### MODERN SCHOOL ORGANISATION

ΒY

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### PREFACE

THE educational system of any community has for its function the implementing of the basic principles upon which that community is based so far as they relate to the preparation of children, young people, and adults, for a full life within the community.

Organisation is not an end in itself. It must always be related to the educational aims of the community. The organiser must have before his mind continually the questions "To what end" and "For what purpose." Organisation may be perfect, but if the end is a wrong one, effective organisation in its service will only add to the

evil wrought by the wrong aim.

Increases in the speed and variety of means of communication have increased the tempo of life. This means that any lag between theory and practice becomes a source of increasing tension in the community. Further, these increases in power of communication have developed a different kind of social life—one demanding new social techniques. We have to live together in many respects, or perish. The need for planning our world becomes more and more apparent, and this need will bring with it new demands upon educators. In those spheres of life where planning is essential there will have to be a relinquishment of some things previously regarded as liberties. This is particularly true in the economic sphere. But the resulting security should, under democratic control, make for increased and wider liberties in those fields which provide the proper spheres for individual creative and constructive activities. The schools will have to re-orientate themselves and train the children for the necessary new social techniques. The speed at which events move to-day makes any time lag a source of peril. The children now being educated must become willing co-operators in the field of collectivist living and constructive individuals in those fields where this is desirable. Only so can they serve their society and live full and happy lives themselves.

It is hoped that this volume will aid students to see this vital connection between aims and organisation, and that it will assist them to make organisation a good servant in the cause of the development of the truly democratic society. For purposes of reference a list of the 52 diagrams including graphs, statistical tables, school plans, etc.,

incorporated in the book is given in Appendix III.

I owe much to a great number of my colleagues. The number is so great that I cannot possibly mention them all by name. If I cannot do this I thank them most sincerely for their help and stimulation, without which this volume could not have been written. I must acknowledge the debts which I owe to Mr. A. Greenough, B.Sc., for reading the first typescript of this volume and for his many suggestions; to Messrs. N. E. Whilde, B.Sc., and R. Keane, M.A., for reading so thoroughly and so critically the book in proof; and, above all, to Miss E. M. Hubbuck for the most valuable and willing assistance she has given in a great variety of ways.

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### SCHOOL ORGANISATION

### CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTORY

A T the invitation of some of his disciples an Indian philosopher once visited Europe. He met his followers at a conference held at The Hague, and at the last of the meetings to be held it was proposed that an organisation be set up to propagate the ideas of the master. Whereupon the Indian took the first boat back to his own country.

The story illustrates the danger inherent in all organisation. In brief, this danger is that the organisation may come to be viewed as more important than the idea or ideas which it is set up to serve. Thought is free and unconfined; it is living, it grows and is dynamic. Organisation limits and confines; it may be deadly The evil goes further than this. In the course of time the organisation may become so important that the original reason for its institution is forgotten. Organisation, like fire, is a good servant but a very bad master. There are those who detest organisation and those who worship it, and the history of mankind is full of examples of wars and struggles and controversies waged round the maintenance or destruction of some effete organisation. Long before this happens sight has been lost of the living idea which brought the organisation into being, or at any rate it has ceased to hold the major position. Its place has been taken by the organisation, the maintenance of which has become all important.

To say this is neither to hold that organisation is undesirable nor to maintain that it is possible to proceed without sound organisation. But it must always be remembered that organisation is a means and not an end in itself. It is the instrument by which the desired aim may be achieved. It must never be allowed to become the end itself, but must always be subordinated to the purpose for which it was set up. This indicates the need for a critical attitude towards all organisation. For as ideas change, as the purpose changes, so must the organisation be varied if the new ideal is to be achieved. Further, since ideas and ideals are dynamic and not static, it is necessary that organisation should be fluid. If it is not there will be disharmony between the ideal and the reality—between what is professed and what is done.

These facts with reference to organisation in general, merit special attention when the subject of school organisation is under review. In the first place, a State system of education always tends to become over organised. The bureaucratic mind loves organisation above all things, and the all too familiar jibes at "red tape" are more than occasionally justified. Organisation may easily result in a deadly uniformity and in an efficiency which may be mechanically perfect but which is not education. There is a story told, no doubt apocryphal, of a Director of Education who was in the habit of pushing a bell in his office and demanding from the subordinate who answered his summons information such as how many children in the city under his control were doing multiplication of money sums at that moment. And an answer had to be forthcoming. There is no doubt that the organisation of both the Education Office and the schools was perfect. But it is doubtful if this organisation was for the purpose of Education.

Another point which needs special attention when educational organisation is under consideration arises from the fact that as social ideals change, so do those of education. The first aim of State Elementary Education in this country was to produce a literate people. This was a mass task. It fixed the curriculum—the 3 R's. It fixed the technique—that of large classes taught in the mass. It determined the whole of the organisation of the schools, the type of building, the kind of furniture, the layout of classrooms, and every detail of class and school management. The Reports of the Hadow Committees brought to a focus a conception of education which had gradually been replacing the old one of the forming of a literate people. The new purpose of education was to be the development of a cultured people, fit and efficient citizens of a modern democratic State.

Only those who have worked under the influence of both ideals can realise how great has been the change in organisation brought about by this change in the objective. The whole planning of the school has changed; the rooms required have changed both in number and type; the technique of teaching has had to be revised. The parts played by teacher and taught have undergone change. The curriculum has changed, and with these changes has come an entirely-new type of organisation, both of the educational system and of the individual school. And, once more, those who have witnessed the coming of the new ideas and the new organisation which has been devised to give expression to it will realise how great a barrier to progress an organisation can be after it has outlived its usefulness.

It is inevitable that ideas must always be ahead of organisation, and, therefore, organisation should always be flexible enough to allow of experiment and progress. This can only be the case where the organisation is itself subject to periodical overhaul and critical examination. It is not easy to criticise and, if necessary, replace an organisation or any part of an organisation which one has helped to construct. But when the choice is between life and death, growth or decay, there is no real alternative.

Organisation, then, is necessary, and is the only means whereby orderly progressive work can be carried out. But it has to be carefully watched and reviewed. It must never be the end of educational effort, but only the means to the end. It is always a little behind the advanced thought of any age, but it incorporates, or should incorporate, all the best thought of all previous agesall that thought which has stood the test of real experiment. should be elastic enough to be able to incorporate new ideas, yet secure enough to form the background from which educational experiments can be made. The organisation of any school system, or of any school, has to serve a dual purpose. First of all it should furnish the safe background against which the normal work of education is carried on. Secondly, it should supply the stimulus to experiment with new methods, in order that the educational ideal of the society which the system and the schools serve, should be the more fully realised.

The ultimate and essential connection between the objectives of education of any society and the organisation devised to further these objectives can be seen throughout the history of education, whether it is the field of theory or that of the practice of education that is considered. In the realm of theory Plato sketched an organisation of education devised to develop citizens who would in practice act out the principles upon which that Republic was to be based. So, too, Sir Thomas More in The Governor, Machiavelli in The Prince, Milton in his Tractate, Commenius in his Great Didactic, Rousseau in Emile, all felt it necessary to stress the need for a new or largely reconstructed system of education, if the ideals which they wished to see put into practice in the State were to be more than idle dreams.

In the realm of practice itself there is no need to look beyond present-day Europe. Russia, Italy, Germany, England, and France; in each of these countries the organisation of education reflects the ideals of the State. This is perhaps more marked in those countries in which there has been in recent years some radical change in the conception of the State and its function. In Russia,

Germany, and Italy there has been seen a complete reorganisation of the national system of education with the aim of making it an effective weapon in the propagation of the State ideal. The possibility of free experiment has been largely eliminated. Organisation has been made rigid and uniform. It is effective for its purpose, but it is open to doubt whether that purpose is to be commended. Sometimes it would appear to aim at the conditioning of children, adolescents, and adults in order that they may think, act, and speak in accordance with the orthodox pattern. In England and France the organisation of education is equally for the purpose of maintaining the principles upon which the State is based. But here the State is at least attempting the difficult task of achieving a democratic regime. The ideals of true democracy have not yet been achieved in any State, and the gaps between theory and practice lead to strange contradictions in the sphere of education. The basic truth is that there are two essential rights of all citizens of a democracy, that to adequate nutriment and to adequate education. It is futile to talk about freedom of speech if the people are not nourished and educated, i.e. if they have not the physique nor the mental development with which to think. Universal suffrage is mockery without food and education.

All this illustrates the close connection between school organisation and the ideals of the community of which the school is part. Before the organisation of the whole system of education is planned, the objectives of the society must be clearly visualised. Before the organisation of any school within the system is planned its relationship to the whole system and the part it should play in the development of the whole ideal should be considered. So, too, the class has to assist in achieving the aim of the school. But always, in any sound system of organisation, there will remain room and opportunity for experiment and for adventure along new paths. Again, the two essentials of good organisation make their appearance—the establishment of the ordered and safe background against which the normal work can proceed, and the provision of a base from which the adventurer can set out on new paths.

### CHAPTER II

### THE ENGLISH EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

I T is an old joke that the most marked feature of the English educational system is that it is not a system at all. It has been pointed out that the Public Schools are not public but private, that the Secondary School system is one separate from the Elementary School system and not one arising from it, and that the Elementary School system gives the only education received by the majority of the nation's children. All this is true, but a closer examination discloses that though historically different parts of the whole system had widely diverse origins, yet the movement has been towards the development of a system which shall incorporate them all. The process is by no means complete, and the obstacles still remaining to be overcome are serious ones, largely because of their roots in the past. In a country which emerged from Feudalism, to find itself successively a nation of village craftsmen, of shopkeepers and industrialists, it is not surprising to find contradictions within the existing systems of education, due largely to the maintenance of tradition and the existence of "fossils" of an older culture in the newer one. The reports of the Hadow Committee were motivated by an effort to combine the Elementary School system and the Secondary School system into Some progress has been made—the standards of equipment and work in the best modern schools approach more and more those of the Secondary Schools. But although this brings nearer a genuine fusion of the two, the essential steps remain to be taken. Not even the Hadow Committee attempted to state the place of the Public Schools in the national system.

The origins of the elements of the existing system are of interest, for in them is to be found the real reason for much existing organisation. In the Mediaeval society three classes emerged—those who ruled, those who prayed, and those who worked. The qualities necessary for the first class were those of physical strength and courage, for the rulers were also the fighters, and from the demand for an education based on the development of these qualities arose the Public School system. Qualities needed by the second class were those of interpretation, and this class also gradually assumed the duties of administration, therefore their education had to include Latin and the interpretation of textual matter—and from

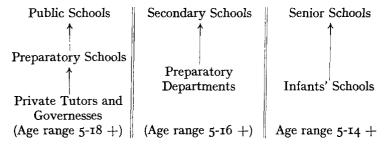
it developed the Secondary School system. There were left the workers, needing, education in their craft. In the early days of the craftsmen, journeymen, and apprentices, this education was given by the master craftsman, and was, within its limits, sound and thorough. But there came the need for change. First came the factory and machine production of goods, needing only machine minders instead of skilled workmen. Secondly, the change in the political organisation of the country from rule by the few to parliamentary government and universal suffrage led to the demand for an education that would produce citizens who could think and act politically rather than those who could think and do productively in the industrial sphere. Now the demand is for citizens who can think and do productively in both the political and industrial spheres.

The three systems developed largely in isolation. The divisions between them were vertical; movement from one to the other was a rare occurrence. Mediaeval society was static—so were the educational schemes to which they gave expression. As the clear cut distinction between social classes tended to disappear, so movement between the educational systems became more free. But the old divisions are still to be seen to-day, and account for the vertical cleavages found within the whole system. Far more breaking down of this barrier has taken place between the Elementary and the Secondary system than between the latter and the Public School system.

The Hadow Committee in its first report upon the Education of the Adolescent attempted to replace the vertical division between the Elementary and the Secondary School systems by a horizontal one between Primary Schools and Secondary Schools. The former were to cater for children up to the age of II +, the latter for all children over 11 +. There were to be many types of Secondary Schools—the existing Secondary Schools which were to be renamed Grammar Schools (a recognition of the origin of these schools), the Central Selective School, the Modern School, and Senior classes attached to Primary Schools. After the publication of this report reorganisation proceeded apace until progress was arrested by the outbreak of the war in 1939. But although the work done has brought the ideals of the Hadow Committee nearer to realisation, the crucial steps remain untaken. Therefore the present is a period of transition. The point of departure is known; the objective is known; at present education is on the march. This means in practice that there are schools of the type developed under the older system existing side by side with those developed under the impetus of the new ideas. The "reorganised" system of Elementary Schools consists of Infant Schools for children up to the age of 8, Junior Schools for children from 8 to 11 +, and Senior Schools for those above the age of 11 + In "unreorganised" areas there still exist some all-age schools catering for children throughout the whole range of Elementary Education, i.e. from 5 to 14, or schools for "Infants," i.e. for children up to the age of 8 or 9, and "Seniors"—all children between 8 or 9 and 14.

The essential differences between the organisation of the English educational system under the older view and that which has resulted from "reorganisation" is indicated in Diagrams I and II (Technical Education excluded for the time being).

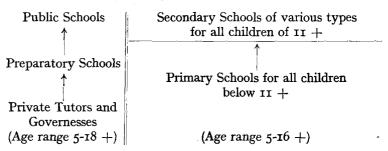
### DIAGRAM I THE OLD SYSTEM—PRE-HADOW (excluding Technical education)



### DIAGRAM II

### THE "HADOW" SYSTEM

(excluding Technical education)



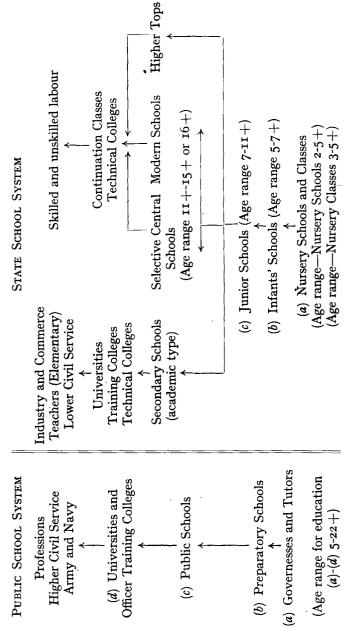
Neither of these diagrams illustrates the actual state of affairs to-day. In some parts of the country the organisation remains that indicated in Diagram I; in others there has been an attempt made to reach the form indicated in Diagram II. In many areas the situation can be best described by saying that education is on the march from Diagram I to Diagram II. In this connection it should be noted that a general school leaving age of sixteen is essential before the second stage can be completely achieved.

Further, in Diagram II no account has been taken of the various-kinds of Secondary Schools, nor of the relationship which exists between the schools and the Universities and Technical Colleges on the one hand and various types of employment on the other. Diagram III attempts to give a pictorial representation of the relationship of all forms of education and employment as visualised by the Hadow Committee.

We are concerned here with the State system only. The organisation of the various types of schools included within the system will be discussed in the appropriate chapters. But it should be noted here that there is a tendency to combine stages (a) and (b), and to make one type of school which shall cater for the whole age range from 2 to 7 +. With the approval of the Board of Education experiments in this type of organisation are now in progress. Generally speaking, however, what is found in practice are either separate Nursery Schools dealing with children from 2 to 5, and separate Infants' Schools dealing with children from 5-7, or Infants' Schools which have Nursery Classes attached. such classes admitting children from 3 to 5, or, of course, just Infants' Schools with no nursery provision. The difference between the commencing ages for Nursery Classes and Nursery Schools is due to the fact that the latter come under different regulations of the Board of Education. The former are part of the educational system proper, and three is the lowest age at which this caters for children, while the latter are part of the special services under the control of the Medical Branch of the Board of Education, and can admit pupils at the age of two years. The relative merits of the two schemes will be discussed later. It is mentioned here only to explain the diagrams.

In some areas the Infant and Junior Schools are combined in one unit, although where this is done the organisation of the two departments of the school is normally kept distinct. The adoption of this expedient is often due to the nature of the accommodation which was available in existing schools when reorganisation was carried out. It is clear that these variations make possible a

# DIAGRAM III



number of alternatives, all of which may be found in practice. There may be (up to and including the Junior School):—

- (a) Nursery Schools—Infants' Schools—Junior Schools.
- (b) Nursery Schools-combined Infant and Junior Schools.
- (c) Infants' Schools—Junior Schools.
- (d) Infants' Schools with Nursery Classes—Junior Schools.
- (e) Combined Infant and Junior Schools.

Generally speaking, the trend is for there to be some nursery provision as a preparatory stage to the Infant School, and for the Infant and Junior Schools to be separate units. It is necessary to have a clear view of the general organisation before considering the variations from it.

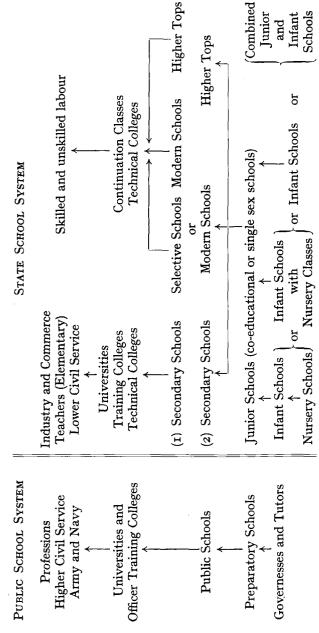
Infants' Schools are co-educational. A variation of practice is to be found in the Junior School. Some are single sex schools and some co-educational. This is another point upon which discussion must be deferred.

Similarly, at the upper range of the school systems variations are to be found. Some authorities have Secondary Schools, Selective Senior Schools, Modern Schools, and "Higher Tops"—senior classes in schools also accommodating younger pupils. This latter arrangement is common in the rural areas, although in many cases modern schools have been erected in some geographically central position in order to provide suitable facilities for the older children from a number of village schools. These variations will be considered in the chapter which deals specially with the Senior School.

These facts indicate that Diagram III, while it represents the organisation of the State system of education as visualised by the various Hadow Committees, does not represent the organisation actually in force in the country to-day. It is difficult to illustrate this by a single diagram because reorganisation has reached different points in different areas of the country, and also because of the degree of freedom left to Local Authorities. Within the general framework of the national scheme there are local variations. Diagram IV is an attempt to indicate the general position, but the student should note that some possible variations have been omitted in order not to overweigh the diagram with detail.

In 1938 the Consultative Committee of the Board of Education issued a further report, commonly called the Spens Report, after the Chairman of the Committee—Mr. Will Spens. The Committee had been given the following Terms of Reference:—"To consider and report upon the organisation and inter-relation of schools,

## DIAGRAM IV



other than those administered under the Elementary Code, which provide education for pupils beyond the age of 11 +, regard being had in particular to the framework and content of the education of pupils who do not remain at school beyond the age of about 16."

It will be observed that these terms of reference expressly exclude from consideration all those schools for children of II + which were specially considered in the Hadow Report upon the Education of the Adolescent. That Report had recommended that such schools for children of II + should be considered as various forms of provision for Secondary education, *i.e.* as Secondary Schools. Of these schools the Spens Report dealt with the existing type of Secondary Schools only, *i.e.* those which the Hadow Report had termed Grammar Schools and Technical Institutions.

The outstanding recommendations of the Report was that a new type of school, to be known as the Technical High School, should be established. The importance of this recommendation makes the actual words of the Report worth quoting.

"We are convinced that it is of great importance to establish a new type of higher school of technical character quite distinct from the traditional academic Grammar School. As a first step to this end, we recommend that a number of existing Junior Technical Schools orientated towards the engineering and building industries and any other Technical Schools which may develop training of such a character as (a) to provide a good intellectual discipline altogether apart from its technical value, and (b) to have a technical value in relation not to one particular occupation but to a group of occupations, should be converted into Technical High Schools, in the sense that they should be accorded in every respect equality of status with schools of the grammar school type. We recommend that such schools, which would recruit their pupils at the age of 11+ and provide a five-year course up to the age of 16+, should be called Technical High Schools to distinguish them from full-time Technical Schools of other types which provide courses for pupils beginning at the age of 13 or 14.

"We recommend that pupils should be recruited for Technical High Schools at the age of  $\pi + \pi$  by means of the general selective examination by which pupils are at present recruited for the Grammar Schools.

"The curriculum for pupils between the ages of 11+ and 13+ in Technical High Schools should be broadly of the same character as the curriculum in other types of secondary school of equal status.

"For pupils above the age of 13 the curriculum should be designed so as to provide a liberal education with Science and its applications as the core and inspiration. The subject matter would be English, History, Geography, Mathematics, Science, Engineering Drawing, Practical Crafts in the workshops, Physical Education, and the Aesthetic subjects, together with continued study of a foreign language for those pupils who have shown that they are capable of profiting by it.

"We consider that the fee system in Technical High Schools should be the same as that in Grammar Schools situated in the same administrative area.

"We recommend that a new type of leaving certificate should be established for pupils in Technical High Schools on the basis of internal examinations founded on the school curriculum, and subject to external assessment by assessors appointed or approved by the Board of Education in order to afford an adequate guarantee for a uniform minimum standard of certification in Technical High Schools throughout the country. We recommend that the arrangements for this leaving certificate should be planned on lines similar to those in use for the existing examinations for National Certificates."

Junior Technical Schools had, of course, been in existence for some time. These usually recruited their pupils from various types of Senior and Secondary Schools at the age of 13 +, and the courses organised by the schools lasted for two or three years, *i.e.* there was a leaving age of 15 or 16. With regard to these schools the Spens report recommended that:

"Since the word 'Junior' in the expression Junior Technical School has rather misleading associations, we recommend that henceforth the expression 'Technical School' be used as a general term to describe all Junior Technical Schools recruiting their pupils at the age of 13+ and providing courses which last for two or three years. The name 'Technical School' will thus embrace both the specifically vocational schools hitherto known as Trade Schools, which prepare for definite occupations, and those schools which prepare for a range of related trades and occupations, viz., the Junior Technical Schools for boys, bearing on the engineering and building industries, the schools designed to prepare girls for home management, and the Junior Commercial Schools.

"We have come to the conclusion that the Junior Technical School for boys, associated with the engineering and building industries have succeeded in developing their curriculum on a broad scientific and realistic basis, and we are of opinion that for certain types of boy the education provided by this curriculum and the practical method of approach to various subjects, e.g., Science, Mathematics, and Engineering Drawing, best develop their capacities, and in consequence provide the course most appropriate for them whatever occupation they may eventually choose."

This provision for Technical education adds to the facilities shown in Diagrams III and IV. It should be noted that while the age of transfer to the new Technical High Schools is to be 11 +, the first two years of the course are to be the same as those in the existing Secondary Schools. The other Technical Schools (those previously known as Junior Technical Schools, Trade Schools, and Junior Commercial Schools) are to continue to recruit their pupils at 11 +.

The whole of the State system is shown in Diagram V, which also attempts to show the way in which the various parts of it are inter-related. It must be remembered that this represents the full and complete system. In some areas certain forms of provision will be missing; in other areas alternative forms will be provided. This is bound to be the case when the Central Authority leaves a measure of independence in educational affairs to the Local Authority. Further, the diagram does not show the provision made for children suffering from various defects-mental or physical. There are, of course, schools for the blind, the deaf, the dumb, open air schools for other physically defective children, special schools for mentally defective children, and schools for delinquents. All these have their place within the general system, but it is impossible to include them in the diagram. They will be further discussed in the chapter which deals with this type of educational provision.

The system may be summarised in another way. At the age of two a child may enter a Nursery School if one exists in his area, and continue there until he is five. At the age of three he may enter a Nursery Class attached to an Infants' School. When he becomes five he may

- (a) Be educated by a Tutor or Governess;
- (b) Attend a private school, gain admission to the preparatory department of a Secondary School, or attend an Infants' School.

At the age of about 7 +he may continue to be privately educated, may continue in the Junior Department of the Secondary School, or attend a State Elementary Junior School. At II + he may (providing he satisfies the conditions laid down) enter a Secondary School, a Technical High School (where one exists), a Selective Central School, or a Modern School. Usually it is his performance in a transfer examination which is usually held at this age which determines the type of school he will attend. At the age of 13 some of those attending Modern or Selective Schools and, occasionally, Secondary Schools may be transferred to Technical Schools (formerly Junior Technical Schools) for a two or three year course. Those who proceed to Secondary Schools or Technical High Schools usually remain to 16 +: those attending Central Selective Schools or Technical Schools to 15 +, while those who attend the Modern Schools usually leave at 14+. Part time education is provided in Junior Evening Institutes for adolescents from 14 + to 16, and in Senior Institutes and the part time courses