This is also the time to train him gradually to prolonged attention to a given object; but this attention should never be the result of constraint, but of interest or desire ....[27]

Rousseau goes so far as to indicate that there are individual differences in children. "Every mind has its own form, in accordance with which it must be controlled ...."[28] and to recognize that the child's experience must be considered a unitary thing:

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[24] Ibid., p.31.

[25] Ibid., p.43.

[26] Ibid., p.58.

[27] Ibid., p.135.

[28] Ibid., p.58.

> Teach him to live rather than to avoid death: life is not breath, but action, the use of our senses, our mind, our faculties, every part of ourselves which makes us conscious of our being.[29]

The Role of the Teacher:

Implicit in Rousseau's discussion of how children learn is the idea that to educate means essentially to develop the emerging human instincts. However, he does not elaborate on the nature of these instincts nor does he indicate in what direction they should be developed. He merely states that the teacher should protect the child from the corruptive influence of adult society and thus enable the products of the schooling he advocated to realize the social perfection intended by nature:

> ... it is not our business to change the character and modify the natural disposition, but rather to urge it on as far as it can go, and to cultivate it and keep it from degenerating; for only in this way can a man become all that he is capable of being, and the work of nature be made perfect by education.[30]

The question immediately arises as to how this can be accomplished. Rousseau seems to be purposely evasive. "I pass over the qualities required in a good tutor. I take them for granted, and assume that I am endowed with them."[31] Later, a few vague directives are given. He begins by exhorting the teacher to "be a man yourself before you try to train a man; you yourself

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[29]Ibid., p.10.

[30]W. Boyd, "The New Heloise," The Minor Educational Writings of Jean Jacques Rousseau (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1962) p.53.

[31]Rousseau, op. cit., p.18.

must set the pattern he shall copy,"[32] and to "give your own time, attention, affection, your very self".[33]

Then, concerning the teacher's knowledge of the child, although he did not himself heed the advice, he says, "begin thus by making a more careful study of your scholars for it is clear that you know nothing about them"[34] and use this information to "treat your scholar according to his age. Put him in his place from the first, and keep him in it, so that he no longer tries to leave it".[35]

As far as actual method is concerned, we are told to "... wait patiently till its [character] shows itself and give it opportunities of doing so, and prefer to do nothing at all rather than do the wrong thing".[36]

Nature must be given time to reveal itself but it also requires the opportunity. That Rousseau was really referring to the necessity of allowing the child freedom is made clear in the following passage:

> The only laws imposed on them when they are with us are the laws of liberty itself .... Except for these restrictions, they are never put under any restraint. They are never compelled to learn anything; they are never troubled with needless corrections: they are never reprimanded. The only lessons they get are the practical lessons acquired in the simplicity of nature.[37]

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[32] Ibid., p.59.

[33] Ibid.

[34] Ibid., p.2.

[35] Ibid., p.55.

[36] Boyd, op. cit., p.53.

[37] Ibid., p.66.

Rousseau pays lip-service to the idea that liberty is not synonymous with freedom. He tells us that "if such blundering thinkers fail to distinguish between liberty and licence, between a merry child and a spoiled darling, let them learn to discriminate"[38] and that the teacher must set the stage for learning to occur:

> In the first place do not forget that it is rarely your business to suggest what he ought to learn; it is for him to want to learn, to seek and to find it. You should put it within his reach, you should skilfully awaken the desire and supply him with means for its satisfaction.[39]

Yet although Rousseau approves of education by means of a prearranged environment and the stimulus which it affords, he prescribes no definite curriculum. He explains why:

> One nature needs wings, another shackles; one should be encouraged, another held back; one has to be flattered, another to be intimidated. Sometimes we need to stimulate, at other times to retard.[40]

Further evidence of the contradictory nature of his writing is found in his effort to excuse his inefficient model of the teacher with:

> ...I do not mean that you should follow my ideas in a servile way; on the contrary, you will often need to correct them. The important thing is to lay hold of the principles and to follow out their consequences with exactness, making the modifications that every particular application demands.[41]

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[38]Rousseau, op. cit., p.43.

[39]Ibid., p.142.

[40]Boyd, op. cit., p.53.

[41]Boyd, "Letters to the Abbe M. on the Education of a Boy", op. cit., p.92.

One cannot help but wonder about the principles to which he is referring.

The Interaction Model:

Perusal of Rousseau's educational writings makesit quite clear that the importance of an interaction model was not fully realized. The few brief quotations which can be considered under this heading were merely incidental when compared with his interest in what to do with the child. He says for example that "a teacher ought to be feared. For this the pupil must be quite convinced that he has the right to punish him. But still more, he ought to be loved ...."[42] and "what wisdom can you find that is greater than kindness? Love childhood, indulge its sports, its pleasures, its delightful instincts".[43]

Rousseau was aware that more than just authority is required to establish the desired relationship. For we are told that:

> With this aim you should take a share in his work and set him an example. Be yourself the apprentice that he may become a master; you may expect him to learn more in one hour's work than he would retain after a whole day's explanation.[44]

Probably the only statement which can in any way be said to consider an interaction model between the child and his teacher

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[42]Boyd, "The Project for the Education of M. de Sainte-Marie", op. cit., p.26.

[43]Rousseau, op. cit., p.43.

[44]Ibid., p.148.

is that "women naturally love children, and misunderstanding only arises between them when it is sought to subject one of them to the caprices of the other".[45] In this statement, Rousseau acknowledges that each of the participants must be aware of his own role if a right relationship is to be established and maintained, but an explanation of how this would work in actual practice is never attempted.

Implicit throughout these references is Rousseau's great concern about what to do with the child but he indicates no real knowledge of him. Considering that his own bastard children were brought up in orphanages, can we expect more? A fully-rounded model of the child cannot be constructed with these facts. It is necessary to infer what the child was like from the suggested treatment of him. What results are the facts that: curiosity and the urge to learn are instincts which emerge during childhood; and that each child learns at his own rate and in his own way through sensory activities and his own effort.

The value of a mature experience in the process of guiding the child's growth is probably the most positive element in the model of the teacher which Rousseau portrays. It is also one of the most difficult of his ideals to put into practice. On the one hand, the major emphasis is upon the procedure of permitting the child's natural tendencies, made evident through freedom of movement and thought, to furnish direction. On the other hand, there is no principle to determine the teacher's course of action. He

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[45]Boyd, "The New Heloise", op. cit., p.58.

does not say what the teacher needs to know in order to suggest and when to 'let alone'. This problem of the kind and amount of freedom and guidance, not solved by Rousseau, was to plague educationists for years to come.

Johann Heinrich Pestalozzi

The Model of the Child:

Pestalozzi started his educational practice with full knowledge of Rousseau's ideas about the child. To these, he added his own insights which were not merely theoretical but which grew out of his personal experience with ordinary youngsters in and around the classroom. How do these unique developments contribute to our understanding of the nature of the child?

Pestalozzi begins by making quite clear his use of the term 'the nature of the child'. It referred to the whole child:

> ...with all his innate faculties ... of which the intermediate ones, with a variety of perceptions, of discursive thought, of transient affection, and energies and talents, constitute him a member of society ....[46]

He did not, however, divide man's life span into clearly defined phases. Rather, he conceived of development as a continuous process and preferred to devote his discussion to an examination of the characteristics of the three stages in man's evolutionary development - the primitive man, the social man and the moral man.[47]

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[46] J.H. Pestalozzi, Letters on Early Education Addressed to J.P. Greanes (London: Sherwood, Gilbert and Piper, 1927) p.xxxi.

[47] J.A. Green (ed.), "Early Writings" Pestalozzi's Educational Writings (London: Edward Arnold, 1912) p.61-83.

In this, he detects an intimate relationship between the development of humanity as a whole and the development of the individual human being. As can be seen in the following excerpt, he is thereby led beyond the individualism of Rousseau to a more adequate conception of the dependence of the child on society for the stimulus to personal growth in mind and spirit:

> Primitive man leaves his cave with a timid rather than a savage step. He finds a stone that is too heavy, a branch that is too high for him; he feels, if only another man were there, he might lift that stone, reach that branch; he sees another man near ... he approaches his brother, and in his eye a new look beams; it is the thought that they can help each other ... their hands are joined, they lift the stone, they reach the branch ... they see what they can do together. They enjoy this new knowledge; it brings new power; the bonds between them are multiplied, and their voice breaks into language .... It was language which made men subject to laws of their own making.[48]

Though vague in its conception, Pestalozzi places great emphasis on the importance of childhood for later stages of development:

> In the world of nature, imperfection in the bud means imperfect maturity. Whatever is imperfect in the germ is crippled in its growth - i.e., in the development of its component parts. This is just as true of the growth of the intellect as it is of the growth of an apple.[49]

Speaking more directly about childhood, he agrees with Comenius and Rousseau that all knowledge has its origin in

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[48]Green, "Enquiries Concerning the Course of Nature in the Development of the Human Race", op. cit., p.57.

[49]Green, "How Gertrude Teaches Her Children", op. cit., p.146.

sensory experience but hypothesizes that such learning involves "inner feelings of love, of confidence, of gratitude and this tendency to obey"[50] as well as intellectual processes. They and the whole mind of the child, must be called into action if learning is to take place.

There is also agreement on the point that the child is really his own educator and that he learns through his own effort and activity to satisfy his curiosity. Rousseau referred to this as 'self-activity' meaning merely the activity of the pupil himself. In contrast, Pestalozzi calls 'spontaneous' all activity that is initiated and motivated by the pupil himself. We are told that "freedom and spontaneity ... are the outcome of irresistible natural forces"[51] and that this spontaneous activity of the pupil should give direction to education.

The Role of the Teacher:

Pestalozzi was a practical man who had his mind set on the reform of educational practice and some of his most influential contributions to education were made in the sphere of method where he worked in greatest independence of Rousseau.

Let us begin our consideration of Pestalozzi's model of the teacher by taking a look at what he held to be the aim of education. In one of his first statements on this subject, he says that:

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[50] Ibid., p.142.

[51] Ibid., p.102.

> We must bear in mind that the ultimate end of education is, not a perfection in the accomplishments of the school, but fitness for life; not the acquirement of habits of blind obedience and of prescribed diligence but a preparation for independent action.[52]

Rousseau had aimed at producing growth but he failed to elaborate on the direction which growth was to take. He seemed to presume, in most of his writings, that nature would do all of the directing. Pestalozzi is much more specific in this regard. Fitness for life was to be the educator's goal and this meant training pupils in the ability to think and to make their own decisions. Even more than this, it referred to the aim of personality adjustment:

> Every philosophical investigator of human nature is ultimately compelled to admit that the sole aim of education is the harmonious development of the faculties and dispositions which under God's grace, make up personality.[53]

That Pestalozzi was centuries in advance of his times in his thinking is also evident in his understanding of happiness and its role in personality development. We are told that:

> Considering man as an individual, education should contribute in giving him happiness. The feeling of happiness does not arise from exterior circumstances; it is a state of mind, a consciousness of harmony both with the inward and the outward world: it assigns their due limits to the desires, and it proposes the highest aim to the faculties of man.[54]

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[52]Pestalozzi, op. cit., p.85.

[53]Green, "Views and Experiences," op. cit., p.159.

[54]Pestalozzi, op. cit., p.141-142.

Having chosen these aims for education, Pestalozzi then searched for a:

> ... practical method for the psychological development of those human capacities and aptitudes which are applicable and practical to the training of children from infancy...[55]

The general form of education he decided upon was that "the principles of instruction must ... be derived from the original unchageable form of the development of the mind".[56]

He believed that these principles or laws would be the same as those which govern organic nature and that they would spring from three sources: the natural constitution of the human mind, our capacity for response to stimuli and our relation to our environment.[57] Accordingly, he embarked on a programme of research into intellectual development. Although this work was fraught with difficulties, he soon came to the realization that what had been accepted as the best means of developing the faculties, namely through reading, writing and arithmetic, had really to be carried much further.

He therefore recommended that:

> ...interest in study, is the first thing which a teacher ... should endeavour to excite and keep alive. There are scarcely any circumstances in which a want of application in children does not proceed from a want of interest; and there are

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[55]Green, "How Gertrude Teaches Her Children", op. cit., p.90-91.

[56]Ibid., p.107.

[57]Ibid., p.103-105.

> perhaps none, under which a want of interest does not originate in the mode of treating adopted by the teacher.[58]

that the sequence of the subjects of instruction be ordered:

> ... in teaching children to read, it was first of all necessary to teach them, to talk ....Similarly ... in trying to teach writing, that drawing must come first, and that drawing in its turn must be based upon measuring.[59]

that the course content be graded in accordance with the increasing capacities of children:

> We must be in a position to say clearly and definitely what part of each subject is suited for each stage in the child's advance, in order to prevent him, on the one hand, from being kept back from work which he is quite capable of doing, and, on the other hand, from being overburdened or confused with subjects which are beyond him.[60]

and that the teacher utilize the psychological moment, a positive approach, when presenting new material:

> The child's own impulses induce free activity, and instruction must not hurry to interfere. It must only make demands for which the child is already prepared. When he feels, 'I can do that now,' then we may ask him to do it.[61]

Pestalozzi's examination of sensory experience revealed that if instruction was to help forward education, it must remove the confusion that overshadows our sensory experience. His plan in this regard, consisted of three steps:

> 1) Presenting the confused sense complexes separately; 2) changing the conditions under which the observations are separately made; and 3) bringing them into relation with

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[58]Pestalozzi, op. cit., p.130-131.

[59]Ibid., p.106.

[60]Ibid., p.87.

[61]Green, "The Swansong", op. cit., p.312.

the whole range of our previous knowledge.[62]

An extension of the consideration of sensory experience is provided in an outline of the object lesson, Pestalozzi's unique contribution to pedagogical practice:

> But if a mother is to teach by things, she must recollect, also, that to the formulation of an idea more is requisite than the bringing the object before the senses. Its qualities must be explained; its origin must be accounted for; its parts must be described, and their relation to the whole ascertained; its use, its effects or consequences, must be stated. All this must be done at least, in a manner sufficiently clear and comprehensive to enable the child to distinguish the object from other objects, and to account for the distinction which is made.[63]

Recognition is clearly made in the foregoing discussion of the necessity for an art of education to mediate between the child and society and to bring the child up to the adult level. It is disappointing, therefore, to find that while Pestalozzi delivers so many propositions about teaching, he says very little about how to put them into practice. He really thought it would be possible to elaborate a psychologically sound method of instruction of general applicability but admits that:

> They do not satisfy me as they stand; indeed, I feel how incapable I am of setting forth in their comprehensive simplicity those laws of Nature on which the propositions are based.[64]

Perhaps it was this failure in the area of method which made him realize that the schools could not be any better than their teachers:

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[62]Green, "How Gertrude Teaches Her Children", op. cit., p.108.

[63]Pestalozzi, op. cit., p.123.

[64]Green, "How Gertrude Teaches Her Children", op. cit., p.103.

> ... schools must first of all secure an adequate supply of men who are able and fitted to train children with insight and love in the wisdom of life, and make them vigorous and disciplined members of the station in life to which they belong.[65]

that teacher training would help to produce the type of people required:

> Such men do not fall from the clouds; they do not come like snow or rain. No calling in life can be more important, but none is more difficult. Men of great intelligence and kindness of heart are only endowed by Nature with aptitudes for teaching, and in this, as in every other calling, these special aptitudes must be stimulated, developed, trained.[66]

and that teachers ought to be trained in the right spirit. They:

> ... must themselves have enjoyed - as far as is possible at the present time - a systematic training in the whole range of human faculties and dexterities in so far as they can be applied and put into practice in the homes of the people....[67]

So forward-looking was this man that he even recommended a "more extensive investigation of, and research into, the principle and practice of education".[68]

Under his inspiration normal schools were developed in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries and these did a great deal to make psychology the foundation of the study of teaching and learning.

The Interaction Model:

The point in which Pestalozzi probably stands in the most

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[65]Green, "Views and Experiences", op. cit., p.183.

[66]Ibid.

[67]Green, "Address to my House", op. cit., p.210.

[68]Ibid.

direct opposition to Rousseau, is that he makes the step from primitive to social man one of necessity. That these are not opposite conditions, but a modification the one of the other, is seen in the following excerpt:

> Next to the parents and the relations which exist between them and the child, his relations with other human beings constitute the most important and admirable factors which have been given for the development of his affections and his activity.[69]

In view of his position on this issue, it seems reasonable to conclude that Pestalozzi envisaged an interaction model. He reasoned that learning became more facile and efficient as instruction took account of the inner workings of the individual. What is more, he believed that those inner workings, so necessary to efficient learning benefited by a catalyst - the sympathetic understanding of the teacher. This he explained in the following way:

> In the formation of character, as well as in the mode of giving instruction, kindness ought to be the first and ruling principle: it certainly is the most powerful. Fear may do much, and other motives may be employed with apparent success; but to interest the mind, and to form the heart, nothing is so permanently influential as affection: it is the easiest way to attain the highest aim.[70]

Though Pestalozzi recognized the importance of childhood for later development, the necessity of looking at the child as a whole, the acceptance of the idea that the child's emotions and spontaneous activities play an important part in his learning, and,

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[69]Green, "Views and Experiences", op. cit. p.167.

[70]Pestalozzi, op. cit., p.46.

finally, that education is life and must be lived in a communal environment, this cannot be considered as a full model of the child, but a series of generalized statements about children. What constitutes a whole child and the enumeration of his various emotions and activities is never alluded to. Nevertheless, Pestalozzi grasped many intuitions about child psychology, without being able to systematize them in any objective way.

It would seem that Pestalozzi had a very clear conception of what the role of the teacher ought to be, but he, like his predecessors, failed to discover how in actual practice this could be effected. No doubt this was due to the fact that he tried to base his methods on a knowledge of the nature of the child and on the natural laws of his mental and physical growth when the state of this science, as noted earlier, was foggy and fluctuating. His object lessons, which were supposed to teach observation and to increase the pupil's power of speech, by giving him something to describe in his own language, brought learning closer to the realities of life but this very technique tended in practice to become formal and lifeless.

Friedrich Froebel

The writings of Froebel contain reverberations of Pestalozzi's sentiments about the organic unity between man and nature, the importance of the earliest stages of development for later ones and the insistence upon a close study of children's actual growth and natural development. To avoid unnecessary repetition, these aspects of Froebel's theory will be touched on briefly but attempts will be made to present his extension of these ideas - particularly as they relate to the stage called 'boyhood' which corresponds

roughly to the junior school age range.[71]

While most of what Froebel says about the child deals with the stages called infancy and childhood, he intended that this be applied also to all later stages of development in life. It is necessary, therefore, to begin by presenting some of the basic principles of Froebel's educational philosophy which apply to all stages and age-levels.

Prominent in Froebel's philosophy of education is the attempt to apply to education a pre-Darwinian theory of evolution. With this went an attempt to translate such an application into practice.

Inherent in this theory of evolution, which is in fact the law of development, is the idea of 'inner connection'. Hailmann, in the preface to his translation of The Education of Man, describes Froebel's position:

> There must be an inner connection between the pupil's mind and the objects which he studies, and this shall determine what to study. There must be an inner connection in those objects among themselves which determines their succession and the order in which they are to be taken up in the course of instruction. Finally, there is an inner connection within the soul that unites the faculties of feeling, perception, phantasy, thought, and volition, and determines the law of their unfolding.[72]

Often referred to now as Froebel's theory of development, Bowen explains how:

> ... it consists, not so much in an increase of bulk or quantity, as in an increase in complexity of structure, an improvement in power, skill and variety in the performance of natural functions; how it is produced by

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[71]F. Froebel, The Education of Man, trans. W.N. Hailmann (New York: Appleton, 1889) p.108.

[72]Ibid., p.v.

> exercise, exercise of the thing's own self, or what is called self-activity, and how this exercise should be rightly timed, in harmony with the nature of the thing, and continuously in proportion to its strength.[73]

The key word in the above quotation is 'self-activity'. According to Froebel nothing internal can affect the educational process, for it must begin with the spontaneous activities of the child. It is easy to detect in the above the rationale behind Froebel's methods as seen in the use of his 'gifts and occupations' and his theory of play.

The Model of the Child:

In The Education of Man, in the chapter dealing with boyhood, Froebel suggests that this is a period of inquisitiveness in which the child loves to deal with difficulties, enjoys exploring in the natural world, likes fairy tales and fables and is particularly interested in understanding himself.[74]

Such a description should, we are told, be termed 'pure boyhood' because many things are different in the child's domestic relations. We often meet stubbornness, obstinacy, mental and physical indolence, aversion to work and even to play, disobedience and so on.[75]

We must, however, be aware of the cause of this unhappy state of affairs. Froebel outlines the source of these shortcomings in the life of children thus:

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[73]H.C. Bowen, Froebel and Education by Self-Activity (London: Heinemann, 1898) p.91.

[74]Froebel, op. cit., p.102-118.

[75]Ibid., p.119.

> ... in the first place, the complete neglect of the development of certain sides of full human life; secondly, the early faulty and unnatural steps of development and distortion of the originally good human powers and tendencies by arbitrary and willful interference with the original orderly and logical course of human development.[76]

With regard to the nature of the child during boyhood, one of Froebel's most important educational pronouncements is that it is a time in which instruction predominates:

> The period of boyhood leads man chiefly to the consideration of particular relationships and individual things, in order to enable him later on to discover their unity.
>
> Now the consideration and treatment of individual and particular things, as such, and in their inner bearings and relationships constitute the essential character and work of instruction; therefore, boyhood is the period in which instruction predominates.[77]

The Role of the Teacher:

Since 'boyhood' is the stage of 'instruction', one immediately asks what sort of instruction and what ultimate goal Froebel had in mind. It appears that Froebel's aim for all instructional activity was to lead men to perfection:

> Instruction and the school are to lead man to a life in full harmony with that threefold - yet in itself one, knowledge. (i.e. knowledge of men, God and nature.) By this knowledge they are to lead man from desire to will, from will to firmness of will, and thus in continuous progression to the attainment of his destiny, to the attainment of his earthly perfection.[78]

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[76] Ibid.

[77] Ibid., p.94.

[78] Ibid., p.139.

The recommended starting point for instruction is familiar:

> Only the consideration of the nature and requirements of human development at the stage of boyhood will enable us to answer this question. But the knowledge of this nature and those requirements can be derived only from the observation of the character of man in his boyhood.[79]

Considering that Froebel's fame lies in his exhortation to study the child's nature and proceed from that, it is rather surprising to learn that:

> This instruction is conducted not so much in accordance with the nature of man as in accordance with fixed and definite clear laws that lie ... outside the human being; and this implies knowledge, insight, a conscious and comprehensive survey of the field.[80]

The child must be aware of the objects and things in the outside world, and of the laws which govern their operation. This knowledge comes from the things themselves not from man's inner nature. A description of the kind of instruction which boyhood requires is provided:

> Therefore what is to have true, abiding and blessing, instructive and informative effect on the child as pupil and scholar, and as a future active man - viz., independent employment - must not only be founded on life as it actually appears, must not only be connected with life, but must also form itself in harmony with the requirements of life, of the surroundings, and of the time, and with what they offer. It must especially have an arousing and awakening effect on the inner life of the child, and must thus spontaneously germinate from that life.[81]

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[79] Ibid., p.137.

[80] Ibid., p. 94-5.

[81] F. Froebel, Education by Development, trans. J. Jarvis, (New York: Appleton, 1905) p.18.

It is to be effected in the following manner:

> Respect and love are gained more particularly by the fact that the child is allowed, according to his small strength of body and mind and his limited capacities, to develop early and by himself, yet free, self-active, and independent, always conscious of a superior protection accompanying and watching him, but without feeling the internal hand guiding him. For the simple, good-natured child does not want to be left alone and abandoned to himself, but he wants to feel, as it were, the eye and look of the faithful nurse always about him and above him, really always near him.[82]

Implicit in the above two quotations is the idea that education must be a controlled development by which the individual comes into the realization of the life of the all-encompassing unity of which he is a unit. This led Froebel to make valid the 'developing method' now commonly called the developmental approach in England.

Play is one of the most prominent features of Froebel's system. Others before him had recognized its value. He saw its true evolutionary meaning and the part it should take in education. It is clear that, even apart from the healthy exercise afforded, play may be associated with songs, pictures, and the like, and may thus help the processes of impression and expression. External objects become familiar; social qualities are fostered; inventiveness and adaptiveness encouraged. Here, in part, is his well-known warrant for play in education.

> Play is the highest phase of child-development - of human development at this period; for it is self-active representation of the inner - representation of the inner from inner necessity and impulse.

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[82]F. Froebel, Pedagogics of the Kindergarten, trans. J. Jarvis (London: Edward Arnold, 1900) p.113.

> Play is the purest, most spiritual activity of man at this stage, and, at the same time, typical of human life as a whole - of the inner hidden natural life in man and all things. It gives, therefore, joy, freedom, contentment, inner and outer rest, peace with the world. It holds the sources of all that is good. A child that plays thoroughly, with self-active determination, perseveringly until physical fatigue forbids, will surely be a thorough, determined man, capable of self-sacrifice for the promotion of the welfare of himself and others ....
>
> As already indicated, play at this time is not trivial, it is highly serious and of deep significance .... To the calm keen vision of one who truly knows human nature, the spontaneous play of the child discloses the future inner life of the man.
>
> The plays of childhood are the germinal leaves of all later life; for the whole man is developed and shown in these, in his tenderest dispositions, in his innermost tendencies. The whole later life of man, even to the moment when he shall leave it again, has its source in the period of childhood .... His future relations to father and mother, to the members of the family, to society and mankind, to nature and God - in accordance with the natural and individual disposition and tendencies of the child - depend chiefly upon his mode of life at this period; for the child's life in and with himself, his family, nature, and God, is as yet a unit.[83]

Froebel, incorporating Pestalozzian object instruction into his own methodology and utilizing the conception of the inherent harmony between the developing soul and certain external means of training, developed and organized his play materials gradually and systematically, designating them by the terms 'gifts' and 'occupations'. The gifts have mainly to do with taking in and assimilating. They were thought to lead to discovery, insight and ideas. The occupations are mainly expressional-giving invention, power and skill.

The gifts were manufactured and sold especially for school purposes and included, among other things: balls, spheres, cubes,

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[83] F. Froebel, The Education of Man, trans. W.N. Hailmann (New York: Appleton, 1889) p.54-6.

cylinders, small blocks, sticks and paper for folding. All were designed to stimulate motor expression on the part of the child. He also developed many types of co-operative play and group games, minutely and systematically setting forth the songs and movements involved in each.[84]

Disregarding Froebel's symbolism - that a spiritual meaning is intuitively grasped by the child from every 'gift' and 'occupation' - it must be admitted that he enriched our curriculum, especially at the early elementary level, with a vast amount of valuable educational material.

On the practical side, it is the formalism of the system that has evoked criticism. Froebel himself has issued repeated warnings against a slavish adherence to the gifts and plays; thus he maintained that the aim of his Kindergarten institution was to make the needs and requirements of the child-world correspond to the present stage of development of humanity.[85] He also warns that we must not willingly go on with this or that play in opposition to the wish of the child, but always follow the child's circumstances, requirements and needs, and his own expressions of life and activity;[86] and he reminds that in the education and training of our children we

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[84]F. Froebel, Education by Development, p.306-347.

[85]F. Froebel, Pedagogics of the Kindergarten, p.17.

[86]Ibid., p.79.

must be faithful to the requirements of their individual nature.[87] Even the sequence of gifts[88] is not sacrosanct, for what has been up to this point brought forward here in a certain succession will, of course, in the child's play and the events of the nursery and at the children's play-table, be arranged in a different order, and so it should be.

The stage called 'boyhood' follows that of infancy and childhood. In it, play and activity take on a new meaning:

> The plays or spontaneous occupations of this period of boyhood differ in three ways. They are either imitations of life and of the phenomena of actual life, or they are spontaneous applications of what has been learned at school, or they are perfectly spontaneous products of the mind, of any description, and with all kinds of material. The last either seek the laws lying in the material of the play, and adapt themselves to these, or they obey laws lying in the thought and feelings of the human being. In every case, however, the normal plays of this period are the pure outcome of vital energy and buoyancy.
>
> The plays of this period, therefore, imply inner life and vigor - an actual external life. Where this is lacking, there can not be true play which, itself full of genuine life, can arouse, feed and elevate life.[89]

The 'gifts', so important a part of Froebel's kindergarten methods, are not mentioned during this period but the occupations connected with them are still prevalent.

Froebel in outlining the various directions of this active educational life in childhood states that it must of necessity include cultivation of the religious sense, cultivation of the body as the servant of the mind, observation and study of nature, memorizing of short poems having significance in nature as well as in the home-life,

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[87] Ibid., p.16.

[88] Ibid., p.86.

[89] F. Froebel, The Education of Man, p.303.

exercises in language, exercises in systematic corporeal representation (by means of more or less prepared material, i.e. building, paper-folding, modelling, wood-carving, etc.), exercises in representation with lines, study of colours, play and narration of stories.[90]

These subjects, he believes, can be grouped in accordance with the inner needs of boyhood into subjects of the more quiet, calm, inner life, of the more receptive, intro-active life and of the more expressive outwardly formative life. What is more, it will be noticed that they develop, exercise and cultivate all the senses, all the inner and outer powers of man, and thus meet the requirements of human life in general.[91]

Froebel did not bring about a complete resolution of the nature of the child, but his methods of child study and his patient painstaking observations yielded new insights into that nature. If the traditional school had regarded the child's mind as empty till filled, if Rousseau and Pestalozzi saw it as being in perpetual motion, Froebel emphasized the part of sense impressions upon the contents of the child's mind. The child was a plant, and the teacher a gardener, or rather, a humble under gardener who watches with interest the development of the child. The emphasis was on child study, but the task of finding out more about the nature of the child was left to others. From observation, experience and common sense Froebel and his followers produced apparatus which has

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[90] Ibid., p.234-6.

[91] Ibid., p.237.

proved of inestimable value; the fuller understanding of the principles of child development were yet to come.

Johann Friedrich Herbart

The Model of the Child:

Both Pestalozzi and Froebel had sensed the lack of adequate provision for social training in the Emile and both stressed the fact that education must be of the whole man - social, moral and spiritual as well as intellectual. Neither, however, proposed any clear-cut method of attaining these ends. This Herbart set out to do. His life-long task was to discover the theoretical principles of education and then to apply them in practice.

Unlike his predecessors Herbart did not set out to analyze the nature of the child although he recognized the implication of such studies. He merely designates boyhood as the period from eight years onward and explains that it can be detected by:

> The boy's desire to absent himself from grown-up people .... For he no longer feels himself unsafe when alone, like a child does, but thinks that he is sufficiently acquainted with his immediate circle and sees from it indefinite vistas of every kind.[92]

Apart from this, Herbart recognized that there were differences between pupils:

> ... we do not know whether all souls are equal at birth and that after all it does not matter; for by the time the pupil makes his appearance in school, his soul is different from the other souls in his class.[93]

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[92]J.F. Herbart, Letters and Lectures on Education, trans. H. and E. Felkin (London: Swan Sonnenschein, 1898) p.219.

[93]J. Adams, The Herbartian Psychology Applied to Education (Boston: Heath, 1897) p.106.

and that since a child's learning ability is a product of his experience, each pupil would not have an unlimited capacity for training:

> ... an unlimited capacity for cultivation ought not to be assumed by the teacher .... The degree in which the child can be determined as limited by his individuality. Determination by education is limited besides, by the conditions of the environment and the times.[94]

What is of greater importance, however, is his theory of apperception or how the child learns, in which the extent of individual differences is carried even further:

> Herbart starts with a mind, or soul as he preferred to call it, which is totally unknown but which he speculates has no content. Nothing can affect the soul but ideas. Once the soul has reacted upon an idea, it can no longer be the same soul that it was before. Thus it reacts differently upon the next idea that presents itself, because of its previous reaction upon the first. The soul, in this view, sinks into comparative insignificance compared with ideas. It is the ideas which really make up the mind and they are always competing with each other for a place.
>
> Ideas tend to be loyal to each other. Thus they form cliques called apperception masses. The Herbartians claim that our whole intellectual life is spent in forming new masses and in expanding old ones.
>
> For us the important thing is, that since apperception means the acting upon a new idea by all the ideas at present in the soul, and since the number and arrangement of ideas in no two souls are exactly alike, it follows that no two persons can have precisely the same idea of anything.[95]

This led him to reject what Pestalozzi had seen as the aim of education - the harmonious development of the child's powers and faculties. For Herbart, the mind worked essentially as a unit

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[94]Herbart, op. cit., p.103.

[95]Adams, op. cit., p.46-65.

and was not divided into faculties:

> It is obviously wrong to consider the human soul as an aggregate of various capacities. Instead of making the error greater, as is often done by adding that the capacities are nevertheless fundamentally but one power, let us use the familiar terms to explain these phenomena, which experience has taught us markedly appear in consecutive order. We shall thus get at the main features which will suffice for our immediate use in connection with psychology.[96]

The Role of the Teacher:

Although Herbart himself appears to spend little time considering the nature of the child, Adams attributes to him the recognition of the relevance of child study for the teacher. He says, for example, that:

> Every idea in that little head is a force with which the teacher must reckon. His first duty is obviously to discover as much as possible about the contents of John's soul. Only so far as he succeeds in this is he able to understand the reaction of John's soul upon any given idea. The very inevitableness of the soul's reaction is the teacher's chief aid. Here he finds the fulcrum for his lever. The rest of his work is actual building up, edification.
>
> . . . . . .
>
> It is difficult to overestimate the importance of this view from the teacher's standpoint. If the mind must wait till the right idea comes along, what an enormous importance must be attached to the theory of apperception masses. If the idea that the soul ought to choose is not there to choose, what can the soul do but choose amiss? Here Herbartianism appears to great advantage. During the process of education when the soul happens to be on the lookout for a certain idea, the teacher, knowing what is going on in the soul, and the laws according to which its mechanism works, can readily increase the presentative activity of the idea in question and send it right up to the dome ....[97]

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[96]Herbart, op. cit., p.108.

[97]Adams, op. cit., p.74-75.

Now, in order for the teacher to gain an adequate knowledge of each pupil's capacity for education, observation of both his thought masses and of his physical nature, especially his emotional susceptibility, is necessary. It is suggested that she needs to note:

1) The games of pupils. Do they in a thoroughly childlike manner still play with any object that comes to hand? Do they intentionally change their games to suit a varying preference? Can distinct objects of persistent desire be discovered?

2) Their mental capacity and processes as shown in their studies. Is the pupil able to grasp long or only short series? ... Do his lessons find a spontaneous echo in his play?

3) Their depth and consistency. Are their utterances superficial, or do they come from the depths of the soul? A comparative study of words and actions will gradually answer this question.[98]

Such observations will take account also of the rhythm of the pupil's mental life as well as of the character of his store of thoughts. The insight thus obtained determines the matter and method of instruction - the most necessary statements relative to this subject will be made under the headings of interest and character-building.

An examination of children's capacities presupposes a true proper method in the earliest instruction and this examination is necessary to avoid the error of laying the blame on the capabilities of the children, instead of on an incorrect method of instruction.

Having said this, Herbart goes on to state that the teacher's role in the training of children during 'boyhood' should be to:

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[98]J.A. Herbart, Outlines of Educational Doctrine, trans. A.F. Lange (London: Macmillan, 1904) p.22.

- make the pupil's circle of experience ... to extend itself ....
- prevent the child's circle of thought from closing prematurely ....
- harmonize the child's mental activity with the totality of the .... individual and not exhaust his powers or occupy them prematurely ....
- avoid weighing down the boy with unnecessary instruction because under this weight, courage, decision, skill, individuality, physical development and mental fertility suffer considerably ....
- ensure that instruction as a whole does not claim more time than is compatible with the vivacity natural to the young; and this not only as a matter of health and physical strength, but ... because all the art used and trouble taken to keep the attention fixed, will be frustrated by the effects of too prolonged sitting, and too severe mental exertion ....
- ally himself with the boy and restrain him and modify his self-confidence ....
- cultivate a state of mind in the pupil which is favourable to instruction ....
- be prepared to be kept by observation of results within the bounds of reasonable attempts at instruction. Psychology must always be at his service that he may understand and correctly explain his observations ....
- provide definite tasks because these secure order better than self-chosen occupations ....
- recognize that authority and love ensure government better than any severe measures ....
- realize that the longer instruction lasts, the more fatiguing it becomes and the greater the necessity there is for a rest and change.[99]

Having presented Herbart's general outline of the role of the teacher, a few specific issues may now be considered.

In going through Herbart's practical ideas, it is found that the idea of perfection suggests to him health of body and mind, and as the following passage shows, there is a definite role for the teacher in effecting this aim:

> In the work of education, the Idea of Perfection takes precedence of all the other practical ideas, not as of greater importance, but because it is continuously applicable. For

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[99]J.F. Herbart, Letters and Lectures on Education, p.104-224.

> the teacher sees in the still immature human being, a power which needs his constant care to strengthen, to guide, and to assist.[100]

Inextricably linked to the aim of perfection is the development of moral character which Herbart believed was the ultimate goal of education. This, of course, means that such other goals as knowledge and efficiency must be either rejected or brought under the rubric of morality or character forming. Herbart chooses the latter alternative, and his formula of "many-sided interest" effects the reconciliation:

> The supreme final aim of instruction is, indeed, contained in the concept - virtue. But the nearer aim which instruction in particular must set before itself in order to reach the final one, may be expressed as - manysidedness of interest. The word Interest characterizes in general the kind of mental activity which education ought to arouse, since it cannot be satisfied with mere knowledge .... Because this mental activity is varied, a definition must be added, which is found in the expression manysidedness.[101]

The warning is given, however, that:

> Instruction must cultivate manysidedness in the individual, but not have a disintegrating influence; and this it will not have on him who has the thorough command of a large well-systematized body of knowledge in all its connections, and can hold it together as his own.[102]

It becomes important to understand how this unity of knowledge is to be brought about. This can be done by considering what Herbart says about the two main concepts referred to above - manysidedness and interest.

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[100] Ibid., p.106.

[101] Ibid., p.130.

[102] Ibid., p.131.

According to Herbart:

> ... manysidedness cannot be attained rapidly. For a large number of subjects can only be acquired seriatum, and then afterwards combination, classification and assimilation ought to follow. Acts of concentration and reflection, therefore, must alternate with each other.[103]

He also designates the methods of manysidedness - clearness, association and system - which must never be allowed to exclude each other, which must follow each other in the given order, which apply to all the subjects taught but which require modifying to suit each subject and the varying ages of children:

> In the beginning, when clearness of particulars is the chief essential, the shortest, simplest words are the most appropriate. A careful repetition of these by some if not all the pupils simultaneously, will then be often advisable, after they have heard them .... This method can, amongst others, be used appropriately in the first stage of instruction.
>
> Association is best promoted by free conversation, because the pupil then has the opportunity of trying various casual combinations of his thoughts, and can thus find out which of these are the easiest and most natural. He can also alter them, multiply them, and appropriate what he has learned according to his own method. Inflexibility, which is so apt to arise from a purely systematic acquisition of knowledge, will thus be prevented.
>
> System, on the other hand, demands a more connected method of address, and this must be kept more closely separated from its reproduction by the scholars. By eliciting the main points, system will make the advantage of ordered knowledge perceptible; it will increase the sum of knowledge by greater completeness. If systematic instruction is begun too early, these advantages will not be estimated at their true value by the pupils.[104]

According to this plan, the teacher at first assists the pupil to clearly distinguish his ideas, after which he presents

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[103] Ibid., p.132.

[104] Ibid., p.133-4.

the new material, which is subsequently associated and applied. Herbart did not distinguish the formal steps of method with the precision and finality that have been claimed by his followers. On the contrary, the steps were to him factors in the process of thinking rather than the logical subdivisions of a lesson period. The formal steps proved useful, however, in many lessons whose primary object is to impart theoretical information; the steps themselves are usually represented as preparation, presentation, association, generalization and application.[105]

In order, then, that instruction may act on the pupil's ideas and disposition, every avenue of approach should be thrown open. The mere fact that it can never be known with certainty, beforehand, what will influence the pupil most, warns against the one-sidedness of instruction.

To understand the meaning of character and social morality, Herbart analyzed man's interests and occupations as well as his social responsibilities. He discovered not only that the interests of man were manysided but that they flowed from two main sources: experience or sense perception and social intercourse.

The place of interest in education had never been satisfactorily determined before Herbart, and his analysis, while not final, is still probably the best available. Interest is the one emotion which assists rather than retards the operation of reason.

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[105]J.S. Brubacher, A History of the Problems of Education (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1966) p.209.

It normally involves the process of observation, expectation, demand and action. In general it depends upon knowledge and sympathy; that is to say, knowledge of the manifold, of its law and its aesthetic relations; and sympathy with society as a whole:

> Interest means self-activity. Interest is to be manifold, consequently a manysided activity is required. Not all kinds of self-activity are desirable, but only the right kind and in the right degree. Otherwise lively children might be left to themselves, and there would be no need either to educate or even to govern them. It is the work of instruction to direct their thoughts and efforts in the right path.[106]

This is a noteworthy point of view because teachers are fond of talking about creating an interest. Herbart holds that they have not to create but only to direct interest. To do this the teacher:

> ... can succeed only in so far as he knows the content of the mind upon which he seeks to act, and the laws according to which mind reacts upon stimulus.[107]

So far are the Herbartian educationists from fearing interest that they have actually raised it from a means to an end. The result of a course of education, then, is no longer to be tested by the amount of knowledge acquired, but by the strength and variety of the interests aroused. Ideally, the educated man must have a manysided interest.

It is well to remember, however, that each loss of interest is accompanied by the development of a new interest. Interest is, and has long been recognized as, a salient issue in education. As such:

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[106]Herbart, op. cit., p.134-135.

[107]Adams, op. cit., p.274.

> ... the theory of interest does not propose to banish drudgery, but only to make drudgery tolerable by giving it a meaning so far from enervating the pupil, the principle of interest braces him up to endure all manner of drudgery and hard work.[108]

Herbart believed that good teaching must start with the interests of the child. He recognized, however, that interest was closely connected with attention. In his analytical way, Herbart divided attention into two varieties: spontaneous, the kind of attention which the child gave freely and of his own accord; and forced, which was the kind of attention he gave because he had been induced to give it.[109]

In any given state of attention the less the interest, the greater the amount of will-power necessary to maintain it. Attention consists in giving ideas a chance to rise above the threshold. This chance is given them by keeping back or inhibiting all other ideas, and particularly those which are hostile to the ideas we wish to bring into prominence:

> The child's attention is nearly involuntary, which is fortunate for the teacher, who can thus to a large extent direct the infantile attention in any way he pleases, so long as he takes the trouble to understand how the thing works. He can so arrange his object that the child cannot choose but attend.

In the first stage the attention follows whatever attracts it; interest is paramount.

As soon as the master introduces the ideas of reward and punishment, the child enters upon the second stage.

In the third, or final stage, the contents of the mind are so arranged and organized that attention can be maintained

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[108] Ibid., p.274.

[109] Herbart, op. cit., p.135.

in certain directions with the minimum of interest.

> It would seem, then, that the process of education consists in the systematic elimination of interest. This view is true to the extent that interest is continually being eliminated from certain mental processes, and transferred to others.[110]

Herbart's method rests on a psychology of learning which is said to encompass a knowledge of the child. Yet no where can one find reference to this nature. The fact is that Herbart aimed at the development of secondary youth. Aside from this, however, he did neglect the study of the individual as carried out by Froebel and others; and did not systematize his observations of the fitness of certain stages of human experiences to certain stages of development of the child. He merely developed a theory of 'interest' by extending the work of earlier reformers.

Herbart appreciated the importance of the pupil's self-activity but he preferred to exercise careful control over the channels into which it flowed. Such an approach limited activity on the physical side but contributed much to the understanding of the activity of mind and its growth, by destroying the faculty psychology, by his conception of a genetic soul and by the doctrine concerning the cultivation of manysided interest.

The main criticism levelled against Herbart has been that he had no conception of education apart from instruction, that is, the employment of ideas. Looked at in another way, it can be said that Herbart's great service lay in taking the work of teaching

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[110]Adams, op. cit., p.260.

out of the region of routine and accident. He brought it into the sphere of conscious method with a definite aim and procedure instead of allowing it to be a compound of casual inspiration and subservience to tradition.

An examination of the models employed by some of the earlier philosophers of education has elicited a number of principles related to activity education. They held in common that education should begin with the child's individual and instinctive and spontaneous interests, abilities and rate of learning at each stage of development. Teachers, therefore, must know children, must base both their instructional aims and instructional methods upon what had been learned of children. But the practices which they advocated were not, of necessity, developed from such knowledge of children; often they were an amalgam of some of their own insights and the previous methods employed, without regard to the philosophical bases of such earlier methods of teaching and instruction.

Some polarities were not resolved. Thus, teacher and pupil may be seen as distinct poles of an educational process. Pestalozzi attempted to relate these two and provide for interaction between them, but his practice was not sufficient. This leads to consideration of a second polarity - that of theory and practice. Whilst Froebel and Herbart made an effort of reconciliation their work nevertheless remained more in the philosophical plane than in the description of effective practice. The third polarity to which reference is often made is the traditional (teacher centered) versus the reformist or progressive (child centered). A reformist position often meant little more than a violent rejection of the traditional

without replacement by a more soundly based scheme. For the eclectics who continued to borrow from all sources, in the name of 'sound educational practice' there was no reasonably consistent underlying philosophical or psychological basis.

Furthermore, little attention was directed towards the role of the teacher, in relation to the knowledge of the child, and of the teacher. Some methodology can be discerned in their various writings, but there was more speculation than methodology. It is natural then, as Woody[111] pointed out, that there would be much blind striving and groping after means to a real goal whose limits were only vaguely grasped. Gal[112] inclined to the view that there was improper generalization and confusing of the spirit and real aim of activity. That education was, in fact, the process of interaction between the teacher and the pupil was barely recognized.

This should not be construed as a denigration of their work. Incomplete as it was, it directed attention to what are now regarded as important issues. One cannot, however, in all fairness regard them as the sole evidence upon which to base a theory of education.

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[111]T. Woody, "Historical Sketch of Activism," The Activity Movement (Bloomington, Illinois: National Society for the Study of Education, 33rd Yearbook, Part II, 1934) p.43.

[112]R. Gal, "Where does the New Education Stand?," The New Era in Home and School Vol. 42, No. 2 (February 1961) p.24.

CHAPTER III

A SEARCH FOR THE PRINCIPLES OF ACTIVITY THE EXPERIMENTALIST MODELS

John Dewey

It was John Dewey, psychologist, philosopher, and educator, who directed attention to an examination of the polarities used to express knowledge of the world of man, and the world of things, for the reformist educators, in protesting against traditional education had brought such polarities into educational vogue. Dewey saw them as culminating in a theory of knowledge which upheld the dual conceptions of the nature of the child versus the curriculum, the method versus the subject matter, the individual nature versus the social culture, knowing versus doing, and mind versus body.[1] Referring to the advances of science, he summarizes the forces which make this dualist position untenable:

> The advance of physiology and the psychology associated with it have shown the connection of mental activity with that of the nervous system ....
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> .... The development of biology clinches this lesion with its discovery of evolution. For the philosophic significance of the doctrine of evolution lies precisely in its emphasis upon continuity of simpler and more complex organic forms until we reach man ....

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[1] J. Dewey, The Child and the Curriculum (Chicago: University of Chicago, 1906) p.10.

> ... The development of the experimental method as the method of getting knowledge and of making sure it is knowledge, and not mere opinion - the method of discovery and proof - is the remaining great force in bringing about a transformation in the theory of knowledge.[2]

The Model of the Child:

Despite the enthusiasm with which educationists had accepted the teachings of Pestalozzi, Froebel and Herbart, the educational centre of gravity in actual school practice continued to be "in the teacher, the textbook, anywhere and everywhere you please except in the immediate instincts and activities of the child himself".[3] Dewey was at the forefront of the battle to abolish the old tradition in which the schools were merely charged with the somewhat static duty of handing on to each new generation a relatively fixed body of subject - matter items. He was anxious to consider the child who was being educated and focussed the notice of all teachers upon the make-up of the growing individual.

In shifting the centre of gravity back to the child, Dewey pointed to the characteristics of each stage of growth. On psychological grounds, he divided the child's school life into three periods:

1. The play period from four to eight years of age which is:

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[2]J. Dewey, Democracy and Education (New York: Macmillan, 1963) p.336-8.

[3]J. Dewey, The School and Society (Chicago: University of Chicago, 1906) p.51

> ... characterized by directness of social and personal interests, and by directness and promptness of relationship between impressions, ideas and action. The demand for a motor outlet for expression is urgent and immediate. Hence the subject-matter for these years is selected from phases of life entering into the child's own social surroundings, and, as far as may be, capable of reproduction by him in something approaching social form.[4]

2. The period of spontaneous attention, between eight and twelve years, when:

> ... the aim is to recognize and respond to the change which comes into the child from his growing sense of the possibility of more permanent and objective results.[5]

3. The period of reflective attention, from twelve years onwards.

Dewey believed that each phase of development in the human organism has its own natural proprieties and needs, its own values and interests whereby it grows into its world. He also had in mind categories into which the child's native needs and tendencies might be classified for educational use:

> The young have native needs and native tendencies of curiosity, love of occupation, and desire for association and mutual exchange which provide the intrinsic leverage for educative growth in knowledge, understanding and conduct.[6]

Supporting evidence for this view was found in four impulses - the social, constructive, investigative and expressive.[7] These he considered to be stages which were completely integral phases of the total development of human beings:

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[4] Ibid., p.106.

[5] Ibid., p.107.

[6] K.C. Mayhew and A.C. Edwards, The Dewey School (New York: Atherton, 1966) p.6.

[7] Ibid., p.40-1.

> Again the child's life is an integral, a total one. He passes quickly and readily from one topic to another, as from one spot to another, but is not conscious of tradition or break. There is no conscious isolation, hardly conscious distinction. The things that occupy him are held together by the unity of the personal and social interests which his life carries along. What ever is uppermost in his mind constitutes to him, for the time being, the whole universe .... It has the unity and completeness of his own life.[8]

He therefore discusses childhood in a general way - not unlike the Post-Renaissance reformers who preceded him.

Children in the first two stages have a natural impulse to conversation, to inquiry, to construction, and to expression as natural resources or the 'uninvested capital' of the educative process. It is as if "an aim which is the child's own carries him on to possess the means of its accomplishment".[9] The creative role of this instinct is clear:

> Impulses are the pivots upon which the reorganization of activities turn, they are agencies of duration, for giving new directions to old habits and changing their quality.[10]

Dewey believed that this organizing impulse, "which becomes a habit is really an interest which is the true basis of intelligence".[11] But he warns against the use of interests as ends in themselves:

> It will do harm if child-study leave in the popular mind the impression that a child of a given age has a positive equipment of purposes and interests to be

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[8] Dewey, The Child and the Curriculum, p.5-6

[9] Dewey, The School and Society, p.40

[10] J.Dewey, Human Nature and Conduct (New York: Holt, 1922) p.93.

[11] Ibid., p.164.

> cultivated just as they stand. Interests in reality are but attitudes toward possible experiences; they are not achievements; their worth is in the leverage they afford, not in the accomplishment they represent .... Any power [has] ... its genuine meaning in the propulsion it affords toward a higher level.[12]

Thought always proceeds by way of unraveling some doubt or solving some problem and knowledge is the outcome of thought. This is the reason why Dewey insists that learning cannot be dissociated from activity. As he sees it "learning is active. It involves reaching out of the mind. It involves organic assimilation starting from within."[13] Dewey is not suggesting that mechanical skills be substituted for genuine intellectual development. He is insisting that contact with representative concrete problems provides the student with early practice in the art of enquiring, which will serve him well when the period of formal training is over.

Mayhew and Edwards in reviewing his work and philosophy have made an excellent summary of what Dewey believed was the psychological process whereby all three factors within the act - thinking, feeling and muscular-response - come to cooperative functioning. They say that:

> The first phase of action is impulsive. When impulse meets resistance, ideas are born. The interplay of these alternative ideas is deliberation .... As ideas move toward a unified purpose, so the emotions directed by ideas or

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[12]Dewey, The Child and the Curriculum, p.15.

[13]Dewey, The Child and the Curriculum, p.23.

> meaning tend toward a unified desire, or affection, and finally become a definite interest .... The original impulse to act blindly has become an intellectualized desire to act in accord with the new plan. The self of impulse and of deliberation coalesce and express themselves in an act as a unity. Action is then the expression of the best thought and the deepest desire (or interest) of the whole self.[14]

When Dewey spoke of working with the child's activities, he referred to the interests of which activities were an indication. Not all activities were of equal value, and not all interests were of equal value. From the interests the teacher could discern the point of development reached by that child at that moment; to begin teaching at any other point than at the stage of development, range of experience and interests of the pupil, was, in his estimation, psychologically impossible.

Dewey speaks of education as life in which children share in a genuinely social environment created out of their occupations. He says:

> ... the mental and moral structure of individuals, the pattern of their desires and purposes, change with every great change in social constitution. Individuals who are not bound together in associations, whether domestic, economic, religious, political, artistic or educational, are monstrosities.[15]

It is important to remember, too, that:

> The child lives in a somewhat narrow world of personal contacts. Things hardly come within his experience unless they touch, intimately and obviously, his own well-being, or that of his family and friends. His world is a world of persons

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[14]Mayhew and Edwards, op. cit., p.455.

[15]J. Dewey, Individualism Old and New (New York: Minton, Balch, 1930) p.82.

> with their personal interests, rather than a realm of facts and laws. Not truth, in the sense of conformity to external fact, but affection and sympathy, is its keynote.[16]

The chief advantage which Dewey saw in this social participation was that it took cognizance of the social nature of the child's natural impulses, educated him in terms of real life, allowed for the three R's and other subjects to be exploited as parts of the culture, helped students to understand their present civilization, and afforded them the experience of cooperative planning and sharing of ideas.

But the "quality of mind cannot develop without a fair leeway of movements in exploration, experimentation, and application."[17] Furthermore, this freedom is:

> ... a vital part of all life, social and individual, and it lives in the essential quality of man, his capacity to think, and thereby to enrich both society and himself.[18]

In the early days of his practice Dewey tended to allow the students in the Laboratory School complete freedom. Later, he rejected the idea of freedom as freedom to do as you please, provided you do not get in the way of your neighbour and his freedom. This is a negative view of freedom. There is a positive side as well. "Freedom or individuality ... is not an original possession or gift. It is something to be achieved, to be wrought out."[19] It is certain,

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[16]Dewey, The Child and the Curriculum, p.5.

[17]Dewey, Democracy and Education, p.357.

[18]Ibid., p.151-2.

[19]J. Dewey, "Individuality and Experience," R. Archambault (ed.), John Dewey on Education (New York: Random, 1964) p.156.

then, that the young child must not be presented with unlimited freedom in his self-development. Freedom in this context is not a method as Rousseau would have it. Dewey means by freedom - the target or aim of education and not its foundation if freedom be the privilege of being nondirectd. He holds this view with regard both to discipline by the curriculum and discipline by the teacher.

The Role of the Teacher

Dewey's educational revolution wisely focussed the notice of all teachers upon the makeup of the growing individual. Although he does not propose any fixed set of aims to serve as standards of direction, it matters not what other school topic he may be discussing at any time - he is almost sure to refer to aims or objectives. Probably the most notable of these is growth through experience. Good experiences are growing experiences, not in the sense of accumulation but in the sense of expanding in meaning and significance.[20]

Since the possibilities of growth are almost infinitely varied, the full limits being unknown by the teacher, there can be no fixed end to the process. The end can only be further growth. This view holds then that teachers can and should know the best evidences of growth which have accrued to the past and present experiences of others. It is from the knowledge of these expressions and their meanings that the teacher can interpret the present needs, interests, and expressions of children and guide them in subsequent

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[20]Dewey, Democracy and Education, p.41-53.

experiences which add meaning and lead on to still further significance.[21] In these terms, "education means the enterprise of supplying the conditions which insure growth or adequacy of life, irrespective of age"[22] and the teacher's task is:

> ... to arrange for the kind of experiences which, while they do not repel the students, but rather engage his activities, are nevertheless, more immediately enjoyable since they promote having desirable future experiences.[23]

This rejects an idea now current that methods such as Dewey's tend to dispense with the teacher as the active, controlling spirit in the classroom.

The teacher who attempts to do this, however, is entering upon no small task. She must first of all know what the learner's purposes, urges and goals are because of the drive to action which lies behind these purposes. Related to this is the need for an understanding of the contacts and influences experienced by a child. Whether these are human or physical and whatever the home, the locality, and the abilities of each child, he needs the help of his teacher to extract from these physical and social surroundings the kind of experiences that lead to growth.

The second major responsibility is to find some basis of interaction with the child. The learner will modify his goals only as he has experiences which give him a new point of view. The

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[21] Ibid., p.21.

[22] Ibid., p.61.

[23] J. Dewey, Experience and Education (New York: Macmillan, 1956) p.16.

teacher's working opportunity is, then, at the point of experiencing. She thus becomes an engineer of situations in which takes place that interaction which is the essence of experience:

> The child of seven or eight is already intensely active, and the question of education is the question of taking hold of his activities, of giving them direction. Through direction, through organized use, they tend toward valuable results, instead of scattering or being left to merely impulsive expression.[24]

The teacher must, in fact, be careful here lest, in getting into the experience process with the learner, he take the process out of the learner's hands and put him in the position of simply giving assent, which sometimes becomes mere verbalism. It requires a fine discernment to see how to participate in the process in such a way as to cause the learner to further and deepen his own experience. It implies the art of helping him to help himself.

In endeavouring to get into an interactive relationship with the learner the teacher must find ways of bringing about experiences that may increase sensitivities for him. This also implies tremendous responsibility for he who would be a teacher. Life begets life. He who would teach must himself live and live deeply and abundantly. He must himself be sensitive to the processes that are life-giving. He must know sources of life and be able to detect the beginnings of new sensitivities in learners. He must recognize the reaches of the learner -- even anticipate them in order to be ready to help.

Two aspects of the engineering role referred to earlier must be considered. First of all, there is the matter of direction

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[24]Dewey, The School and Society, p.36.

or guidance. Dewey believed that "guidance is not external imposition. It is freeing the life-process for its own most adequate fulfillment".[25] The achievement of enough experience to be able to proceed to the study of organized subject-matter is a very desirable part of the educative process. Furthermore, it matters very much what kind of experience each youngster obtains at the formative stages. This means that:

> The problem of direction is thus the problem of selecting appropriate stimuli for instincts and impulses which is desired to employ in the gaining of new experience.[26]

Experience itself, then, is not necessarily educative. It must be the right kind of experience for the young person at the stage at which he is:

> There is no ground for holding that the teacher should not suggest anything to the child until he has consciously expressed a want in that direction. A sympathetic teacher is quite likely to know more clearly than the child himself what his own instincts are and mean. But the suggestion must fit in with the dominant mode of growth in the child; it must serve simply as a stimulus to bring forth more adequately what the child is already striving to do. Only by watching the child and seeing the attitude that he assumes toward suggestions can we tell whether they are operating as factors in furthering the child's growth, or whether they are external, arbitrary impositions interfering with normal growth.[27]

According to this scheme, then, as in the theories of the Post-Renaissance reformers, there is needed a willingness on the part

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[25]Dewey, The Child and the Curriculum, p.17.

[26]Ibid., p.17.

[27]Dewey, The School and Society, p.129-130.

of both teachers and parents to watch and wait for the development in the child of a sense of need for any skill or technique. When it arises the teacher must help the learner to develop the ability to face and deal with his own situations. In a dynamic and changing world, situations are continuously being modified. Change is ever coming. The learner's sensitivities keep challenging him to action. This action is the effort to keep himself in the best adjustment he can make with his changing situation as he sees it. This tendency to keep adjusting is a fundamental phase of human nature.

> It is the business of the educator to see in what direction an experience is heading. There is no point in his being more mature if, instead of using his greater insight to help organize the condition of the experience of the immature, he throws away his insight .... The educator is false to the understanding that he should have obtained from his own past.[28]

The second aspect of the engineering role of the teacher deals with the organized use of the child's activities. Dewey urges that the learning process itself should be the active, outward reaching of the human organism. The teacher should provide stimuli to arouse the child's impulses so that he formulates his own genuine and personal purpose for entering upon some activity. He suggests that the formation of purpose needs three elements - observation, previous knowledge and judgment. These elements are translated into a plan of action, a consideration of possible consequences and a decision whether or not to carry out the plan.[29]

It is clear that Dewey intends the teacher to share in the

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[28]Dewey, Experience and Education, p.32.

[29]Ibid., p.35.

discussion and consideration of plans of action and so help the development of intelligent foresight and judgment. He describes the process as "reciprocal give - and - take, the teacher taking, but not being afraid also to give".[30]

Implicit in the description of the use of activities is Dewey's emphasis on the quality of experience. He does not make a systematic formulation of the qualities which his own empirical analysis of experience reveals to be most desirable, nor does he systematically apply them to educational practice. But he does stress the importance of the continuity of that experience for it is implied in the aim to promote growth and expansion. The meaning of any experience must grow out of a former and lead into a subsequent experience. It therefore gulfs the false polarities which education to that point had made. In reality experience is never disconnected, for at any given time various aspects of experiences are interconnected and throughout time experience is continuous as a serial course of affairs. In closing the gap between a child's experience and the various forms of subject matter, the teacher's problem is that of:

> ... inducing a vital and personal experiencing. Hence, what concerns him, as teacher, is the ways in which that subject may become a part of experience; what there is in the child's present that is usable with reference to it; how such elements are to be used .... He is concerned, not with the subject-matter as such, but with the subject matter as a related factor in a total and growing experience.[31]

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[30] Ibid., p.85.

[31] Dewey, The Child and the Curriculum, p.23.

Dewey cautions us against the great waste of human life. This results from a lack of organization which is "nothing but getting things into connection with one another so that they work easily, flexibly and fully".[32] He extends this idea of continuity into the realm of actual methodological procedures. For him, the:

> Processes of instruction are unified in the degree in which they centre in the production of good habits of thinking. While we may speak, without error, of the method of thought, the important thing is that thinking is the method of an educative experience. The essentials of method are therefore identical with the essentials of reflection. They are first that the pupil have a genuine situation of experience - that there be a continuous activity in which he is interested for its own sake; secondly, that a genuine problem develop within this situation as a stimulus to thought; third, that he possess the information and make the observations needed to deal with it; fourth, that suggested solutions occur to him which he shall be responsible for developing in an orderly way; fifth, that he have opportunity and occasion to test his ideas by application, to make their meaning clear and to discover for himself their validity.[33]

The most general features of the method of knowing are really the features of the reflective situation: problem, collection and analysis of data, projection and elaboration of suggestions or ideas, experimental application and testing, and the resulting conclusion or judgement. The learning comes if the learner makes the decision, if he really feels that he is making the choice and expects to be responsible for the consequences. A teacher needs to be able to participate effectively but also to be able to withhold and wait with patience while the learner has time to decide and act.

This is just a broad outline of method, however, for Dewey realized that:

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[32]Dewey, The School and Society, p.64.

[33]Dewey, Democracy and Education, p.163.

> The specific elements of an individual's method or way of attack upon a problem are found ultimately in his native tendencies and his acquired habits and interests. The method of one will vary from that of another as his original instinctive capacities vary, so his past experiences and his preferences vary ....
>
> But methods remain the personal concern, approach, and attack of an individual, and no catalogue can ever exhaust their diversity of form and text.[34]

Too often the teacher does not know what the learner's situation is. She is unaware of the difficulties and desires that are conditioning the learner. She is not able so to deal with the learner that she calls out latent possibilities, and she does not know how to free him to put forth the effort needed.

The ability to do these things lies in the potentialities of human relationships. Many teachers have not explored the implications involved in the interaction of human beings. They do not keep in mind the fact that each individual is sensitive, has goals, and is striving to make needed adjustments so as to live his life as he sees it. They do not always remember that to the learner his own life is very important. They often forget that belief each in the other seems to be the foundation of successful human relationships. All who dare to work at matters involving human relationships need to understand the influence of words, attitudes, manner of looking at or ways of talking with, other human beings.

The Interaction Model:

Dewey is the first of the writers we shall consider in the

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[34] Ibid., p.34.

history of educational thought who really conceives of education as a process of interaction. He defines it as follows:

> The fundamental factors in the educative process are an immature, undeveloped being; and certain social aims, meanings, values incarnate in the matured experience of the adult. The educative process is the due interaction of these forces. Such a conception of each in relation to the other as facilitates completest and freest interaction is the essence of educational theory.[35]

Of course it is easier to see the conditions in their separateness, to insist upon one at the expense of the other, to make antagonists of them, than to discover a reality to which each belongs. Instead of seeing the educative process as a whole, we see conflicting terms.

Dewey has asserted in various ways that education is the growth process of live creatures in which growth is not something done to them, it is something they do. They are always already doing something, intent upon something urgent and this ongoing activity always gives a bent in one direction rather than another. The position taken in most of his writings is, then, that the learning process is made up of the interaction of a learner with his total environment.

This interpretation of learning as doing, with reference to adjusting to, in, or with the environment, places much emphasis upon interactions with people. The teacher, then, is perceived as a very important, responsible human factor in the environment of the learner. Whatever the teacher does in the attempt to further the growth of the learner must be by way of becoming a significant part

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[35]Dewey, The Child and the Curriculum, p.4.

in the learner's interactive process. The teacher and the learner must participate in a programme of living and doing. This means, then, a programme dealing with the learner's reality through a series of experiences that arise in the ongoing process of living and meeting situations.

As we have seen, Dewey demanded that school life and its programme should be based upon a psychology of action. In this psychology of action, "problem solving thinking" became a focus. It has withstood many criticisms, and is still valuable today - though 'problem-solving' is regarded merely as one aspect of the psychology of human learning.[36]

The activity movement actually crystallized in Dewey's child growth philosophy as it was expressed in his two books, The School and Society and The Child and Curriculum. In the former, he promulgates the new educational doctrine of learning through doing, emphasizing the social as well as the intellectual values necessary to education in a democracy. In the latter, he shows that the curriculum is not something that must be 'got into the child', but rather that the curriculum material must be developed around the child who is the centre.

In Dewey's school, it was assumed that children would be more completely living if they took over the usual tasks of their natural life. They were not to be chained to a rigid system of subject matter but were to be left free to follow their own desires

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[36]R.M. Gagné, The Conditions of Learning (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1965) p.33.

within the limits of various home tasks and the play of other children. There was in actual fact so much freedom and spontaneous activity that during the trial years many felt this was not a school at all. Dewey in the course of time, developed and amplified it in practice. He expounded and developed the principle of growth and gave new meaning to the conditions necessary for its fulfillment.

Dewey had great faith in the classroom teacher's judgment as to what children can and should do. He emphasized that the teacher is no mere bystander. The teacher must certainly select and plan the experiences of pupils so that they have practice in tackling new and more complex problems which develop further foresight and judgment. She must also see that the essential experience and knowledge acquired by the human race is mastered and made useful for the future.

The teacher's part, then, in this coming-to-maturity process is that of interpreter and guide as the child re-enacts, rediscovers, and reconstructs his experience from day to day. The teacher sets the stage for the moving drama of the child's life, supplies the necessary properties when needed, and directs the action both toward the immediate goal of the child and also toward the direction of that far-away end which is clear in her mind, but as yet unseen by the child.

CHAPTER IV

A SEARCH FOR THE PRINCIPLES OF ACTIVITY THE CONTEMPORARY MODELS

The Model of the Child

Each phase of life has its special characteristic problems and difficulties: this is true also of the Junior School in England - a school which caters to children between the ages of seven plus and eleven plus. In attempting to derive information about the model of the child, as seen in the light of contemporary research, it is also meet that the information be presented in the way in which it is viewed by English teachers, since it is the method of training teachers in England that is to be discussed at a somewhat later stage.

At the outset one recognizes two major approaches to the study of children, the developmental approach, and the mental hygiene approach, and each has had its adherents. In the United States the former method or approach has been most fruitfully pursued at California, at Iowa, at Harvard, Yale and Minnesota, where Institutes of Child Study were established. The second, or mental hygiene approach is more diffuse and less clearly identified. Its origin in the United States is often associated with the publication of A Mind that Found Itself,[1] and some of the pioneer efforts of Burnham and others. The work of Freud and the psychoanalysts is quite pervasive though few, outside of Morton Prince and Alexander, would make overt recognition of this.

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[1] C.W. Beers, A Mind That Found Itself (London: Longmans, Green, 1917).

In England, Tanner has been able to carry out work which has a child development orientation, building upon the work of Gesell, but in an English context. His work at the London Institute of Education has been made possible by the support of the Nuffield Foundation. It is interesting to compare the viewpoint of these two, Gesell, and Tanner, as the following quotations indicate:

> [The developmental approach] . . . takes its point of departure from the child's nature and needs. It acknowledges the profound forces of racial and familial inheritance which determine the growth of sequences and the distinctive growth pattern of each individual child . . . . Developmental guidance at a conscious level demands an active use of intelligence to understand the laws and the mechanisms of the growth process.[2]

> Development is best envisaged as a series of many successive processes, overlapping one another in time and linked loosely or tightly as the case may be. Out of the complexity of the linkages, under equilibratory forces, emerges an overall order with visible changes in the various sectors following one another with the regularity of a continuously changing mosaic.[3]

From the viewpoint of the mental hygienists, England may have offered more than the United States. There was early work from Jones, Crichton-Miller, Susan Isaacs, and now more than thirty years later from Anna Freud. To this amalgam, one can add the recent studies of a Piagetian nature, instituted by Nathan Isaacs, and most extensively studied by Lovell at Leeds. Whilst it would be true that the Ministry of Education inclines to a developmental approach, writings from Morris, who is a Freudian, would give evidence of the other approach as well.

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[2]A.Gesell and F.L. Ilg, Infant and Child in the Culture of Today (New York: Harper and Raw, 1949) p.289.

[3]J.M. Tanner, Education and Physical Growth (London: University of London, 1961) p.65-66.

For English teachers, as for their American counterparts, the most useful knowledge which they possess of children is capable of being presented under the headings of physical, social, emotional and intellectual development.

Physical Development:

While the last half-century has seen a strong emphasis on experience as the determiner of personality, developments in genetics, biochemistry and related fields have made it obvious that it is necessary now to start with the physical organism in studying behaviour. From the moment of birth, genetically determined uniqueness is exhibited by the skeletal system, the digestive tract, the muscular system, the nervous system, the endocrine system, the anatomy of the blood and so on.

This uniqueness of structure and function results in a predisposition to behaviour which is peculiar to the individual. The child's energy supply and mode of expression of energy is a basic factor in his personality make-up. His abilities and capacities to learn depend basically on neural factors. Emotions are fundamentally physical in effect and in expression. The influence of a child's absolute and relative size on his behaviour are apparent to the most casual observer. Motor competence and style also have their influence and are therefore worthy of observation because they are indicators both of individuality and of maturity status.

It is important that we recognize these individual differences, but it is also necessary for us to be aware of the characteristics which appear to be common to most Junior School children. In the following description, an attempt will be made to satisfy both these needs.

Changes in build between the age of six and adolescence are relatively slight and are largely the result of the lengthening of the limbs. In fact, most measurements of the body show a generally similar growth curve to the curve of height. General body tissue, including bones, muscles and most of the internal organs, grows rapidly immediately after birth and then at a relatively slow pace until about two years before adolescence. Development of the neural system is extremely rapid during the first six years and then slows down sharply. In marked contrast to the neural system, the genital system has a positively accelerated curve and this makes for a period of very slow growth during childhood.[4]

The way in which we teach children and the times at which we teach them various things must be governed by the manner of growth of their nervous system. Tanner, after gathering together the existing information, explains that "lamentably little is known about the growth and development of the brain in children"[5] after two years of age. It seems likely that there are stages of mental functioning and that these follow in a sequence which may be delayed or advanced as a whole but not altered; it also seems likely that the maturation of the cortex plays a large role in permitting the passage from one type of behaviour to another.[6] This would account for the extensive variability in rates of physical development.

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[4]Tanner, op.cit., p.25.

[5]Tanner, op.cit., p.5.

[6]Ibid., p.85-86.

Another factor of prime importance to educators is the degree of muscular development attained by the Junior School child. As stated above, the Junior School child's muscles grow continuously and roughly in proportion to over-all body growth and the child very gradually gains in strength. This means that neither the development of their senses nor the control and co-ordination of their muscles is yet anything like complete. Most important from the point of view of practical skill, the 'muscle sense' (awareness of one's own movement through minute sense organs lying in the muscles, joints and tendons) does not reach its finest sensitivity until twelve or thirteen years. The speed of adjusted movements, for example, tapping or writing, shows a rapid increase from seven to eleven years, after which the rate of improvement gradually slows down. The accuracy of movement improves markedly from five to nine years and then rather less rapidly up to adolescence.[7]

Physiologically, the seven to eleven year period is said to be the healthiest in life. It is the period of greatest vitality, of least illness. It is the period when the boy or girl least feels the cold, most rapidly recovers from fatigue, and sleeps most soundly at night. The large quantities of food which children at this age consume are burned up in their bodies to release both heat and energy. But though, at this age, the child is full of life and vitality, his reserves of energy are not great. The energy which his food provides is rapidly produced and quickly expended. He goes all out in full-blooded activity but has not great staying power. On the other hand, his powers of recuperation are very rapid and his energy is quickly restored.[8]

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[7]S. Isaacs, The Children We Teach (London: University of London, 1961) p.73.

[8]J.A. Hadfield, Childhood and Adolescence (Harmondsworth: Penguin, 1965) p.160-161.

Though Junior School children are full of vigour and delight in activity, they must not overtax themselves. Periods of intense physical activity must be followed by more sedentary ones which allow the child to regain his strength.

Social Development:

Social development simply defined concerns our relationship with people and things. The growth of such a relationship is a lifelong process in which the individual acquires from the enormously wide range of behaviour potentialities that are open to him at birth, those patterns that are customary and acceptable to the standards of his family and social group. Social maturity becomes the first requisite for all full living.

The home is central to the social development of the child; it is in this milieu that he begins to learn the roles ascribed to him by socioeconomic conditions. On the other hand the development of his personal self is subject to the laws of biological growth. This places limitations on the kinds of contacts, the depth of contacts and the scope of contacts which he can make with other people. Maturation is a key concept. But the major requirement, as seen by the psycho-analysts, is the striving to reduce biologically based drives. The child's interest is focussed upon himself and he is well-adjusted to the extent that he finds release from his internal tensions without causing conflict with others in the environment.

As he grows he also becomes aware of, and learns to differentiate, his feelings; he must learn to recognize similar feelings in others. On this basis he commences to extend his social relationships, including more individuals within his environment.[9]

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[9] E.B. Warr, Social Experience in the Junior School (London: Methuen, 1957) p.57.

To develop socially, the child makes certain demands upon his society; the co-operation of the members of the society of which he forms a part; the acceptance by his peer-group; the recognition of his status. He makes a claim for responsibility; he needs scope for new experience and adventure. Much of this has been described by Gesell and Ilg. It is only fair to note that Valentine[10] has indicated that much more evidence is required, if one is to deal with individual differences within the broader concept of developmental stages. Some of this evidence has been provided by Hadfield,[11] who makes due acknowledgement to both Gesell and to Isaacs - i.e. to both of the major approaches - developmental and mental hygiene. Hence one can refer to the increasing extraversion of the child between the ages of four to seven, which is important for entry into the Junior School. He is now able to form relationships with others which leads co-operative groups, and the beginning of more crystallized personal friendships which emerge during this period.

Significant in the Junior School, or certainly for the first three years, is the ability of children of both sexes to co-operate, to engage in activities on approximately equal terms. It is also true that the end of the period sees a marked divergence in interests, activities, games, and choice of playmates. There is almost an avoidance of the opposite sex. In the meantime one can see the emergence of some pattern of leadership for several of the children of this age; this is related to their position in a social group. On the other hand, the child of this age is seen as reacting well to authority - accepting that of which they have been instrumental in securing - resenting arbitrary authority given to those of their own age group by adults.

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[10] C.W. Valentine, The Normal Child (Harmondsworth: Penguin, 1963) p.183.

[11] J.A. Hadfield, op.cit., p.159-167.

Their own relation to adults has not yet entered the stage of rejection; adult authority is actively welcomed in the earlier stages, more particularly as an arbitrator at the later stages.

For English teachers, perhaps the views of Isaacs[12] are most influential. To her, the typical child of eight to eleven years has become much less self centred; he prefers to work and play with others; he forms more stable friendships and his rivalries appear more in formalized sports and games. He is less moved by the opinions of adults, be that adult parent or teacher, beginning to be more subject to the opinions of his peers. Rules appear important to him - whether these reflect the consistency or inconsistency of adult opinion, or the rules of the games he plays. These he must master - as he must master the world in which he lives. In the Junior School his phantasies relate to ambitions and hopes; he is given to the mastery of skills. However, he is not capable of truly disinterested effort and can only follow ideal ends if they are firmly anchored to people and things he knows and understands. Even when he plays and works with others, it is for his own glory.

Emotional Development:

Emotions involve feelings, impulses toward action, and the subjective element of perception that produces the feelings and impulses. They are not self-subsistent entities but a process or structured mode of reaction in which pattern and texture is taken on through dynamic relationships with ideas and intellectual orientations.[13] It is a vital part of the life of a child. It is also intimately related to his social development, and much that has been written there would be applicable here, also.

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[12] S.Isaacs, op.cit., p.104-105

[13] A. Gesell and F.L. Ilg, The Child From Five to Ten (New York: Harper and Row, 1946) p.283.

Emotional development is a product of both maturation and learning. All those processes of the child which mature play a part in affecting his self concept; Gesell, in particular, indicates that emotions can be understood only in relation to the total developmental pattern, and the effects of rates of maturation. Some writers prefer to talk in terms of emotional needs. Peel[14] has discussed the needs for new experience, security, response, affection and recognition, acceptance by one's group - in fact the very kind of things discussed by Isaacs as part of the child's social development.

Whilst need theory has a definite place in the modern study of the child it is well to remember that for some writers it is no more than circularity of argument, and as suspect as some of the earlier twentieth century uses of the term 'instinct'. More importance should be attached to the typical behavioural expectations and affective attitudes which accompany emotional maturation. Gesell has written on this; Tanner[15] would add that even though the stages in emotional development have been described and the complexity of the system indicated, certain knowledge on this topic is lacking. Observations of children's behaviour reveals great individual differences in emotional reactions. Most important is the fact that children react differently to the same type of emotional stimulus. Their past experiences and self concept tend to alter in some significant way the meaning of the emotional situations which occur in their lives.

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[14] A.E. Peel, The Psychological Basis of Education (London: Oliver and Boyd, 1956) p.209.

[15] Tanner, op.cit., p.65.

Intellectual Development:

If the earlier writers had a paucity of references to intellectual development, the contemporary scene provides a multiplicity of references, and a variety of theories. It is not necessary to search for a single, over-riding theory; there is a recognition that different explanatory systems are required for different sets of facts. Thus there are theories which refer to needs, to motivation, to learning, to thinking. In the earlier years of the century the first three of these have had more than passing importance for our knowledge of children; at the present, emphasis appears to be laid upon thinking, and in particular upon the processes of concept formation, and their relation to intellectual development.

Again, one can note the influence of Isaacs, whose book of 1931, has seen a series of reprintings in the present decade, and of Piaget. Isaacs pictured mental growth as a continual movement from a state of lower balance to a state of higher balance, through development of needs and interests which vary from age to age, and leads to a state of maturity and full intellectual functioning. It takes place by capitalizing upon the child's own interests; detailed observation of the functioning of these in a wide variety of situations should leave no doubt as to the strength and spontaneity of the child's wish to know and understand within the limits of his intelligence. "Whatever activity brings light to the eye and eagerness to the voice and gestures can be taken as a clue to some inner need of growth."[16] In the period from seven to eleven, Isaacs notes the relevance of games and sports to intellectual development, as well as to physical and social development. Knowledge can be woven into dramatic play; craftmanship, in mastery of the use and appropriateness

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[16] Isaacs, op.cit., p.125.

of material, in correctness of detail, of measurement and fit make a further contribution. Free brush work and drawing and painting activities are particularly commended. From another point of view the lure of books and the kinds of reading opportunities sought provide other significant clues to the intellectual development of children at this age.[17]

Her treatment of reasoning follows similar lines - the development of interest from play activities, from the word used in games, from the discussions and arguments which follow. She notes the pre-systematic thinking of which these children are capable, its relation to imaginative play, its growth through practical pursuits which set the stage for the abstract reasoning of adolescence.

Oddly enough, English psychologists who have been much concerned in the measurement of intellectual levels have been less concerned with intellectual growth. Their work has been more directed to the age at which certain abilities become measurable. This would be conspicuously true of the work of Mellone[18] and Emmett.[19] On the other hand,

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[17] Ibid., p.111-138

[18] M.A. Mellone, "A Factorial Study of Picture Tests for Young Children" (unpublished Ph. D. dissertation, Moray House, University of Edinburgh, 1944).

[19] W.G. Emmett, "Evidence of a Space Factor at Eleven Plus and Earlier," The British Journal of Psychology, II, Part I (March, 1949) p. 3-15.

Burt[20] and Vernon[21] have been more concerned to insist that intellectual ability can be represented in a general kind of way until after the child has passed through the Junior School. Both have been able to point to the relation of intellectual abilities to the various tasks which these children have been called upon to perform, and indicated the part played by these materials, and by teaching, in fostering the development of those abilities which their tests propose to measure.

However, at the moment, greatest interest is focussed upon the work of Piaget. Lovell has conducted parallel, and somewhat more quantified studies in England, with a view to confirming or modifying some of the Piaget tenets. In the United States, Piaget's work has given rise to extended studies, particularly under Bruner at the Centre for Cognitive Studies at Harvard, as the dedication of Bruner's most recent book indicates. However, in England, Piaget's own work has had great impact, and for this reason a somewhat extended treatment of his theories and speculations is given below.

Piaget's approach is a genetic one. He attempts to distinguish levels or stages of development in the evolution of thought and to show how each stage reveals a progressive sequence from simpler to complex levels of organization.

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[20] C.Burt, "The Structure of the Mind: A Review of the Results of Factor Analysis," The British Journal of Educational Psychology, Parts II and III (June and November, 1949) p. 100-111, 176-199.

[21] P.Vernon, The Structure of Human Abilities (London: Methuen, 1950).

His starting point is that higher psychological functions grow out of biological mechanisms. Adaptation he defines as a balance between assimilation and accommodation which tends towards states of equilibrium. Assimilation is a term derived from the physico-chemical function, characteristic of every living creature, in which substances from the environment are absorbed and changed in order to sustain the organism. Accommodation refers to the fact that the organism is changed by the action of the environment upon it.[22]

Adaptation develops through a series of phases from birth to maturity but it is never quite complete for in the evolution of adaptability there are many key factors. It is these which Piaget wishes to discover and to study. The first of these is the extent to which an organism can control shifts of orientation. The second factor which is much more familiar to us is the development of operations.[23]

Stages can be defined by two criteria - the process of the formation of structures and the complete form or final equilibrium. Each stage is distinguished by the appearance of original structures differing from those of earlier years by a particular form of balance. The equilibrium of a stage while marking the completion of one period marks at the same time the beginning of a new period of transformation. Each subsequent development occurs in accordance with the requirements of better organization, that is the accommodation and assimilation of material.[24]

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[22] J.H. Flavell, The Developmental Psychology of Jean Piaget (Toronto: Van Nostrand, 1963) p.45-46,64.

[23] Ibid.,p.164-201.

[24] B.Inhelder, "Criteria of the Stages of Mental Development," J.M. Tanner and B. Inhelder (eds.), Discussions on Child Development, p.75-85.

We are primarily concerned with the stage of concrete operations covering ages seven to eleven but a brief outline of the initial stages will be given for the sake of completeness.[25]

Stage One is often referred to as the sensory motor period because it consists chiefly of simple hereditary reflexes which are refined and supplemented by habits learned through trial and error. During this period, the child is concerned with objects as objects.

The activity of Stage One is dwarfed by the prospects introduced by signs and signals, particularly words and images, in Stage Two. There is a tendency to initiate sounds and behaviour thus indicating the emergence of memory as the abstraction from action to thought is made. Children at this time are still without settled notions about space, time, movement and speed or of number and measure.

An operation is an action which has been internalized. The child first learns to do certain actions and then is able to work out symbolically how he is going to do a typical action before acting. Thought originates in the interiorization of these actions.

Piaget believes that thought activities may be analyzed in terms of groups or systems of operations. It is these groupings which are the main object of Piaget's developmental approach to concept formation. Not every child follows these stages in its individual growth. However, the average pattern of development follows his scheme and all children pass through each of the phases in turn - except the dull ones.

There are three main stages of development in Piaget's scheme. These are:[26]

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[25] Flavell, op.cit., P.87-236.

[26] Ibid., p.86.

Stage I.	Non-Operational:	(Birth - 2 years)	
Stage II.	Pre-Operational:	(a) Transductive	(2-4 years)
		(b) Intuitive	(4-7 years)
Stage III.	Operational:	(a) Concrete	(7-11 years)
		(b) Formal	(11 and over)

Concrete operational thought emerges in Stage Three when operations in thought make overt physical trial and error operations unnecessary. Somewhere around age seven the child begins to see each common relational concept as implying a continuous operation that is reversible (growth and shrinkage, adding to and taking away etc.). Reversibility is the key to precise adjustment. According to this theory, a concept is fundamentally an imagined action. A relational concept expresses something that can be done with objects; the concept of an object is a prediction about what it will do or what we can do with it.

Operational thought develops as one concept after another is disentangled from the vague impressions of earlier days. In concrete operational thought, a child reasons successfully about things that are or have been concretely present before him. Keeping two facts or purposes in view becomes possible for the child at this stage. When operational thought emerges, a child can understand the so-called conversation principles - that breaking up a piece of candy does not change its amount; that changing the shape of plasticine does not change its weight.

Piaget designates this period as the period of concrete operations because in it various operational groupings are consolidated. He concluded from the results of his investigations that the various transformations involved - reversibility, combination of compensated relations, conservation - in fact, depend on each other and because they amalgamate into an organized whole, each is really new despite its affinity with the corresponding intuitive relation that was already formed at the previous level.

In practice, these operational groupings lead to the following structures or logical operations:

1. Fitting classes together: The child has now formed the concept of a class and can perform mentally the operation of classification.
2. Serialising asymmetrical relations: He can now make the deduction that $A < B$, $B < C$ $\therefore$ $A < C$.
3. Advent of the number system: The number system is the joint product of classification and ordering or seriation. These are blended into a single operational whole, so that the unit one is simultaneously an element in a class and in a series.

To summarize this stage, then, it must be said that the operations capable of being performed are essentially tied to action. Furthermore, the child is able to generalize and to form and use the concepts of class, relation, and number, but the principle of conservation does not hold in all systems of ideas, emerging later in some systems than in others. The child is still capable of only a limited form of reasoning which is tied to his own concrete experience.

It is only in early adolescence that ability to perform abstract operations becomes apparent. Unlike the child who concerns himself only with actions in progress, the adolescent thinks beyond the present and forms theories about everything. Formal thought may thus be said to consist of reflecting on operations or on their results and consequently effecting second-degree groups of operations, i.e. operating on operations.

The Whole Child:

Little reminder is needed that nature is a whole. It may be divided for the convenience of analysis and discussion, but this is a dialectical device which should not obscure the fact that the child himself remains

indivisible. To quote Gesell, "if we take him apart he vanishes; he ceases to be a person."[27] It is equally a truism that the totality is greater than the mere sum of the parts. Jacks put it well when he suggested that, "the answer to the sum, if sum there be, lies in the total combinations of relationships between the parts, and not in the mere addition of the parts themselves."[28]

Putting the child together as a whole often leads to discussion in terms of his personality, or even the total personality. Psychologists have suggested that this demands the study of the individual's interrelated, genetically and environmentally developing behaviour patterns. This is often seen as a task for mental hygiene, and in this task, the success of the psychologists has not been as great as could be desired. It is easy to say that the characteristics of the individual with the healthy personality is that he feels reasonably comfortable about himself, feels right towards others, and is able to handle life's problems reasonably well.

To examine the situation of children with respect to their personality development, and to consider measures which facilitate healthy development, requires a greater breadth of treatment than that accorded by any of the Post - Renaissance educational philosophers, or by Dewey himself. Even the recognition that the determinants of behaviour are manifold is a step forward. It is a task for the child study movement to continue research into as many as possible of these determinants. It is the duty of the teacher to become familiar with many of their conclusions, and to consider these in relation to the individual children with whom she deals.

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[27] Gesell and Ilg, Infant and Child in the Culture of Today, p.30.

[28] M.L. Jacks, Total Education (London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trubner, 1946) p.50.

The Role of the Teacher

Teaching is a complex process. It is not one thing but many things. It is a multidimensional rather than a unidimensional process and this presents the chief stumbling block in arriving at a clear-cut definition.

In England, the systematic study of teachers' roles is still in its infancy. However, there have been some thoughtful observations on the subject. The teacher has been described as an instructor, socializer, value-bearer, organizer, classifier, welfare-worker and charismatic leader.[29] She has also been likened to an artist, a gardener and a social engineer. Each of these terms conveys some inkling of her power, yet each may over-emphasize what is merely one aspect.

It is Fleming's belief that the best tribute can be paid to the teacher's wisdom and experience by using the more humble word 'craftsman' in designation of a teacher's skill:

> Teachers are craftsmen in their concern with the material under their hand. They are cognizant of the variety and the uniqueness of their charges and aware of the personal and social processes by which modifications can be wrought. They are craftsmen also in their interest in the stimulation they offer - its content in terms of activity and knowledge, and the materials of instruction through which it can take perceptible shape. They strive also to be experts in the selection of methods through which its conquest can be commended to their pupils.[30]

These three aspects - knowledge of children, knowledge of the content of instruction, and the technical skill to bring these two sets of knowledge into an integrated unity - will be examined below.

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[29] W.A.L. Blyth, English Primary Education; Schools (London: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1965) p.168-171.

[30] C.M. Fleming, Teaching: A Psychological Analysis (London: Methuen, 1958) p.153.

Knowledge of the child:

There is little to add to what was said above. To know the child the teacher must understand not only the sequences of development but comprehend the scope and trends of each cycle and to see these in their imposing perspective for each aspect of the child's personality. There must be awareness of the hierarchy of experiences involved in each of the various kinds of learning, of open approach to the child to discover the level, quality and content of his thought, and the attempt to place these in some kind of perspective so that the shortcomings, immaturities and strivings of the child assume new importance and take on new meaning. Each child's behaviour will then be appraised in terms of his developmental history and his unique pattern of growth. Unfortunately our science is not so well advanced that we have good prognostic tests of readiness to learn such and such - the art of the teacher must still show itself in the part intuitive, part scientific approach to the individual child.

Knowledge of Teaching Techniques:

From what sources may the teacher derive her knowledge of teaching techniques? It is possible that such techniques may be found in the laws relating to education. It is possible that they may be found in publications made by the Ministry of Education under the powers given to it by laws relating to education. It is possible that these derive from the training process which each teacher is required to undergo, and that here one is brought face to face with the consequences of both law and the publications of the Ministry of Education. It is possible that knowledge of such techniques derives from watching other teachers at work, from working with other teachers, from reading of their methods, or that the techniques arise ab initio in each teacher. Some of these

will be considered when it is time to examine the manner in which teachers are trained in England, so that correspondingly less space will be devoted to them at this point in the discussion.

Since the contemporary model is being discussed, it might be important to decide how contemporary this is to be. It should be pointed out, at the outset, that a somewhat more elastic use of the term is intended in referring to techniques, than was adopted in referring to knowledge. For knowledge, contemporary has reference to what is known, and could be available through published works, in the mid nineteen sixties. But it has been shown already that in the realm of the model of the teacher, and the techniques available to her, the residue of the past is never wholly supplanted, and despite the different philosophical base upon which it may rest, an earlier method of teaching and dealing with children is often incorporated, for many years, in what is otherwise a newer method. For this purpose, therefore, it is proposed to consider as contemporary, the manners and modes of dealing with children in a teaching situation, which have been used, or advocated by educators connected with the New Education Fellowship since its formal incorporation, by such writers as Susan Isaacs, who wrote in 1931, and by subsequent writers.

First the law relating to education. This is generally set out in the Education Act of 1944. Subsequent, almost annual, amending legislation has nevertheless left intact the basic tenets of the Act. Framed in the period of 'reconstructionist thought', it states unequivocally that the means of education shall be provided, and that education should be provided for each child according to his age, ability

and aptitude[31] - and that sufficient schools must be available to ensure this in the light also of the varying lengths of time for which children may stay at school.[32] There is respect also for handicapped children[33] in the facilities which are provided, and the steps laid down for their ascertainment.[34] But apart from indicating that each school day should commence with an act of corporate worship, and that systematic religious instruction[35] shall be given, the act carefully avoids reference to the methodology of teaching.

Official publications of the former Board of Education, and the present Ministry of Education, which would appear most relevant are those Handbooks of Suggestions for the Consideration of Teachers and Others Concerned in the Work of Public Elementary Schools, one of which appeared 1927 and was little influenced by any of the New Education Fellowship writings, and a second in 1937. In the former it was pointed out that there was need for a broad conception of the purpose of the school. It had indicated that:

> . . . the School should enlist as far as possible the interest and co-operation of the parents and the home in a united effort to enable the children not merely to reach their full development as individuals, but also to become upright and useful members of the community in which they live, and worthy sons and daughters of the country to which they belong.[36]

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[31] G.Taylor and J. Saunders, The New Law of Education (London: Butterworths, 1965) p.194.

[32] Ibid., p.91.

[33] Ibid., p.140.

[34] Ibid., p.144.

[35] Ibid., p.181.

[36] Board of Education, Handbook of Suggestions for Teachers (London: H.M.S.O., 1927) p.9.

The training of character was seen as the teacher's chief responsibility but the methods employed would be largely personal to each teacher.[37] Later it pointed out the importance of linking school work with children's natural instincts and interests; unlimited freedom was not possible; the school course should be planned by the teacher, but the scholars should appreciate the reasons underlying it, and use it as a means of enlarging their lives.[38] It paid some tributes to educational pioneers when it said:

> Remarkable skill has been shown in recent years by enlightened teachers in bringing education and reality into line with each other by establishing connections between school work and the natural proclivities of the children.[39]

Ten years later the Board of Education was able to point out the effect of recent changes in modern life, the changing conceptions of education, and the public concern for the improvement of the educational system. This had been both the cause and the effect of such publications and reports as The Education of the Adolescent (1926), The Primary School (1931) and Infant and Nursery School (1933). It went on:

> We realise more and more the importance of broadening the aims of education and of placing greater emphasis on the social development of children; we appreciate more thoroughly the value of space and of activity in securing their health and vitality . . . . We have discovered in recent years a great deal too, about how we should teach the various subjects of instruction, but at the same time we are also beginning to find that we shall have to know still more about how the child himself learns, and what things he should learn, if his subsequent development is to be as complete and as healthy as possible. In other words there has been a shift of emphasis in teaching from the subject to the child.[40]

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[37] Ibid., p.11.

[38] Ibid., p.60.

[39] Ibid., p.15.

[40] Board of Education, Handbook of Suggestions for Teachers (London: H.M.S.O., 1937) p.71.

It devoted sections to pointing out how children differ from adults, to the natural order of development, to the necessity for the teacher to allow for individual differences among children. It then considered the importance of the sentiments (or as we should now say, attitudes) in the development of character, before proceeding to discuss mental growth as an organic process.[41]

Important as these books were, and as the quotations above show, in relation to a public acceptance of Pestaloggian and Froebelian influences, even more may be an excerpt given in the preface to each:

> Neither the present volume nor any developments or amendments of it are designed to impose any regulations . . . . The only uniformity of practice that the Board of Education desire to see . . . . is that each teacher shall think for himself, and work out for himself, such methods of teaching as may use his powers to the best advantage and be best suited to the particular needs and conditions of the school. Uniformity in details of practice (except in the mere routine of school management)is not desirable even if it were attainable. But freedom implies a corresponding responsibility in its use.

In 1959, new demands had led to still another publication, Primary Education. Like its forbears it contained suggestions for the consideration of teachers and others concerned with the work of the Primary Schools. It was based on what had been seen in schools in all parts of the country in the preceding years, and discussions with teachers about their work, and the principles on which they act, and the standards they achieve:

> Teachers in primary schools will recognize here some of the situations they meet every day, and by reading of them in a wider setting may find their thinking stimulated and their practices challenged or confirmed by the experience of others.[42]

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[41] Ibid., p. 16-18.

[42] Board of Education, Primary Education (London: H.M.S.O., 1959) p.vi.

Readers of these publications will note the consistency with which the discussion was conducted in rather general terms. There was no intention of dictating to teachers, or preparing them for every contingency, but rather of stimulating them to consider principles, from which they might derive practice. This was continued in other publications of the Ministry of Education, which were instrumental in widening the scope of education, and in introducing more active methods. Often, other educators would follow up such suggestions by writing books and articles which continued the discussion, but, usually, without references to techniques and method in the direct terms used in Canada, and possibly the United States. In the realm of physical activity, for example, great changes were made during the war years, but not until 1952 did the Ministry incorporate these into its publication Moving and Growing: Physical Education in the Primary School, Part I.[43] Part II, which appeared in the following year, though entitled, Planning the Programme,[44] in fact only gave suggestions as to the activities which might go together and would constitute some kind of balanced programme. It was expected that teachers would then be able to extend, modify, and use these in ways suited to their own needs. In the intervening years no significant book had been produced; starting with Morison's Educational Gymnastics[45] in 1956 a veritable spate of books followed, to continue where the Ministry publications had left off.

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[43]Ministry of Education, Moving and Growing: Physical Education in the Primary School, Part I (London: H.M.S.O., 1952).

[44]Ministry of Education, Planning the Programme, Part II (London: H.M.S.O., 1953).

[45]R.Morison, Educational Gymnastics (Liverpool: Speirs and Gledsdale, 1956).

Teachers, then, would devise their own techniques. They would have gained some knowledge from their own training; they would have seen competent teachers at work; they would have been encouraged to read, to discuss, and to think out their own techniques. The discussion, and the thinking would be stimulated by publications such as Ash and Rapaport's Creative Work in the Junior School,[46] Atkinson's Junior School Community,[47] Gardner's The Education of Young Children,[48] Hollamby's Young Children Living and Learning,[49] Isaacs' The Children We Teach,[50] and, Sealey and Gibbon's Communication and Learning,[51] but at no time would there have been anything in the nature of what North Americans refer to as the 'cook book'. It is true that students entering teacher training would expect such material to be available; it is true that some elements of the educational press, particularly those catering for teachers in Infant and Junior Schools, would seek to fill such a demand, and it is true that some training colleges sought to establish reputations for a 'down to earth' concern for an extensive repertoire of teaching techniques; on the whole, however, courses in teaching methods, as will be shown later, were courses in trying to encourage students to derive practice from theory.

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[46] B.Ash and B. Rapaport, Creative Work in the Junior School (London: Methuen, 1966).

[47] M. Atkinson, Junior School Community (London: Longmans, 1964).

[48] D.E.M. Gardner, The Education of Young Children (London: Methuen, 1962).

[49] L. Hollamby, Young Children Living and Learning (London: Longmans, 1966).

[50] S. Isaacs, op.cit.

[51] L.G.W. Sealey and V. Gibbon, Communication and Learning (Oxford: Blackwell, 1964).

The Interaction Model

> Education comes not primarily through words, but through situations, not primarily through instruction, but through a pattern of living, not primarily through courses of study, but through an intangible spiritual atmosphere created by the community.[52]

For many years it was believed that the active intellect of the child was helped by the external ministrations of the teacher rather as the return to health is helped by the doctor. Adams[53] was fond of referring to this kind of education as a 'bi-polar process'. Taking as his text the sentence, 'the master taught John Latin', he would point out that traditionally emphasis had been placed on 'Latin' rather than on 'John' but increasing stress upon the psychological approach in education has led to increasing emphasis on the nature of John as distinct from the subject used as the instrument of education. The child, in this view, possessed the 'potency' and the teacher was one factor in the change from 'potency' to 'fulfilment'.[54] It should be emphasized that this did not constitute 'interaction' as the term would now be understood.

More recently it has been realized that learning does not take place through the external ministrations of the teacher:

> To be educated is not to have arrived at a destination. It is to travel with a different view. What is required is not feverish preparation for something that lies ahead, but to work with precision, passion and taste at worthwhile things that lie at hand. These things cannot be forced on reluctant minds, neither are they, as flowers towards which the seeds of mentality develop in the sun of the teacher's smile. They are acquired by contact with those who have already acquired them and who have patience, zeal and competence enough to initiate others into them.[55]

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[52] Jacks, op.cit., p.24.

[53] J. Adams, Modern Developments in Educational Practice (London: University of London, 1933) p.12.

[54] L.A. Reid, Philosophy and Education (London: Heinemann, 1965) p.150.

[55] R.S. Peters, Studies in Education: Education as Initiation (London: Evans, 1965) p.48.

In considering the implications of this view, it is necessary first of all to realize that "teaching is communication and classroom relations are a special case of human relations."[56] The success or failure of everything in education depends upon the nature of the relationship established between the teacher and the child.

Having accepted this fact, the characteristics of the ideal relationship should be taken into account. Atkinson and others have pointed out that the relationship is dependent upon the kind of rapport which the teacher establishes between herself and her pupils. A correspondent to The Times Educational Supplement describes it in this way:

> Rapport is much more than popularity; it does not dispense with discipline and respect; on the contrary, it is the only sure basis upon which both discipline and respect can be built with some children . . . .
>
> It expresses itself in such subtle ways as the atmosphere, the spiritual climate of the classroom. It has to do with the ability to communicate, not simply verbally, but the ability to 'commune' naturally and spontaneously with children . . . .[57]

The means of achieving this desirable state of classroom living are as varied as the criteria. Blackie, for example, has said that the teacher must be a:

> . . . setter-up of communications who by his presence and influence brings people together, encourages co-operation, smooths out difficulties, fans enthusiasms, deflects fanaticism, diffuses charity - that ability to recognize, appraise and appreciate the worth of every man.[58]

Buber has said that it is "trust in the world, because this human being exists - this is the most inward achievement of the relation in education."[59] For a child such trust means essentially a feeling of

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[56] E.A. Peel, op.cit., p. 234.

[57] "What Goes to Make the Ideal Teacher?", The Times Educational Supplement (Nov. 26, 1965) p.1143.

[58] J. Blackie, Good Enough for the Children? (London: Faber and Faber, 1963) p.112.

[59] M.L. Hourd, The Education of the Poetic Spirit (London: Heinemann, 1962) p. 122.

belonging; the feeling of having work to do there which is important. For the teacher it means coming face to face with an individual child needing help in his endeavour to grow, experiment, question and discover.

Reid believes that it lies in the provision of an atmosphere of freedom in which the child and the teacher are open to each other; where the teacher is learning and experiencing in a fresh way through his encounter with the free inquiring minds of his pupils.[60]

Atkinson, however, has put forward the most valuable thought which has been substantiated by research[61] - that in teaching it is not so much the methods which are important as the spirit of what is done. This spirit should be one of high purpose overriding self-interest in which teachers and children alike find joy in their work. Such an attitude is a matter of love, trust and shared interest between pupil and teacher. If any worth-while work is to be achieved in a school, this mutual trust and affection must be the starting point. From this spirit flow the other marks of a sound relationship: respect for persons, free participation and sharing of experiences, diversity, creativeness, democratic leadership and respect for worthy authority.[62]

Morris,[63] in a stimulating discussion written from the standpoint of psychoanalysis, has stressed the need, in establishing right relationships, for well-adjusted teachers who are able to react to immature behaviour with mature attitudes. To do this the teacher needs to

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[60] L.A. Reid, op.cit., p.154.

[61] B. Morris, "Mental Health in the Classroom," University of London Institute of Education, Studies in Education: The Bearings of Recent Advances in Psychology on Educational Problems (London: Evans, 1955) p.91.

[62] Atkinson, op.cit., p.64.

[63] Morris, op.cit., p.96.

understand herself and why she reacts to pupils in the way she does. It is not a static knowledge which is required however. The teacher must be continually involved in the search for self-knowledge and the struggle for self-fulfilment and satisfaction if she is to make much headway in understanding others or in helping others to understand themselves.[64]

It will have been noted that the pre-conditions of interaction are being specified, but that there is little to indicate the implications of the process of interacting. The quotations given above have referred, in general terms, to the influence of the teacher's personality upon the children in her class. Research to substantiate this, or to clarify the extent of this influence, is not available in England. There is only a tendency to refer to American work. It is true that some of the ways in which interaction is related to the content of certain lessons has been examined by Richardson.[65] She brings to the task some training in sociometry, and in human relations, both in England and in the U.S.A. She has been particularly influenced by Bales and his analysis of the interaction process. There has been some indirect influence from the work of the Institute of Human Relations at the Tavistock Clinic, but this can scarcely be said to have filtered down into the schools, any more than the programmes instituted at Manchester by Herbert. Morris has bowed to Vernon's opinion that "there is now good scientific evidence that teacher's personalities do affect the personalities of their pupils."[66]

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[64] W.D. Wall, Education and Mental Health (Paris: UNESCO, 1955) p.255-256.

[65] E.Richardson, "Teacher-Pupil Relationships," The New Era in Home and School, XLIV, Number 7 (July/August, 1963) p.166-171.

[66] Morris, op.cit., p.91.

Lovell,[67] and Gardner[68] have attempted to supply some of the necessary research on this topic in an English milieu; more recently a Canadian, Wisenthal[69] from a Skinnerian frame of reference has sought to examine this interaction process in terms of frequency and amount of reinforcement.

On the whole, therefore, English teachers are brought up on the standard references to Lewin, Lippitt and White;[70] on Anderson et al.[71] There is little evidence that the collection of studies reported by Gage, in The Handbook of Research on Teaching has had much effect on English study and knowledge of the interaction process.

However, something of equal or greater significance has taken place. With the support of the Nuffield Foundation studies have been made of the structure of the knowledge which children acquire, or which society demands that students acquire. In the process of relating the structure of knowledge of a subject area to the stage of development of the English child, English teachers are facing a new kind of interaction process. This is the interaction

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[67] K. Lovell and M.E. Woolsey, "Reading Disability, Non-verbal Reasoning and Social Class," Educational Research, VI, Number 3, p.226-229.

[68] D.E.M. Gardner, Experiment and Tradition in Primary Schools (London: Methuen, 1966).

[69] M. Wisenthal, "Sex Differences in Attitudes and Attainment in Junior Schools," The British Journal of Educational Psychology, XXXV, Part I (February, 1965), p.79-85.

[70] H. Levin, S. Hilton and G.F. Leiderman,"Studies of Teacher Behaviour," Journal of Experimental Education, XXVI (September, 1957) p.81-91.

[71] H.H. Anderson et. al., "Studies of Teachers' Classroom Personalities," Applied Psychological Monographs, Numbers 6, 8, 11 (1945-1946).

between teacher and child through the medium of the acquisition of newly organized knowledge. At a basic level this is a question of concept formation, to the understanding of which Piaget contributes much; but it involves a knowledge by the teacher of a subject which must be developed in a manner which she did not follow in her own learning activities. This has meant the retraining of experienced teachers - experienced that is in older techniques of teaching, with older concepts of, say, mathematics. In the process of finding new concepts of knowledge themselves, they find that they are both interacting with the material, the training groups of which they are members, and with those charged with attempting to aid them in the new integration of knowledge. In this process of several interactions they are becoming aware of the child-teacher-subject interaction which should augur well for English education in the next decade.

CHAPTER V

THE PRINCIPLES UNDERLYING THE ACTIVITY APPROACH TO JUNIOR SCHOOL EDUCATION

It is now appropriate to cull from the foregoing the principles which may be held to underlie the activity methods employed or spoken about. Here, a principle will be understood to be "a fundamental truth as basis of reasoning" or "a general law as guide to action," as defined in The Oxford Concise Dictionary. Fine sifting of the evidence leads only to the magnification of small differences; the principles sought are likely to be large in scope. It is hoped that attempting to produce broad principles does not lead to the other error, that of banality of conclusions. The principles educed must have two aspects - first, each principle must be a principle of learning, and second, each must be shown to be a correlative principle of teaching.

Without holding in any way to Miller's[1] supposition, that all numbers are related to the magic number of seven, plus or minus two, it is now suggested that there are seven major principles: activity, individual development, social development, self-development, use of the concrete, unity of knowledge, and freedom. These

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[1]G.A. Miller, "The Magical Number Seven, Plus or Minus Two: Some Limits on Our Capacity for Processing Information," Psychological Review, LXIII, Number 2 (March, 1956)p.81-97.

may now be examined in somewhat more detail.

From the psychological fact that learning is active, the exponents of the new schools all insist upon child activity as the core of the system. It is the children's own activity that is the key to their full development. Whether it is observation of the great need of the child for active movement as a condition of physical growth and of poise and skill, the ways in which he is "led out of the narrow circle of his own egoistic desires and naive assumptions about the world",[2] or the situations which provoke thought and reasoning, it must be concluded that it is the child's doing and self-expression, the child's active social experience and his own thinking and talking, that are the chief means of his education. The part of the teacher is to call out the child's activity and to meet it when it arises spontaneously. The school can give children the means of solving problems in which they are actively concerned, but cannot fruitfully foist upon them problems that do not arise from the development of their own living interests in the world.

One of the most important educational principles in a democratic society must be the free and unfettered opportunity for every child to develop his own maximum potential in his own way, provided that this does not impinge on the rights of others. Conclusions concerning the nature of the child between seven and eleven years are tentative but research findings emphasize that children

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[2]S. Isaacs, The Psychological Aspects of Child Development (London: Evans, 1963) p.41.

vary enormously, not only in level and balance of activities, but in the orientation of their personalities and in their tempo of maturation. It is suggested that attempts to teach skills before the maturation point has been reached take longer and are not more effective than awaiting the true growing point. The importance of this is far-reaching especially in the basic skills but also in the sphere of temperament. It follows that educational methods must cater not merely for different qualities of intellect but for different types of mind, different speeds of maturation, and different sensory patterns. There is no way of adjusting schooling to the needs of children except through the provision of continuous and many-sided stimulation. This obviously seems to call for activity methods because these offer a wider field of intellectual, emotional, motor and sensory experience than static methods, thus increasing each individual child's chances of finding the particular educational nourishment needed at any particular time.

Concern with child growth and development suggests that a child living in a small group of his own age day after day, following the inclinations of his own interests, cannot thus be equipped to meet the problems of a rapidly changing social order. In fact, psychologists have shown that children move more or less, and sooner or later, through certain common stages of interest or activity and that it is possible to influence individual interests through the social conditioning which the school imposes. Teachers in the activity school must therefore refuse to contrast individualization with methods of socialization - group work, the submitting of

individual contributions to a common aim and teacher-pupil planning. Their attitude must be that these are two ends of a chain which must be held together. Each is equally indispensable for there is no education without socialization.

It has been shown that what the child learns by himself and from his fellows is far more important in the long run than what he picks up from lessons no matter how carefully prepared they are. Since it is also true that any item of experience is learned in the degree that it is lived or in the degree that it becomes important for the individual, it follows that not just any activity will bring about learning. It must be recognized that learning occurs most effectively when the learner is personally involved in purposeful activity which captures his interest or arises from it. Interest is the vitamin of mental growth. In keeping with the above, the necessary emphasis in Junior School education must be more on learning through self-effort and self-activity than on instruction from the teacher. This does not imply an abdication on the part of the teacher, however, but it does insert the teacher's activity into the educative act in quite another way. She must be aware of the strength of the child's spontaneous impulses towards understanding and use his curiosity, interest, the urge to express, make or do to further his learning. Her knowledge of these will act as a guide in providing an environment which stimulates these inclinations and in presenting problems and asking arresting questions so that he may try out solutions and elaborate his own knowledge or ideas.

Nothing is more effective at the Junior School level than

for every abstract notion to be embedded in and derived from concrete applications. Real things interest the child far more readily than do words. Furthermore, to see with his own eyes and through his own intuition enables him to elaborate and to understand better and more easily though it often demands far greater precision than does a mere verbal recapitulation of what he has been told. Such verbal recapitulation does not constitute the mastery which is the basis for the acquisition of still newer skills and concepts. Teachers must aim to achieve this concreteness in their work with children but they must do so without providing isolated little episodes which are as vain and artificial as is an abstraction that is empty of any real content. Then, too, there is to be avoided the merely passive observation of the concrete. Both of these make the practice devoid of value. The teacher must rather provide an environment rich in materials to see, handle and experiment with. Then she must train her children in how to look, question, analyze, compare and how to pay an active attention to the real if they are to draw from it all that it can teach and express what has been learned with any degree of precision. In sum, she must make use of a 'real life approach' as opposed to the mastery of book knowledge and pupil experiences must provide the core of curricular materials.

It is now widely recognized that many learnings are acquired in any given school situation and that these concomitant learnings are not to be considered accidental or to be regarded as unimportant. When the child discovers the answers by a process of successive decisions, he learns actively. Active learning therefore involves

the whole personality and it is this kind of learning which remains for future reference. Since the child learns what he lives, the school should be primarily a place for living - for living all the aspects of life proper which are to be built into mind and character. Since he also learns by vaguely grasping complex wholes, teachers should teach, not by building up single isolated elements, but by presenting wholes and helping children to discover the elements in their natural setting. Learning must be conceived as experience - plus - interpretation and is at a maximum under the activity method of instruction. In such a programme, one element tends to teach another, for at its best the activity programme is a serial or consecutive course of doing so planned as to explore the whole field of a child's interest.

The last, but far from the least, of the principles which must be considered is the child's need of freedom to develop naturally, to be spontaneous, unaffected and unselfconscious. It is far from implying undisciplined running about or the 'learning of any old thing by doing any old thing'. True freedom for an individual at any age consists of the opportunity and the ability to make a selection, to decide between one action and another, on grounds other than caprice. Such freedom cannot be given and taken; it must be cultivated by the teacher and by the other members of society in the child's milieu. The environment and programme must be so constructed and controlled as to stimulate the child to govern his own conduct. As much freedom as possible must be given and the child should be trained to use it responsibly within a framework of genuine authority willingly accepted. Such a plan for the development

of freedom and self-expression are set up to secure, as an ultimate end, the free-thinking individual.

Society commits itself to an educational system which it believes will ensure that its own values are incorporated more effectively in the growing children given into its care; equally society demands that preparation be made for a future which it is impossible to predict. It is a truism to say that life in the next generation will be different from that at present. How to prepare for such a life? Perhaps the simplest answer to this question is that education should enable the individual to educate himself, not only now, but at each stage of the future. The French speaking community of this Province already refers to this under the term "education permanente". Sound education does not seek to prescribe belief or conduct, but to provide for the creation of new standards in accordance with new conditions and new needs. Some of this is accepted by the proponents of l'education permanente, in spite of the prescribed belief system in which many of them now live. The activity approach in Junior School education attempts to realize these goals.

This approach, or rather these approaches, since so many features are incorporated has been presented in terms of some general principles. The width of each principle is a matter for the individual adherent of the whole concept of 'activity methods'. It can be said with certainty that this entails more than devices or techniques, or means of transmitting knowledge. It involves the application, in education, of a scientific and experimental attitude of mind and of a dynamic and evolutionary concept of life. This

conception leads to the use of certain methods and practices which help individuals, and groups of individuals, to develop their own powers of growth so that they may enter more fully and more successfully into the activities of life. It is an attitude of mind which leads the teacher to suggest, to guide, and to help the learner on a cooperative basis of mutual respect and appreciation. It is an outlook upon life which emphasizes the all-round development of the individual as a member of the social order, so that his own personal abilities and accomplishments will be of greatest value to him and to the group of which he forms a part. It emphasizes the veracity of the statement that 'we learn to do by doing'. It believes that purpose and need are driving forces in motivation. It appeals to interest as a starting point in learning and to usefulness or functional quality as a criterion for judging worth.

CHAPTER VI

THE IMPLICATIONS OF THE ACTIVITY APPROACH FOR THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS

The nature of the teacher-pupil relationship has been a changing one throughout the whole of the present century - if not even before that. It was suggested by Trow et al.[1] that as early as 1917 Bagley in his book School Discipline had anticipated some of the changes which increased knowledge of social psychology and of group processes was to bring into the classroom. Trow and his collaborators suggested that there were three distinct, but interrelated roles which the teacher fulfiled - that of giving instruction, that of the democratic strategist, and that of therapist. It must not be forgotten that the teacher still fulfils the first of these, though no longer in the authoritarian manner which Bagley might have indicated as being common in 1917. More recent work has merely emphasized the importance of the other two roles which the teacher fulfils. She is no longer so much an instructor as the organizer of activities conducive to the acquisition of knowledge and skills; she is no longer a chief endowed with uncontested authority but an experienced advisor, collaborator and trainer.

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[1] W.C. Trow, A.E. Zander, W.C. Morse and D.H.Jenkins, "Psychology of Group Behaviour: The Class as a Group, "A.P. Coladarci (ed.), Educational Psychology (New York: Dryden, 1955) p. 238-241.

This carries the implication that the teacher must be led to adopt these roles; to be so moulded that her personality can find it congenial to take on these roles in a more than adequate manner. It is also evident that those individuals who already possess certain personality characteristics will find less internal strain in adopting these roles, than will others with different personality characteristics. The selection and education of teachers should be carried out with these thoughts in mind. Selection should seek to exclude those whose personality characteristics are such as to make it highly improbable that they could make the necessary adjustment in the time which is allotted to teacher training; for the others, the kind and variety of training must be such that more or less successful adjustment to these forecast roles are achieved.

The Selection of Candidates for Teaching

Since the teacher's personal qualities are regarded as constituting the prime factor in activity education, it then becomes essential to apply the necessary measures to ensure a selection of candidates, in accordance with the principle set out above. One may well say that such a selection is difficult when the number of candidates is lower than the number of teachers needed but perhaps a more strictly adhered to selection policy would enhance the teacher's professional status and cause more desirable candidates to apply for entrance. Whilst highly rigorous selection is not advocated, then, the less rigorous the selection, the greater the onus carried by the training process.

Success in teaching depends upon many factors; long work by Barr[2] and his associates has not unravelled them all. Above average intelligence is one of the requirements; otherwise, the teacher will not be resourceful

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[2]A.S. Barr, The Measurement and Prediction of Teacher Effectiveness (Madison, Wisconsin: Dembar, 1961).

enough to incorporate pupil contribution into the development of the lesson topic and to guide class discussions so that maximum learning will take place. With the older type of formal lesson in which the teacher did all the talking and drilled his students, many teachers who had average or below average ability were often rated as good teachers. Today, with a demand for creative and challenging teaching, a higher degree of intelligence is required. In the past, intellect and intelligence were confused; by increasing knowledge one hoped to increase intellect. But intelligence is nurtured and improved by what it utilizes. It is but one of the personal attributes of a teacher.

For too long the achievement of certain academic standards has been the main, if not the sole, criterion for admission to teacher-training institutions with little or no assessment of the candidate's reasons for wanting to teach, emotional orientations toward children, or general stability of personality. Although there is some experimentation in this area, the means by which the likely are sorted from the unlikely are still in the experimental stage. Characterological tests, a variety of projective techniques, skillfully-conducted interviews based on a biography or personal case history, the consideration of school records along with carefully supervised trial periods (selection and training should be seen as interrelated parts of a continuous process throughout the professional programme) should all aid in the production of teachers whose personality characteristics predicate emotionally healthy relationships with children.

In England, the Emergency Training Scheme[3] in the years 1945-1952 used many of these devices,and above average intelligence, literacy and healthy human relationships were considered more important than formal academic training, at the selection stage.

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[3]A.T. Hill, "The Emergency Training Scheme for Teachers in England and Wales," (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Columbia University, 1949).

The results of these selective procedures, even if they do not ensure a durable forecast (there are too many factors occurring in every individual's life which may change behaviour or invalidate an assessment) nevertheless offer the possibility of making diagnoses which are sufficiently reliable to prevent certain individuals with obvious character deficiencies from taking up teaching.

The Education of Student Teachers

It is a widely accepted view that a training college should be concerned not with training by itself but with the education of the whole person and the hall-mark of the good teacher is maturity of personality. As Jacks has put it, "the teacher of today must be the teacher of the whole man and he can never be this unless he is a whole man himself . . . . "[4]

Teachers in training are by and large either in late adolescence or early adulthood and the present conduct of our whole educational system results in the majority of students being still very immature persons at the beginning of their training. They are supposedly well-equipped with knowledge which can be shown in examinations and are as a consequence likely to be verbally biased. For that reason opportunities must be provided where personality growth, in the desired direction, may be facilitated.

If the first objective of the training course should be to assist students to achieve a satisfactory degree of personal maturity and to come to terms with themselves, the personal development of the student will have to be the core of teacher education.[5] To date, however, research on competencies has been unable to isolate any common trait or practice of good teachers.[6] This failure in itself demonstrates an important fact -

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[4] Jacks, op.cit., p.144.

[5] W.F. Bruce and A.J. Holden, The Teacher's Personal Development (New York: Henry Holt, 1957).

[6] P. Vernon, "The Psychological Traits of Teachers," R.H.Hall, et. al., (eds.), The Year Book of Education 1953 (London: Evans, 1953) p. 51-75.

that the good teacher is a unique personality.

Teacher education programmes must therefore concern themselves with persons rather than competencies. This means that the individualization of instruction which we seek for the Junior School pupil must be applied to teacher education programmes. Such should produce creative individuals, capable of shifting and changing to meet the demands and opportunities afforded in their daily tasks. This type of individual will not behave in any set way, her behaviour adjusting continually and smoothly to the needs of her students and to her situations, purposes and the methods and material at her command.

Personal development, in this content, does not imply any overwhelming concentration on the internal life of the student, but it does imply the need for a degree of self-knowledge, insight and self-acceptance - all of which, in their turn, contribute towards a greater potential for perceptive response towards, and an understanding and acceptance of, other people.[7] Reasonably conceived, this development takes place through interchange and dialogue with the world of things, people and ideas. As Jersild[8] has indicated, it is a complex process of growth which is single, continuous and organic. What is more, every part of it affects every other part.

It would be a mistake, however, to think that in the education of teachers personality development is the one and only thing that matters or that this can take place in a vigorous way unless other important things are happening too. The student has to learn to make new adjustments with the whole of herself, not only her intellect. Adjustment thus conceived is a continuing process throughout her lifetime.

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[7] M.M. Kay, "Teaching for Mental Health: Helping Students to Know Themselves," The New Era in Home and School, XLVIII, Number 1 (January, 1967) p.9.

[8] A.T.Jersild, When Teachers Face Themselves (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1955).

With these provisos, it is now possible to discuss the difficult and complex problem of developing a person; attention being confined to suggesting some of the more important emphases and a few of the possible lines that might be considered in planning the education which should produce teachers able to utilize the activity approach in their own classrooms.

There are two main spheres of endeavour in which students may be engaged to aid in the promotion of maturity and for the development of their personalities. The first relates to the nature of the knowledge and skills which they must acquire during the course of their training. The second exists in the methods which the teachers of teachers employ in their work. Confident teachers will not be produced by talking about it or perhaps even by generous verbal encouragement but through an increase of knowledge and skill in dealing with certain kinds of situations. Two kinds of knowledge ought therefore to prepare students for their role of classroom teacher.

The first is general education. The activity approach to teaching demands greater knowledge both of subjects and of the world at large than the more conventional type of teaching by lesson or lecture. General education is designed to develop the knowledge, attitudes and skills that should be the common possession of educated persons as individuals and as citizens in a changing society. Such an experience should offer a broad view, rather than a comprehensive survey, of the areas of knowledge in the humanities, the social sciences and the natural sciences, and provide a basis from which further growth becomes possible. Since the experiences of general education are designed for the student, they must begin with the student where he is, and have due regard for his problems, his

interests, and his previous experiences. They must sensitize him to new problems, awaken him to new interests and lead him to embrace new experiences. Often referred to as 'liberal', this type of education has as its purpose the liberation of the mind from the shackles of prejudice and superstition and the confines of a single culture. It permits one to move freely in the past and the present, and to speculate with one's fellowmen about the future.

The second aspect of personal development must also relate to professional education. As in other professions, there are in teaching two strictly professional types of knowledge which those practicing it must possess. On the one hand, there should be the theoretical part which would enable the teacher to deal with the philosophical, psychological, sociological and pedagogical problems which are peculiar to his profession. On the other hand, there should be a strong and carefully planned programme of practical work, the equivalent of supervised clinical practice, along with instruction in techniques of teaching, curricular design, educational materials and evaluation and measurement of results. Bruce and Holden[9] have indicated briefly the relation of general and professional education to the personal development of a teacher, but space precludes the full discussion of how personal development can be fostered in each and every one of these courses; it will be sufficient to consider briefly the value of three of the major education courses.

The course which, according to Wall,[10] can most influence the growth of the student is the course in the psychology of education. In the traditional training establishments this course is usually theoretical and is often regarded by the students as having little application either

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[9]Bruce and Holden, op.cit., p.221-222.

[10]W.D. Wall, Education and Mental Health, (Paris: UNESCO, 1955) p.265.

to themselves or to children. It is more important that a teacher should understand herself and be sympathetic to children than that she should have at her finger tips a systematized body of knowledge on learning theory.

Psychological insight is not easily gained from books and from lectures. It demands close practical experience in which the whole personality is involved. Hence the core of the course in psychology should be the continued, guided and detailed study of individual children, and of children in small groups, supplemented by some examination and observation of one's self and one's contemporaries.

Around this guided experience, the more systematic study of psychology may be readily built. Time can be saved by giving essential factual information in the form of duplicated notes, bibliographies and suggestions for study. The course itself can then be concentrated upon three main areas: social psychology - stressing the development of interpersonal and intergroup relations with particular reference to the family group, the play group, the psychology of the classroom and of the school as a society; a thorough survey of child and adolescent development - with special emphasis on emotional growth, and on the particular significance of early childhood and adolescence; and finally, a study of the dynamics of human personality - including some outline of the psychology of the unconscious which is clearly necessary to an understanding of the problems of behaviour and adjustment.

Such a course tactitly leads a student to gain insights into her own attitudes; indeed some students choose to make retrospective studies of themselves or of each other instead of a child - study, thus learning to relate to the child in themselves. The idea is not to make the students morbidly introspective nor to train them as therapists, but to lead them to become at least to some degree 'transparent to themselves' so that they

can begin to free themselves from their own illusions and deal realistically with the fantasies of their charges.

Some years ago the Journal of Educational Psychology[11] carried a series of provocative articles showing how the teaching of educational psychology could be related to personal and professional development; the time may well have come for another well-planned series.

There has been much discussion of late concerning the importance of the study of the sociology of education in teacher-training programmes. In general, it is now agreed that such a course can contribute to the student's personal education by making her aware of the interplay of societal forces upon the development of her own personality, life chances and values. By means of verbalizing and exploring the social folk-lore that every individual incorporates as the result of having lived in a family, community and society with specific attitudes and mores, the student gains insight into the origins and nature of his own values and social behaviour.[12] Such a study can also give the student an appreciation of the role of scientific method in the study of social life, to make clear that many of our social and educational judgements are made only at the level of unsubstantiated hypotheses, and to indicate the methods that may be employed to obtain more adequate and personal explanations.

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[11] J.E. Horrocks, "Methodology and Training in Educational Psychology," The Journal of Educational Psychology (1949-1951).

[12] W.Taylor, "The Sociology of Education in the Training College," Education for Teaching, Number 54 (February, 1961) p.45-9.

The course in the philosophy of education should enable teachers to discover for themselves a sense of the depth of living which is the attaining of education.[13] The idea is not to give the teacher a ready-made philosophy. It is not enough merely to voice the phrases and slogans of educational theory. The teacher must experience them for herself. Philosophical thinking must be hard thinking; but more than that, it must be the activity of the person. This is said to be the key to everything. Thinking is characteristic of a person who feels, values and acts in every kind of way. Hard thinking makes the teacher what she would otherwise never become, for it subtly affects everything she does. In the past, more attention has been given to examining what philosophers have said; to classifying philosophers by the kinds of philosophy they presented, realist, idealist, pragmatist, and so on. Perhaps a better style will emerge from a fuller consideration of a single important problem, as for example Nash's treatment of Authority and Freedom in Education.[14]

The other half of the professional course consists, in the main, of instruction in the techniques of teaching along with practical experience in the classroom. Often presented as though techniques had virtue of their own,apart from the individual teacher who had found some preferred ways of guiding her pupils, it is impossible to consider this aspect of the teacher training programme apart from a discussion of the methods employed by the teachers of teachers because the way in which a course is presented is as important as the content. This topic will therefore be treated in the next section.

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[13] E. Best, "Common Confusions in Educational Theory, "R.D.Archambault (ed.), Philosophical Analysis and Education (London: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1965) p.49.

[14] P. Nash, Authority and Freedom in Education (New York: Wiley, 1966).

Though much may be achieved through courses of lectures, discussions and observations such as have been outlined above, there are other methods which should be incorporated in a training aimed at the personal development of the students. Educational situations can be arranged so as to activate, release, feed and heal. Whatever procedure is in use at any one time will depend partly on the work being done and partly on the needs of the students themselves.

The personal development of each individual student calls for a programme in which differences are valued and encouraged, where wide choices are available, and where personal decisions are met with respect and admiration. There must be freedom to look at and try almost anything. In fact, students must be encouraged to take progressively more responsibility for their courses until towards the end they plan them largely themselves. To produce this kind of situation will require the careful analysis of programmes for the elimination of barriers that lie in the path of student exploration and the active encouragement of difference and choice. Classrooms need to be seen as laboratories for trying, erring , reworking and trying again.[15]

Informed criticism of the course and of tutors should be encouraged and at certain stages even rebellion may be found valuable so that the student can become aware of the processes going on within herself, that is, learning to discriminate between rational and emotionally induced criticism.

The whole purpose of such techniques is to strengthen the ego in its work of making choices and accepting responsibility in contrast to the older 'super-ego' type of training based largely on introjection of external standards. By this means the individual is helped to develop

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[15] J.W. Tibble, "The Education of Teachers," The Journal of Education (January, 1956) p.11.

all her potentialities, to grow from her own roots, to find herself and discover that inner security which frees her from compulsive dependence upon the opinion of society.[16]

No one can develop fully except in relation to a free group. Hence, since socialization and individuation go hand in hand, stress must be laid on group life as much as on individual development. Tutorial discussion groups[17] in a large college provide the necessary intimate unit in which each student is known well as a person and the shyest feels she is valued. The family set-up provides that feeling of belonging which is so necessary to give a sense of emotional security. In this informal environment students can exchange experiences and learn to understand themselves and each other. Sibling problems can be worked out in relation to other students and parent problems in relation to the tutor. A wise tutor can help an immature student to free herself from too severe an attachment to parents, for example, by playing deliberately the necessary forms of parental role as required. Throughout the course she may purposely adopt different roles, according to need, ranging from that of the strong leader providing information, advice, inspiration and encouragement, to the colleague who shares equally in discussion, the guide, the detached observer or the servant of the group. In this, she is training them by using her own personality as an example. This change of roles precipitates awareness in the student of the deeper principles involved in the idea of 'teacher'. A great deal depends upon the experience and the insight of the tutor. It is her function to make sure that the

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[16] Wall, op.cit., p.267

[17] M. Swainson, "The Training of Teachers and Their Mental Health," The New Era in Home and School, Vol. 33, No. 10 (December, 1952) p.254.

students are gaining awareness of these matters exactly when they become ready for them.

Another type of group discussion must be considered here. Instead of the main work consisting of several full-scale lecture courses, students can form themselves into groups according to their choice of subjects and prepare papers on topics selected by their lecturers. These would be read and discussed by the group. The staff lecture on the chosen topics would then follow the work done by students. The importance of this approach lies in the fact that all the members of the group have a responsibility for relevant thinking, for fresh ideas, for independent judgement in agreeing or disagreeing than have the individuals of an audience at a lecture.[18]

Activity groups differ from purely discussion groups in that they tend to be more closely structured, the group working actively towards some practical end, for example,a survey or project. In such a co-operative group some neurotic traits born of a competitive environment are found to die away. Shy students come to feel that they have an essential contribution to make to the group; potential rebels find that the group puts them into positions of responsibility, and those with inferiority-superiority patterns can relax and be blessedly ordinary. The centre of consciousness begins to shift from the individual to the group. If the group structure is fairly fluid the student learns to take any role which he sees to be necessary to the whole. Status is perceived to be merely a dress for specific occasions. She therefore begins to question her previous valuation of human beings according to their status, and this goes a long way in helping to sort out reality from fantasy in her image of herself as a teacher.[19]

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[18] P. Gurrey, Education and the Training of Teachers (London: Longmans, 1963) p.62-63.

[19] Swainson, op.cit., p.255.

Learning is an active process in which the learner must be highly involved. It will be recognized that the procedures just outlined are not unlike those which ought to be utilized by the active Junior School teacher. Nor should they be unlike. If teacher education institutions hope to persuade young teachers to accept the activity concept as a basis for the organization of their own work then they must use it with their students rather than resort to methods which they themselves condemn. Merely to lecture at teachers-in-training, even with the ideas of the new education, will not get very far. What must be done is to design the preparation of teachers on something like an activity programme using purposeful activity as the basis.

Many class activities in teacher training can be planned and conducted in harmony with the activity concept so that students may see in their own learning experiences successful procedures of this nature. The college's aim should not be to give the apprentice teacher hints and tips in classroom techniques and provide models for imitation but rather to help her to discover her own best way of doing things, to find her own style and mode of working.

It is important to note at this point that the foregoing outline of studies has not been intended to promote the uncritical or competitive accumulation of knowledge. Rather, it has been to study the application of theories and generalizations to common conditions and to day by day actualities.

Furthermore, education must be conceived as a total educational experience leading to entry into the teaching profession. It must be a unified experience in which liberal education, professional study and practical experiences are truly related, and play an important role in the development of a teacher's personal qualities.

The Implications for the Teachers of Teachers

In every discussion about teacher training, regard must be had to the qualities of the staff of the training college. Stress has been laid throughout that the application of principles to practice takes place through the transforming medium of personality and personal action. From this it follows that the quality and vitality of the teachers of teachers will more than anything else determine the quality of the professional education which their students will receive.

Instructors must first of all have a clear conception of what the activity approach entails and whether as individuals they can live up to its tenets. They must also be able to provide opportunities and stimulus for the minds of their students to conceive ideas and to follow these wherever they lead. The complementary problem, which is especially urgent for the lecturer with an active mind, is to restrain her own interest and expression so that the students' minds may conceive ideas and express the results. The duty of the educationist is not to think for men but to enable them to think for themselves. This has been clearly stated in the Preface to the English Handbook of Suggestions for Teachers. If throughout school, high school, and college they have not done this, it will be difficult to do so as teachers.

All of this implies a constructive use of the teaching of psychology, of the whole atmosphere of the training college and of the methods employed and makes great demands upon the personality, maturity and skill of instructors. It may be, therefore, that many of them will need opportunities for development of their own personal characteristics. One is not far from the therapeutic community.[20]

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[20]C.J. Leuba, Personality, Interpersonal Relations and Self-Understanding (Columbus, Ohio: Merrill, 1962).

CHAPTER VII

THE ACTIVITY APPROACH IN ENGLAND

It was thought, originally, that by correspondence with official educational associations, with training colleges, and with individual members of the education profession in England, it would be possible to obtain some information about the extent to which the terms 'activism' or 'activity' were used in England. It was further thought that it would be possible to find out from the training colleges the source of students' ideas about activity from reading, from lectures, from discussions, from individuals specially concerned with the constellation of attitudes and ideas which are believed to be represented in the term. From the information so obtained it was postulated that an examination of the same sources, would make it possible to discover what some, or many, teachers understood by the term. Naively, as it turned out, it was then thought possible to make arrangements to have groups of teachers, in certain areas of England and Wales, report, on a questionnaire and check list, their estimates of the extent of their individual adherence to some central ideas, to some peripheral ideas, and to some practices which could be clearly identified as the English interpretation of activity methods.

It was realized from the outset that the probable return from correspondence would not exceed sixty per cent. This occurred as predicted. In reply to the fifty-two letters sent, some thirty replies

were received. Nearly all the official organizations replied (nine out of the eleven addressed), but the return from the training colleges (sixteen out of thirty-two) and from individuals (five out of nine) was somewhat lower. At first sight, this may not be surprising. However, it must be realized that the individuals and colleges were not just a random selection. They were chosen because some previous contacts had been established with the individuals, and with members of the training college staffs. They were chosen so that information might be reasonably expected to be forthcoming, so that at an early stage the literature, at least, on which English students were nourished, if, indeed, they were found to read material which would support an activist approach, could be obtained, and search made for what English teachers and students would consider the roots of activity.

Some information indicated that English educators were still influenced by the writings of Comenius, Rousseau, Froebel and Pestalozzi, and that students in English teacher training colleges were expected to become familiar with the points of view expressed by these writers. This confirmation of other opinion formed the basis of Chapters two and three above, where the writings were scrutinized. It was there demonstrated that the models which they proposed were less than adequate for a complete rationale for the implementation of a system of education. If this were as far as the English students went, then it must be obvious that much would be lacking in their training.

If it was a disappointment that the proportion of replies was not greater than the usual, it was an even greater disappointment to find that the questions were not understood, and some were evaded, apparently with deliberation. Thus, on occasion, even a request for the titles of books in the college library which would be relevant,

and which the students in training might have read, was met with a polite refusal - certainly with a refusal. Only as the enquiry progressed did it become apparent that the term 'activity' was so diffuse, so wide in its range of connotations, that there must be a presumption of anxiety on the part of respondents lest they say something, or give a definition, to which others might take exception. Oddly enough the one reply which could be called frank and open came from an official in the Ministry of Science and Education, who must remain nameless.

Perhaps the greatest reluctance was on the part of the staff of training colleges. As is well known each training college falls within the general jurisdiction, as to training and standards, of one of the universities, or rather of an Institute of Education of one of the Universities. Even where it was possible to have the Directors of these Institutes approached, so as to bring some indirect pressure to bear on the staffs of the affiliated training colleges, this did not always produce replies.

As a result of all this, the information about the activity approach in England was much scantier than had been anticipated. It produced some of the information required - for example, which educators and philosophers were associated in the minds of English teachers, with the background of the activity movement. What has been provided is discussed below.

In general, three major questions were asked, but the form of the questions and the form of the enquiry perforce changed as the enquiry continued. The three major questions dealt with the interpretation given to activity, the extent to which such methods were employed in

the Junior School, and finally, questions relating to the way in which teachers were trained, so that they (the teachers) would feel this was the most desirable approach. (The questions asked, and the replies received are given in an appendix - though the names of some respondents have been removed, out of courtesy. An asterisk before the name indicates that a reply was received).

Fourteen replies dealt with the use of the term 'activist' or 'activity' in England. Some respondents were either unsure about or had not met the word activism (Charlotte Mason, University of London, Stockwell) while others declared that activism was not used (A.C.E., N.F.E.R., Department of Education and Science). Activism is probably better known as 'activity' (A.C.E.), though this word is itself "used guardedly because of the possible misinterpretation as 'doing as you please," (Gipsy Hill). The more accepted terminology appears to be the 'discovery' (P.N.E.U.) or 'developmental' approach (Department of Education and Science).

Defining 'activity' seemed troublesome. It was felt that "the interpretations of this phrase are as many and varied as the schools themselves" (London) and that "it would be given meaning according to the personality and experience of the individual "(Gipsy Hill). Also suggested, on the one hand, were the facts that this was an approach in which "the child's own interests and knowledge of the environment are enlisted" (All Saints, A.T.C.D.E.) and that with activity methods "pupils are provided individually and in groups with situations where they are able to experiment with concrete objects ... but with skilled direction and interaction from the teacher" (Dockray). On the other hand, it was held that this was "not a method but an attitude to learning and to

children participating" (Stockwell). Single replies indicated that activity meant learning through: "being active" (Sidney Webb), "personal involvement" (Southampton), "active doing and thinking" (Stockwell), "allowing children to find out for themselves" (Charlotte Mason), "exploration" (Froebel) and "allowing children to think for themselves" (Charlotte Mason).

Twelve replies dealt with the extent to which activity methods are used in England. While no reliable statistics are available (Rachel McMillan, N.F.E.R., N.U.T., Department of Education and Science), the inspired guesses of a number of respondents indicated that although "many schools only pay lip service to this" (Charlotte Mason, London), there are "in many areas ... experiments in free activities and the discovery approach" (P.N.E.U., Southlands) and that "a very usual situation is a state of affairs in which all teachers are using these ideas and principles in some way from 'wholly to partly' " (N.F.E.R.). The most optimistic of the replies went so far as to suggest that "active participation by pupils is now absorbed into everyday practice, everywhere" (Dent, Dockray), but it seems likely that there is more accuracy in the conservative opinion of an official in the Department of Education and Science who states that "between a quarter and a third of the nation's Junior Schools have accepted developmental principles wholeheartedly; at least another quarter are experimenting with them. Not more than a quarter of the schools ... adhere mainly to the more formal approach."

In the data which relate to whether or not training colleges prepare their students for the activity approach, five affirmative replies were received (All Saints, Charlotte Mason, Southlands,

Stockwell, Southampton). In addition to these, other respondents said: "yes, but not exclusively" (Gipsy Hill) and that they upheld "no one educational approach" for the aim of their work was to enable students to "evolve their own aims and methods based on study" (Charlotte Mason, Sidney Webb). The response from individuals and associations was an almost unanimous "all colleges prepare teachers to employ this approach" (A.T.C.D.E., Department of Education and Science, Dockray, N.F.E.R.). The exception was the reply which stated that "nearly all" colleges did so (A.C.E.).

Although the colleges agreed that "no text book is prescribed ... and no syllabus commanded" (Charlotte Mason, Gipsy Hill), that the course is "flexible and alters in some part every year" (Southampton) and that "colleges present their own schemes of work and treat those topics from whatever point of view they please" (Dockray), it was possible from the data received to develop a list of the subjects mentioned and in some cases give an indication of their content. It is as follows: Educational Psychology - (Charlotte Mason, Dockray, Southampton) which may include a study of the theories of learning, individual differences and developmental psychology (Gipsy Hill and Department of Education and Science), the needs of children (A.T.C.D.E., Southlands), the observation of children and the research done by Piaget, Isaacs, Tanner and Bruner (Sidney Webb); the Philosophy of Education - (Charlotte Mason, Sidney Webb, Southampton, Southlands) which may include a study of both the child - centred philosophies of Comenius, Rousseau, Froebel and Pestalozzi, and the intellectualist approach of Herbart (Dockray, Gipsy Hill); the History of Education - which usually involves a study of the Education Acts and the Ministry's Reports (Dockray, Southlands);

Sociology - (Department of Education and Science, Dockray, Southampton); and, Practical Courses - in creative drama, creative writing and mathematics (Southampton).

Among the various methods which colleges claimed to use in training teachers were the following: lectures (Charlotte Mason, Southampton, Southlands), discussion (All Saints, Charlotte Mason, Dockray), tutorials (Southampton), private reading (All Saints, Charlotte Mason), written work (Dockray), seminars conducted by students (Dockray, Southampton), demonstrations (Southlands), experimental situations (Southampton), teaching practice (All Saints, Charlotte Mason, Southampton, Southlands), taking charge of a play centre (Charlotte Mason), films (Southampton), television programmes such as the B.B.C.'s series entitled 'Discovery and Experience' (Southlands), field studies (Southampton), and, visits to hospitals and schools for the handicapped (Southampton). Several other pertinent facts concerning the methodology adopted in training colleges must be included here. They are that "an attempt is made to achieve a close link between theory and practice" (A.T.C.D.E., Department of Education and Science); that "less emphasis is placed on examinations and more on evidence of real understanding and practical expression of underlying principles" (Dockray); that the "stress ought to be on 'How do children learn?' rather than on 'How do I teach?' "(Southampton); that "students ought to be actively engaged themselves" (Southampton); and, finally, that "the course must be adapted to the personal needs of the students" (Southampton).

Had the replies shown a greater consensus, it was then hoped to draw up a questionnaire and a check list. Co-operation of a sample of training colleges would then have been sought, as well as approval from official bodies concerned with education and teacher training, to obtain from them the names and addresses of recent graduates to whom the questionnaires could have been mailed. This should have provided the main source of information both as to the extent of activity methods in Junior Schools in England, and the way in which newly qualified teachers felt that they had profited or otherwise from their own training in applying such methods in the schools. It can only be concluded that such a method is unlikely to yield tangible results at this time. Perhaps only an individual training college, committed to an activity approach, both as a means of training teachers as well as a means of providing opportunities for maximum growth in children, could conduct such a research over a number of years. The other solution would involve a lengthy stay in England with many, many opportunities for detailed study of a great number of classrooms. As it was, the original plan had to be foregone. Nevertheless some useful information has been obtained, and may prove to be the basis of further studies in this area.

In discussing the information that was obtained, the first point that must be made concerning the results just presented is that the term 'activism' is not used in England. Six of the fourteen respondents failed to offer any comment on its use; three were unsure about its meaning; three stated quite flatly that it was not used; two equated it with activity; while one suggested it was called a 'discovery' approach. No doubt the most authoritative source was the official in

the Department of Education and Science who believed that:

> The term which best indicates the sort of approach that you are interested in in our parlance is probably 'developmental'. The essence of developmental education is that it starts from the nature and characteristics of the children ....

The second point to be made is that 'activity' has been construed as a theory of learning, a method and an attitude toward learning. It appears that there is no general agreement concerning an interpretation of activity until the English views are compared with the ideas concerning activity which were presented earlier. In actual fact, each of the correspondents stresses what is merely one aspect of the total concept. When all of these points of view are collated, the end result is very similar indeed to the outline of the principles of activity presented in chapter five above.

There is also a lack of agreement amongst English educators concerning the extent to which the activity approach has been adopted in the Junior Schools. Several replies stated emphatically that no statistics on the adoption of the activity approach are available. Most respondents, however, proferred inspired guesses as to the true state of affairs. These range all the way from the suggestion that many pay "mere lip service to the ideals of activity" to the statement that such methods are now "commonplace" and "absorbed into everyday practice everywhere". An intermediate viewpoint is the possibility of there being degrees of acceptance. The statement by the official in the Department of Education and Science seems to confirm this fact.

The differences in opinion evident in each of the above areas can, in all probability, be attributed to the fact that English teachers are given the freedom to use whatever materials and methods they choose in presenting the courses of study or schemes of work in their own classrooms. (It will be recalled that while there are no state enforced courses of study, nor even courses prescribed by Local Education Authorities, each school does set up for itself some such course of study or scheme of work.) It is likely, however, that certain other factors must also be taken into account. In the first place, the English are a conservative people who are cautious about such professional plagues as tags, stunts and over-eager enthusiasts. 'Activity' conjures up in many minds the idea of complete freedom and the resulting chaos and purposelessness which was characteristic of numerous early attempts to practice the activity approach. Aside from this difficulty, there is the problem of finding adequately qualified teachers who are not lacking in interest and understanding of the activity approach; of the system of competitive external examinations for secondary school selection which still has such a cramping effect in many schools; and, finally, there are the economic and administrative difficulties which lie behind the large classes, inadequate equipment and poor premises which continue to exist in many areas of the country. In the second place, there is the possibility that the use of the term 'activity' has gone out of vogue now that more scientific evidence is available on which to base a theory of education. Dent implies this in his statement that "the original 'activist' approach has been 'refined' by adding to itself the works of Piaget, Isaacs, Gardner and a great deal of common sense from practicing teachers." It was Evans, however, who gave some indication of how these advances had affected life in the Junior School.

He explained that in recent years an attempt had been made to introduce such innovations as heterogeneous grouping, family grouping (all ages and abilities put together), and new methods in reading (ita and words-in-colour) and mathematics (Cuisenaire and Dienes apparatus). Arts, crafts and drama, he believed, could now take their rightful place in the curriculum. Confirmation of these facts, particularly as they relate to the teaching of mathematics, came from the Director of the Institute of Education at the University of Southampton, who is nominally responsible for the standards and work of the training colleges in that area. He described the Mathematics Teaching Project, sponsored by the Nuffield Foundation, in which children between the ages of five and thirteen years in certain pilot areas are enabled to build up on their experiences and experiment to make sense of the world around them. (Subsequently, he has accepted a joint appointment as Director of Research of the Schools Council for the Curriculum and Examinations, which is supported in its experiments by the Nuffield Foundation, and Professor of Educational Research at the University of Reading. This is the first direct involvement of the Department of Education and Science in an appointment to a University Chair of Education, and is indicative of the interest now being displayed by both bodies in such research.) It is worth noting that information concerning the research referred to above is being disseminated in Canada by Elliott of the Royal Military College, Kingston, Ontario. Also notable, but largely unknown, is the fact that Dienes, who was unable to gain widespread acceptance of his apparatus in England, is presently spreading information about his approach to mathematics amongst French-speaking educators in this Province under the auspices of the University of Sherbrooke.

As for the question of whether students are trained to employ the activity approach, the almost unanimous response was that all training colleges do so. Those colleges which claim to present a variety of approaches, rather than that of activity exclusively, do so because they believe that student teachers must be encouraged to develop mature judgement in the choice of methods they wish to employ. This is based upon the assumption that only mature members enter the teaching profession, and that in the profession teachers will come to employ methods suited specifically to the purpose envisaged by the teacher, suited to the needs of the children, and to the particular situation existing between teacher and children. An insistence upon a single approach would lead to a stereotype and run counter to some of the basic assumptions attributed to activist principles. While only two replies made it quite clear that colleges are not restricted to the confines of a static syllabus, this same fact was implied in all of the correspondence. Each college prints a calendar which indicates in the most general terms the outline of the course of training it proposes to offer. A scrutiny of such outlines shows that there is great similarity in the phrases and expressions used; however, each college and each lecturer within each college has the freedom to develop his own ideas, and introduce his own variations, within such very liberal outlines. There was an indication that colleges do present a similar selection of courses. They include: Educational Psychology, History of Education, Principles of Education, Sociology and Practical Courses in creative drama, creative writing and mathematics. Only a brief indication was given of what these courses contain but then, as pointed out above, each college would lay stress or emphasis on a different aspect. This means

that no two colleges use exactly the same texts and reading lists, though it became evident as the study progressed that the names of certain books appeared more frequently than others in the lists which were forwarded. These, in fact, formed the basic source of information in the preliminary search for the principles underlying the activity approach to teaching. No mention was made of what was referred to in chapter six as general or liberal courses, though it is well-known that most English teachers study a subject of their own choice to degree level, or some approximation to it. Only one respondent made reference to the adaptation of the college curriculum to the needs of the student. On the one hand, teacher training colleges in England are recognized as offering training for intending teachers of Infant schools, for Junior Schools, for Secondary Schools and so on; rarely does a college attempt to provide training for more than two of the foregoing. On the other hand, the student's own interests are presumed to be reflected in the choice of subject pursued to a high level. For the remaining subjects, students choose a limited number, and some of these, particularly in mathematics and English, are often presented at more than one level of sophistication. In a crude way, therefore, by restriction of the kind of training offered, but for some choice of subject matter specialization within this restricted framework, English colleges may well presume that they are, in fact, adapting their curriculum to the needs of their students.

To return to professional preparation, an important difference appears in the way these courses are said to be presented. Since the variety of approaches is broad, the same freedom which enables a college to choose its own syllabus also permits it to choose the methods whereby

it will present its courses. On this topic the replies from Gipsy Hill, Southampton and Southlands were the most detailed. The remaining answers may be referred to as 'beautifully vague' (a term borrowed from Dockray). The statement that "we are a very vague nation and it is extremely difficult to pin us down" seems applicable here, as does the reply from the National Foundation for Educational Research in which Sanderson imagined that "it is very difficult to say exactly how" teachers are trained. Apparently this is commonplace knowledge for the response from the official in the Department of Education and Science reported in an accepting way that "emphasis differs in colleges". It will be recalled that the Board of Education recommended no definite method but expected thinking teachers to use their freedom and initiative in developing their own methods. It even went so far as to suggest that uniformity of details in practice was not desirable even if it was attainable. All one can do, then, is to detect general trends and point to specific schools.

This unique freedom of English educations is defensible, however, only if teachers prove themselves equipped to meet demands which are increasingly exacting. The three year course, or any other scheme, is no more than a basis. In-service training provides a necessary superstructure. Accordingly, many colleges offer advanced certificates for candidates following such full or part-time courses as those offered at the Cambridge Institute of Education or the Institute of Education at London University (descriptions of which can be found in Appendix VIII). In addition to these courses, Whittaker described a number of evening, weekend and vacation-time courses sponsored by the Local Education Authorities or the Department of Education and Science. The extent and number of these courses is not well known outside England. Many of them are for extended periods and there is keen rivalry for admission. The

teachers are seconded to them, that is, they retain their teaching appointment, their salary continues to be paid by the Local Education Authority, which in turn is reimbursed by the Ministry. Admission to these courses is usually determined within the Ministry. Many English educators think that in-service guidance, support and further training are the most important aspects of teacher training. Whether the in-service training and guidance is afforded by locally appointed consultants or by Inspectors of the Ministry acting in a purely advisory capacity is not particularly important, though some would argue that in the majority of cases locally appointed advisors tend to be more restrictive than do those appointed by the Ministry. To one familiar with the North American scene, the number and range of opportunities available in England for such training and development seems woefully inadequate.

It has been shown that there is, in England, a system of schooling based on the freedom of the teacher. This freedom is such that no one shall interfere with the individual teacher's responsibility to teach the child as he sees fit. The implications of this freedom, as the presentation of the English data and the ensuing discussion of it have indicated, is widespread and renders impossible the task of describing precisely, at this distance, classroom practices and teacher training procedures.

One major result of the data collected in this study is to refute the hypothesis that activity flourishes in the Junior Schools of England. Certain other conclusions also emerge. It is not that 'activity' has so many different interpretations, as that English educators stress different aspects of it. Methods employed vary greatly because they are as much the expression of teachers' ideas as they are of any agreed theory of education. There is no standard pattern, only principles which can be applied by the teachers as and when considered appropriate and according to the needs of the particular case as evaluated by the teacher herself. There

is therefore no established orthodoxy to be demonstrated as a universally valid method. Each teacher must reach a personal solution to the particular aspect of the teaching which the staff and principal of a particular school have agreed as desirable in a scheme of work.

It seems likely that the original activist approach has been, as Dent has said, 'refined' by adding to itself what is understood of Piaget's work, the work of Isaacs, and Gardner, plus a lot of common sense from practicing teachers, which has largely purged the activity approach of its more 'licentious' aspects.

The Board of Education and its successors have held that the only uniformity of practice which it desires to see is that each teacher shall think for himself. It is therefore profitless to search for unity of thought or procedure in English education - none exists.

It was particularly pleasing to discover that none of the colleges indicated that lectures were the sole means of attempting to transmit teaching skills. On the other hand it was disappointing that only one college (Southampton) declared its use of a whole broad range of methods. The same college did indicate attempts to suit the course of studies to students' needs, to cause students to become actively engaged themselves, with the emphasis on 'How do children learn?' rather than on 'How do I teach?'

There is a diversity of approaches, arising from individually expressed viewpoints as to which aspects deserved to be stressed. If the diversity were to be taken as a total approach within a single college, so that here would be found opportunities for personal expression, some lectures, some discussions, some seminars and a freedom to seek relevant, and possibly significant, experiences, then such a total expression would

best indicate what would be the essential features of a scheme for training teachers by activity principles to become the teachers in activity schools. Perhaps such training colleges do exist in England; correspondence has not been able to elicit the names of them. The fault may lie in the approach taken in this study, or in the guarded nature of the responses made, or because many correspondents did not have the time to explain fully what they actually did. Certainly the response to the questions posed was something less than enthusiastic.

The hope may be expressed that the present study, far from uncovering much evidence, may stimulate others to seek better means for discovering what really takes place not only within the classrooms of the Junior Schools of England, but also within the teacher training colleges where students are 'prepared' to become teachers for service in such schools.

CHAPTER VIII

SUMMARY AND IMPLICATIONS

When in October 1964 the Royal Commission of Enquiry of the Province of Quebec submitted its second report, it introduced into the vocabulary of the professional educators and teachers of the Province the word 'activist', a word coined in part for the specific purpose of designating the special characteristics of the school envisaged for the Province. There was to be emphasis on the 'école active', and 'activist' was taken to be one "who adheres to the belief that meaning arises out of the active experience of the individual".[1] It soon became evident that the attempt to get away from some of the ambiguities associated by certain individuals with the use of the word 'activity' was not wholly successful, and a wide range of meanings, useful and useless, was becoming associated with the term 'activist'. Accordingly it was felt appropriate to consider some of the historical background of such a movement, if movement there was.

The Commission had foreseen that "the changes to be effected in our elementary schools are possible only in a new atmosphere".[2] To help secure this new atmosphere it advocated that:

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[1] Report of the Royal Commission of Inquiry on Education in the Province of Quebec (Quebec: Queen's Printer, 1964) Part II, Section 150, p.90.

[2] Ibid., Section 196, p.117.

> ... the Department of Education, and the teachers' organizations should, with the utmost care, select teachers that show the greatest interest in the methods of the activist school and send them to France, England, Switzerland, ... for several months' training.[3]

Certainly the teachers were to be at the heart of the proposed reforms, though a solution on many fronts was highly desirable. It was thought that some consideration of how teachers were trained in England, where they were presumed to practice 'activity methods', might be of value.

It had been the original intention to seek from a selected group of respondents some information on the extent to which these activity methods were used in England, and of the characteristics of the training programmes by which teachers were produced, who would in turn employ such methods. It was further thought that a detailed questionnaire could be drawn up, to seek, from the teachers themselves, information on the same topics. Unfortunately the kind of replies received, and the hesitations, and ambiguities of response, made such a course impossible. There were far too many connotations given to the word 'activity' for any questionnaire, which could be given to teachers, to be of much value. More attention was therefore devoted to a consideration of the writings of the various authors upon whom English educators were believed to have drawn, and continued to draw, inspiration for their own efforts. In the choice of names, and theories, reliance was placed upon the names supplied by respondents and those available in the educational literature of England.

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[3] Ibid., Section 197, p.117.

Attempts were then made to examine, in turn, what model of the child, of the teacher, and of the interaction between teacher and child, could be deduced from a critical reading of their publications. The writings of Comenius, Rousseau, Pestalozzi, Froebel and Herbart were therefore examined, before turning to examine those of Dewey, and later those of developmental psychologists, as well as those of the mental hygienists. Some of these were operating in an English context, though the others enjoyed an international reputation.

From the replies of respondents an attempt was made to assess the extent to which English educators believed that activity methods were employed, and how teachers were trained. It was found that the best estimate of the extent of the use of these methods lay between one quarter and one third of the schools, though a vast majority of the schools would be likely to apply some one or more of the tenets usually associated with the name. The influence of the developmental psychologists was found to be important, as well as those of the mental hygiene movement, sometimes in the writings of the same person. Nor could the more recent effect of Piaget be ignored. In addition, it was found that recent work on the structure of knowledge, leading to newer developments particularly in the field of mathematics, had had a profound effect, though more largely by virtue of the support of the Nuffield Foundation, and the people whom they had attracted into this kind of research and development.

As to the training, a great many elements were found, and nowhere was there an exclusive reliance on formal lectures and a minimum amount of practice in actual teaching situations. In fact, it was

concluded that were it possible to find in a single training college all the practices found singly, or in various combinations, in separate colleges, there would be the method, par excellence, of inducing individuals to go out with a belief and confidence in the methods of the activist school. It is from considerations such as these that some implications for the Province of Quebec seem to emerge.

The most salient point which emerges refers to the great personal freedom which the English teacher possesses. The old Board of Education, the Ministry of Education, and the Department of Education and Science, each in turn have stressed that the only uniformity which they desire to see among their teachers is that:

> ... each teacher shall think for himself, and work out for himself, such methods of teaching as may use his powers to the best advantage and be best suited to the particular needs and conditions of the school.[4]

From this single uniformity of thinking for themselves has arisen the great diversity of practices which are to be found in English schools.

But such diversity could not flourish unless other conditions within the educational scene were also productive of diversity. Two of these only need be mentioned here - the certification of teachers and the inspection of schools. There was a time when the whole operation of the certification of teachers rested with the Board of Education. Its Inspectors were responsible for examining the students during periods of practice teaching and awarding the final teaching mark. From 1925 onwards the Board announced its intention of withdrawing from the former, and reducing its contribution to the latter. At the same time that it was advocating freedom for its teachers, the Board was removing itself from the examining of students in training

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[4]Board of Education, Primary Education (London: H.M.S.O., 1959) p.9.

colleges. This examining power was then delegated to:

> ... bodies acting under the aegis of universities. These bodies were known as training college examination boards or delegacies, and they included members both of the staffs of the training colleges and of the staffs of universities.[5]

The function of His Majesty's Inspectors in the examination of practical proficiency took on, more and more, the function of external assessors and arbiters. After the report of the McNair Committee, Area Training Organizations were set up which brought the training colleges more directly into contact with the universities which became the controlling body, with the Ministry issuing a certificate as a formal confirmation of the decision of the Institute of Education. As to the other functions of His Majesty's Inspectors, these have increasingly become more and more that of advisors, who maintain liaison between one area of the country and another, and so help to spread innovation, and between schools and the Ministry so that a two way flow of information becomes possible.

Finally one should note that the present generation of parents and teachers were brought up in an atmosphere of freedom, and in schools which already possessed diversity. It is now easy for them to believe that no two schools should be alike, and that what happens in one school need not be identical with what happens elsewhere. Given this diversity, and the supporting framework in which it operates, it is permissible to speculate that only the extremely wide connotation which the English attach to the word 'activity' creates a single umbrella under which all varieties may find common shelter.

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[5] Richardson, C.A., Brûlé, H. and Snyder, H.E. The Education of Teachers in England, France and the U.S.A. (Paris: U.N.E.S.C.O., 1953) p.23.

Things are different in the Province of Quebec. The Commission pointed out that:

> ... the vicious circle will be broken only by giving greater freedom to the teaching personnel, and the risks involved must be accepted from the outset.[6]

At the same time, "prudence is essential".[7]

> This means that from the very beginning, a wide enough range of measures must be adopted to make the teaching personnel recognize that the time has come to turn the page and that this may now be done.[8]

So far, so good. However, one would have some hesitation about the particular methods advocated. There are certain pre-conditions to be observed. This involves not only the teachers, but the parents, the children, and the administrators. Something must be done to introduce diversity as a concept acceptable to parents who have been brought up in conformity; to change administrators who have been brought up to secure that conformity. In each case, too rapid change leads to anxiety producing situations and neurotic behaviour; too slow a rate only provokes attitudes of crisis and provocation in the schools. In England, this abrogation of power by the Board of Education was spread over twenty years, but it was a planned progression. In Quebec it should also be planned, but should be made with less time.

Little was done in England to prepare parents for educational change, at least until the war-time years. The desire for, and the pressure for change came from middle class groups. Certainly in Quebec these groups would need to be heavily involved in the necessity for change; to date most of the involvement has been at the administrative and professional level.

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[6] Report of the Royal Commission of Inquiry on Education in the Province of Quebec, Section 196, p.117.

[7] Ibid.

[8] Ibid., Section 199, p.118.

One of the first solutions advocated by the Commission was to send overseas those teachers who showed the greatest interest in the methods of the activist school. This is to suggest that those teachers whose constellations of attitudes are most favourable, are the ones whose behaviour patterns are most susceptible to further change. While this may be true, there is no evidence to support it, and some to deny it. Again, these would be the ones who would set up pilot schools, from which point innovations would spring and radiate outward to the rest of the Province. An excellent suggestion, but no precautions have been suggested to prevent innovation to be merely that of new techniques without new commitment. The Pestalozian, Froebelian and Herbartian movements will bear evidence of the acceptance of their techniques devoid of acceptance of their rationale. As will be hinted later, the adoption of some of the methods of the mental hygienists may help to overcome this weakness.

Whilst it is true that the Province must work through the existing teaching force, it may be instructive to consider the induction of new teachers before returning to problems of in-service training and re-training. The first essential must be that student teachers must experience for themselves in many ways the value of active learning. It is not possible to convince by enthusiasm, nor by lectures. The students must experience for themselves, and within themselves, the effects of change. Some research indicates that under present conditions a four year university course produces little or no change in the personality of the students. The mental hygienists claim better results for their processes. Accordingly the exploration of personal change must be sought in small groups, in discussion, in seminars, in practical activities, in sculpture, in movement, in art activities. There should be a basis of knowledge of

children and their development, intellectual as well as physical, but opportunities must be found for much observation of, and contact with children, against whom to test the validity of the material provided in such an intellectual manner. The experience of children growing up must be experienced, although at a pace greatly accelerated from that of the individual child. Just as the movie camera can speed up the sensation of watching a flower opening, so can controlled experiences with children speed up the experiencing of child development. As before, the weakness remains that techniques can be acquired without behavioural change. To obviate this one may need to re-examine these experiences with a tutor, or fellow student, in a quasi-therapeutic manner. As Freud believed that his patients could not be spared that part of a cure which entailed re-living the period of their lives which contained the roots of their neurotic behaviour, so students in training may need, from time to time, to be guided vicariously through their own re-experiencing of the growth process.

At least one further aspect of the activity methods must be seen as relevant also to the training of teachers. It would be difficult if not impossible for teachers to recognize the individual differences existing among their pupils if during their training they have not themselves been recognized as having individual differences. The most obvious instance of this applies to the length of the training programme and the diversity to be found within it. If it is necessary to have a single length of training, then it must be recognized that individuals will have reached different points of development at the end of it. (The alternative of varying lengths of training until a given stage of development has been reached seems unacceptable to many.) Therefore, the process must be seen as one of giving the best training for each individual, which can only be possible if differences are recognized

and deliberate provision made for different paths to be followed, different kinds of curricula, different kinds of experiences provided. The necessary corollary to a standard length of training time is that of a varying length of internship afterwards. Teachers must be supported in their early teaching experiences - a supportive atmosphere in the schools to which they are appointed; and continued contact with tutors from the training establishment, with support gradually being transferred to the school itself, and to the profession as a whole.

This returns the question to that of further in-service training. Again, the mental hygiene approach is the model suggested. After further experience with growing children, it is possible to help others to gain from their insights, as the Commission suggested, but more important is the option of re-experiencing and re-thinking their experiences with some other colleagues in a quasi-therapeutic exercise and association. Just as the earlier members of the New Education Fellowship used to meet to try for themselves experiences which they believed to be analagous to those of growing children, so similar opportunities must be provided from time to time for practicing teachers.

Nothing has yet been said about the necessity for teachers to maintain knowledge of the subject matter structure, nor of their need to participate in curricular change. In the situation which obtains in Quebec to day, as in a great many other areas of the world, these must be secondary to the production of attitudes and belief systems consonant with the type of school which it is hoped to create. Perhaps, for Quebec, the clearest implication of the study is to suggest that only by the application of more active methods in the training of teachers, and the willingness to take the risks involved - of the neurosis producing elements involved in rapid change, and possibly a reduction in the recruitment of teachers - will it be possible for the Province to take any serious steps to producing 'activist teachers' in the foreseeable future.

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APPENDIX

APPENDIX I

PEOPLE INTERVIEWED

Professor E.G.S. Evans
Department of Education
University of Southampton

Professor S. McNichol
Faculty of Education
McGill University

Professor F. Stinson
Faculty of Education
McGill University

Professor M. Wisenthal
Faculty of Education
McGill University

Professor R. Whittaker
Saint Paul's College
Cheltenham, England

Professor J. Wrigley
Director,
Institute of Education
University of Southampton

APPENDIX II

QUESTIONS DIRECTED TO OFFICIAL ORGANIZATIONS AND TRAINING COLLEGES

Official Organizations

1. What proportion of the nation's schools at the Junior level have accepted wholeheartedly and put into practice activist principles and techniques?

2. What proportion is experimenting with them?

3. What proportion adheres to the more formal approach and teaching techniques of pre-war days? Why is this so?

4. What proportion of teacher training colleges prepare students to employ this approach in the Junior Schools?

5. How do the colleges prepare students to employ this approach?

6. What syllabus do they use? What texts?

Training Colleges

1. What is your interpretation of the activist approach?

2. Does your college prepare students to employ this approach in the Junior Schools?

3. How do you train your students to do this?

4. Would you send me a copy of your syllabus and a list of the texts recommended to your students?

APPENDIX III

PERSONS, ORGANIZATIONS AND COLLEGES TO WHICH LETTERS WERE SENT

Individuals

* Dinah Brook (The Observer and Weekend Review)

* H.C. Dent (formerly of the Institute of Education, University of London)

* Doreen Dockray (lecturer at the University of Leeds)

The Editor of The Forum

H.T. Edwards (Institute of Education, University of Sheffield)

T.H.B. Hollins (Bulmershe Training College, N. Reading)

* G.A.N. Lowndes (Author of The English Educational System, 1961)

H. Stone (Wooley Hall, West Riding, Yorkshire)

* W.K. Richmond (Department of Education, The University, Glasgow)

Official Organizations

* Advisory Centre for Education (A.C.E.)

* Association of Teachers in Colleges and Department of Education (A.T.C.D.E.)

* County Councils Association

* Department of Education and Science

Head Teachers Association

National Association of Head Teachers

* National Foundation for Educational Research (N.F.E.R.)

* National Froebel Foundation

* National Union of Teachers (N.U.T.)

* North Western Regional Association of Education Officers

* Parents National Educational Union (P.N.E.U.)

* An asterisk indicates that a reply was received.

Training Colleges

* All Saints

Avery Hill

Battersea

Bishop Otter

Borough Road

* Brighton

* Cambridge Institute

* Charlotte Mason

Christ Church

* City of Portsmouth

Coloma

Digby Stuart

Eastbourne

* Froebel Educational Institute

* Furzedown

* Gipsy Hill

Goldsmiths

* Institute of Education, London University

Maria Grey

* Maria Montessori

* Philippa Fawcett

* Rachel McMillan

Redland

St. Gabriel's

St. Katharine's

College of S. Mark and S. John

* Sidney Webb

* Department of Education, University of Southampton

* Southlands

* Stockwell

Trent Park

Whitelands

APPENDIX IV

LETTERS CONCERNING ACTIVITY WRITTEN BY INDIVIDUALS

Mangrove Cottage,
Mangrove Road,
Hertford.

12th September, 1966.

Dear Mrs. Wyatt,

Thank you for your letter concerning the Nuffield Mathematics Teaching Project.

Please forgive me for not forwarding your letter to Miss Smyth. I thought it best to hand it to Dr. Geoffrey Mathews, who is the Project Organiser. He knows far more about training methods than Miss Smyth. He said that he will be writing to you.

With best wishes for your work.

Yours sincerely,

signed Dinah Brook.

Riccards Spring,
Whatlington,
Battle Sussex,

8th September, 1966.

Dear Reg,

Your letter of 26 July took some time to reach me, as I am no longer at London University; and then I was at Summer School and on holiday. Hence this delayed reply.

I simply do not know why colleges of education and the organizations to which your student wrote should fail to reply. The colleges are many of them in a flat spin, because of the new methods of overcrowding - 'Box and Cox'. Your students' questions 2 and 4 to colleges require somewhat lengthy answers. Probably no one could give exact answers to questions 1 - 4 addressed to organizations, and questions 5 and 6 in this group duplicate 2 and 4 in the colleges' list (where to my mind they properly belong). But none of these obstacles should, in my opinion, have prevented people on this side from sending some answer.

I would preface my reply by accepting your hypothesis that the original "activists" approach has been, I would say "refined" rather than 'overlaid' (and certainly not 'by-passed') by adding to itself Piaget (insofar as understood, which is not far), Isaacs, Dorothy Gardner, and a great deal of common sense from practising teachers, which has largely, purged it of its more licentious aspects. But what is fundamental, and so far more important, is that active participation by pupils is now absorbed into everyday practice everywhere. So (a) the answer to question 1 (college) is that all the colleges prepare their students for an Activist approach, but not for any one specific approach - though many are neo-Froebelian biassed; and (b) very few schools are now 'experimenting' with activity methods as such (though many will be experimenting with some new procedure or medium). So, because of (a) every college would give a slightly different answer to Q2 and Q4. My answer to Q1 (organizations) would be "a very large proportion" - but a much larger proportion at infant school level than at junior. (What exactly does your student mean by 'junior'?) To Q3 (org.) I would say 'very few', because 'fromality' today and in the 1930's are two very different matters.

I fear that this is not all that helpful. But with the freedom allowed in this country to class teachers

(Cont'd.)

(and to training colleges) I do not see how one can be precise. A head teacher moves; the school may under the new head have a completely new policy. Similarly with a training college. All one can do is to detect general trends and point to specific schools.

You mention 'Nuffield Support of Maths programme'; the matter is much more far-reaching. Our new Schools Council for the Curriculum and Examinations, supported in its experiments by Nuffield money (in general, Nuffield pays the organizers and for material made), is going places at a great rate: English, maths, science, foreign languages in primary schools, sixth form studies, 15-year old 'Newsom' pupils. Where this is leading is as yet anyone's guess, but mine is that the period of anarchic freedom is ended, and that before longer we shall have super-market syllabuses, and maybe methods. All good wishes.

Signed Harold Dent.

25 Crag Side,
Wilton Gilbert,
Durham, England.

11th July, 1966.

Dear Mrs. Wyatt,

We are a very vague nation and it is extremely difficult to pin us down. I'm enclosing the Leeds Institute of Education Handbook and other items you may find interesting. Our Institutes of Education are part of our universities but not Departments. They are responsible for education in their area but only as a consultative body. No English school has a prescribed syllabus or reading list and while many secondary schools cover similar ground (because of pressures from external examinations) no two schools will use the same texts, cover exactly the same ground or use similar teaching methods.

Our colleges present their own schemes of work to the Institute for approval and then are completely free to study those topics from whatever points of view they please. No two colleges will use the same text books and reading lists are the responsibility of individual lecturers. I shall provide my students with a background list of books but I shall expect them to cover much more ground and ferret out information from various sources for themselves.

In the Leeds handbook on p. 19 you will see how beautifully vague is the scheme for 3 year teacher training. Yet is will break down into topic after topic. The principles and practice of Education will include a full study of the educational ideas of the great philosophers, the detailed history of education including all the Ministry Reports, Educational Psychology - including experimental work with children based on the findings of Jean Piaget, Sociology and teaching methods, etc.

In our teachers' colleges all students write an extended essay of some 20,000 words in their 3rd year on a topic of their own choice and in their own time. It may be on Delinquency, Maladjustment, Children's Reading, etc. etc. and they visit schools and observe in their own time. We are placing less emphasis on examinations and more on evidence of real understanding and practical expression of underlying principles. I shall expect my students to prepare papers for discussion and conduct seminars. Mere expression of opinion without research facts will be discouraged and I hope in this way to make them work all the time at the vast

(Cont'd.)

amount of evidence that is increasingly available.

Please ask if there is more you wish to know. I shall be only too pleased to help.

Yours sincerely,

Signed Doreen B. Dockray.

25 Crag Side,
Witton Gilbert,
Durham.

14th August, 1966.

Dear Mrs. Wyatt,

Thank you for your letter. I'm pleased you found the information I sent of use. There is so much more but it needs digging out. I will first try to answer the questions you asked.

1. I am certainly familiar with the term activity as used in the primary school - I was brought up on activity methods thirty years ago but then it was unusual in state schools. Now it is commonplace in the majority of our nursery, infant and junior schools and there is a strong movement afoot to bring such methods into the first two or three years of senior school, i.e. until the age of about 13 for many of our pupils and particularly the less academic.

2. Activity methods to me mean abandoning the formal class room teaching where the children sit in desks and the teacher dispenses information and instructions for a large part of the time-table. Pupils are provided individually and in groups with situations where they are able to experiment with concrete objects and use them freely largely as they please BUT (and here is the important thing) with skilled direction and interaction from the teacher. Mere playing with equipment and objects has been proven of little value. Activity methods are <u>NOT</u> do-as-you-like methods and unfortunately they are often interpreted as such by teachers with insufficient knowledge of child psychology.

3. Teachers are trained for this approach in all our colleges of education and have been for many many years but there are still teachers who lapse into formal methods of teaching because they are so much easier. I would say that on the whole our junior schools are run efficiently on activity methods and that perhaps are the most satisfactory schools education wise.

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In the past activity methods in the primary school were restricted by the much exaggerated 11-plus selection for grammar schools but we are gradually abolishing exams at 11-plus and this should enable our primary schools to experiment further in new ideas and methods. Unfortunately we are desperately short of teachers.

Best wishes,

Sincerely,

Signed Doreen B. Dockray.

29 The Green,
Marlborough,
Wiltshire.

November 5, 1965.

Dear Mrs. Wyatt:

Many thanks for your letter of September 21st which I am sorry to say only reached me yesterday.

I am afraid that since I retired three years ago I have been somewhat out of touch with the Primary Schools and, though I am now writing a second part to the "Silent Social Revolution" to bring the history forward from 1935 to 1965 I haven't yet got on to the Chapter on "Current Trends in English Primary Education".

At a guess I should say that "freedom and activity" or the principle of leading children to educate themselves in terms of activity and experience has made great progress in England in the past ten years. This has been particularly the case, I should expect, in those areas where the spread of Comprehensive or Bi-lateral schools at the Secondary School stage has freed the Primary Schools and their teachers from having to think of a selective examination at II plus as distinct from a purely diagnostic assessment of the capabilities and bents of each child as an individual. However, I shall be visiting the Ministry of Education next week and I will ask them to give you a more authoritative answer than I can give. I will also be able to get them to supply you with a list of their most recent publications on Primary School work in English Schools to-day.

Yours sincerely,

Signed G.A.N. Lowndes.

University of Glasgow,
Department of Education,
The University,
Glasgow, W.2.

29th October, 1965.

Dear Mrs. Wyatt,

I am sorry to have taken so long in replying to your letter of September 21st. Most of your questions regarding the use of so-called activity methods can, I think, best be answered by referring you to two recent publications : (1) English Primary Education (particularly Volume I) by W.A.L. Blyth (Routledge & Kegan Paul, 1965) (2) Primary Education in Scotland (S.E.D. 1965).

As regards the developmental approach generally there is, of course, a vast literature. One book I would recommend is J. Blackie, Good Enough for the Children? (Faber 1963).

Best wishes,

Yours sincerely,

signed W. Kenneth Richmond,
(Senior Lecturer).

LETTERS CONCERNING ACTIVITY RECEIVED FROM ORGANIZATIONS

Advisory Centre for Education,
57 Russell St.,
Cambridge.

14th February, 1966.

Dear Mr. Edwards:

I am very sorry indeed we have been so long in answering your letter of last November. Unfortunately one of our consultants, to whom we passed your enquiry, failed to reply, because, it now appears, he has been out of the country.

We have, however, managed to collect various references which I hope will be helpful to your research student. You may like to know that "activism" is in England usually known as "activity" or "free activity" and it has become so much a part of the normal training of a primary school teacher at nearly all the Colleges of Education that it is hardly referred to as a separate concept anymore. However, the chief and original source of this method is the Froebel Institute, Grove House, Roehampton Lane, London, S.W.15. This is a college of London University's Institute of Education and attached to it is a special demonstration school - Ibstock Place, which takes boys and girls from 4-13 and prepares them for both public and private schools.

The Montesorri Training Organisation at 25, St. Edmunds Terrace, London, N.W.8. is another centre of interest and research in activity methods.

The Institutes of Education that run special advanced courses for the study of teaching methods in primary schools are:

The Institute of Education, Shaftesbury Road, Cambridge.

The Maria Grey College of Education, St. Margarets Road,
Twickenham, Middlesex and the Froebel Institute (as above.)

I enclose a booklist separately and do hope this is still in time to be useful.

Yours sincerely,

signed Richard Blake,
Advisory Service.

Association of Teachers in
Colleges and Departments of
Education,
151 Gower Street,
London, W.C.1.

10th December, 1965.

Dear Mrs. Wyatt,

I must apologise for the long delay in answering your letter, but affairs have been exceedingly pressing here within the past month, and I have not had an opportunity to do so.

You enquire about activist principles; I think perhaps, I should mention that the principle here is usually referred to as 'activity methods'. You will realise, I am sure, what large questions you have posed and I will do my best to give you some information, on the lines you ask.

1. I imagine that the English interpretation of the activity approach is the centering of teaching on the interests of children and the provision of a very wide environment and of materials that will enable such a method to be carried out successfully. With children of young age this is done within the classroom in a very informal way and the class teaching is rare although sometimes children are gathered into groups. As one goes to the later ages a great deal is carried on in junior classes and the work there will naturally include visits in the neighbourhood and a connection with the local libraries. Junior schools have increasingly adopted this and on the whole, we would suggest that formal class teaching is tending to hold far less of a place than formally. Indeed, junior schools have progressed very much in this direction during the past few years.

2. It is difficult to describe what methods and techniques the practice of this philosophy had led to. I think that you may find it helpful to read our evidence to the Plowden Committee which was established by the Government to enquire into methods and philosophy relating to children of younger age. The Plowden Report has not yet appeared but the Newsom Report was published two or three years ago. That is a full

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enquiry into the needs of children of average and below average ability and an exploration of methods that would be suitable for them. That is procurable from H.M.S.O. York House, Kingsway, London, W.C.2.

3. English teachers are prepared to employ this approach by the methods and techniques of education for teaching in colleges of education and departments of education where students are prepared for their work in school. In colleges of education students enter at eighteen and have a basic three year course; some of them will now be undertaking a four-year B.Ed. degree course. The courses are conceived as a unity with the elements of theory and practice interpenetrated. They undertake work in schools of course, and they base their techniques in approaching this on the study of the needs of children and of modern techniques in approaching them. Their work in school is based on these and on the discussions in theory that they hold in college, together with the advice and supervision which is given within the school.

4. I am enclosing, as I mentioned, our evidence to the Plowden Committee, our evidence two to three years ago prepared to the Robbins Committee and our evidence for the Newsom Committee. I think these documents will give you our views on the questions that you raise. I am also enclosing one or two copies of the journal of education which is published by this Association. Apart from these we do not enter any field of publication and I am writing to the Chairman of our Education Section to ask whether she will be good enough to send you the names of some publications on this subject.

Yours sincerely,

Signed Helen M. Simpson,
Honorary Secretary.

County Councils Association,
Eaton House,
66A Eaton Square,
Westminster, S.W.1.

30th September, 1965.

Dear Mrs. Wyatt,

Thank you for your letter of the 23rd September. I would have been very pleased to help you but, unfortunately, we do not have the detailed information you require in this office. The scope of the Association's work does not extend to the collation of such data. Moreover our membership is limited to county councils. It does not include county borough councils and they also are local education authorities. However, it may be that the Department of Education and Science or the National Union of Teachers will be able to assist you. Accordingly, I have sent a copy of your letter to them.

Yours sincerely,

Signed A.C. Hetherington,
Secretary.

Department of Education and Science,
Curzon Street,
London W.1.

20th October, 1965.

Dear Mrs. Wyatt,

The County Councils Association have forwarded to us your letter of the 23rd September.

I should first explain that the word "activism" is not much used in England, and that even the term "activity methods", which was popular shortly after the war, has dropped out of use. The term which best indicates the sort of approach that you are interested in in our parlance is probably "developmental". The essence of developmental education is that it starts from the nature and characteristics of children and regards the primary stage as existing in its own right.

It is not possible to answer your questions very precisely. No statistics on the subject are available and in most schools one will find traces of more than one kind of approach. Very roughly one might say that between a quarter and a third of the nation's junior schools have accepted developmental principles whole-heartedly; at least another quarter are experimenting with them. Not more than a quarter of schools, if that, adhere mainly to the more formal approach, and those that do so do it because the teachers concerned are unconvinced of its soundness or, more frequently, because they do not feel able to tackle the new approach.

The answer to your fourth question is that all colleges offering primary courses approach their work in a "developmental" way, though no doubt the degree of emphasis differs in different colleges. The syllabus usually includes developmental psychology, the psychology of individual differences and learning theory. There is growing attention to the sociology of education. All students also follow courses concerned with subject content and teaching methods, and there is a close link between the theoretical courses and practical teaching and observation of children. In a three-year course about fifteen weeks are spent in schools. I am afraid that it is impossible to single out particular texts as summing up the modern approach. It pervades the whole curriculum both in the schools and in the training colleges.

Yours sincerely,

Signed XXXXXXXXXXX

National Foundation For
Educational Research,
79 Wimpole Street,
London, W.1.

5th November, 1965.

Dear Mrs. Wyatt,

Thank you very much for your letter of the 23rd September, concerning primary school teaching according to 'activist principles'.

It is very difficult indeed to answer correctly any of the questions which you pose. There are no adequate statistics, and I do not think that there is anybody in the country who could give you anything more than an inspired guess at the answers. Some schools are well known for their outstanding success in the operation of 'activist principles', but most schools, at the junior level, embody work of this character to a greater or lesser extent. Much depends upon the individual teacher and a very usual situation is a state of affairs in which all teachers are using these ideas and principles in some way from 'wholly' to 'partly'. Generally speaking, methods tend, where the eleven-plus is operative, to become rather more formal in the classes which deal with children in the nine-plus age range. This again varies according to the type of school. It is very unusual to find a school which, in its infant and early junior range, is not very largely 'activity' based.

In answer to your question 4, I would say that all teacher training colleges today prepare students to employ this type of approach. It is very difficult to say exactly how this is done and, in order to answer question 5 sucessfully, you would really have to visit one or two colleges. You might, however, care to contact one or two colleges of education, such as The Froebel Educational Institute, Grove House, Roehampton Lane, London, S.W.15. Alternatively, you might care to write to the Association of Teachers in Colleges and Departments of Education, 151 Gower Street, London, W.C.1., which might be able to help you.

I should like to make it clear that the details which I have given above, are very much a personal opinion. They are not research or survey based, and so far as I know, there is no information available at present which would give you a correct picture.

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Texts commonly used in Colleges of Education are:-

Activity Methods for Children Under Eight.
Sturmey, Constance ed.
Published by Evans Brothers.

Activity in the Primary School.
Daniel, M.V.
Published by Oxford-Basil Blackwell.

Yours sincerely,

Signed A.E. Sanderson,
Research Officer Information.

National Foundation for
Educational Research,
79 Wimpole Street,
London, W.1.

17th November, 1965.

Dear Mrs. Wyatt,

Thank you for your letter dated 22nd October, 1965 about activism in the junior schools in England. 'Activism' is a word rarely used in connection with English education. Some doubt exists about whether it should denote 'free-activity' schools such as A.S. Neill's 'Summerhill' school where choice of subject and attendance at classes was left to the discretion of the pupils (also the amount and way of study - if any) or whether it denotes non-traditional methods of teaching in the use of group project work and the comparatively recent use of materials such as Cuisenaire & Dienes apparatus for teaching arithmetic.

Certainly most junior schools in England use group project work and the majority have done so with increasing scope since the end of the Second World War. School projects have varied from traffic surveys conducted by a small group of children to establish the need for traffic lights near their school, to a large one involving an entire school of two hundred or so pupils in research into means of travel, geography, history, zoology and catering costs (for the children) for a one-day entire school visit to London Zoo about twenty-five miles away. School trips overseas involve even more active research work as they are arranged sometimes for places as far away as Moscow.

All teacher-training colleges provide training in group project work but the methods used vary from college to college. The use of apparatus for 'New' mathematics is also taught in some colleges and it was estimated in 1962 that approximately one quarter of English Junior Schools were using such apparatus and the number was increasing steadily.

Other organisations which may be able to supply you with more detailed information are as follows:-

1. Association of Teachers in Colleges and
   Departments of Education,
   151 Gower Street,
   London, W.C.1.

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2. The National Union of Teachers,
Hamilton House,
Mabledon Place,
London, W.C.1.

3. Froebel Educational Institute,
Grove House,
Roehampton Lane,
London, S.W.15.

4. Department of Education & Science,
Curzon Street,
London, W.1.

Yours sincerely,

Signed Mrs. D. Wynn,
Assistant Librarian,
Information Service.

National Union of Teachers,
Hamilton House,
Mabledon Place,
London, W.C.1.

30th September, 1965.

Dear Mrs. Wyatt,

I am very sorry indeed that I cannot help you very much. The trouble is that the data which you require is not available for the very simple reason that the teaching methods adopted by each school are, by very firm tradition, the responsibility of the head teacher and staff of the school and there is, therefore, no question of reporting such practices either to the Local Education Authority involved or to the Department of Education and Science. The same is unfortunately true about teacher training colleges or colleges of education as they are now called. Each of the 200 or so colleges determines its own syllabus and methods although co-ordination in standards is achieved through the Institutes of Education to which all colleges are joined.

The only suggestion that I can make where some statistical information might be available, or where they might be able to make some kind of reasonable guess, would be the National Foundation for Educational Research, 79 Wimpole Street, London, W.1. and the Mere, Upton Park, Slough, Buckinghamshire.

Yours sincerely,

Signed Maurice Newrick,
Assistant Secretary,
Education Committee.

North Western Regional
Association of Education Officers,
Education Offices,
14 Sir Thomas Street,
Liverpool 1.

30th September, 1965.

Dear Mrs. Wyatt,

Thank you for your letter of September 23rd addressed to me as Secretary of the Association of Education Officers. I am, in fact, merely the Secretary of the North Western Regional Branch of the Association: the Secretary of the parent body is:

J.C. Brooke, M.A.,
County Education Officer,
County Education Office,
Castle Street,
Worcester.

I have passed your letter on to him and I have no doubt that he will get in touch with you in due course.

Yours sincerely,
D.S. Buley,
Signed Hon. Secretary,

The Nuffield Foundation,
12 Upper Belgrave Street,
London, S.W.1.

14th September, 1966.

Dear Mrs. Wyatt,

Dinah Brook of The Observer has passed your letter to me as the Organiser of the project in which Miss Gwen Smyth is taking part. I enclose a note on the present state of publications. The first teachers' guides are being handed over to the publishers (John Murray and Chambers) at the end of this year and they should begin to be available round about next May. Meantime very gratifying interest is being shown in Canada about our work and Dr. Andy Elliott of the Royal Military College, Kingston, Ontario, has kindly agreed to act as a sort of unofficial liaison officer. I suggest therefore that you also get in touch with him.

Yours sincerely,

signed Dr. G. Matthews,
Project Organiser.

Parents National Educational
Union,
Murray House,
Vandon Street,
London, S.W.1.

26th October, 1965.

Dear Mrs. Wyatt,

Thank you for your letter of October 22nd.

I am most interested to hear that you are taking for the subject of your thesis "Activism in the Junior Schools of England".

I am very sorry but this organisation does not have a great deal of information about the statistics of the schools in this country which have fully activist principles and techniques. I know that in the Primary schools in many areas there are experiments in free activities and the "discovery approach" in all subjects and a new approach to mathematics.

I think you might be able to obtain the information for which you ask from

The Advisory Centre for Education (A.C.E.) Ltd.,
57, Russell Street,
Cambridge.

This organisation publishes four times a year a magazine entitled "Where". The annual subscription to the Association is £1. 0. 0. A.C.E. will also answer questions in their advisory service membership, which costs £2. 0. 0., to cover the subscription to the magazine and any questions you wish to send them. If you have a question, write it down as fully and clearly as possible and send it to the Advisory Service, 57, Russell Street, Cambridge. A.C.E. has a large panel of advisers in various educational subjects and could probably obtain the information you require though they may charge you more than the £1. if for the answers to the questions there is a great deal of research.

I hope this will be of some help to you.

Yours sincerely,

Signed J.C. Cochrane (Miss),
Principal.

LETTERS CONCERNING ACTIVITY RECEIVED FROM TRAINING COLLEGES

College of All Saints,
Tottenham, London N.17

24th November, 1965.

Dear Mrs. Wyatt,

Thank you for your letter of 22 October which has been passed on to me by the Principal.

This College does prepare its students for the "Activity Approach" which you mention, and we do so by encouraging reading, discussion and practical application in the classroom. I am sending a list of text-books which we recommend our students to purchase, under separate cover. Two books which I recommend for your own purchase are

"The Handbook of Suggestions for Teachers and Others engaged in Primary Education" Her Majesty's Stationery Office 10/-

"The Children we Teach" Susan Isaacs University of London Press.

Another book which has just been published is

"The Activity of Children" P.M. Pickard Longmans 16/-

These books will I think give you the current picture, especially the first and third.

My own interpretation of the activity approach is that we enlist the child's own interests and knowledge of the environment in learning, that it is in fact "learning by doing" (which of course goes back beyond 1931, or even Dewey, to Froebel, Rousseau and Pestalozzi) and I believe it is summed up in the phrase from the "Handbook of Suggestions for Teachers".... "Children explore what lies before them, but they do not choose what lies before them. That choice is the teacher's."

If I can be of any further assistance, please let me know.

Yours sincerely,

signed H. Butterworth,
Head of the Education Department.

Brighton College of Education,
8 Eastern Terrace,
Brighton, England.

22nd November, 1965.

Dear Mrs. Wyatt,

I am replying to your letter of the 22nd October but very much regret that I am unable to help you at the present time. We are in the process of moving to new buildings and the numbers in College are doubling within a period of two years. This is making so much additional work for the academic staff at the present time that I do not feel that I am justified in asking them to undertake extra duties such as you request.

I am sorry about this and hope that you will realise the difficulties we are facing at the present time and will not think that I am too unhelpful.

Yours sincerely,

Signed A. Stewart.

Cambridge Institute of Education,
Cambridge.

28th July, 1966.

Dear Mrs. Wyatt,

Thank you for your letter of 17 July. I am sending by surface mail, a copy of the Institute's Handbook together with a copy of the syllabus for the Institute's course leading to the Diploma in Primary Education.

I hope that these will give you the information you require.

Yours sincerely,

Signed F. Eamonds.

The Charlotte Mason College,
Ambleside,
Westmorland.

1st October, 1965.

Dear Mrs. Wyatt,

Your letter was erroneously delivered to me as I am Principal of the Charlotte Mason College which is now in the main stream of Teacher Training and under the Westmorland Local Education Authority. If you wish to make contact with the Parents' National Educational Union, its Headquarters are now Murray House, Vandon Street, London, S.W.1 and I am sure the Secretary would be delighted to give you any help that he could. This College is not now a P.N.E.U. College though Charlotte Mason, the foundress, is still held in respect.

I am not quite sure what you mean about activist principles but if the idea is that of what we often call learning by doing or helping children to find things out for themselves rather than having facts crammed down their throats, or allowing children rather more choice and activity in the class-room, I think you would find that in most of England today there is at least a considerable attempt at developing these methods in the schools and, in my own experience, I can certainly say that in Infant and Junior schools such methods have been much in favour in England for at least the past twenty to thirty years, if not before. I think that your best line of investigation would be with the Department of Education and Science, Curzon Street, London, W.1 and if you write to them to say that you are engaged in research, they will recommend to you the appropriate literature. The Department of Education and Science, formerly the Ministry of Education, is the right Body to give you authentic information about the Junior Schools of England in general. The P.N.E.U. will give you reliable and courteous advice on the work in the P.N.E.U. Schools which form a small proportion of private education in Britain and also overseas. As far as I know, I think you will find activist methods more in the State Schools than in private schools but I may be mistaken about this as I have never worked in the private sector.

I ought perhaps to make it clear that all Colleges of Education (formerly called Teacher Training Colleges) in England, have their own individual approaches. No text book is prescribed by the Government and no syllabus is commanded

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but the Area Training Organisations through which Colleges of Education are affiliated to Universities, do agree on syllabuses to be used within the Colleges in their area. This is done on a basis of democratic academic discussion. Our College certainly encourages students in such approaches and if you wish you may write to the Head of my Education Department, Miss C.A. Moreton, M.Ed., Dip.Ed.Psych. with further inquiries, though I would ask you to bear in mind that we are desperately busy here at present owing to massive re-organisation of the organisation of teacher-training because of the shortage of teachers in England at present. I hope that this information, though scrappy, may be of some modest use to you.

Yours sincerely,

Signed M. Boulton,
Principal.

The Charlotte Mason College,
Ambleside,
Westmorland.

2nd December, 1965.

Dear Mrs. Wyatt,

Thank you for your letter received some time ago. I must apologise for not having replied before but I only returned from lecturing in America this Fall and have only just caught up with the backlog of work that awaited me. There is also another reason for the delay and it is that I have been trying to find out how you got my name. This may seem strange to you but you see some of the questions you wish me to answer involve information not usually divulged except through official channels, and/or after assurances that it will not be published. My Secretary who has an excellent memory could throw no light upon the matter and was sure that no other enquiry had been addressed to me whilst I was in the United States. Eventually the Principal told me that she had an idea that some such request had been made to her and that as I am the Principal Lecturer in Education and responsible for the professional training of the students here she might well have submitted my name. Unfortunately she cannot find the original correspondence.

I do not want you to think that I am unwilling to help you - I have been and still am involved in a great deal of research and I know only too well how frustrating it can be when people will not co-operate, but before I can proceed further I must have the following information:

1) A copy of the letter suggesting my name.

2) By Activist approach do you mean Activity approach?

I trust that my long delay in replying has not caused you to abandon your project. I will do what I can to help if after all this time you still want it, and I would also be prepared to write to your Tutor, indeed this would make your request quite official.

Yours sincerely,

Signed C.A. Moreton,
Vice-Principal and Principal
Lecturer in Education.

The Charlotte Mason College,
Ambleside,
Westmorland.

24th March, 1966.

Dear Mrs. Wyatt,

It is quite extraordinary that your letter came when it did as I had been telling my Secretary that I must write to you when I got a moment. I do feel you have had a very raw deal over this and I am afraid that the whole unfortunate misunderstanding arose because of lack of communication, which to my mind is one of the greatest sins of the people in power today. It is a pity however that anyone who is doing such a worthwhile piece of research should have had to suffer.

First I am going to try to answer the questions in your letter of October 22nd, and then I will enclose a list of books which I think would be good for you to read. I am repeating your questions in case you do not have a copy of the letter.

1. Question: Does your College prepare students to employ this approach in the Junior Schools?

Answer: As Head of the Education Department I am convinced that the activity approach is the correct one not only for Infant and Junior Trainees, but for those hoping to teach at the Secondary level, and it is my policy that all students adopt this approach as far as possible during School Practice, and I hope that they will when they become teachers. I say as far as possible because there are many schools who only pay lip service to this because they consider activity to be running round in an undisciplined way "doing what they like" (by "they" of course I mean the children). The activity approach as I see it is as much concerned with children sitting down as it is with them moving round, because fundamentally it is based on the Principle of Educating rather than cramming facts home. This in turn means of course that the chief purpose of the educator is to guide his pupils to think for themselves, and it means that the whole educative process is one of the teacher and child going along a carefully prepared path (prepared that is by the teacher)

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to knowledge. This is not to say that I do not believe in hard work and a certain amount of rote learning particularly in this sophisticated world where we need to have so many facts at our finger tips.

2. Question: How do you train your students to do this?

Answer: a) I myself, with all my members of the Department present, give lectures to the whole year of students on Philosophy, Principles of Education and on Educational Psychology. We hope that this will give them a solid foundation on which to build their own ideas and will be sufficiently compelling to help them to realise the worth of the approach we value.

b) I also ask my Assistant Lecturers to deal with methods of approach along these lines in their so-called Method Lectures linking them to my more philosophical theorising and thus to inculcate the right attitude to Activity.

c) When on School Practice the students try out their own and our ideas along these lines, and once the great majority of our schools are working along the same lines this considerably helps, particularly when it is possible for them to observe a good practising teacher.

d) I have instituted, and my Lecturer in Infant Method now runs, a Play Centre where children may come and pursue their own interests aroused by the materials which the students put out. Students are on duty for ten of these sessions during the Three Year Course, and they have practice therefore not only in arranging their materials, but in observing and recording their observations.

3. Question: Would you send me a copy of your syllabus and a list of the texts recommended to your students?

Answer: It is not possible for me to send a complete copy of the syllabus, but I think my replies to questions 1 & 2 will indicate to

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you the lines along which we proceed. I do not recommend many texts to the students but they all keep Reading Notebooks and we have a very large and continually increasing library in the Education Room with duplicates of all the books in the main College Library. The students are supposed to do a certain amount of reading on their own and this is all recorded in the form of a review of each book they have read in their Reading Notebooks; these are collected in twice a year.

4. Question: Could you give me your interpretation of what the activist approach is or should be?

Answer: I think I have already answered this question, but if you require any further information I would be very happy to do this.

I only wish I could come and inspire you all with my belief in this approach. I am however sending you a review of Miss Gardner's latest book, which may well be of the utmost value to you. I would think that you would be able to get a copy of this in Canada, but if you have any difficulty I would be pleased to help.

Yours sincerely,

Signed C.A. Moreton,
Vice-Principal and Principal
Lecturer in Education.

City of Portsmouth College of Education,
Locksway Road, Milton, Portsmouth,
Hampshire, England.

6th October, 1966.

Dear Mrs. Wyatt,

With reference to your letter of 17th July and my reply of 22nd August I have to tell you with regret that my colleagues find it quite impossible to deal with your request for information. You will understand that at the present time with the overcrowding of students within the college accommodation, the present box-and-cox system of re-organisation which we are in the process of developing for the first time in order to train even more teachers, the many meetings which are concerned with the development of the B.Ed. degree course, the further development of our use of the Isle of Wight for school practice, including our hope to provide permanent residential accommodation for our students, the department is unable to undertake so wide a survey as you request.

Mr. A. J. Morris, Head of the department of education will never undertake a project which he cannot develop thoroughly, to his own satisfaction and indeed to the full satisfaction of anyone who works with him. He is therefore unable to answer your queries, since to do this, clearly, would take him from the more immediate responsibilities outlined above and indeed the many others with which I have not troubled you.

Yours sincerely,

signed F.T. Williams,
Principal.

Froebel Educational Institute,
Training College For Teachers,
Grove House, Roehampton Lane,
S.W.15.

3rd November, 1965.

Dear Mrs. Wyatt,

Miss Brearley has passed your letter of the 22nd of October to me.

I enclose the prospectus of the college which may be useful to you.

I find it difficult to give an account to you in a letter of "an activist approach" as this is based on a number of theoretical principles which would take a book to explain! However, the following books which describe children in school situations learning through their own self-initiated experiences may prove a useful starting point.

Mellor, Education through Experience in the Infant School Years, Blackwell, Oxford, 1959.

Alderson & Simpson, Creative Play in The Infant School, Pitman, London, 1952.

Cribbon & Sealey, Communication and Learning in the Primary School, Blackwell, Oxford, 1963.

Isaacs, S., Intellectual Growth in Young Children, Routledge & Kegan Paul, 1960.

Ash & Rapaport, Creative Work in the Junior School, Methuen, London, 1957.

However, I personally feel that in order to fully understand this approach students must understand the rationale behind it. Without theoretical backing "activity" can be grossly misinterpreted. The bulk of the theoretical evidence on children's learning, which indicates the need for children

to have opportunities to initiate their own explorations comes from the work of Piaget. This is by no means easy reading, but the following books are quite good synopses of his work:-

Hunt, Intelligence and Experience, Ronald Press N.Y. 1961.

Flavell, The Developmental Psychology of Jean Piaget, Van Nostrand, London 1963.

Isaacs, Nathan, New Light on Children's Ideas of Numbers, E.S.A. 1960.

Isaacs, Nathan, The Growth of Understanding in Young Children, E.S.A. 1962.

Yours sincerely,

Signed J. Tamburrini (Mrs.),
Lecturer in Education.

Gipsy Hill College,
Kenry House, Kingston Hill,
Kingston-upon-Thames, Surrey.

16th March, 1966.

Dear Mrs. Wyatt,

I am sorry not to have replied to your letter long ago. I have, however, been given the following statement from our Education Department which I hope you may find of interest:-

> We believe that all learning involves activity and therefore, of necessity our students are encouraged to adopt a dynamic approach. We use the term "activity" guardedly because of misinterpretation as "doing as you please." Junior school curricula might more readily be described in terms of discovery, experience and imaginative creation.
>
> The ill-defined activist approach is not presented exclusively to students. They are encouraged to develop mature judgement in the use of methods suited specifically to purpose, individual needs of children and particular situations. An insistence upon a single approach would lead to stereotype and run counter to some of the basic assumptions attributed to activist principles.
>
> Preparation for work in school is based on principles and practices. Some of these are based on historical and philosophical truths but basic principles may be modified and new practices evolve. Therefore our work in this respect is not restricted to the confines of a static syllabus which would surely conflict with "activist" principles. There is a basis for our theoretical work in as much as we study the child-centred philosophies of Rousseau, Comenius, Froebel and Dewey but the intellectualist approach such as that of Herbart is also studied to enable students to acquire balanced views. Similarly in a study of psychological principles both behaviourist and dynamic theories receive attention.

.....2

Some of the practices with which we have sympathy are illustrated in the booklet, "Discovery and Experience." (Forwarded by surface mail.)

As stated above the terms activity and activist have been misinterpreted, for example lessons designated "Activity" and "Creative Activity" frequently appear on formal time tables. You ask for our interpretation of activism. Apart from fundamental assumptions there can be little general agreement on the term activism as it will be given meaning according to the personality and experience of the individual. However, one could regard Brubacher's transliteration of the views of St. Thomas Aquinas as universal and fundamental "the principle of life which animates man is fundamentally active". Therefore when the psyche or soul, which embodies the principle of life, engages in learning, it must be an active process."

Yours sincerely,

Signed T.D. Batstoue,
Principal.

University of London
Institute of Education,
Malet Street,
London, W.C.1.

29th October, 1965.

Dear Mrs. Wyatt,

In answer to your letter of 22nd October concerning your interest in the 'active approach' to Education in the Junior Schools of England, I would like to state that the course you mention is a two-year part-time course for serving teachers, and is now renamed 'Junior School Education'. There is no correspondence course on this subject at this Institute, neither can I offer you a syllabus, for this changes in detail from course to course. I enclose a copy of the terms of reference wherein the main aspects of the course are named, and also offer you up-to-date book-lists which are mainly concerned with the general philosophy and practice discussed on the course. A few of the sessional activities are also included, though I doubt very much whether they will convey to you the essence of the sessions themselves.

You are correct in assuming that the philosophy of our approach to Primary Education (children 5 to 11+) in our schools, namely that it should be thought of in terms of activity and experience rather than of knowledge to be acquired and facts to be stored (Consultative Committee on the Primary School. H.M.S.O. 1931), is one of long standing. It is not to be presumed, however, that this has been generally put into practice, and indeed, the interpretations of this phrase are as many and varied as the schools themselves. Our freedoms are such that Head Teachers of schools can, to some extent, work out their own programmes. There are no 'state text books' nor syllabuses and hardly any rigid regulations laid down by 'local authorities'. All this, you probably know, but you may not know that I have not met the term 'Activism' which you use, except in the U.S.A. where I have recently been working. We prefer such terms as learning through 'Activity and Experience'. I wonder if your thesis will be based entirely on information from books, articles and pamphlets? It would be very valuable if you could come to see for yourself the many different ways in which teaching and learning goes on in our Junior Schools.

I trust that what I have said will be of some help to you.

Yours sincerely,

Signed Miss L. Holland,
Lecturer in the Curriculum
of the Primary School.

University of London
Institute of Education,
Malet Street, W.C.1.

25th November, 1965.

Dear Mrs. Wyatt,

Thank you for your letter. I am delighted to hear that you are interested in the British Primary School and its efforts and are writing your thesis on the subject.

There are three main streams in the spreading of this movement -

1. Training colleges are doing their best to teach along these lines.

2. Local education authorities which run a multitude of in-service courses. One book which you might like to send for is 'The Excitement of Writing' by A.B. Clegg, 1964, Chatto and Windus. This work by children was collected by the organisers in the schools of the West Riding of Yorkshire and finally edited by the Director of Education. Another book which might interest you is 'Young Writers Young Readers' by Boris Ford, 1960, Hutchinson.

3. The Department of Education and Science. Their most recent publication is 'Mathematics in the Primary School', Curriculum Bulletin Number One, Schools Council, Her Majesty's Stationery Office, 10 shillings net. 1965. Please tell Professor McNichol about this as it is quite new and she may not have heard of it.

Thank you for enquiring after my publication; my newest one (out today!) is 'Creative Crafts With Maladjusted Children' in 'Athene' - the journal of the Society for Education Through Art, Autumn 1965. I have also a pamphlet called 'Young Children; World Citizens' coming out in about a month's time.

Yours sincerely,

Signed Miss M. Waddington,
Lecturer in Child Development.

Maria Montessori Training Organisation,
26 Lyndhurst Gdns.,
Hampstead,
London,
N.W.3.

28th March, 1966.

Dear Mrs. Wyatt,

Thank you for your letter of March 21st. Under separate cover, by second class air mail, we are sending some literature which we hope will be of assistance in your studies.

Yours sincerely,

signed D.G. Dawson,
Secretary.

Rachel McMillan College,
Creek Road,
Deptford, S.E.8.

2nd November, 1965.

Dear Mrs. Wyatt,

Thank you for your letter of enquiry. Whilst we are sympathetic with your subject for research, it is impossible to answer your questions with any accuracy since education in this country is so de-centralised. The type of education which the children receive in their school largely depends on the views of the Head and of the Local Authority, and whilst we believe that there has been a change in methods of teaching in this country over the last few years, I would not like to express this in terms of numbers. If you are interested in policy changes, I suggest you obtain the publication "Primary Education" first published in 1959. This is obtainable from H.M.S.O. York House, Kingsway, London, W.C.2. At the present time an Advisory Panel is examining problems relating to Primary Education under the chairmanship of Lady Plowden. Their report is expected some time next year and this will undoubtedly give more detailed and more recent information of a factual nature.

I enclose a copy of the syllabus and a list of books recommended for the students to read.

Yours sincerely,

Signed (Miss) E.M. Puddephat,
Principal.

Sidney Webb College,
9-12 Barrett Street,
London, W.1.

17th January, 1966.

Dear Madam,

I must apologise for the delay in replying to your letter of October 22nd. It was accidentally overlooked.

I doubt whether I can offer any adequate answer to your enquiries. We do not use the term 'activism' in this college and, so far as I am aware, in England. It is true, however, that attitudes towards the teaching of children between 7 and 11 were affected by the Hadow Report of 1931 and that the conception of learning as an active rather than as a passive process is nowadays widely accepted in this country.

We do not advocate to students here any one educational approach but we do suggest that in evolving their own aims and methods, they should take account of the findings of research in psychology and sociology, of the thinking of educational philosophers, of observation of children and of the relationship of education in any age to contemporary values and assumptions.

The work of Piaget, the thinking of Dewey, the studies of Susan Isaacs, the work of Tanner on the physical development of children and of Bruner on intellectual development and logical structures are all considered important, but so also is the work of many other writers which may support or may challenge conclusions reached by those I have named. Primary Education published by Her Majesty's Stationery Office in 1959 indicates the main trends that thinking about primary education in this country continues to follow.

We follow a syllabus laid down by the University of London Institute of Education and contained in a handbook published by the Institute. You will appreciate that it is impracticable to attempt to supply you with the lengthy book lists which we give to students during their three-year course.

Yours faithfully,

Signed R. Beresford,
Principal.

University of Southampton,
Department of Education,
Southampton.

4th August, 1966.

Dear Mrs. Wyatt,

Thank you for your letter of 17th July which I have just received. Although I am very willing to help you I am afraid I cannot give you the full information that you request. This would be obtainable from a College of Education where the majority of our junior school teachers are trained. I am concerned most closely with a one year course for students who have graduated in a university and come to this department for their certificate of education. I will however give some answer to your queries:-

1) My own opinion would be that there is no one English interpretation of the activity approach to teaching. My own interpretation is that the majority of young children learn most profitably through experience and by being actively and personally involved in projects that have sprung from the children's interests, but are skilfully guided and nurtured by the teacher, through the use of the immediate environment and the creation of suitable opportunities.

2) The accent of this course for graduates training for primary school work is on this approach; not so much on 'activity' for its own sake but on the question 'How do young children learn? rather than 'How do I teach?'

3) The students are encouraged to be actively engaged themselves. Opportunities are provided for:-

   a. field studies with a follow up on the possible use of such an activity in schools and the way in which information and material so gathered may be assembled and usefully employed with the young children.

   b. the working out of experimental situations in the workshop with

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a scientific or mathematical bias and the development of these for use in schools.

c. visits to schools, children's hospitals, centres for handicapped children and centres where educational projects are being developed.

d. practical course in creative drama and creative writing.

e. a personal course in mathematics for the students who will themselves learn through this approach.

f. seeing films such as the B.B.C. recordings of the series 'Discovery and Experience'.

g. ten weeks school practice when students are supervised and encouraged to use an active approach within any limits which may be set by the school.

h. lectures and tutorials and seminars on educational topics of our own day and age together with a study of the history of education, the principles of education, psychology and English Education in its social setting.

All the above opportunities are available to students who use them according to their own personal needs.

The course is very flexible and alters in some part each year.

I hope the above will be of some use to you. You will appreciate that I have set it down in some haste as I am about to take my vacation.

Yours sincerely,

Signed D. Sanders.

Southlands College of Education,
Wimbledon Parkside,
London, S.W.19.

25th November, 1965.

Dear Mrs. Wyatt,

I have been asked to deal with your letter of 22.10.65 in which you ask for data with reference to teacher training according to what you call "activist principles". I should like to help you, but think that you must realise that to answer your questions adequately, it would be necessary to write your thesis! Activity methods of teaching are so firmly established in this country that I cannot imagine any College of Education preparing its students to teach by formal methods. The picture in the schools, however, is very varied. As you may know, although there is a broad, overall pattern, each Head Teacher is free to develop his school in the way that he thinks best, taking into account many factors such as the environment of his pupils, their mental capacity, the quality of his staff etc. Inspectors and others advise but do not dictate how he should run his school, the methods of teaching he should adopt etc. So, in the English primary schools (5 - 11) you will find very progressive schools, schools engaging in special experiments (such as the teaching of French by direct method) and schools which cover every possible stage between a formal and a free approach to education. Much depends on the staffing. A Head Teacher would not upset a first class elderly teacher who was happier using the more traditional methods of teaching, but he would probably ensure that her pupils spent some part of their course in the care of a younger teacher, trained in modern methods. Again, many teachers originally trained in more formal methods, who have attended courses arranged by the Ministry and other agencies, have adapted their methods of teaching very successfully and much prefer the activity approach. Candidly, I cannot see how you will be able to write on this subject without visiting a cross section of English primary schools, and, preferably, spending at least a term teaching in one of the more successful progressive ones. Perhaps you have this in mind.

1. Yes - all colleges of education prepare students to employ this approach. (Present day students would probably have been taught at the primary stage by teachers employing this approach).

2. Method lectures, demonstrations, supervision of teaching practice, all against a background of

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philosophy of education, history of education and child development studies out of which progressive methods have grown.

3. I enclose a copy of our syllabus. It is not detailed, as each lecturer is free to make her own selection of material within a broad subject. There is no one list of books recommended to students. You might find the following useful:

"Activity in the Primary School"
M.V. Daniel
Pub. Basil Blackwell: Oxford 1948.

"New Teaching for a New Age"
A.H.T. Glover
Pub. Thomas Nelson & Sons Ltd.: 1946.

Same Publisher

"The Education of the Ordinary Child"
John Duncan

"Play Way English for Today"
D.A. Beacock

Also

"Designing and Making"
W.W. Sawyer
Oxford 1948.

A real classic among the pioneers is:

"The Play Way in Education" by
Caldwell Cooke.

You will also find interesting:

"Testing Results in the Infant School"
by D.E.M. Gardner (which compares results from a formal and an activity school)

4. A short answer to this might be very misleading. It is a subject that requires much time and thought.

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I am enclosing a notice of a series of television programmes on 'Discovery and Experience' which will take place next term, as they are relevant to your topic. You will see that film copies will eventually be obtainable, so you might like to make enquiries about them.

I hope that this information will be of help to you, and that you will enjoy your research, but do try to get some firsthand experience before you begin writing.

Yours sincerely,

Signed Dr. D.M. Hyde,
Head of Department of Education.

Stockwell College of Education,
The Old Palace,
Rochester Avenue,
Bromley, Kent.

19th November, 1965.

Dear Mrs. Wyatt,

Thank you for your letter of 22nd October which the Principal has passed on to me. The department would be glad to help you pursue your studies successfully but I doubt if it is easy to answer your questions specifically.

(1) We do not know what is implied in the term "activist principles".

(2) Our College does prepare students to take an active approach to the teaching of the curricula in Junior schools.

This implies that in the whole approach to teaching, children and teachers are involved in active doing and active thinking in relationship to a unified body of knowledge.

(3) We do not have any established syllabuses which could be called an active approach to learning. In this country syllabuses as such are very much more the responsibility of individual colleges, individual schools, and individual teachers.

(4) I would not be very anxious to give you in a few words our interpretation of what we understand by an active approach to learning. It comes into the whole approach to work at all levels, and I suggest that you should read the following books:

(i) Primary School Education,
Published by H.M. Stationery Office,
1959, price 10/-.

(ii) Creative Thinking by P. Torrance,
Published by the University of
Minnesota Press.

I think I should say in passing that we have initially

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been influenced in our thinking in this country by the writings and work of John Dewey in the New World, and I think we would be wisest to refer you to these works. As we understand an active approach to learning, it is <u>not</u> a method but an attitude to learning and to children participating.

I hope this is of use to you.

Yours sincerely,

Signed P. Higginbothan,
Principal Lecturer in
Education Department.

BBC-2 TELEVISION: "DISCOVERY AND EXPERIENCE"

A series of 11 programmes about children in primary schools, Wednesday evenings, 7.30 - 8.00 p.m., 12th January - 23rd March, 1966.

Educational research into the mental processes of young children has laid emphasis on the importance of activity, experience and exploration for primary school children. Television provides unique opportunities for insight into the responses of children in school to the "new" teaching methods, accompanied by an informed commentary by authoritative speakers.

BOOKLET

The programmes will be accompanied by an illustrated booklet, which will define the aims of the series, be a particularly valuable point of reference for students and other viewing groups, and provide background reading for parents and a list of suggested further reading.

FILM COPIES

Many requests have been received in the last year or so for film copies of certain television programmes to be made available for sale or hire. This is generally impossible, because of the considerable expense involved; but a special arrangement has been made for this series between BBC Television Enterprises and the Educational Foundation for Visual Aids, by which 16 mm. sound film copies will be available for sale or hire, almost as soon as the series has ended on television. This would mean that viewing groups could arrange to see particular programmes again, if they wished.

Enquiries about these film copies for sale or hire should be made to: Mrs. M. Ross, BBC Television Enterprises, Television Centre, Wood Lane, London, W.12.

PRODUCTION

The series is produced from the BBC West Region by Eileen Molony.

THE PROGRAMMES

1. 'LEARNING BY DOING'

This is the work of the senior class at Tower Hill School, Witney, in their final term. It lays particular emphasis on classroom

(cont'd.)

activity and on the excursions to the surrounding neighbourhood. It shows how one subject blends into another in the primary school where teaching is child-centred rather than subject-centred. One of the children brings to school a newspaper cutting of the coffin of Ann Mowbray. This leads to a study of Richard III and the Cotswold wollen industry, involving the children in visits to a farm and tweed mill, brass-rubbing, spinning, weaving and dyeing wool, practical mathematics, original writing, etc.

2. 'MATHS IS A MONSTER'

Filmed at Fernwood Primary School, Nottingham.
Consultant and commentator, Mrs. D.E. Whittaker.
The film shows three classes composed of children of all levels of intelligence engaged in practical mathematics in the classroom, e.g. a scale model of the sun; measuring their own imaginary dinosaurs; making histograms of the animals found in a pond; building a model of the Globe Theatre, etc. The commentary will consider some of the purposes behind these practical activities.

3. 'OUR OWN MUSIC'

Filmed at Gisburn Road Infants' School,
West Riding (ages 5 - 7)
Filkins Village School,
Oxfordshire (ages 7 - 11)
Drew Street Junior School,
Brixham, Devon (ages 7 - 11)
Consultant and commentator, Walter Drabble, H.M.I.
This shows children at three different stages composing their own music; from the five-year-olds in the music corner in West Riding, through Filkins Village School where they have composed a cantata in four movements, to Drew Street School where 32 children in the senior class, each playing an instrument, are participating in a great number of different activities.

(Cont'd.)

4. 'LEARNING BY DESIGN'

Consultant and commentator, Robin Tanner, H.M.I.
This is another village school (at Langford in Oxfordshire) where remarkable art and craft is being done; book-making; block-printing; painting; drawing, lino cuts. The programme is intended to show the importance of an attractive classroom and fastidious display. It also shows the influence of Kelmscott Manor in the neighbourhood and of the many excursions into the countryside.

5. 'FINDING OUT'

Consultant and commentator, Mr. E.R. Wastnedge.
Film taken at a primary school shows children's curiosity about natural objects and how the world works. The child goes to work on material which is structured to encourage his inter-action with, and exploration of, the world around him. The times in the classroom or outside it when children are finding things out for themselves have a special interest for the student and young teacher, who learns something in this way of how children think. The children's questions show the first steps in scientific enquiry however random or unrelated they may seem to most adults.

6. 'MOVEMENT IN TIME AND SPACE'

Filmed at Sea Mills Infants School, Bristol
Wheldon Lane J.M.I. School, Castelford, Yorkshire.
Consultant and commentator, John Allen, H.M.I.
Bodily gesture is the baby's first form of expression. Young children in infant school start with bodily gesture and gradually learn to control it; sound is added as an aid. Sensory motor experiences are fundamental to forming concepts and ideas; the spoken language is added and concepts are communicated.

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7. 'THE CHANGEOVER'

Frequently students ask the question: "How do you make the changeover from more conventional methods of teaching to the "new" methods?" This programme reconstructs the whole situation from a class of children sitting behind desks watching a blackboard demonstration to the point where the teacher calls out two groups and tells them to do some practical mathematics outside and some research in the book corner. Six weeks later we return to find the children working in groups at separate tables with a circulatory timetable which enables several tables to get on with such activities as modelling, sewing and handicraft while the teacher devotes the major part of her attention to assisting the mathematics table. We return six weeks later still to find an even freer atmosphere in the classroom with each child going about his own work.

8. 'CITY INFANTS'

This is a study in depth of an Infant School (Hungerford Infants' School, N.7.), which is coping with difficulties - which is situated in an industrial area in an old-fashioned building, and has a 25% intake of immigrant children, with all the attendant difficulties - non-English speaking, etc.

9. 'THE GROWING MIND'

Dr. Ruth Beard of the Institute of Education, University of London, will talk about the work of Piaget, his theories and his experiments. Her account will be illustrated by inserts of children at various stages of growth, from babyhood to adolescence.

10. 'HOW CHILDREN THINK'

A further account by Dr. Ruth Beard, with filmed reconstructions of some of Piaget's experiments.

(Cont'd.)

11. 'OPEN FORUM'

A panel of speakers answer questions and criticisms which arise from teachers, students and parents during the course of the series.

CAMBRIDGE INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION

One-year Full-time Special Course of Advanced Study

Associateship Diploma in Primary Education

Purpose and Scope of the Course

The course aims to provide an opportunity critically to re-examine current educational practice in primary schools, including nursery schools. To this end the course of study will have three main emphases: developmental psychology in its bearing on primary education; the historical background and present social context of the primary school and their bearing on primary education; and problems of the curriculum. During the course, students will have an opportunity to produce an individual study of an educational problem of their own choice. The course should prepare students for posts of further responsibility in primary education, either in schools or in colleges of education.

REGULATIONS

1. Candidates for admission shall ordinarily be qualified serving teachers (graduate or non-graduate) with not less than five years' teaching experience, but applications may be considered from others with suitable experience approved for the purpose.

2. The course shall extend over one academic year.

3. Candidates for the course shall undertake, during this period, full-time study under the direction of the Institute, and be resident in or near Cambridge.

4. The Institute's Associateship Diploma in Primary Education shall be awarded to those who satisfactorily complete the course and who reach the required standard in the examination at the end of the course.

   Provided that, where, in the opinion of the Director, it would be inappropriate for a student to sit for the written examination, the Director shall have authority, on behalf of the Professional Committee, to issue a certificate of satisfactory attendance.

   Provided also that the Director shall have

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authority to issue a similar certificate to a student who fails in the written examination and does not wish to be re-examined.

5. Candidates shall be eligible, normally, for re-examination on two occasions only. The Professional Committee shall decide, on the recommendation of the Board of Examiners, in which paper or papers a candidate who has failed is to be re-examined.

S Y L L A B U S

I. Educational Psychology

(a) An outline of contemporary methods in the investigation of educational problems.

(b) The developmental psychology of learning in relation to physical and intellectual characteristics of development at different age levels and to the emotional needs of children and problems of the motivation of learning.

(c) Educational assessment; intelligence, attainment, socio-metric and personality tests.

II. Sociology of Education

An examination of the social forces in contemporary England that impinge upon the family and upon the primary school. This examination will include the influence of these forces upon the educability of children, upon the ways in which the school functions as a social unit and upon the social groups to be found within the school.

III. History of Primary Education

The history of primary education in this country from the early nineteenth century to the present day, particularly as it reveals changing

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objectives in the primary school and their socio-economic and philosophical origins.

IV. Primary Education Today

An examination of present trends in the content and patterning of the curriculum and in methods of teaching in the primary school takes place progressively throughout the course. It is approached from the standpoint of the inter-relationships of those psychological, sociological and philosophical factors studied elsewhere in the course.

V. The Teaching of the Basic School Subjects

(a) Analysis of basic skill in reading, spelling and mathematics.

(b) The concept of 'readiness' in learning in relation to these skills.

(c) A critical survey of methods in teaching reading, spelling and mathematics with reference to developmental characteristics of learning in primary school children, the analysis of the particular skill involved, and of its place in our society.

(d) Diagnosis of errors in learning the basic skills.

Visits to schools, colleges of education, etc. are arranged in connection with this course.

Note: The Institute Library contains a certain number of the more important books required, which students taking the course may borrow. It will also be possible for students to use the University Library. Supervisors of Studies will provide reading lists.

F.F.C. EDMONDS
Deputy Director and Secretary

UNIVERSITY OF LONDON

INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION

Part-Time Course For The Certificate In Junior School Education

PART-TIME COURSE

A part-time course extending over two years is held for practising teachers of not less than two years' experience. The course provides an additional professional qualification of value in the personal development of teachers and also in their daily work with children, and will lead to the award of the Certificate in Junior School Education.

AIM OF THE COURSE

The aim of the course is to give a deeper understanding of the development and behaviour of children before adolescence, and to provide an opportunity for the study of the curriculum of the Junior School in the light of the principles underlying current practice and also in relation to the student's own teaching.

OUTLINE OF THE COURSE

Lecture courses and seminars will be arranged on:

Child Development. The all-round growth of children and its bearing on primary education.

Aims, Principles and Practice. The examination of aims and principles underlined and related to current work in schools.

Curriculum Studies. The content of the Junior School curriculum considered generally and also in special relation to the student's teaching experience.

Short written papers may be expected from the students in connection with these courses.

In addition, each student will present a special study on a topic related to Junior education. Advice and guidance will be given by a personal tutor to whom each student will be allocated from the second term. Visits to the student in school form part of this tutorial system.

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PROGRAMME

Meetings are held from 6-8 p.m. on two evenings a week in the three terms of each of two years. Most of the courses will take place at the Institute of Education, Malet Street, W.C.1. Some of the work, in particular that on curriculum studies, may be carried out at schools and colleges in the London Area. Visits and field work may also be included. The student will be informed in advance of the part of the course to be studied each term.

TUTORIAL BOARD

The general supervision of the course will be under a Director of Studies. The tutorial board includes members of the Junior Panel of the Standing Sub-Committee in the Institute of Education, and Heads of Schools.

EXAMINATION

The examination held at the end of the two-year course will consist of two written papers and an assessment of the special study and general course work, which includes an interview. Before admission to the examination the student must have pursued the prescribed course to the satisfaction of the tutors and have shown ability to plan and present individual work.

A Certificate entitled 'University of London Institute of Education Certificate in Junior School Education' will be awarded on the results of the examination.

ENTRY

The course is open to qualified teachers of not less than two years' experience, and candidates are selected by interview.

Application forms and further particulars may be obtained from the Adviser to Teachers, University of London Institute of Education, Malet Street, W.C.1. Completed application forms should be returned not later than 1 June of the year in which it is hoped to enrol. The course begins in October of each year.

FEES

The tuition fee is £30 os. od. per annum. The examination

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fee is £5 os. od. It is, of course, open to accepted candidates to apply to their Local Education Authorities for financial assistance towards the cost of this course.