

NON-AWARD BEARING IN-SERVICE EDUCATION AND TRAINING

COURSES FOR POLITICAL EDUCATION:

A Review and Evaluation of the National Provision
from September 1979 to January 1982

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ABSTRACT

This study is concerned to evaluate the effectiveness of various forms of in-service education and training (INSET) for political education. Political education is seen as a broader enterprise than simply inculcating a knowledge of the workings of political institutions.

It is argued that the main focus of INSET should be on the professional performance of teachers, on what their opinions are, what they know and what they are able to achieve. Various approaches to, and theories of educational evaluation are categorised and early attempts to evaluate INSET are surveyed.

It is contended that the most appropriate mode of evaluation should incorporate the Case-Study, Formative, Responsive, Descriptive/Illuminative, Processed-based, Portrayal and Democratic methods. The particular approach devised is developed from the 'Cumulative Case-Study' technique.

An analysis of a national survey of teachers' needs and opinions indicates that teachers involved in political education identify practical concerns as their main need and practical INSET sessions as their preference. The survey suggests a set of priorities which can be used to build a range of models of INSET course provision to form the basis of a theoretical framework for INSET course evaluation.

A set of five models is derived from the principal aims of INSET courses identified in the national survey. As the basis of the evaluation these models provide hypotheses to be investigated and categories for the selection and analysis of research data.

Two of the eleven case-studies conducted are presented to provide a selection of qualitative and quantitative data as well as to indicate the development of the research theory and the evaluation methodology.

The findings indicate a range of specific recommendations for the planning and implementation of INSET courses if they are to meet the needs of teachers of political education. Many of the conclusions would apply equally to INSET courses in other fields.

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INTRODUCTION

In recent years it has become widely accepted that the key to the professional development of teachers is the provision of adequate In-Service Education and Training (INSET). This view has been adopted more or less uncritically, and as each successive demand for teacher development and curriculum reform has been expressed it has been met by a flurry of INSET courses. However, few have troubled to enquire what kinds of INSET activities and experiences actually do influence the understanding, the skills and the attitudes of teachers, and it is probable that a significant proportion of INSET courses serve no useful purpose.

In view of the rich and complex nature of INSET any evaluation study which might address and clarify the essential issues involved would need to be informed by an appropriate philosophy of evaluation as well as a comprehensive theory of INSET. This study, which takes as its principal concern the provision of INSET for political education, attempts to examine and illuminate both of these areas of educational theory.

Given that the focus of this study has been INSET courses for political education, the initial stage has been to clarify what is involved in the notion of political

education and to chart its emergence as an area of curriculum concern in Britain. Political education is viewed in this context as a broader enterprise than simply inculcating a knowledge of the workings of political institutions. The aims of political education, it is argued, involve the development of attitudes and skills appropriate to participation in a democracy. To this end the processes of school programmes of political education will seek to prize democratic ideals by being pupil-centred and by featuring activities which promote participation.

What is regarded as inherent and contextual to the phenomena of INSET, or what is regarded as a constituent and determining characteristic of INSET, is problematic. In order to clarify the scope and characteristics of INSET an account of the development of the provision of INSET is followed by a review of early attempts to define and classify INSET. It is argued that valid INSET activities are those which focus on the professional performance of teachers and take as their starting point what their opinions are, what they know and what they can achieve.

Evaluation in education does not comprise a set of 'all-purpose' research procedures that can be applied indiscriminately in any context. All evaluation procedures, like photographic film, capture and portray pictures of the social world which are determined as much by the characteristics of the procedures themselves as by the

inherent and contextual features of the phenomena under observation. The next stage, therefore, has been to present a detailed review and analysis of alternative theories of and approaches to the evaluation of INSET. Arising from this the various forms of evaluation are synthesised to produce a broad definition and a typology of styles of evaluation.

In order to develop a style of evaluation appropriate to INSET for political education various approaches to the evaluation of INSET in general are investigated and the typology of styles of evaluation is reviewed in the context of the concepts of political education and of valid INSET developed earlier. It is contended that the most appropriate form of evaluation should incorporate the Case-Study, Formative, Responsive, Descriptive/Illuminative, Processed-based, Portrayal and Democratic methods. The particular approach developed is derived from the 'Cumulative Case-Study' technique of evaluation.

An analysis of an investigation of teachers' needs and opinions about INSET for political education indicates that teachers involved in political education identify practical concerns as their main area of need and practical sessions as their preference for INSET. The analysis highlights a set of priorities for INSET courses for political education which are then used to construct a range of models of INSET course arrangements and which form the basis of a

theoretical framework for INSET course evaluation. As the basis of this evaluation study these models provide hypotheses to be investigated as well as categories for the selection and analysis of research data.

The research involved conducting a series of case-studies of INSET courses for political education over a period of 26 months. Two of the eleven case-studies conducted are presented to provide a selection of qualitative and quantitative data as well as to indicate the development of the research theory and the evaluation methodology.

The findings suggest that the most successful INSET courses are those in which the assumptions and values proclaimed and affirmed by the structure and processes of the course are consistent with the assumptions and values of political education. The conclusion presents a range of specific recommendations for the planning and implementation of INSET courses if they are to meet the needs of teachers of political education. It is evident that many of the recommendations would apply equally to INSET courses in other fields. It seems clear, therefore, that the kind of models of INSET course provision developed for this study and the theoretical framework and methodology used would be appropriate to the evaluation of other forms of INSET.

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The study was conducted between September 1979 and

January 1982 and the bulk of this account of the research was written between 1982 and 1986. Since the fieldwork was carried out there have been several significant developments, including changes in the national organisation and funding of INSET and additional perspectives from other research projects.

For completeness an account of changes in the national arrangements for INSET has been included as an appendix. However, the concerns and outcomes of subsequent evaluation studies cannot be handled in the same way. There have been studies which, had they been published prior to 1979, might have influenced the particular focus and methodology of this project, but it would be improper to make retrospective revisions to the original account of the research and the findings or to attempt to adapt them to altered circumstances.

It is nevertheless suggested that this thesis demonstrates the particular importance for course participants of the hidden curriculum of INSET courses, and thus the importance of there being a congruence between the course intentions and those details of course content, style and structure which actually convey those intentions. The thesis also provides, in the form of a set of generalised analytical models of INSET courses and a distinctive research methodology, a valid means of evaluating other forms of INSET provision.

CHAPTER 1

FROM 'CIVICS' TO 'POLITICAL LITERACY': THE EMERGENCE OF POLITICAL EDUCATION

Introduction

There are two distinct, and potentially divisive, strands to the teaching of Politics in secondary schools and colleges of further education in England and Wales which can be discerned both in the theoretical accounts as well as in the history of its development. One strand is typified by courses, usually taught to public examination syllabuses with titles such as Political Studies or Government and Politics. The main concerns of such courses are contemporary national and international issues, the history of political ideas and doctrines, and descriptive and comparative accounts of the machinery of government. The other strand is represented by courses with a vast diversity of titles including Personal and Social Education, Education for International Understanding, World Studies and so on. In this case the main concerns defy synopsis. Many focus on contemporary political issues; some indeed are single-issue courses such as Women's Studies and Peace Studies. Others concentrate on personal concerns.

For reasons that will become apparent the term 'political education' in this study will be confined to courses which come into the second category; the first being referred to as the teaching of Government and Politics.

The Development of Politics Teaching

Until the second quarter of this century very little explicit attention was given to political affairs in schools. Not that these concerns were overlooked by educationalists; rather the emphasis appeared to be that all that was required was a concern for 'character building' in order to turn out good citizens. So the elementary schools were encouraged to include in their curriculum activities to develop moral virtues such as 'temperance', 'obedience', 'prudence', etc.

The purpose of the school is education in the full sense of the word: the high function of the teacher is to prepare the child for the life of the good citizen, to create and to foster the aptitude for work and for the intelligent use of leisure, and to develop those features of character which are most readily influenced by school life, such as loyalty to comrades, loyalty to institutions, unselfishness and an orderly and disciplined habit of mind. (Board of Education, 1919: 5, cited in Brennan, 1981).

However, during the mid-1930's the rise of mass totalitarian movements in Europe caused a number of leading educationalists and others to conclude that something

explicitly intended to train young people in the qualities they regarded as the stamp of a good citizen was needed in schools. The immediate outcome was the Association for Education in Citizenship (AEC) founded by Sir Ernest Simon and Mrs Eva Hubback in 1934.

Membership of the AEC comprised mainly public figures and leading scholars, such as politicians, industrialists, university and college Principals and prominent Fabian socialists. Consequently, with easy access to the corridors of power, it had some success in influencing opinion in education.

Among the specific educational aims advanced by the AEC were the promotion of 'a sense of social responsibility, a love of truth and freedom, the power of clear thinking, and a knowledge of the broad political and economic facts'. (Hubback & Simons, 1935). In general the aims of the AEC were largely conservative. According to Whitmarsh, who made a detailed study of the AEC,

It was concerned to mobilize and sustain support for the established institutions and those who operated them. (Whitmarsh, 1981: 5).

In its proposed curriculum strategy, however, it was far from conservative. The traditional 'character building' approach was dismissed as ineffective. It called for direct teaching through a change in the curriculum and the introduction of such activities as debates, invited

speakers, school visits and community service. Its specific proposals included transmitting to pupils the values of democracy, training in the use of logical thought in the context of studying social issues, and the introduction of Public Affairs and Economics as subjects in the curriculum.

Despite considerable efforts, so radical were these ideas that the AEC failed in its attempts to persuade either the Spens Committee (1938) or the Norwood Committee (1943) to recommend them in their influential reports. Nevertheless, over the period 1934 to 1955 when it eventually disbanded, the campaign conducted by the AEC had had the effect of convincing many individual teachers and headteachers that they had a responsibility for ensuring that pupils received some education for citizenship, and where there was no direct teaching of Civics or Citizenship it was generally accepted that subjects such as History and Geography should promote these aims.

A combination of events -- the end of World War II, the 1944 Education Act and the reforming Labour government of 1945 - 1951 -- helped sustain the interest in an education for democratic society. The high point of this interest was marked by a Ministry of Education pamphlet Citizens Growing Up (Ministry of Education, 1949) which expressed the view that schools should do more than merely provide occasional lessons on civics and entertain a hope that History or

Geography teachers would cover some socially relevant issues.

However, the evidence (cited in Lawton & Dufour, 1973) suggests that during the 1950's historians and geographers responded more energetically than social science teachers to the call for renewed vigour and that these subject disciplines steadily gained curriculum time at the expense of Civics and Social Studies. Another turning point came after the publication of the Crowther Report (1959) and the Newsom Report (1963).

Both the Crowther and the Newsom reports presented strong grounds for the explicit preparation of young people for a positive role in political society. These reports served to fuel the growing conviction among many Social Studies teachers that if the social subjects were to make real inroads into the curriculum they would have to be squarely based on the major social science disciplines represented by departments in universities and polytechnics -- Sociology, Anthropology, Economics and Politics.

This renewed enthusiasm, subsequently described as the New Social Studies movement, was marked by the proliferation of Social Studies courses in schools, resulted in the founding of subject teaching associations for the social sciences, and generated the publication of several handbooks on teaching in these fields. The various activities and

achievements of this movement, although extremely significant in the history of the social subjects and the humanities in secondary education, are not central to present concerns. (For a review and analysis of the New Social Studies movement see Lawton & Dufour, 1973 and Gleeson & Whitty, 1976). The particular development of immediate concern to the present context was the increase, in the late 1960's, in the teaching of British Constitution.

British Constitution

One of the reasons for the fairly rapid adoption of this subject was because it was widely believed [1] (with a great deal of evidence to support the belief) that it was a much easier subject to pass at 'A' level. It therefore provided a useful third choice subject for sixth-formers wishing to enhance their entry qualifications for higher education courses.

However, these apparent advantages also had their drawbacks. The majority of institutions of higher education and many employers were not willing to accept for entry qualifications an 'A' level grade in British Constitution as being equivalent to the same grade in most

1. There is no available research evidence to support many of the propositions which follow about teachers' attitudes and opinions. These propositions are based on two sources of observation; opinions expressed by teachers of Politics in articles and letters in professional journals and in The Times Educational Supplement, and opinions voiced at national and branch meetings of the Politics Association.

other subjects. Inevitably, this had an effect on the opinions held by headteachers with the consequence that in those schools where the subject was offered there was little or no time-table provision, and pupils either took it as the only alternative after they had been turned away from those subjects which were their prime choices or as an extra subject outside the normal time-table arrangements.

The low esteem of the subject undoubtedly had implications for the self-esteem of teachers of Politics. In 1969 teachers of Politics formed a professional organisation, the Politics Association, in order to promote their interests. In the first few years of its existence most of its effort was directed towards reforming the teaching of British Constitution and changing the image of the subject.

All those involved, teachers and examiners, were agreed that reform was needed, and great efforts had to be made to make the standard more rigorous. Where those teachers who were actively involved in the Politics Association parted company with the examiners was over the strategy to be adopted. The examiners talked in general terms about the quality of English, about expression and about tidiness. (See Benemy 1970a, 1970b and 1974). There was no suggestion that the syllabus should be changed, only that more demanding questions should be asked and more exacting standards should be imposed on presentation.

The teachers on the other hand, were calling for syllabus reform.

... the nature of Politics must be studied -- the nature of power, bureaucracy and the allocation of values ... The student must learn the methods of political enquiry ... As the basis for political argument is ideology this must be included in a syllabus ... The theoretical aspect should include the major political ideals ... and political concepts like the state, sovereignty, representation. (de la Cour, 1971: 29).

In short they were urging that some of the aspects of Politics which were to be found on undergraduate courses, such as Political Ideas and Doctrines, Political Sociology, Public Administration, Comparative Politics, and so on, should be taught and examined at 'A' level.

Government and Politics

The next ten years saw a period of steady reform in this direction led by sweeping changes to the University of London Schools Examination Board (ULSEB) syllabus. The revised syllabus on Government and Political Studies offered from 1976 a core paper focusing on political concepts, and a wide range of option papers each representing a major strand of Politics teaching at undergraduate level.

Contrary to the misgivings of those who feared that such a profound change in the demands of the subject would cause a flight to other less demanding syllabuses, there was, and continues to be, a steady increase in candidate entries to

the ULSEB syllabus. Inevitably most other Examination Boards soon followed the example of the ULSEB. By 1978 almost all the 'A' level syllabuses had their titles changed to Government and Politics, or Political Studies (or some permutation of these words), and their syllabus schemes were modelled on undergraduate themes. (For an analysis of these reforms see O'Connell, 1978). The same books were being written and recommended for both 'A' level and first year undergraduate courses. Politics had become a respectable subject, accepted on an equal basis with other 'A' levels for university entrance purposes.

With enhanced respectability for the subject, the self-respect and status of teachers of Politics improved. As entries to the subject at 'A' level grew, the proportion of their time-table devoted to sixth-form teaching increased and, for reasons that are difficult to surmise, there developed a view that any worthwhile Politics teaching is best confined to the over-16 age group. Recent surveys have confirmed that those involved in Politics teaching at 'A' level are seldom involved in schemes of social and political education for younger age groups. (Stradling & Noctor, 1980).

Crick's Criticisms

One of the prominent figures in the campaign for the reform

of Politics teaching was Bernard Crick, formerly Professor of Politics at the University of Sheffield and then at Birkbeck College, University of London. In an essay which argued for more teaching about politics in schools, he rejected British Constitution as hardly relevant, potentially boring and scarcely Politics. (Crick, 1969).

In criticising British Constitution Crick was advocating political education rather than 'Government and Politics' [2]. Any worthwhile education, he claimed, must include some explanation of the naturalness of politics. But the point of departure, the basic premise, is all important. By starting with 'the constitution' it is almost certain that we will head off in the wrong direction entirely and even engender a distaste for the real stuff of politics.

Crick suggested that British Constitution might be understood as an evasion of politics born out of a nervousness of teaching about what some regard as a slightly improper or deviant activity. He drew a striking analogy with sex education. Here there is nervousness about the role of the school, and doubts about whether it is desirable or possible to make a distinction between offering prudent

2. Although Crick was centrally involved, as Chief Examiner from 1976, in the reforms of the ULSEB syllabus these endeavours should not be confused with his concern to change the teaching of Politics throughout the United Kingdom.

advice and laying down moral laws. The usual compromise is to duck the issue altogether and portray sexual behaviour in a functional anatomical way as if reproductive organs and activities have a separate existence from caring, thinking people. And so it is with teaching about politics: the implicit message of portraying politics simply as a relatively stable and agreed set of offices, institutions, procedures and conventions is that public disagreement over policies, and over the conventions and procedures themselves is cast in an unfavourable light.

The analogy with sex education is particularly striking because the unfortunate implications of a functional description taken out of its personal, social and cultural context are immediately apparent. But that is as far as the parallel between sex education and political education goes. There are many who would regard a functional anatomical description of sexual behaviour as a perfectly acceptable and adequate account. Crick's main argument however, was that 'constitution' is not really politics at all and that teaching British Constitution is of little value to political education.

There is no constitution in the sense
that the syllabuses usually assume, it is
a concept invented and taught to others.
(Crick, 1969: 6)

The British constitution is that set of rules, formal and informal, by which state politics at the national and local level is practised: it is not the activity of politics itself, nor does it have much bearing on political

relationships and activity outside the framework of government.

The shortcomings of teaching British Constitution stem, not from any unique characteristics of British institutions, nor from any limitations of teachers, but are rooted in prevailing ideas about what constitutes an academically respectable subject discipline. Such ideas were voiced by one Chief Examiner who even expressed misgivings about the modest reforms proposed by the Schools Council when the 'N' and 'F' syllabuses were considered by university admissions panels: 'One enters dangerous ground once one goes beyond the British Government and Politics frame.' (Ridley, 1979).

Unfortunately, it was the desire for academic respectability which was the motive force in the transition from 'British Constitution' to 'Government and Politics' and so most of the revised syllabuses still bore the imprints of what Crick had condemned as scarcely politics.

Political Education

By 1978, following a three year curriculum development project, Crick's basic ideas had been refined, clarified, elaborated and offered to the education profession as 'political literacy' (Crick & Porter, 1978). The label itself is not particularly important; what matters are the specific objectives of those who were concerned with proposing a broader notion of Politics teaching than that represented by either the old British Constitution or the

revised Government and Politics syllabuses.

The broad outline of political literacy, a draft manifesto in effect, was offered first by Graeme Moodie, Professor of Politics at the University of York. He suggested that the perspectives employed in political education ought to be those of the ordinary citizen rather than those of the rulers, let alone those of the academic political scientist. The intention, he argued, should be to sensitise people to the existence and nature of political problems.

The subject of politics, therefore, is the study of these problems and the processes by which they are and can be tackled as well as, on a more theoretical level, the criteria by which they ought to be settled and the methods by which they ought to be studied and discussed. (Moodie, 1973: 12)

Citing Pitkin (1967), Moodie claimed that one of the distinctive characteristics of political decisions and activity is that they deal with problems or issues which cannot properly be settled by purely rational activity nor merely by appeal to higher authority. On the other hand, they are not issues which can safely or properly be settled merely by hunch and personal preference. They are issues which can only be settled by reference to both fact and value, both argument and interest. Thus political problems occur not only in state activities but in the life and dealings of any enduring group or social situation. In fact there is no human situation in which there would be no

political activity and no political problems. Therefore the study of politics could be approached, suggested Moodie, through examples of dispute and conflict in families, schools, colleges, trade unions and businesses as well as in the state arena.

Finally, Moodie argued that political education should have some practical value, it should be taught as a training for responsible citizenship. To this end it should include 'the understanding of concepts, the ability to argue from and about facts, and some inoculation against the spurious and demagogic uses of both facts and concepts.' (Moodie, 1973).

Political Literacy

We can trace in Moodie's account the main strands of what became, during the 1970's, those characteristics of political education which distinguished it sharply from the teaching of Politics. It is not necessary for present purposes to provide a detailed account of the specific teaching and learning objectives proposed by the advocates of the political education movement, but what is fundamentally important are the governing aims.

Notwithstanding some differences of opinion over precisely what should be included in the specification of

political literacy, there is certainly broad agreement about the basic precepts.

The first and most fundamental principle is that political education should be provided for all pupils and should not be confined to a selected few. It should therefore not be based on an examination syllabus for this would have the effect not only of restricting the number of pupils allowed to take the subject but also of grading those who do take it according to their ability to recall facts. Whilst some pupils may be granted increased opportunities as a consequence of gaining high grades in Politics examinations the majority, who are effectively labelled as failures, do not. Political education, in contrast, should not set out to judge the relative worth of pupils and categorise some as competent and others as incompetent.

[Political literacy] is not an absolute condition; a political danger of assessing political literacy is that simplifiers might label majorities 'politically illiterate' and unworthy of active participation in political life.
(Crick & Porter, 1978: 39)

Behind this principle there lie both pragmatic concerns and ideological convictions. Clearly a political education intended for active citizenship must, by definition, be available to all young people and the reality of the British education system means that an approach which is based on an examination syllabus does not permit this aim to be achieved.

Much more important than the practical issue is the contention that political education should be based on, and should serve to promote democratic ideals. The democratic ideals of political education are complex and far reaching (See Crick, 1978; and White, 1973 and 1974). In essence the contention is that an education for active citizenship should equip young people with not only appropriate knowledge but also appropriate skills and values.

Knowledge and understanding

Appropriate knowledge, as indicated earlier, goes well beyond information about the machinery of government and includes an understanding of the processes of politics in a wider social context. Moreover it focuses on political issues rather than political structures and institutions.

A politically literate person will know what the main issues are in contemporary politics as he himself is affected, and will know how to set about informing himself further about the main arguments employed and how to criticise the relevance or worth of the evidence on which they are based; and he will need as much, but no more, knowledge of institutional structure as he needs to understand the issues and the plausibility of rival policies. (Crick & Porter, 1978: 37)

One immediate implication of this is that a course on political education will draw on subject matter from a range of disciplines outside the traditional boundaries of Politics -- disciplines such as history, geography, economics, sociology, anthropology, psychology -- most of

the humanities and social subjects in fact.

Another implication is that the subject matter becomes value-laden and controversial. Teachers cannot resort to the unambiguous presentation of facts for pupils to learn and regurgitate. A much greater attention to appropriate aims and teaching strategies is required. No longer can teachers adopt the position of an authority on the issue under consideration without appearing to impose their own commitments on pupils, and thus run the risk of being accused of attempting to indoctrinate them. Teachers have to act as facilitators for a process of exploration and enquiry by providing the resources, the frameworks and the opportunities for pupils to enter into experiences which will enable them to exercise and develop political skills.

... the teacher [would need to be] skilful in conveying the plausibility of differing value-systems and what is entailed by different interpretations of concepts like democracy or equality rather than be too worried about suppressing his own values. ... political literacy [is] more concerned with recognising accurately and accepting the existence of real political conflicts than with developing knowledge of the details of constitutional machinery. Problems are prior to the institutions which try to resolve or contain them. (Crick & Porter, 1978: 31)

Skills

The kinds of skills appropriate to an active citizenship is

a more complex issue than the kinds of knowledge and understanding. (See for example Stradling, 1978 and Webb, 1980). The broadest specification would include the sum total of all skills espoused by every subject discipline. As a means of identifying more precisely those skills which are germane to political education it is best to focus on the participatory strand of democratic theory.

All notions of democracy stem from the cardinal principle that government should be founded on the consent of the populace and that their consent should be actively expressed (not surmised or deduced). Even the most restricted notions of democracy, such as Schumpeter's account of democracy as merely a method or a set of procedures for choosing between competing candidates for political leadership (Schumpeter, 1943), are founded on an assumption that the populace have and exercise the right to vote. Modern and more widely held accounts of democracy regard express consent and active participation as its very foundation and essence. (For a comprehensive discussion of participatory theories of democracy see Pateman, 1970).

In practice, even in the most nominal 'democracy', the expectations and opportunities for various forms of participation are much greater than this minimal view. They range from the informal management of voluntary associations such as charities, trades unions, pressure groups, etc., through to formal appointments to nominated

bodies such as a Regional Health Authority or a Consumer Council.

Political literacy must imply the ability to use knowledge to effect in politics. Minimal and formal involvement in politics or citizenship is voting, but political activity is also influencing people in almost any kind of group situation. (Crick & Porter, 1978: 32).

The skills appropriate to these forms of participation may be thought of as intellectual, communication and action skills. Intellectual skills include the ability to organise and interpret information and evidence, and the ability to develop sound arguments based on such evidence. Communication skills can be seen as the next stage in the sequence in as much as as they involve the ability to express particular points of view, to perceive correctly others' points of view and to examine and be responsive to those different opinions. Communication skills involve, in short, the ability to engage in political discussion. (Discussion, as an objective as well as a vehicle for political education, is explored in Bridges, 1979.)

Action skills are an extension of this in as much as they involve the ability to organise a campaign to influence others in order to bring about change in a political situation.

... political literacy involves the action and interaction of groups. ... The ultimate test of political literacy lies in creating a proclivity to action, not in achieving more theoretical analysis. The politically literate person would be

capable of active participation (or positive refusal to participate) ... The politically literate person must be able to devise strategies for influence and for achieving change. (Crick & Porter, 1978: 41).

Attitudes and Values

The kinds of values implied by a political education based on democratic ideals must also be set in the context of preparation for participation and are therefore closely intertwined with the skills outlined above. Indeed, most of the skills involved in participation cannot meaningfully be separated from certain attitudes and dispositions. One fundamental value is a respect for others. From this stems a willingness to co-operate with others, to tolerate a diversity of views, to empathise with others, and to value truth and fairness.

Another important attitude is a willingness to be prepared to change one's opinions (or have them changed) in the light of reason. This entails a willingness to give reasons, and to expect reasons from others. In particular a willingness to adopt a critical stance towards political information and evidence is an important outlook to be developed.

... the teacher should not seek to influence basic substantive values ... but it is both proper and possible to try to nurture and strengthen certain procedural values. ... It would be wrong to define a politically literate person as someone who necessarily shares all values of Western European Liberalism. ... Such views are to be learned as part

of our tradition, but they must themselves be subject to criticism, some skepticism must be part of any citizen and of any worthwhile education. (Crick & Porter, 1978: 41, 40).

Pedagogy

It goes without saying that, as educational objectives, these are easier to explain and even agree on than to achieve in the classroom. There is very little reliable evidence on how they might best be achieved.

Much of the focus of the Programme for Political Education was concerned to clarify and operationalise the concept of political literacy in the context of concrete classroom situations, not to assess the extent to which it was being taught effectively [3]. Thus it was more concerned to produce specific and elaborate accounts of what would be involved in attempting to teach to political literacy objectives while teaching, say, a course on local history, rather than to identify which particular teaching methods are more effective in achieving the ideals of political education.

 3. The work of the associated Research and Monitoring Unit based at the University of York under the direction of Professor Ian Lister was concerned to some extent with the effectiveness of various teaching strategies. Its findings, although based on only a very small and diverse sample of schools, are broadly consistent with the formulation which follows.

The word 'success', wherever it appears, has been used in a strictly limited sense. ... Success in this particular study involves, initially, the ability to implement recommendations ... selected and summarised for the purposes of analysing lesson practices. ... We may not, however, infer any forms of success beyond that which was defined for the purposes of these studies ... Even very successful programmes may not lead to longer term results such as gains in the political literacy of students ... (Crick & Porter, 1978: 244).

Fortunately, recent development work in the closely related fields of values clarification, moral education, and Social and Health Education does give some clear indicators of the implications for classroom practice. (See for example Simon et al, 1972; Kohlberg, 1984; Johnson & Johnson, 1975 and Baldwin & Wells, 1979).

Whereas knowledge may be gained by passively reading or listening to a teacher hold forth, skills cannot be learned by merely sitting in a classroom taking notes. A political education geared towards democratic objectives has to be experiential. Teachers have to provide tasks in which pupils can become involved and engaged, dealing with issues upon which skills and understandings can be brought to bear and through which they can be expanded and elaborated.

Although teachers should establish a direction for enquiry, an agenda which necessitates collating information, weighing evidence, preparing arguments, engaging in discussion and decision-making, and even preparing a

campaign to effect change, they should not prescribe or proscribe outcomes; rather the educational encounter should be an invitation to explore and to discover alternative possibilities.

Such procedures are even more important in the province of attitudes and values in politics. These can only be explored and clarified in the company of others in the context of meaningful problems which they have to cope with collaboratively. Essentially what is required is that pupils should be given opportunities to work co-operatively in small groups, engaging in tasks which have been devised for the purpose of exploring values. Examples of such tasks include social and political dilemmas which may be explored through gaming, simulation or role-play by means of which the implications of, significance of, and possible conflict between certain values are highlighted.

It is in the process of engaging in such activities, as well as in the process of reviewing that experience, that meanings of values, how they are held and how they may be changed, are clarified. Here also, outcomes should not be prescribed or proscribed (with the exception of those values which are intolerant of, and which effectively negate the values of democracy upon which the aims of political education are founded); the object is not homogeneity but diversity and autonomy.

Conclusion

In contrast to the teaching of Government and Politics, political education is not judgemental, it does not seek to assess or classify pupils but rather to actively engage them in developmental experiences which illuminate and enhance their political understandings, skills and values.

It follows from this that the product of a political education course is less significant than the processes involved. Any identifiable outcomes should of course be worthwhile and both personally and socially valuable. More important however, is the quality and content of the educational experience itself if it is to fulfil the aims of political education.

Lastly, a crucial characteristic of the process of political education is that it seeks to reflect and promote democratic ideals by being pupil-centred rather than subject-centred and by featuring activities which encourage co-operation between pupils rather than rivalry, competition and conflict.

CHAPTER 2

IN-SERVICE EDUCATION AND TRAINING: DEVELOPMENT, PROVISION AND DEFINITION

Introduction

In a very general sense In-Service Education and Training (INSET) for teachers in England and Wales has existed for well over 150 years; yet it can also be understood as a comparatively recent idea. Arrangements and activities which could be regarded as INSET were, as Henderson (1978) has observed, synonymous with the beginnings of any form of teacher training. However, those arrangements bear very little resemblance to the INSET provision of the present day and to draw a line of descent or to make a conceptual link between present day INSET and those early practices may be stretching the idea of INSET a little too far.

There are good reasons for being cautious and tentative. The idea of INSET has undergone rapid change in the last few years; so much so that in its present usage it could be treated as a modern invention. Interest in INSET has developed to the point that the study of its provision is probably now an identifiable branch of education research with a corpus of theory, based on a small but growing number

of research studies, about what might constitute worthwhile objectives and desirable practices. But, as would reasonably be expected in such circumstances, there is considerable diversity of opinion concerning the scope of INSET, the appropriateness of particular research methodologies and, consequently, the usefulness of various recommendations.

There is every indication that interest in INSET will continue to grow, possibly at an even greater rate, and there is near certainty that current opinions will be modified and refined as rapidly. It would be foolish, therefore, to attempt to provide an authoritative definition of INSET, particularly in the context of a study which focuses on the meanings and implications of INSET for teachers in practice rather than on its theoretical dimensions and possibilities. However, an account of the practice of INSET -- of its development, its provision, its forms and its purposes -- should serve to clarify the meaning of the term and to provide a context for the particular study which is the subject of this thesis.

The Development of INSET

To identify an INSET provision in the monitorial and the pupil-teacher systems of the eighteenth and early nineteenth

centuries, as Henderson (1978) does, is probably stretching the idea of INSET further than can be justified if any consistency is desired.

The monitorial system of the late eighteenth century involved a teacher giving a lesson to older pupils who were then required to teach the same lesson to their younger contemporaries. The pupil-teacher system was established in the mid-nineteenth century in a few schools identified, by the Inspectorate, as being suitable for the scheme. The arrangements were a more elaborate version of the monitorial system involving a five year paid apprenticeship for the pupil-teachers and an opportunity to sit an entrance examination for a teacher training college at the end of the apprenticeship.

But, unless the meaning of INSET is understood to include any education and training which involves actual experience of teaching pupils, its application to the monitorial and the pupil-teacher systems would appear to be quite inappropriate. Such an application, if applicable, would allow us to claim that the teaching practice element of present day Pre-Service Education and Training courses (PRESET) is also a form of INSET. Even if it is not logically necessary, it is at least useful to limit the term INSET to those courses which are intended for the further education and professional training of qualified serving teachers.

In this more precise sense the earliest examples of INSET may be those practices, described by Edmonds (1967), which developed following the publication of the Revised Code in 1862 and the introduction of payments-by-results. The Newcastle Commission had recommended that Inspectors should examine the knowledge of pupils in schools and that teachers should be paid according to the success of their pupils. There is evidence to suggest that teachers became more conscious of and concerned about the methods which they were using and that they were prepared to attend meetings to discuss their methods (Edmonds, 1958 & 1967). Meetings were organised by charity-school masters, the parent Voluntary Societies, some School Boards and even by the teachers themselves in some regions. In addition, the National Society provided demonstrations of teaching skills using a group of peripatetic teachers.

From the beginning of the twentieth century there was a gradual increase in the number and type of courses intended for trained teachers. The Board of Education sponsored or provided both full-time and part-time courses, some of which lasted a full academic year whilst others were short courses in the vacations or in the evenings during term time. However, other than the titles of some of these courses, there is no reliable account of what kinds of issues and problems they dealt with nor, therefore, of what form of INSET was currently available to teachers.

A period of considerable expansion of INSET began in the 1940's following the publication of the McNair Report (Board of Education, 1944). The McNair Committee referred to the importance of a systematic provision of INSET for teachers and recommended the creation of a Central Training Council (CTC) and a regional structure for the organisation of all teacher-training activities. The recommendations for a CTC was rejected and instead the government set up, in 1949, the National Advisory Council for the Training and Supply of Teachers (NACTST) with a membership drawn from most of the bodies involved in teacher education and supply. The NACTST was never particularly effective and, after the constitution of its membership was amended in 1962, there was a tendency for members to take entrenched positions according to their vested interests. Eventually, as a result of persistent disagreements, the chairman, Alan Bullock, resigned in 1965 and no effort was made to replace him.

The regional structure involved the establishment of Area Training Organisations (ATOs) which were a loose federation of training institutions in a particular region with a University School or Institute of Education acting as the coordinating agency. The McNair Report had recommended that one of the main responsibilities of the ATOs should be the provision of courses of many kinds, including 'refresher courses for those who may be getting stale or at any rate

need to bring their knowledge up to date ...'. By 1951 sixteen ATOs had been created. Once the structure was established and the organising agency clearly identified the scene was set for a rapid growth of INSET. All that was required was the stimulus.

There were probably two main stimuli to the growth of INSET around the mid-1960's. The first of these was the succession of reports which underlined the need for INSET both in general and in specific terms. The Newsom Report (Central Advisory Committee for Education -- CACE, 1963), the Plowden Report (CACE, 1967) and the Gittins Report (CACE, 1967) each included a plea for a greater provision of INSET to match the needs of the particular aspect of education with which it was concerned.

The other stimulus was the expansion, in the mid-1960's, of curriculum development activities. INSET courses were both a means of disseminating information about new curricular proposals as well as for studying various educational issues and reflecting on the suitability of particular curriculum development projects in the context of those issues.

The continued expansion of INSET in the 1960's highlighted one fundamental problem -- that the existence of a national structure for INSET was no substitute for a national policy. Concern about the lack of national

planning and coordination led eventually to the setting-up of the James Committee in 1970 to enquire into the arrangements for training teachers.

The James Report (Department of Education and Science -- DES, 1972a) regarded teacher training as involving three stages or 'cycles'; a teacher's personal education being the first cycle and professional (PRESET and induction) being the second. The report attached principal importance to the third cycle -- in-service education -- and made extensive recommendations for further expansion and coordination. The recommendation which attracted the greatest interest was that all teachers should be entitled, in their contractual terms of service, to release with pay equivalent to one term every seven years. More importantly, the report stipulated that release with pay should be for attending 'substantial' courses and other 'short term' activities. The Report gave a target of 3% release of the teaching force for INSET by 1981. Also under the James proposals the ATOs would disappear and their planning functions would be carried out by regional committees in which LEAs would play a more prominent part.

In December 1972 in a White Paper, Education: A Framework for Expansion (DES, 1972b), the government expressed its support for the proposals of the James Report concerning INSET and set out a time-table for their implementation, promising 'vigorous preparation for the

expansion to come' (DES, 1972b). Unfortunately, two subsequent developments conspired to prevent the government fulfilling that promise.

Forecasts of a considerable fall in the school population made in the mid-1970's, led to decisions to make drastic cuts in the number of initial-training places for student teachers and therefore in the total number of College and University Departments of Education. The implementation of these cuts has had the effect of reducing the number of institutions able to offer 'substantial' (ie full-time and part-time award bearing) courses.

The other brake on the further expansion of courses and on the proposals for release for all teachers has been the decline in the health of the British economy since the first oil crisis in 1973/74. From that day successive governments have been unable to increase the proportion of national resources going to education. Even had an adequate injection of resources been possible, without considerable changes in the administrative relationships between central and local government there could have been no guarantee that Local Education Authorities (LEAs) would have used additional funds to extend INSET opportunities for their teachers.

The brake on the continuing expansion of INSET activity may well have avoided the precipitation of various problems

which could have arisen from the implementation of the James Committee's proposals for study leave, for the lack of a national policy for INSET is, in many respects, now more marked than it was in the 1960's. The government accepted the Committee's recommendation that the ATOs should be disbanded and replaced by a new regional structure. By July 1975 the ATOs had been stripped of almost all of their responsibilities. (DES Circular 5/75). However, despite a variety of suggestions, very little progress has been made towards establishing an effective framework for the coordination of INSET.

In 1973 the Government created the Advisory Committee on the Supply and Training of Teachers (ACSTT), for an initial period of five years, to advise the Secretary of State for Education on teacher supply and training, including INSET. Although ACSTT was not convened following the change of government in 1979 a new body, the Advisory Committee on the Supply and Education of Teachers (ACSET) was set up in 1980. This works with the aid of sub-committees dealing with training and staffing and fulfills the function of providing a useful forum for discussion and the formulation of advice on policies covering various aspects of the education and supply of teachers. While ACSET does have a wide remit to advise, it should be remembered that the actual decisions on the number of places continues to rest with the Secretary of state, and on such matters as the closure of particular courses he would not be advised by ACSET but by departmental

official and inspectors.

Whereas there has been no machinery set up to replace the ATOs after they were disbanded in 1975 it seems that the existence of ACSET, with a membership made up of representatives of LEAs and College and University Departments of Education as well as teachers' professional associations, has encouraged various patterns of consultation at the regional level. For example, in most areas there are consultative committees, made up of teachers, LEA Advisers and representatives of the teacher training institutions in the region, which meet from time to time to discuss matters concerning the INSET provision in the region. But such committees do not have powers to regulate the INSET provision (except possibly in the case of DES/Regional courses for which their agreement or approval may be sought by the DES).

Although there is a flow of information at the regional level, through such informal consultative committees and at the national level through ACSET, there is no structure for the planning and coordination of the provision of INSET. Moreover, the forums which do exist for the exchange of information do not include representatives of all the INSET providing agencies. Thus, whilst it may be possible to detect the outline of a general and perhaps a national structure, and whilst such arrangements are no doubt preferable to there being no structure at all, it would be

quite mistaken to conclude that there is any significant degree of coordination of the provision of INSET in England and Wales. The situation is, if anything, more confused than it was when the James Committee was set up. (For developments since 1981 see Appendix D.)

The Provision of INSET: Agencies and Intentions

The most comprehensive analyses of the provision of INSET have been compiled by Bolam (1977, 1978 & 1980) who has developed schemes intended to identify all possible relationships between various providing 'agencies', the potential 'users' of INSET courses and the 'tasks' which INSET courses might fulfil. Despite the scope of this work, such is the complexity of INSET that for each of these three basic dimensions there are alternative equally convincing analytical schemes proposed (There are ten studies cited in Bolam, 1978. See also Fox, 1980 and Morant, 1981).

Rather than attempting to build yet another analytical framework which could incorporate all the dimensions and reconcile all the differences presented by Bolam and others, for the purposes of the present study it will only be necessary to isolate and elaborate two characteristics of INSET -- the range of providing agencies and the scope of possible INSET purposes.

INSET Agencies

Several terms have been used to categorise and differentiate various organisations and individuals involved in the provision of INSET -- 'agencies', 'authorities', 'institutions', 'organisers', 'arrangers', 'directors' and so on. This reflects the complexity of the scene. In the case of many INSET courses several organisations may be involved; some responsible for initiating a course, others for administering it and others for arranging the details of the programme and for directing the events. A simple, unambiguous classification is not possible and it is easier just to list those who may be involved and refer to them all as providing agencies.

The Universities, Polytechnics, Institutes and Colleges of Education probably play the most prominent role in INSET, either in collaboration with other agencies or by assuming responsibility themselves. Her Majesty's Inspectorate (HMI) offer a large annual programme of short residential courses and provide sizeable funds for a programme of regional courses organised jointly with universities and LEAs. Most LEAs make a substantial contribution to INSET for their own teaching force and this is organised both by LEA advisory staff as well as by Teachers' Centre leaders.

Other contributions to INSET are, when compared with the

foregoing, rather spasmodic and ad hoc. The teachers' trades unions, Subject Teaching Associations and similar educational interest groups (such as the National Association for Multicultural Education) frequently arrange local or national courses. Curriculum development projects, funded by grant awarding bodies, such as the Nuffield Foundation, often use INSET to disseminate their materials and to train teachers in their methods of use. Some Examination Boards have arranged short INSET courses to introduce teachers to new syllabuses or to new assessment and moderation procedures.

From time to time educational equipment manufactures and distributors provide courses and, in recent years, the most common examples have been courses provided by microprocessor manufactures. In addition to the Open University provision of INSET on radio and television, the BBC's Continuing Education Unit produces a small number of programmes and supporting publications for teachers.

More recently, a few schools have assumed responsibility for providing their own INSET courses to cater for their own staff and specific curricular needs. At the present time there is a developing interest in such school-centred [1]

1. Some writers distinguish between the terms school-directed, school-focused and school-based. 'School-centred' is sometimes used as an all-embracing term and the same usage is adopted here.

INSET and there are signs that this provision may increase with support from the LEAs and other agencies.

Scope of INSET Purposes

Although there has been a lot of attention given, since at least 1977, to the categorisation of INSET purposes, the picture which emerges is, in many respects, just as confused as it ever was. Bolam admits that

the conceptual problem of organising these various tasks and programme features into some form of typology is a difficult one. (Bolam, 1978: 27).

and he goes on to say there is a great deal of research work needed before an adequate knowledge base is achieved. One of the purposes of the present study is to provide that knowledge base in one field of INSET -- political education -- and to present findings which might have a more general application for research and development in INSET.

A few attempts have been made to define and categorise the purposes of INSET but in most cases the schemes offered have been based on either unstated or on muddled assumptions about the basis and purpose of the categorisation itself. Some classifications appear to reflect the concerns of administrators and are addressed to issues of context and control. For example, the Swedish National Board of

Education lists five types of INSET distinguished by who determines the context and how it is coordinated. (Marklund & Eklund, 1976).

Most classifications have been devised by academics involved as providers of INSET who focus on the intentions of the providing agency. Bolam, for example, distinguishes between 'two principal tasks in INSET: those related to overall structure and policy and those related to the implementation of specific programmes and courses.' (Bolam, 1978: 16). His 'structure and policy' dimension is concerned with the organisational intentions of policy makers such as LEAs and schools and his 'implementation' dimension is concerned with the intentions of providers such as Universities and Teachers' Centres. Both are further sub-divided using broadly similar categories -- aims, logistics, content, methods, etc. Other examples of this approach to the categorising of INSET purposes list the range of target groups or 'users' of INSET and the variety of strategies and methods which might be deployed.

A very different scheme has been outlined by Fox (1980). Instead of looking at INSET from the viewpoint of the administrator or the provider, he focuses on those interests which INSET may be designed to serve. He proposes a threefold classification of purposes; stimulating professional development, improving school practice and implementing social policy. The first interest is

concerned with the condition of individual teachers and so could involve updating their knowledge or providing them with new expertise. The second is concerned with the condition of schools as social units and might involve training in general management techniques or attention to cross-curricular issues. The third interest is concerned with the general wellbeing of society and sees innovation in education as a means to affect societal change. Any INSET course could thus be located, according to its intentions, within the axes in Figure 2.1.

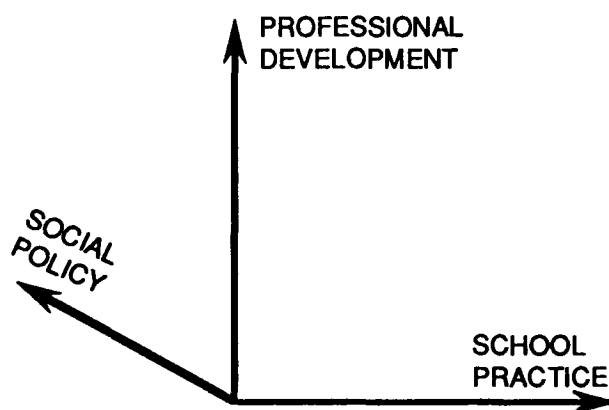


Figure 2.1: Three Purposes of INSET

This particular scheme is at a very high level of generality and to be of any real use as a basis for classifying INSET purposes each of the three headings would need to be further sub-divided. An illustration of how this might be approached can be developed from Bolam's work in this field (Bolam, 1978). Bolam uses Ferry's fourfold distinction (Ferry, 1974) between Academic and Pedagogic education and between Personal and Vocational education to create the following grid:

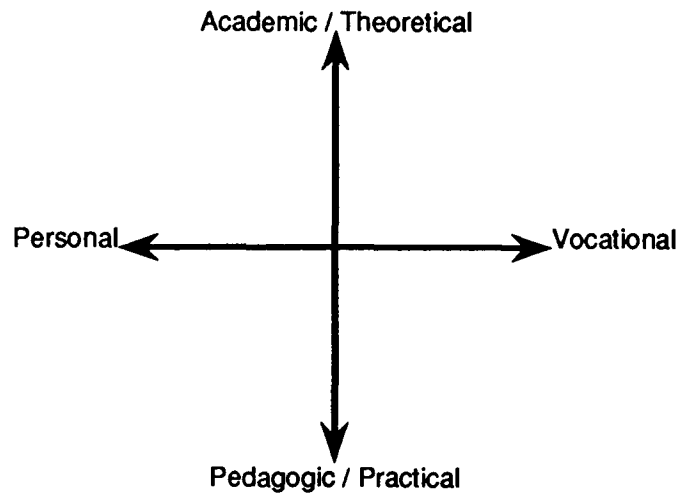


Figure 2.2: Four Fields of INSET

Each of the four quadrants, says Bolam, may be said to represent four types of INSET. Thus it should be possible to place particular examples of INSET in one or other of these quadrants, or on an axis, according to the kinds of purposes they are intended to serve. However, Bolam overlooks the fact that his categories are all within the 'professional development' dimension of INSET and do not necessarily encompass school practice and social policy. Nevertheless, this expansion of one axis of Fox's typography makes it possible to conceive of a three-dimensional matrix which, unlike those so far considered, could be used in order to locate most if not all forms of provision which are claimed to be examples of INSET.

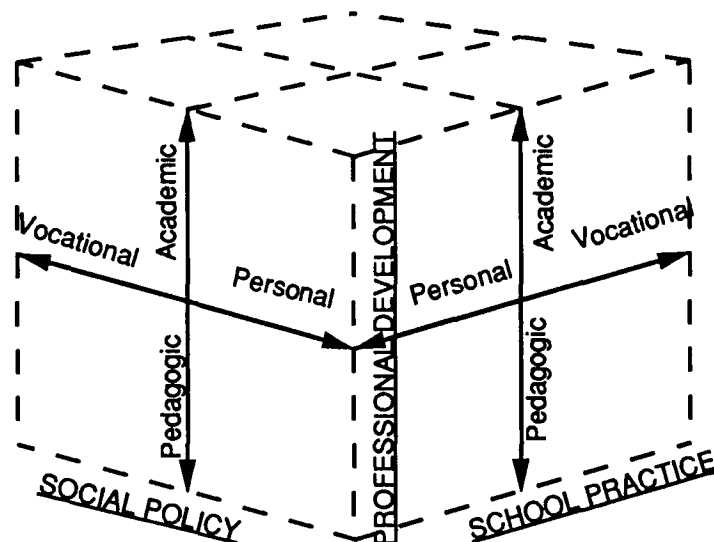


Figure 2.3: All Forms of INSET

Whether all those courses etc. which could be located within this matrix warrant acceptance as valid forms of INSET will be examined next.

The Definition of INSET

Malcolm Skilbeck has claimed [2] that the main task for those involved in INSET is the 'definition and delimitation of the field'. The vast majority of authors and practitioners who use the term 'INSET' do so as if there

2. At an international seminar on INSET held in Philadelphia Pa. USA in 1976. (Cited in Bolam, 1978: 12)

is general agreement about its meaning and, therefore, no need to make explicit their own understanding and usage. Far from there being general agreement there is, as Skilbeck implied, considerable confusion about the definition and delimitation of INSET.

To avoid the pitfalls of other studies it will be important to heed Skilbeck's advice and to attempt to define and delimit, in general terms, the way in which the term INSET is to be constructed in the present study. But in order to achieve this it will first be necessary to identify the main issues with which others who have provided definitions of INSET have had to contend. Two of these issues have been made explicit in most accounts whereas a third seems to be merely implicit throughout.

One issue centres on which term is more appropriate -- in-service 'training' or in-service 'education'. Feelings about this may run high and the 'pro-education' members of ACSTT insisted on having the word 'training' in the title changed to 'education' when the body was reconstituted in 1980.

Henderson is one who strongly favours the term 'training':

Goals of education are of necessity diffuse and long term and this aspect of evaluation is an ill-defined and intractable activity. Training, on the

other hand, implies a more direct link between learning and action, which permits an evaluator to focus his activity ... (Henderson, 1978: 12).

Morant in reply to Henderson accepts that there is an important distinction between education and training. Whereas training might be concerned with the acquisition of skills and techniques, in contrast the broader concept of education would be associated with a whole series of experiences and activities which bring about teachers' professional, academic and personal development. Training would be one kind of activity which could form part of a teacher's education. Therefore Morant prefers the term 'education' on the grounds that it includes the notion of training. (Morant, 1981: 3).

However, it is unlikely that such an argument, based as it is on expedience, would satisfy Henderson and others of a similar persuasion. By the same token, Henderson's reasoning, also based on expedience (in order to restrict his terminology and therefore his own study to that which is more easily measurable), is equally unconvincing. This is an issue which is unlikely ever to be resolved, even by the most skilful logicians. More significantly, it is an issue which, even if resolved to everyone's satisfaction, would not make any difference whatsoever to the actual provision of INSET. For this reason no attempt will be made in the present context to suggest that either concept, education or



training, is more important or is a more accurate description than the other.

A closely related issue concerns the breadth of activities or experiences which should be classed as INSET.

Those who prefer to focus on training are inclined to work with a rather narrow classification of activities, as illustrated by the following definition of INSET:

Activities which are designed, exclusively or primarily, to improve and extend the professional capabilities of teachers. (Henderson, 1977: 1).

At the other extreme there are the catch-all definitions which seek to include all those experiences, from the day of taking up a first appointment, which contribute in some way to the teacher's 'education' and/or 'professional capabilities'. For example;

That portion of [a teacher's] education which follows in time, (1) his initial certification and (2) employment, is known as in-service teacher education. (USA report to an international seminar on INSET cited in Bolam, 1978: 13).

Such a broad view, says Morant, might imply that INSET 'should be cast widely to include virtually any experience to which a teacher, voluntarily or involuntarily, might be exposed.' (Morant, 1981: 1). This is clearly unacceptable for, using these criteria, INSET would include a French language teacher's summer holiday in Brittany, a Politics teacher's march with a National Union of Teachers' lobby to

the House of Commons and even a teacher's chastening experiences in the classroom.

The very narrow view is just as unacceptable for it would presumably exclude meetings intended primarily for curriculum development or for the development of a teacher's personal academic knowledge. What is required is a view of INSET which steers a middle way between the absurdities of, on the one hand, including every experience and, on the other hand, of restricting it to 'structured activities designed ... to improve professional performance.' (Henderson, 1978: 12). How such a balance might be achieved is bound up with the third and most fundamental issue -- whose right or responsibility is it to specify which activities are to be accepted as genuine and worthwhile INSET?

This is an issue which seems to recur throughout the majority of writings on INSET without it ever being stated explicitly. In most cases there is a clear assumption that the providing agencies are principally responsible for deciding what shall comprise useful INSET activities and, furthermore, that whatever they choose to provide is, ipso facto genuine and worthwhile. It is possible to discern a slight transition over the years away from a rather restrictive list of providing agencies to a view which accepts that Subject Teaching Associations, for example, can be regarded as providing agencies and that, as well as

highly structured and formalised courses, relatively casual and unstructured meetings might also be effective forms of INSET.

More recently, it has been suggested that teachers are in a better position than 'outsiders' to specify what is the best form and content of INSET and alongside this there has developed an interest in school-centred forms of INSET. Some have gone as far as to argue that the most worthwhile kinds of INSET are those which are planned and provided by teachers themselves. Others have suggested that all INSET should focus on the needs of teachers in their specific professional contexts, ie. in the setting of their school. (Bolam, 1982; Henderson, 1977; Morant, 1981; Warwick, 1975).

The issue of what kinds of INSET are genuine and worthwhile, together with stringent economy measures by LEAs, has stimulated a greater interest in the evaluation of INSET activities. An underlying assumption throughout the early writings on the evaluation of INSET is that it should be left to researchers to specify what is good and worthwhile. (Cane, 1968 & 1969). This is invariably described (by the researchers themselves) as an objective view, the implication being that they are able to provide definitions, descriptions and conclusions which are true and beyond doubt.

It is this issue, of who shall decide what counts as genuine and worthwhile INSET, which is at the root of the other main concerns regarding the scope of the definition of INSET and whether it is narrowly concerned with training or with more general educational experiences. Although the issue is merely implicit in current writings and discussions, it would seem to be inevitable that it will eventually become not only an explicit matter of concern but also, by virtue of its fundamental importance, the main item on the agenda.

In seeking to explore these matters in the field of political education, this study has proceeded on two broad premises. The first is that the process of determining what is worthwhile INSET should be the joint responsibility of all concerned -- teachers, providers, researchers, and any others who may be directly involved. That is to say, no one group (or person) can ever be in a position to decide these matters alone in what is, of necessity, a shared enterprise and experience.

The second premise is that it is essential to have a set of objective, and/or mutually acceptable criteria for deciding whether a particular event can be regarded as valid INSET. It is these criteria, set out below, which form the basis of the definition of INSET developed for this study.

Criteria for a definition of INSET

We have to begin by asking what are the purposes and intended outcomes of the event? (The question makes the reasonable presumption that the event has been pre-arranged or staged with some purposes in mind and that those who make such arrangements do so because they assume that day-to-day commonplace experiences would not fulfil their intentions). The essential considerations here are to do with (a) who the event is intended for and (b) what they are expected to derive from the experience?

Valid INSET activities are those intended principally, if not exclusively, for *servicing teachers*. This would not rule out the possibility of meetings being designed to also cater for others involved in education such as Teachers' Centre leaders, Advisers and Youth Workers, but clearly there will be a point at which the amount of attention given to their interests would compromise the essential INSET purposes of the event.

The question of what sort of people the event is intended for extends not only to the occupational category of the people the providers have in mind but above all to the kinds of interests and aspirations such people hold. By this criterion valid INSET activities are those designed to cater specifically for the interests and needs of the participants *as teachers*, and not as, say, voters or

consumers. There may well be some longer term or ultimate educational purposes concerning, for example, the needs of pupils or the needs of the economy, and catering for the INSET of teachers could be seen as a necessary precursor to that longer term purpose. However, such intentions as securing higher levels of recruitment to university courses or to professional associations and trades unions could not be regarded as INSET even if all participants at a meeting were serving teachers.

The intended outcomes of INSET should be subjected to the same kind of analysis and categorisation as the intended outcomes of education in general. It follows from this that valid INSET activities are those which are intended for the education of teachers and which are therefore concerned with knowledge and understanding, with skills and techniques, and with attitudes, values and feelings. INSET is about enhancing the performance or competence of teachers and thus about shared professional concerns rather than individual and private concerns (such as enabling teachers to pursue a hobby or to improve their promotion prospects).

Given these criteria it is now possible to construct the basis of a definition of INSET, which would be along the following lines:

In-service education and training comprises those activities and experiences which are provided in order to improve teachers' knowledge, skills and attitudes in respect of their professional competence, expertise and responsibilities.

This may be clarified a little by elaborating on some of the terms used.

'Knowledge' would include knowledge of academic subject matter and of educational theories and principles, as well as of more mundane matters such as available resources, what other teachers are doing, etc.

'Skills' would cover everything from classroom management to school management and from resource construction to proficiency in a language or in playing a musical instrument.

'Attitudes' are less easy to generalise and categorise for they tend to be very specific to particular contexts. It is perhaps for this reason that no explicit mention is made of changing attitudes in the current writings on INSET. Nevertheless, particular examples abound in practice; such as encouraging teachers to accept the desirability of implementing mixed-ability teaching in their subject area, or of implementing integrated or multidisciplinary approaches to teaching, or of exposing and opposing racist

attitudes, etc. A generalisation here may be encouraging a willingness to evaluate current practices and to entertain the possibility that alternative practices may be preferable.

In the light of this we can return to the overall categorisation of the possible purposes of INSET events developed from the major writings in the field and indicate which purposes should be accepted as valid examples of INSET.

It has been argued that the main focus should be on the professional performance of teachers, on what their opinions are, what they know and what they are able to achieve. This will place personal, theoretical and practical concerns right at the top of the agenda.

Although there may be an explicit desire to bring about changes in one school (or those in one LEA or in all schools nationally) or to bring about changes in society at large, such objectives can only ever be sought, in the context of INSET, by affecting what individual teachers think and do. They are essentially second order objectives.

Therefore, valid INSET should be focused on the personal aspect of the professional dimension of the matrix in Figure 2.3., thus:

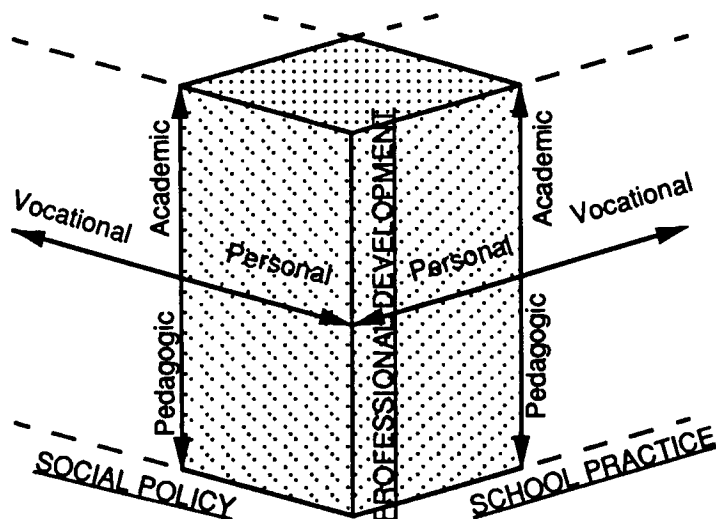


Figure 2.4: Valid Forms of INSET

Conclusion

Developing and justifying a satisfactory definition of INSET is important and useful but inevitably it highlights as many questions as it answers. 'INSET comprises those activities and experiences ... ', but exactly what kinds of activities and experiences -- what course content, what course structure and what pedagogic styles -- actually do improve teachers' knowledge etc.? And, just as importantly, who should have the right or responsibility to offer answers to the question of what is good INSET?

It is to these fundamental issues that this evaluation study addresses itself.

CHAPTER 3

APPROACHES TO EVALUATION

Introduction

It is somewhat paradoxical that although teachers insist on evaluating the achievements of their pupils and educators are keen to evaluate the worth of curriculum development projects, there has been a remarkable lack of enthusiasm for evaluating the education and training of teachers.

A possible, if cynical explanation may be that because those who form the bulk of the membership of the evaluation fraternity are also those who are largely responsible for providing INSET there may be a reluctance to conduct what amounts to a self-examination.

House makes an observation along the same lines.

...there is no real demand among teachers and administrators for evaluating their own programs. To evaluate kids, yes, we cannot live without that; but to evaluate ourselves and our own programs - no. ... No one wants to be evaluated by anybody at any time. Evaluate an evaluator's work and see how he reacts. (House, 1973: 126).

There is no doubt that teachers, teacher educators and other educationalists are remarkably generous with advice and opinions on how others should go about their tasks, but are less open to scrutiny themselves. However, there may be other, more pertinent reasons for the paucity of evaluation of INSET.

I prefer to believe, (particularly with the benefit of hindsight), that the complexities of INSET create a daunting obstacle to even the most experienced evaluators. In comparison life in classrooms and the transactions of a curriculum development project are relatively straightforward when compared with the world of INSET.

Nevertheless, whatever the explanation, it remains the case that the number of reported evaluations of INSET has been so small, and the range of investigations and procedures used so narrow that it is not possible to develop an adequate analysis of alternative methodologies for the evaluation of INSET based on accumulated experience specific to INSET. It has been necessary therefore to turn to the theory and practice of educational evaluation in general in order to derive an analysis of approaches to evaluation as well as to develop appropriate methodologies for evaluating INSET.

Evaluation: A Definition

In ordinary usage there is no difficulty about the meaning of 'evaluation': to evaluate is to determine the worth of something. It is in the context of educational research and, in particular, the procedures for evaluating curriculum development activities that differences arise in both the understanding and the application of the concept. 'Evaluation has come to be used with a variety of different but overlapping meanings.' (Sparrow, 1973).

One of the earliest and certainly the most influential definitions of evaluation was given by Scriven.

Evaluation attempts to answer certain types of question about certain entities. The entities are the various educational 'instruments' (process, personnel, procedures, programs, etc.). The types of question include questions of the form: How well does this instrument perform (with respect to such and such criteria)? Does it perform better than this other instrument? What does this instrument do (ie What variables from the group in which we are interested are significantly affected by its application)? Is the use of this instrument worth what it is costing? Evaluation is itself a methodological activity which ... consists simply in the gathering and combining of performance data with a weighted set of goal scales to yeild either comparative or numerical ratings, and in the justification of (a) the data-gathering instruments, (b) the weightings, and (c) the selection of goals. (Scriven, 1966: 1).

The essence of this is captured in a short sentence from

the National Study Committee on Evaluation in the United States.

Evaluation is the process of deliniating and providing useful information fōr judging alternatives. (Stufflebeam et al, 1971: 40).

According to this view evaluation is an information-gathering activity, done on behalf of decision-makers in order to enable them to take decisions 'about the feasibility, effectiveness and educational value of 'curricula'. (Cooper, 1976).

The necessity for a demarcation between data-gathering and decision-making was a view advanced fairly strongly until the early 1970's. However, the logical inconsistency of trying to hold a concept of evaluation which excluded any notion of judging worth or merit had already been remarked on by Stake as early as 1967.

Both description and judgement are essential -- in fact, they are the two basic acts of evaluation. Any individual evaluator may attempt to refrain from judging or from collecting the judgements of others. Any individual evaluator may seek only to bring to light the worth of the program. But their evaluations are incomplete. To be fully understood, the educational program must be fully described and fully judged. (Stake, 1967: 525).

But it was not until the early 1970's that Stake's views were taken up with any enthusiasm. One of the factors which affected this change of view was a realisation that there existed a wider audience for evaluation studies than

the sponsors of the curriculum development projects. This wider audience of potential decision-makers includes LEA staff, examination boards and, above all, teachers. Perhaps the strongest statement of this view was expressed by the evaluators of the Schools Council Environmental Studies (5-13) Project.

Evaluation of the project itself had to be based on those questions that persons external to it might ask. (Crossland & Moore, 1974: 6).

The styles of evaluation which embodied this perspective are considered in some detail below. At this point it is necessary only to draw together a suitable summary of the principles of evaluation which, taking Stake's criteria, embrace both description and judgement. An appropriate starting point for such a summary has been given by Sockett who suggests that evaluation has four objectives:

- a) Evaluation is appraisal in which we make judgments;
 - b) Such judgments are made in the light of criteria;
 - c) Criteria issue from and are appropriate to particular contexts;
 - d) Such contexts embody human purposes and evaluation therefore informs decisions.
- (Sockett, 1977).

What Sockett appears to be underlining is the necessary connexion or interdependence between appraisal (description), judgement, context and purpose in the process of evaluation. Drawing on these principles and those

outlined by Scriven (1966) and Stake (1967) we can derive a definition of evaluation which embraces all the elements considered to be essential by most contemporary authorities.

Evaluation consists of (1) the gathering of information about an educational programme and the justification of criteria used for the choice of information-gathering instruments and the weighting of information; (2) the presentation of information in forms appropriate to the particular context of study; and (3) judgements about the educational value of particular features of the programme in such a form that decisions can be made about the organisation and implementation of that programme.

The Development of Curriculum Evaluation

There has been a long tradition of measurement in education. As Cooper (1976) has observed, the word evaluation has most commonly been associated with the procedure of assessing or testing the achievements of pupils. This approach relies heavily on translating performance in tests into numerical data from which to construct scores which can be processed to create indices and other statistical expressions of progress and attainment.

Two characteristic features of this approach warrant highlighting at this juncture. The first is that many aspects of student achievement can not be easily

encapsulated in test items or reduced to variables which can be measured and expressed quantitatively. These kinds of achievements tend to be ignored.

The second is that the most common way of interpreting quantitative data is to compare the score of an individual with the normal distribution of scores of a reference group. However, the choice of reference groups considered to be an appropriate standard against which to measure the achievements of others rests on the subjective judgements of the testers. Thus behind the apparent objective and value-free nature of numerical data lies the reality of value-judgements based on social and cultural assumptions. Both of these features of educational measurement have a direct bearing on the development of curriculum evaluation.

Evaluation, in the sense of the appraisal of an education programme rather than mere measurement of student performance, was born out of Tyler's influential book Basic Principles of Curriculum and Instruction, (Tyler, 1949). Tyler asserted that the intentions of education could (and should) be itemised in terms of specific student performances; these intentions he referred to as objectives.

One can define an objective with sufficient clarity if he can describe or illustrate the kind of behavior the student is expected to acquire so that one could recognise that behavior if he saw it. (Tyler, 1949: 59).

Thus the process of education becomes, according to Tyler, a

matter of clarifying and securing agreement on the broad aims, expressing these as specific behavioural objectives and providing experiences and activities which will enable students to achieve these objectives, ie to behave in the desired way.

The comprehensive simplicity of this approach struck a resonant chord with the scientific aspirations of post-war America. Tyler's ideas were taken up with enthusiasm and a number of curriculum models were developed which centred on a detailed specification of behavioural objectives -- the best known being those developed by Bloom and his associates (Bloom, 1956; Krathwohl et al, 1964).

In his book Tyler went beyond an account of the procedures involved in selecting and expressing behavioural objectives and arranging appropriate learning experiences to consider the necessity for evaluation of the extent to which objectives have been achieved.

The process of evaluation is essentially the process of determining to what extent the educational objectives are actually being realised by the program of curriculum and instruction. However, since ... the objectives aimed at are to produce certain desirable changes in the behavior patterns of the students, then evaluation is the process for determining the degree to which these changes in behavior are actually taking place. (Tyler, 1949: 105).

Thus, according to Henderson (1978), this objectives model of educational evaluation requires a five-stage process:

1. identification of the objectives to be achieved;
2. definition of these objectives in terms of behaviour which would characterise them;
3. development of appraisal instruments to study this behaviour;
4. examination of the data gathered in the light of norms by which the adequacy of the behaviour may be judged; and
5. making final decisions regarding value in relation to the original objectives. (Henderson, 1978: 53)

Beneath this fairly straightforward list of procedures lies a plethora of assumptions, derived from Tyler, Bloom and others, about the nature of behavioural objectives, of appropriate ways of expressing them and of measuring them. The quantitative measurement heritage in educational research meant that the only appraisal instruments deemed to have any validity were those based on multi-item, pencil and paper, self-completion tests or observer-completion schedules. This orthodoxy was reinforced in the United States, where the objectives model first flourished, by the nature of the curriculum development movement.

With the injection of local and national finance for curriculum reform the government administrators demanded accountability -- proof that public money was not being wasted. Government administrators, by virtue of their background and training, instinctively expressed their conditions for funding in terms of pre-specified outcomes and indicators to demonstrate that those outcomes had been

achieved. Moreover, the kind of indicators most suited to the administrative machinery of government were simple quantitative representations -- percentage gains in performance scores set against increased levels of funding.

The objectives model of evaluation dominated not only the curriculum reform movement in the United States and the U.K. in the 1960's and early 1970's but also other aspects of education such as public examination syllabuses and teacher training. This domination undoubtedly led to an unquestioning assumption by many that the model was an incontrovertible expression of what all enlightened people understood the nature of education to be and, ipso facto, to a belief that those who challenged this view were not yet enlightened or, if enlightened, had malicious intent. Thus, although reservations about the objectives model were being expressed in the early 1960's, critics did not gain ground until the turn of the decade.

Criticisms of the Objectives Model

Some of the first critics of the objectives model of curriculum development and evaluation tentatively identified a few of its shortcomings. For instance, Eisner pointed out that the outcomes of the process of education were 'far too numerous and complex for educational objectives to encompass'. Education is a dynamic process; 'unexpected

opportunities emerge for making a point, for demonstrating an interesting idea and for teaching a significant concept.' (Eisner, 1967a), and so not all desired outcomes could be specified in advance of instruction.

Atkin went a stage further and argued that this model of evaluation is likely to be unaware of, and so disregard, important outcomes simply because they have not been pre-specified.

... too early a statement of objectives may obscure potentially significant outcomes that do not become apparent until later because they are seldom anticipated. This statement, of course, applies to negative as well as positive ones. (Atkin, 1963: 131).

Both the arguments of Eisner and Atkin could be and were countered by the advocates of the objectives model, their argument being that it is not the model which is at fault, only the present state of educational measurement techniques. With improved techniques and greater understanding based on the experience of accumulated research it should be possible to specify and measure a greater number of objectives and to anticipate most likely outcomes in advance of instruction.

Popham, in defence of behavioural objectives, argued

Because some of our modest important educational goals are particularly elusive, we should invest greater resources in devising sophisticated measurement tactics to assess such

currently unmeasurable outcomes. During recent months at the Instructional Objectives Exchange we have been constructing measurement devices to get at such educational outcomes as students' attitudes towards learning, tolerance towards minority groups, self concept, judgement and attitudes towards drug use ... There are many promising measurement avenues which American educators haven't yet travelled with sufficient verve, that is financial support. For example, a number of important advances have recently been made in use of psychological indicators such as the pupil-dilation of one's eyes to serve as a reliable index of interest. (Popham, 1972: 609).

However, more fundamental was the criticism that there is more to the process of education than can ever be captured by the formulation of behavioural objectives no matter how advanced the state of the art of educational measurement. For example, Eisner claimed that some of the intentions of instruction, by their very nature, could not be specified as behavioural objectives.

By virtue of socially-defined rules of grammar (syntax and logic, for example) it is possible to quantitatively compare and measure error in discursive or mathematical statement. Some fields of activity, especially those which are qualitative in character, have no comparable rule and hence are less amenable to quantitative assessment. It is here that evaluation must be made, not primarily by applying a socially defined standard, but by making a human qualitative judgement. (Eisner, 1967a: 254).

These views, and particularly those expressed by Eisner in 1969 (see below), were developed in different ways by both Stenhouse and Scriven. Stenhouse, working on the

Humanities Curriculum Project in which the content and the nature of the educational experience were given primacy over possible outcomes, was particularly concerned about the drawbacks to putting behavioural objectives at the centre of the educational stage. He suggested that if we accept that education is concerned with disciplined activity, we can distinguish between two forms of disciplined action, 'action disciplined by preconceived goals and action disciplined by form or principle of procedure.' (Stenhouse, 1970a).

An example of action disciplined by principle of procedure would be to engage in philosophical argument. Thus if you 'define the content of a philosophy course, define what constitutes a philosophically acceptable form of teaching procedure and articulate standards by which students' work is to be judged, you may be planning rationally without using objectives.' (Stenhouse, 1970a). He went on to argue that in certain fields, notably the humanities and social subjects, it is more appropriate to specify content, materials and teaching methods than intended behavioural outcomes.

Scriven simply but devastatingly highlighted as a current evaluation problem the 'tricky task' of evaluating aesthetic education, creativity, moral education, affective education, and so on. (Scriven, 1971).

It was Eisner who had provided the basis for these

criticisms by making a distinction between 'instructional' and 'expressive' objectives. After condemning the traditional objectives model of education as being more akin to an industrial model of schooling in which pupils are the raw materials to be processed and to be tested at regular intervals using quality control standards to reduce the likelihood of producing faulty products, Eisner advocated the use of expressive as well as instructional objectives. It is worth quoting his account at length as it forms the basis of the evaluation methodology developed for the present study.

Expressive objectives differ considerably from instructional objectives. An expressive objective does not specify the behavior the student is to acquire after having engaged in one or more learning activities. An expressive objective describes an educational encounter: it identifies a situation in which children are to work, a problem with which they are to cope, a task in which they are to engage; but it does not specify what they are to learn from that encounter, situation, problem or task. An expressive objective provides both the teacher and the student with an invitation to explore, defer or focus on issues that are of particular interest or import to the enquirer. An expressive objective is evocative rather than prescriptive. The expressive objective is intended to serve as a theme around which skills and understandings learned earlier can be brought to bear, but through which those skills and understandings can be expanded, elaborated and made idiosyncratic. With an expressive objective what is desired is not homogeneity of response among students but diversity. In the expressive context the teacher hopes to provide a situation in which meanings become personalised and in which children produce products, both theoretical and

qualitative, that are as diverse as themselves. Consequently the evaluative task in this situation is not one of applying a common standard to the products produced but one of reflecting upon what has been produced in order to reveal its uniqueness and significance. (Eisner, 1969: 17).

The implication of the final sentence quoted above may be appreciated if it is reformulated with added emphasis. What Eisner seemed to be saying was that, in the context of expressive objectives (which Stenhouse and Scriven particularly associated with affective and aesthetic education), the evaluation task is not one of specifying in advance a common standard to be applied to the outcomes but one of observing and describing the actual outcomes of the educational process.

This view was also touched on briefly by Stenhouse who suggested it is 'better to deal in hypotheses concerning effects than objectives.' (Stenhouse, 1970a). It was Scriven, however, who took the argument several stages further when he advocated an approach which concentrates on effects to the complete exclusion of objectives. Indeed he went as far as claiming that knowledge of pre-specified objectives could actually contaminate an evaluation.

Scriven began by drawing attention to the common experience in evaluation that some side-effects take on a significance equal to or greater than the intended effects

(goals). He expressed a sense of unease about separating goals and side-effects.

...the rhetoric of the original proposal ... was frequently put forward as if it somehow constituted supporting evidence for the excellence of the product. ...the rhetoric of intent was being used as a substitute for evidence of success. Was it affecting us? It would be hard to prove it didn't. And it contributed nothing since we were not supposed to be rewarding good intentions. ... It seemed to me, in short, that consideration and evaluation of goals was an unnecessary but also a possibly contaminating step. (Scriven, 1972a: 1).

He went on to advocate what he called 'Goal Free Evaluation' in which the role of the evaluator is to study only the effects of a programme and not to consider the aims. 'Evaluation is the determination of the merit of what has been achieved' (Scriven, 1972b). It is possible that Scriven was deliberately overstating his case in order to emphasis the point, and there is little evidence that his proposal has been implemented in its pure form on a wide scale. Nevertheless, his direct assault on widely held assumptions about the crucial importance of behavioural objectives to evaluation, together with his emphasis on actual rather than intended effects, did a great deal to open up new directions in evaluation methodology.

Goal-free evaluation provides the basis for not only criticising programmes but the policy goals they are designed to implement. In challenging the model of rational action implicit in systems theory Scriven makes room for an evaluator who is accountable to the consumer rather than the provider. (Elliott, 1977c: 8).

Criticisms of the Scientific Stance

Running concurrently with the criticism of the rationale for the objectives model of evaluation was a criticism of its methodology. Based on the early measurement school of educational research, the objectives model relied almost exclusively on analytical empirical methods, the methodology of the natural scientist involving large samples of data, multi-variate analysis of a wide array of test items and measurements of significance.

A leading critic of this 'scientific' stance was Atkin, himself a scientist. The main thrust of his argument was that the process of education is so complex and subtle that to use only one of the traditional perspectives from which investigators have studied the educational process -- not just the scientific -- is extremely narrow in relation to the process. The end result is so oversimplified as to have little relation to the total educational process. (Atkin, 1967).

A particular shortcoming of the scientific approach according to Atkin is that those aspects of the educational process which can be measured are endowed with undue significance. 'An elaborate research methodology ... evolved round inconsequential events.' (Atkin, 1967). Important features of the educational process which are less amenable to being expressed in quantitative terms are not

merely ignored but are treated as, at best, insignificant and, at worst, regrettable features which contaminate a pure, scientific investigation.

It was this fundamental misgiving about the shortcomings of scientific procedures in evaluation rather than an anxiety about objectives as such that lay behind many of the alternative proposals for evaluation which developed in the early 1970's.

For example, the scientific stance is external and judgemental. The scientific evaluator is not normally party to the education process but comes along at the end to test the product. The assumption is that all the important intentions of the programme can be specified in advance and that the product -- usually changes in pupil behaviour -- can be measured against these pre-specified objectives.

Cronbach observed, as early as 1963, that 'evaluation, used to improve the course while it is still fluid, contributes more to improvement of education than evaluation used to appraise a product already placed on the market.' (Cronbach, 1963). Scriven took up this idea and drew a distinction between 'summative' and 'formative' styles of evaluation. The objective/scientific model is typically summative, in as much as it appraises the outcome of a programme. The weakness of this approach is that it may discover that a curriculum package, for example, does not

fulfil the original intentions only after a great deal of time and money has been expended developing it. More useful, as Cronbach says, if the testing could be conducted at intermediate stages in order to provide feedback to the developers and thus influence the form of the eventual product.

For Scriven (in 1967, before his disenchantment with goals emerged) the pre-specified objectives were as relevant to a formative style of evaluation as to a summative style. Eisner, however, appeared to challenge this view. He asserted the importance of distinguishing between an objective and a direction.

To establish a direction for enquiry, dialogue or discussion is to identify a theme and to examine it as it unfolds through the process of enquiry.
(Eisner, 1967b: 279).

Once a direction is established the appropriateness of a formative evaluation becomes more apparent. This was certainly apparent to Stenhouse as director of the Humanities Curriculum Project. The intentions of the project were not specified in terms of changes in student behaviour but in the criteria which the teachers should work to in the classroom. 'They are, if you like, specifications of a form of process.' (Stenhouse, 1970b). The evaluation of the Humanities Curriculum Project had to be a study of a process, and so it became, inevitably, a formative evaluation.

The distinction between summative and formative ideals was later clarified by Stake who pinpointed the crucial issue in the observation 'The key is not so much when as why.' (Stake, 1976). That is to say the issue is, who and what is the evaluation for? If it is for programme developers to enable them to correct and improve the programme in action then the study is formative. If it is for consumers -- those who in the immediate or distant future may want to use the programme -- to enable them to judge the programme's applicability and efficacy, then it is a summative study no matter at what stage the study takes place.

Criticisms of the Analytic Approach

Another feature of the traditional scientific approach is the analytic style, a style which involves criterion referenced selectivity and a progressive focusing on what are identified as key factors or features of a phenomena. All other factors are either ignored if deemed to be of no consequence, or allowed for by the use of control groups, or used as descriptors (such as categorisation by age group or sex).

It has already been noted that Atkin expressed misgivings about the narrow focus of the scientific approach and urged the use of a range of disciplines in evaluation studies. Stake, in a particularly influential paper put

another perspective on this when he claimed the need for 'full description' (Stake, 1967). By this he meant merely that the traditional description of student achievement, or 'outcomes', should be fleshed out with description of what he referred to as 'antecedents' and 'transactions'. A description of antecedents would cover the conditions and context pertaining before the programme of instruction and a description of transactions covers the process of the programme itself.

A few years later Stake took this argument a significant step further. In a brief but evocative paper he claimed that evaluation faced a 'description -v- analysis dilemma'. Given the reality of limited resources an evaluation study can either report on what can be measured most effectively or it can 'reflect the nature of the program with fidelity to the many important perceptions and expectations of it. Both cannot prevail. [It] is more important ... to provide the most veridical portrayal of the program.' (Stake, 1972). For Stake the choice was stark but simple, it was a choice between a study of a few features of a programme or an evaluation of the whole programme: anything less than the latter, he argued, should not count as evaluation.

One of the strands to Stake's argument was that scientific procedures, rather than enlarging our understanding of such social processes as education, actually diminish it. Scientific theory and statistical

procedures are devices employed to simplify complex phenomena to bring them within our limited powers of comprehension. But such simplifications are misleading because they deceive us into believing that education is less complex than it really is. We can lose our awareness of the significance of the whole.

Eisner underlined this important point with his use of the analogy of art criticism to emphasise some of the essential features of evaluation.

The criticism of art is the use of methods designed to heighten one's perception of the qualities that constitute the work. ... the critic must bring two kinds of skill to his work. First, he must ... be able to see the elements that constitute the whole and their interplay. Second, he must be capable of rendering his perceptions into a language that makes it possible for others less perceptive than he to see qualities and aspects of the work that they would otherwise overlook.'
(Eisner, 1972: 585).

Thus, Eisner was asserting that the evaluator must not limit his attention to selected elements of an educational programme or even attempt to study and describe all the elements as discrete entities. Rather the evaluator must give an account of the programme as a dynamic, interactive whole.

In a subsequent paper Eisner captured the futility of the scientific endeavour by contrasting it with what he termed 'thick description'. The observed behaviour of an

eyelid closing on the left eye at the rate of two closures per second could be described in just that way, and that would constitute an adequate scientific account. Thick description however would portray that behaviour, when observed in its cultural context, as 'a wink'. Behaviour described as 'a wink' contains a profound richness of meaning which is totally absent when the cultural and situational context is omitted.

Thick description aims at describing the meaning or significance of behaviour as it occurs in a cultural network saturated with meaning. (Eisner, 1975: 20).

Not only is a scientific focus in evaluation narrow and potentially misleading, it has relatively little value to the ultimate consumers of the development programme -- teachers. Scientific studies, by their very nature, involve the development of generalisations out of large samples of data. As many instances of a class of phenomena as possible are selected and measured and the results are aggregated to produce general descriptors of that class. The statistical procedures used to prepare and present such generalisations are accepted as underwriting the validity of the generalisations. Thus the chances of A becoming B when it is exposed to C can be predicted with a given degree of probability.

This kind of judgement may be of use to programme sponsors who require to know, in broad terms, how well the

programme works and whether money spent on development has been fruitful. However, individual teachers in their schools are more concerned about particular instances and authentic situations rather than abstract generalisations -- "Will it work in the context of my school given the distinctive circumstances which prevail here?".

The style of evaluation developed to meet this evident need, the case-study approach, was a significant step beyond 'thick description' and the wholistic approach (See MacDonald, 1971; Simons, 1971; and MacDonald & Walker, 1974 for the early expositions of this method). Advocates of the wholistic approach do not deny the need for generalisation from a wide range of instances; rather they call for the interrelatedness of elements of a whole programme to be drawn out and for contextual meanings to be restored. The case-study approach, however, asserts the superiority of the detailed study of one instance. 'Case-study is the examination of an instance in action' (Walker, 1974). Significantly, whereas the trend of opinion in evaluation theory up until about 1971 had been hostile to empirical methods and in favour of ethnographic methods, the call for a case-study approach halted that trend. Case-study theory involved an eclectic approach to methodology. Standard psychological tests of attitudinal change would be as appropriate as participant observation and depth interviews: the factor which distinguishes the methodology of case-study from other approaches is that it

is all applied to just one situation.

Current Trends in Evaluation Methodology

Further reactions against the objectives model and other emergent trends in evaluation differ from each other only in their emphases. Indeed, they are all very similar. It is as if a broad consensus has been arrived at from a variety of routes, the only apparent differences being bound up with the underlying motive for the style of evaluation.

An important example of this and a landmark in the history of evaluation was the publication of the paper Evaluation as Illumination: A New Approach to the Study of Innovatory Programs (Parlett & Hamilton, 1972). Whereas the concern of the objectives model of evaluation (the agricultural-botany model as Parlett and Hamilton termed it) is to measure and predict, the concern of their proposed alternative, illuminative evaluation, is with description and interpretation.

The aims of illuminative evaluation are to study the innovatory program: how it operates; how it is influenced by the various school situations in which it is applied; what those directly concerned regard as its advantages and disadvantages; and how students' intellectual tasks and academic experiences are most affected. It aims to discover and document what it is like to be participating in the scheme, whether as a teacher or pupil; and, in addition, to discern and discuss the innovations most significant features, recurring concomitants, and critical processes. (Parlett & Hamilton, 1972: 9).

The term 'illuminative' is intended to capture the motivation expressed above, ie to shed light on and reveal important features of a programme which would otherwise be obscured by an agricultural-botany approach. More important than a change of research methodology is the use of different assumptions, concepts and terminology. Illuminative evaluation differs from the case-study approach in one important respect; it would not necessarily confine itself to the study of just one instance. Consequently, each context studied should not involve the detailed investigation entailed in a case-study. In short, the illuminative model involves the evaluator putting on a particular set of spectacles, causing him to attend to particular elements of the programme and to portray particular kinds of relationships between those elements.

Another example of an important direction taken in evaluation theory is the advocacy of 'democratic evaluation'. It has been observed above that the objectives model presumed the principal audience for an evaluation report should be the sponsor or funding agency. The wisdom and utility of this ethic was challenged in the process of evaluating the Humanities Curriculum Project. Given the fact that the project was promoting the coverage of controversial value issues and advocating a novel form of pedagogy, it was perhaps inevitable that the project team should be especially sensitive to the opinions of teachers,

both those involved in the development work and potential users of the final product.

MacDonald proposed a form of evaluation in which the motivation of the evaluation reflected a loyalty to the wider educational community rather than the narrow interests of a funding agency.

Democratic evaluation is an information service to the whole community about the characteristics of an educational programme. Sponsorship of the evaluation study does not in itself confer a special claim upon this service. The democratic evaluator recognises value pluralism and seeks to represent a range of interests in his issue formulation. The basic value is an informed citizenry, and the evaluator acts as broker in exchanges of information between groups who want knowledge of each other. His techniques of data gathering and presentation must be accessible to non-specialist audiences. His main activity is the collection of definitions of, and reactions to the programme. He offers confidentiality to the informants and gives them control over his use of the information they provide. The report is non-recommendatory, and the evaluator has no concept of information misuse. The evaluator engages in periodic negotiation of his relationships with sponsors and programme participants. The criterion of success is the range of audiences served. The report aspires to 'best-seller' status. The key concepts of democratic evaluation are 'confidentiality', 'negotiation' and 'accessibility'. The key justificatory concept is 'the right to know'. (MacDonald, 1974: 15).

Once again we have a particular set of spectacles which the evaluator chooses to wear. In this case the selection and description of elements is governed by a consciousness of

the needs of the audience for the report.

On the surface the needs of the audience appear to be expressed and understood in practical terms. What do teachers need to know? How should it be presented to them bearing in mind that they may not be conversant with technical jargon? However, the needs of the various audiences may also be understood in terms of their different interests and value positions, and herein lies an important distinction.

An evaluation study conducted and reported to serve the interests and values of the funding agency would be a very different kind of study from that conducted to serve the interests and values of other audiences. The implications of this dimension were first considered by House who distinguished between the 'context of valuation' and the 'context of justification'. (House, 1973). The 'context of valuation' is the basic value slant of the study contingent upon the origin and context of the study itself. This recognises that no study, no matter how 'scientific', can ever be value-free. There will always be a slant dependent upon contextual motivations and biases. The 'context of justification' involves the evaluator's procedure for justifying the validity of the findings to a particular audience. There are various forms of justification with different forms of legitimation depending on the audience for which they are intended; for example,

the judicial community in courts of law operates wholly different procedures from those operated by the scientific community because their contexts of justification differ.

What House is implying is that all evaluation studies have a political and ideological dimension which has profound consequences for the methodologies and style of reporting chosen. And, by the same token, evaluation methodologies and reports have profound political and ideological implications. (These ideas are developed at length in House, 1980).

A less profound, but nonetheless equally important perspective was offered by Stake in the context of evaluation studies of an arts programme. Accepting the need to focus on programme processes rather than objectives, on the audience requirement for information and on the need to acknowledge the different value-perspectives of those concerned, he proposed the notion of 'responsive evaluation'. This notion embraces many of the features of illuminative and democratic evaluation.

To do a responsive evaluation, the evaluator conceives of a plan of observations and negotiations. He arranges for various persons to observe the program. With their help he prepares brief narratives, portrayals, product displays, graphs, etc. He finds out what is of value to his audiences. He gathers expressions of worth from various individuals whose points of view differ... He gets program personnel to react to the accuracy of his portayals. He gets authority figures to react to the

importance of his various findings. He gets audience members to react to the relevance of his findings. He does much of this informally -- iterating and keeping a record of action and reaction. (Stake, 1975).

Additionally, Stake introduced the term 'issues' as an organising concept for an evaluation:

These issues are a structure for the data-gathering plan. The systematic observations are made, the interviews and tests to be given, if any, should be those that contribute to understanding or resolving the issues identified. (Stake, 1975).

Thus responsive evaluation can be characterised as evaluation that responds to key issues situated in the context of the educational programme in as much as it is actuated by the issues and reflects them in the mode of enquiry.

A Typology of Models of Evaluation

In analysing those approaches to evaluation studies which developed out of a sense of the inadequacy of the objectives model it is clear that there are not only a wide range of dimensions by which these approaches could be classified but also a number of significant strands or issues embedded in the accompanying debate.

In 1976, Stake was commissioned by the Organisation for

Economic Co-operation and Development to prepare a paper mapping the various alternative approaches to evaluation. Drawing on earlier work by Scriven (1966) and Worthen and Sanders (1973), he suggested the following eight dimensions for classifying evaluation designs:

Formative - Summative
 Formal - Informal
 Case Particular - Generalisation
 Product - Process
 Descriptive - Judgemental
 Pre-ordinate - Responsive
 Wholistic - Analytic
 Internal - External.

Unfortunately and rather surprisingly this scheme omits reference to the political values dimension identified by House (1973 and 1980) and MacDonald (1974). Moreover, Stake's approach is reductionist in as much as we are encouraged, if not misled, into looking at evaluation through sets of lenses which invite us to see only one dimension at a time.

The situation is indeed more complex than Stake's classification reveals. As Simons has stressed, all the key features of evaluation methodology are interrelated and each has a bearing on the other. Simons identifies three, what we might regard as, 'meta-features' which may be used to develop a synthesis out of what could otherwise appear to be a disparate list of items:

... the purpose of the enquiry, the nature of the study and the audience for whom it is intended. (Simons, 1980: 8. Emphasis added).

The three 'meta-features' usefully provide us with the necessary framework for organising a range of dimensions drawn from the preceding analysis. (See figure 3.1).

Purpose

- 1a. Summative: The intention is to appraise the product or outcome (if processes are to be included see 3b below) of a development programme in its final completed form to inform potential consumers about its qualities.
- 1b. Formative: The intention is to appraise the intended outcome of the programme as it is being developed in order to inform the developers so that they may change its design if possible.
- 2a. Judgemental: The intention is to make definitive pronouncements on the worth of an outcome -- does it perform as it was intended?
- 2b. Descriptive: The intention is to provide a wealth of descriptive information about the programme or the product without reference to criteria of worth. Judgements of worth would be left to the reader of the report. NB The Illuminative model comes very close to the Descriptive form. However in Illuminative evaluation there are circumstances in which references to worth will be appropriate. In this respect the Illuminative model includes some aspects of the Responsive model (See 9b).

(continued on page 92)

PURPOSE

ie. What the intentions of the evaluation are.

- | | | | |
|---|-------------|---------|-------------|
| 1 | Summative | <-----> | Formative |
| 2 | Judgemental | <-----> | Descriptive |
| 3 | Product | <-----> | Process |

NATURE

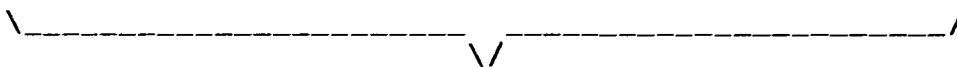
ie. How The evaluation is carried out.

- | | | | |
|---|----------------|---------|------------|
| 4 | External | <-----> | Internal |
| 5 | Analytic | <-----> | Portrayal |
| 6 | Generalisation | <-----> | Case-Study |

AUDIENCE

ie. Who the evaluation report is written for.

- | | | | |
|---|--------------|--------------------------|------------|
| 7 | Public | <-----> | Private |
| 8 | Bureaucratic | <----- Autocratic -----> | Democratic |

Transcending Purpose, Nature and Audience

- | | | | |
|---|--------------|---------|------------|
| 9 | Pre-ordinate | <-----> | Responsive |
|---|--------------|---------|------------|

Figure 3.1: Dimensions for Classifying Evaluation Studies

- 3a. Product: This dimension is bound up with the nature of the development programme. A Product evaluation is appropriate if the programme intends to develop a specific product such as a publication or a course of instruction.
- 3b. Process: If the programme sets out to provide a selection of activities and experiences which are intended to be worthwhile ends in themselves then a Process evaluation would indicate the intrinsic worth or simply describe those activities and experiences. Thus both Product and Process evaluations can either be Summative or Formative, Judgemental or Descriptive.

Nature

- 4a. External: The evaluation is carried out by those who have no responsibility for or commitment to the development programme.
- 4b. Internal: Those who conduct the evaluation are involved in the development programme as developers or as participants in some other way.
- 5a. Analytic: The evaluation selects a limited range of what are regarded as key characteristics and derives conclusions about the effectiveness of the programme from an analysis of the performance of these

characteristics. Thus Analytic evaluation studies are usually Judgemental and vica versa.

- 5b. Portrayal: The evaluation attempts to report the characteristics of the programme as a whole. This concept goes beyond the mere accumulation of variables and incorporates the contextual dimension -- 'thick description' in Eisner's terminology.
- 6a. Generalisation: The evaluation studies a large number of instances, attempts to remove or control for unwanted variables and calculates broad conclusions based on as large a base as possible. All the instances are treated as equivalent examples of a particular category of cases.
- 6b. Case-Study: The evaluation studies one particular instance in great depth. The instance is regarded as significant in its own right and not because it is representative of a category.

Generalisation and Case-Study evaluations probably use mainly Analytic and Portrayal approaches respectively, but this is not necessarily the situation for the Case-Study approach will use a wide array of investigative techniques.

Audience

- 7a. Public: A Public evaluation is usually, though not necessarily conducted for an audience external to the programme under scrutiny. A formal evaluation is obliged to submit to tests of accuracy, validity and credibility. Thus the context of justification is very significant.
- 7b. Private: A Private evaluation may be defined as one which has no context of justification. The audience is likely to be only the participants in the programme. The terms 'public' and 'private' are used here in a political sense where public indicates the existence of accountability to the state apparatus at any level.
- 8a. Bureaucratic: The Bureaucratic evaluation is conducted for government and funding agencies and accepts their values and their right to own the findings.
- 8b. Autocratic: Although the Autocratic evaluation is conducted for government and funding agencies it is conducted according to the values of the academic community. Thus the findings may be reported to a wider, mainly academic audience.
- 8c. Democratic: 'The Democratic evaluation is an information service to the whole community about the characterisation of an education programme'
(MacDonald, 1974. See page 85 for the full definition).
It may be more accurate to think of the Bureaucratic -

Autocratic - Democratic dimension as an enlargement of the Public dimension above, although there are grounds for arguing that important elements of a Democratic evaluation ought to be private.

- 9a. Pre-ordinate: Pre-ordinate evaluation is oriented by a prior definition of the situation in the form of hypotheses, objectives, directions or broad intentions. Thus the purpose and direction, and therefore the methodology also, are determined in advance by these parameters.
- 9b. Responsive: A Responsive evaluation adjusts to the issues which are generated and encountered as the programme proceeds.

In no sense is this dimension constrained by, or a determination of the purposes, nature or audience of the report. In several important respects this dimension transcends and serves to unite all three of these features in as much as it is dependent on the nature of the development programme itself. A development programme which requires or insists on the pre-specification of intentions will necessitate a Pre-ordinate evaluation just as a programme which for various reasons is unable or unwilling to provide a detailed specification of intentions will necessitate a Responsive evaluation.

CHAPTER 4

THE EVALUATION OF INSET

Introduction

Having clarified the nature of INSET and reviewed the variety of approaches to educational evaluation this brings us to the question, what form of evaluation might be appropriate to studying INSET -- in particular INSET for political education? If we take as a starting point for answering this question the accounts of others who have undertaken research in this field and consider them in the light of criteria established in the preceding chapter it becomes evident that very little of this experience offers much in the way of guidelines and principles for evaluating INSET. Consequently it became necessary to formulate a distinctive rationale for the evaluation of INSET and for developing a particular research strategy.

Early Surveys of INSET

Brief summaries of the history of surveys of INSET have been compiled by Henderson (1978), Taylor (1978) and

McCabe (1980). It would seem from Henderson's review that the earliest studies did not extend beyond descriptive accounts of the provision of LEA and regional INSET courses and of subject-specific courses provided by various professional associations. The list of surveys comprises: Moorehouse (1965) describing the INSET provision in Oxfordshire; Joint Mathematical Council of the UK (1965) -- the INSET provision in Mathematics; Royal Society (1965) -- Science and Mathematics; Hogan and Wilcock (1967) -- West Riding of Yorkshire; Henry (1968) -- Shropshire; Walton (1968) -- the South West region; Buley (1968) -- Chemistry; Ayles (1969) -- Essex; Bell (1970) -- Kent; George (1971) -- Wales; and Knowles (1972) -- Special Education.

None of these surveys could be described as 'evaluation' studies according to our understanding of the term established in Chapter 3, particularly because the plain description and narrative style employed in these reports does not include any account or justification of the instruments used or any explanation of the criteria for valuing data. Similarly, a national survey conducted by Plowden (CACE, 1967a), another of the studies cited in Henderson (1978), was no more than a statistical report of teachers' attendance on INSET courses in the period 1961-1964.

The first studies to incorporate elements of evaluation methodology were conducted by Cane for the National

Foundation for Educational Research (Cane, 1968 & 1969). Cane's work was not directed at specific examples of INSET courses but was concerned with a general investigation of the opinions and preferences of primary, secondary and head teachers on the organisation, content and procedures of INSET. Following a pilot study conducted in Surrey, Cane carried out a questionnaire survey of teachers in Durham, Glamorgan and Norfolk. Part of the enquiry was concerned with collecting data on the provision of INSET courses in those LEAs, their location and timing, teachers' attendance at the courses and their reasons for non-attendance. He also investigated the kinds of course topics which teachers thought would be useful and the methods of dealing with them which teachers preferred.

The shortcoming of this study was, however, that it was conducted at such a high level of abstraction that no specific conclusions could be drawn about particular kinds of training methods in the context of particular kinds of courses. For example, Cane reported that only 2-4% of all teachers were interested in the topic of 'lesson preparation'. But if the vast majority of, say, Modern Language teachers had been very interested in having guidance on lesson preparation, then Cane's generalisation would have been grossly misleading. What is clearly needed are evaluation studies which are specific to particular INSET activities.

Taylor's review of evaluation studies, undertaken for the Centre for Educational Research and Innovation (OECD) project on INSET for teachers (Taylor, 1978), is in some ways more discriminating than Henderson's. Instead of listing broad surveys Taylor concentrates more on those studies which focus on particular courses. However, although the studies are more concerned with evaluation as such, in most cases the courses and activities reviewed do not fall within the definition of INSET developed in Chapter 2.

Of the thirteen studies cited five were concerned with award-bearing courses (Dip.Ed., B.Ed. and Masters Degree courses) for full-time and part-time students -- not all of whom were teachers -- at Didsbury College of Education (Didsbury College of Education, 1976), North East London Polytechnic (Bradbury & Ramsden, 1975), Jordanhill College of Education (Jordanhill College of Education, 1977), the University of Sussex (cited in Taylor, 1978) and at the Open University (Blacklock, 1976). Another study looked at initial training at the University of Lancaster (McNamara, 1975) and a further three were to do with probationary year or general induction courses for teachers (Bolam, 1976; Bradley & Eggleston, 1977; James, 1975).

A particularly interesting study dealt with the dissemination phase of 'Progress in Learning Science', a Schools Council curriculum development project

(Elliott, 1977d). The approach to dissemination was to organise school-centred training courses and the activities were directed as much towards curriculum change as towards INSET. The principal role of the evaluator was to appraise the process of dissemination rather than the quality of INSET. However, as a significant part of the activity was concerned with the professional development of teachers, this study has more of a bearing on the evaluation of INSET than those mentioned so far.

Two of the remaining studies, although undoubtedly evaluations of INSET, are also of marginal importance. Perrott's study of self-instruction in micro-teaching techniques (Applebee et al, 1975), was unusual in that the programme of instruction and the process of evaluation were both solitary and self-administered. Whereas the relevance of the evaluation methodology might be established, the relevance of the particular style of instruction to mainstream INSET activities is doubtful.

Similarly, a study of a course for professional tutors (Gibson, 1974) was so limited in scope and so narrow in its choice of methodology that it would be an inappropriate example on which to base generalisations.

Methodology

Even if, for the sake of argument, we accept all the above twelve studies reviewed by Taylor as valid examples of the

evaluation of INSET only four research techniques may be identified:

1. The distribution of questionnaires to participants during or at the end of the course.
2. A formal assessment of the achievements of participants (normally used in the case of award-bearing courses).
3. Judgements, made by LEA staff and INSET tutors visiting schools, of the effects of the course on classroom practice.
4. Reports on the course by course arrangers and contributors.

The appropriateness and utility of these kinds of techniques will be considered below. Suffice to say at this stage that if any of these techniques are used alone in a study, as mostly they were, the ensuing report can only amount to little more than a narrative of subjective impressions or a statement of formal qualifications awarded at the end of a course.

Only one of the thirteen studies cited can be regarded as an authentic evaluation of INSET and that one is the evaluation of an ad hoc course in 1973 on pastoral care and

counselling conducted by Henderson (1975). [1] This particular study differs from all the foregoing examples in a number of important respects, the main one being that it was self-consciously an evaluation study. That is to say, unlike any of the other studies, the research techniques chosen are examined critically and justifications are offered for their appropriateness to the given circumstances. Consequently a range of techniques was used in order to provide a composite picture.

The following instruments and procedures were used:

- (a) Every course member was interviewed separately, in his/her own school during the month before the course began, to seek information on background, reasons for joining the course, and the practice of pastoral care in the[ir] school. The interviews were loosely structured within a prepared schedule of items.
- (b) The evaluator attended all the sessions of the course in the role of a course member, taking part in all of the discussions and exercises, and talking with course members and contributors.
- (c) 21 of the 27 teachers who completed the course wrote dissertations, and these provided a further source of evidence for the evaluator.

1. Henderson (1975) includes studies of several INSET courses (also separately reported in Henderson, 1976a, 1976b, 1977a & 1978; Taylor, 1978; and McCabe, 1980). The study reviewed by Taylor is the only one which is exempt from the above criticisms because it involved a variety of research instruments.

- (d) Every course member was interviewed for a second time about two months after the end of the course. This interview ... was conducted as an informal conversation, in which the evaluator sought as much information as possible about the individual sessions of the course, the effect of the course on teachers personally, and its effect on the practice of pastoral care within their schools. ...
- (e) An attitude inventory was completed by each course member before the course began, within a month of the end of the course, and again approximately one month later. (Henderson, 1978: 100).

The appropriateness of these kinds of procedures will also be considered below. However, at this point it should be noted that Henderson's study comes much closer to what would be understood and accepted in the wider educational context as an evaluation study within the terms established in Chapter 3.

There are a few other small-scale 'evaluation' studies reported in McCabe (1980), in recent issues of the British Journal of In-Service Education and in the Evaluation Newsletter of the Society for Research into Higher Education. However, to date, none of these studies has matched the level of sophistication, with regard to research methodology, achieved by Henderson.

Currently there are three projects under way -- Making the Most of Short Inservice Courses directed by Jean Rudduck, University of East Anglia, the Schools and

In-Service Teacher Education evaluation project (S.I.T.E.) directed by Dr Ray Bolam, University of Bristol and the Programme of School-Centred In-Service Education directed by Dr David Bridges, Homerton College, Cambridge -- each of which, it would seem, should offer considerable advances in the techniques of INSET evaluation. Unfortunately, it is too early to estimate their degree of success or the appropriateness of their methodologies to the present study.

The State of the Art

Surveying the scene of INSET evaluation (or at least those studies which are claimed to be examples of INSET evaluation) from the 1960's up to 1979 we have a rather puzzling and disturbing picture. In 1978 Taylor wrote:

Because INSET has no systematic evaluation tradition, whatever is done in the future in order to increase the number of reliable studies, will, in terms of methodology, to some extent be exploratory and experimental, at least in the initial stages. (Taylor, 1978: 37).

Implicit in this statement is a stance which isolates the evaluation of INSET from the experience and progress of educational evaluation in general.

It would appear, both from the techniques employed and from the substantive content of the reports that many of those carrying out the research were largely unaware of the seminal issues being discussed by curriculum development evaluators. The apparent exceptions to this are the studies conducted by Henderson (1975) and Elliott (1977d)

who both discuss some of the broader issues of evaluation methodology and, to a significant extent, set out to develop their approaches to evaluation in response to those issues.

As indicated earlier, of these two studies only Henderson's is strictly concerned with INSET and for this reason this is the only study which it has been possible to analyse and locate in the context of the emerging 'science' of educational evaluation. Although it would obviously be an exaggeration to suggest that this represents the current state of the art of INSET evaluation, nevertheless, with the exception of those studies in progress cited above, there are no other examples from which to generalise.

Firstly, considering the purpose of Henderson's study, it appears to be largely Summative, Judgemental and Product-Based (See the typology of models of evaluation in Chapter 3). His report is concerned with the 'outcomes' of a course; the changes which have taken place in teachers and in schools following attendance on the course. Although a description of the course is given the purpose is not to illuminate the process but to judge the value of the various elements.

The nature of the evaluation is more difficult to locate. Certainly it was Analytic and based on a Behavioural Objectives model. However, as a study of one

instance [2] generalisation was not feasible. At the same time it could not be regarded as a Case-Study.

The anticipated audience was to be a Public one in that it was intended to provide feedback to the course arrangers. However, as the study formed part of a research programme for a higher degree and was subsequently reported in academic journals the style is closer to the Autocratic model described by MacDonald (1974).

Overall, it is clear that the study was largely Pre-ordinate in that all the purposes and processes were determined before the course began and there is little indication of responses to issues which arose during the course.

Although Henderson's study is an exception to the isolation of the development of evaluation of INSET from the traditions of evaluation in general, nevertheless it seems that Henderson has been influenced rather more by the earlier, objective-based approaches to evaluation than by the post-70's developments. The approaches to evaluation which have been termed Formative, Descriptive, Process, Portrayal, Case-Study, Democratic and Responsive are not represented in his study.

2. In fact the course was held and studied on two separate occasions. However, only on the first occasion were the full range of evaluation procedures listed earlier used.

A Rationale and Strategy for Evaluating INSET

There are a number of significant features of INSET which give strong grounds for advocating the use of more qualitative forms of evaluation methodology than those employed by Henderson. More importantly, the nature of political education (and the pedagogic issues which it highlights when made the subject of INSET) establishes a compelling argument for a particular approach to the evaluation of INSET for political education.

Most, if not all, evaluation studies have made the fundamental mistake of treating INSET as if it is merely an example of an educational activity or innovation which may be understood, described or analysed using the same categories and procedures as are applicable in the case of classroom interaction or curriculum development. In a number of very important respects this is not the case.

Fox has pointed out that

The evaluation of inservice education and training is a special case for educational investigators because all participants are adults and all are educators. (Fox, 1980: 45).

The theme that Fox goes on to develop is that all INSET participants are professional educators who themselves have

considerable expertise in the processes in which they are involved. Their views on the nature and value of the activities and experiences in which they are participants may well be as valid and as relevant as the views of the course arrangers and the evaluator. As Eraut (1975) has observed, teacher development 'is not something that can be forced, because it is the teacher who develops (active) and not the teacher who is developed (passive)'. Moreover, as adult professional educators, participants have obvious rights and reasonable expectations regarding the conduct of an evaluation, the handling of data and the dissemination of the findings.

Much more significantly INSET courses are not institutionalised in the way that school-centred educational encounters are. Educational programmes in an established school are by definition set in the context of an ongoing social organisation with all the characteristics of a social organisation -- a history, an ideology, a formal heirarchy, recognised channels of communication, well-developed relationships between members, and so on. In contrast, with the exception of those isolated examples of school-centred INSET, INSET courses are unique and transient. Participants come from a variety of backgrounds, they have a variety of different experiences, they have no common history nor established relationships.

Although an INSET course may be held in the buildings of

an educational institution it is rarely a constituent feature of that institution. Consequently there are few if any organisational constraints which cannot be overcome -- in theory at least, if not entirely in practice. Thus each INSET course is like an ad hoc experiment, far more open to speculation and modification than school-centred educational innovation.

For these reasons especially the Case-Study method of evaluation was regarded as being the most appropriate general approach to evaluating each INSET course. Given the uniqueness of INSET courses it makes more sense to describe, in as much detail as possible, each 'instance in action'. At the same time, it would have proved almost impossible to sample a wide range of INSET courses and to try to formulate broad generalisations. Nevertheless, given the fact that the field was limited to one concern of INSET activity -- political education -- it was anticipated that a degree of generalisation might be possible.

Also, given the protean and 'experimental' nature of INSET courses (especially in the field of political education) both Formative and, especially, Responsive approaches to evaluation were regarded as appropriate in this case. INSET courses, being ends in themselves rather than the preparation of an educational package to be used at some time in the future, require a Formative rather than a Summative style of evaluation. However, the time span of

most INSET courses is too short to allow for a truly Formative study in which interim reports which are intended to be influential on the proceedings are provided for course arrangers. Thus the only practical procedure was to set out to provide course arrangers at an early stage in their planning with information on the evaluations of other courses together with recommendations based on those studies.

Recognising that INSET courses are mutable and given the necessity for collaboration and negotiation during the planning stage of a course the approach to evaluation also had to be Responsive. That is to say, it was going to be necessary to be continually sensitive to the intentions of the arrangers, to the needs of the participants and to the issues which the conjunction of these two may precipitate.

It has been noted earlier (Chapter 3) that the nature of the Humanities Curriculum Project, its objectives and its strategy, necessitated a particular style of evaluation. The evaluation of the project had to be a study of process, and so it became, inevitably, a Formative evaluation. In a similar way, there are several distinctive and determinant feature of political education (discussed in Chapter 1) which have an important bearing on the selection of an appropriate evaluation strategy for INSET courses on political education.

Political education is not 'judgemental' in as much as it does not set out to grade pupils but to involve them in developmental experiences which illuminate and enhance their political understandings, skills and values. Consequently an INSET course on political education will have no external referential point determined by agreed standards of judgement (eg. correct political understanding, behaviour and attitudes). Thus, as the study of an INSET course on political education cannot make reference to external standards of judgement, the style must of necessity be inclined towards the Descriptive mode rather than the Judgemental. However, given the necessity for a Responsive approach and the extent to which considerations of worth would be appropriate in some circumstances such as in the context of democratic values for example (see page 115), it was clear that elements of an Illuminative approach would also be appropriate.

By the same token, as political education is process-based it would be incongruous that an evaluation of INSET courses on political education should be concerned with studying the quality or merit of the product or outcome. As any product of a programme of political education is less important than the processes involved in the programme there can be no specific agreed product which could form the focus of attention on a political education INSET course, and so a Process-based evaluation was indicated.

Once it was established that the most appropriate mode of evaluation should incorporate Case-Study, Formative, Responsive, Descriptive/Illuminative and Process-based methods, it was clear that it should also be a Portrayal style. Not only would an Analytical style be out of keeping with the nature of political education but, more than that, a Portrayal style enhances each of the five methods initially identified as appropriate. In the absence of pre-specified instructional objectives the evaluation task in this situation cannot be one of applying a common standard to the products produced but has to be one of reflecting on the educational encounter as a dynamic, interactive whole and providing a full contextual description.

Many of these observations are echoed by Elliott (1977b) when he outlines the different ideologies implicit in 'evaluation from above' and 'evaluation from below'. He argues that if an evaluation is conducted 'from above', ie on behalf of an INSET providing bureaucracy, then a particular approach to evaluation is expected and is inevitable. The task of evaluation will be to assess the effectiveness of the treatments -- the things done to teachers -- in the light of changes in belief and behaviour which are required to remedy the perceived defects. The method of evaluation will aspire to be scientific and objective.

If however INSET is understood as providing opportunities to enable or foster the professional development of teachers it would be more appropriate for evaluation to be conducted on behalf of and from the standpoint of teachers -- 'evaluation from below'. Evaluation from below would be characterised by a number of interconnected features. 'It necessarily assesses in terms of process rather than product criteria'. 'It involves appraisals which are formative rather than summative'. 'The objectivity of the evaluation is tested in dialogue with the participants investigated'. 'Its methods are the naturalistic ones of criticism and dialogue and its language that of common sense and everyday life'. (Elliott, 1977: 5-7).

Given the democratic ideals of political education it is equally clear that the evaluation of INSET courses for political education should attempt to adhere as closely as possible to the Democratic model. Political education is pupil-centred and encourages the development of skills of participation. Moreover, political education advocates values which include a willingness to tolerate a diversity of views, a willingness to be prepared to have one's opinions changed and a willingness to adopt a critical stance towards information and opinion. Teachers and course arrangers who accept and advocate these educational principles would have a reasonable expectation to see them

reflected in the wider educational context of a research study of INSET courses in which they are collaborating. This observation is closely connected to Fox's remark about INSET being a special case because all participants are adults and educators (Fox, 1980: 45. See p.107 above).

Thus an evaluation of INSET for political education should be particularly sensitive to the opinions of course participants and arrangers. This sensitivity would be with regard to their right to have full access to information and their right to register opinions on the evaluator's views and on the course itself. However, in view of the fact that political education embraces democratic values, the evaluation of INSET for political education cannot be entirely value-free.

This view of Democratic evaluation is shared by Elliott.

My ideas had been heavily influenced by Barry MacDonald's thinking about the political implications of educational evaluation and his development of the ideas of democratic evaluation. However, by the beginning of the study I was not entirely satisfied with MacDonald's account. He tended to see democratic evaluation as non-judgemental and the role of the evaluator as a neutral broker negotiating exchanges of information between different power groups. In my design paper I argued that there is a contradiction in the idea of a non-judgemental democratic evaluation. (Elliott, 1977d: 113).

Elliott goes on to point out that Democratic evaluation cannot avoid judgement entirely because, by definition, it

has to assess situations in the light of democratic criteria. This is exactly so in the case of political education. An evaluation of INSET for political education should make certain judgements in the light of the democratic and pedagogic ideals of political education and so it cannot be wholly value-free and non-judgemental in the sense to which MacDonald aspired.

Nevertheless, the context of justification (House, 1973 & 1980) of an evaluation of INSET courses for political education should aspire to democratic ideals in so far as it should see the main audience for the report as being the course participants -- teachers, contributors and arrangers -- and that it should be couched in terms that they regard as familiar and useful.

Evaluation Methodology - Principles

Although the distinguishing characteristics of INSET courses and of political education suggested that a combination of the Case-study and Illuminative styles of evaluation would be the most appropriate to employ as a basis to the evaluation methodology in this study, in order to attempt to develop broad principles from which to derive general recommendations for all INSET course arrangers it was going to be necessary to devise an approach which could treat each INSET course as a source of generalisable data. The approach developed followed closely the educational research

methodology pioneered by L M Smith which he termed 'cumulative case-study'. (Smith, 1971).

Smith claimed that the participant observation method is especially useful for generating what Glazer and Strauss (1967) called 'grounded theory'. The day to day involvement in participant observation produces a flood of data, a stream of images and particulars -- people, situations, events, occasions and so on. During this process a variety of ideas, insights and interesting associations of ideas and events arise. Alongside this there is a search for overall patterns, for broad themes which might divide the phenomena into meaningful portions or domains. This conscious search for analytical and interpretive meanings proceeds concurrently with the routine of data collection. Glazer and Strauss refer to this dual process as 'theoretical sampling'.

Theoretical sampling .. [is] .. data collection for the purpose of generating theory whereby the analyst jointly collects, codes and analyses his data and decides what data to collect next and where to find them in order to develop his theory as it emerges. (Glazer & Strauss, 1967: 45).

The overall process is one of creative thinking; the generation and construction of concepts, perspectives and theories from an initial set of problems.

The conscious searching for patterns need not only be within a single case-study but can also be throughout a

series of projects over time. As we engage in a series of case-studies questions will arise regarding the credibility of hypotheses and models generated in one setting and which reappear in subsequent settings. Smith's cumulative case-study approach consciously takes theory (concepts, categories, hypotheses, models) generated in one setting and then reviews the validity of the theory in the light of data derived from the next setting. Then, if necessary, the theory is modified and is 'tested' again in the next setting, and so on.

When Glazer and Strauss referred to 'a running theoretical discussion using conceptual categories and their properties ... that is theory as an ever-developing entity' (Glazer & Strauss, 1967: 31-32), they had in mind a published 'discussion' for an academic audience. In view of our commitment to a Democratic and Formative style of evaluation it seemed appropriate to take this principle a stage further and to incorporate an additional strategy.

This involved sharing the early hypotheses with the arrangers of some of the later INSET courses before they undertook their planning thus encouraging them to base their planning on the draft recommendations. This provided the benefit of being able to review the appropriateness of the early theories in, so to speak, 'test-bed' conditions rather than relying on chance occurrences of relevant evidence emerging from later case-studies. Thus it was possible to

enhance the process of theoretical sampling (ie. sampling INSET courses based on generated theory) and to saturate particular conceptual categories in the theory with relevant data.

Evaluation Methodology - Practice

(For a detailed account of the methodology employed see Appendix B.)

It follows from what has been stated above about the nature of INSET for political education, about the professional development of teachers and the need for a Democratic style of evaluation that the entry point for generating theory should be the INSET needs of teachers as perceived by teachers themselves.

Adopting this perspective meant that several forms of methodology were rendered inappropriate. If teachers' views on what they need and whether those needs have been met is the touchstone then there is no place for a methodology which implies an absolute, objective standard of judgement of the benefits derived by teachers and, by implication, the success of an INSET course. Thus the following kinds of evaluation techniques used in the studies discussed above were deemed to be unsuitable for the present study:

The formal assessment of teachers' academic competence during or at the end of a course, particularly if this is for the purpose of awarding professional qualifications. There is no necessary connexion between the assessment and validation procedures for award-bearing courses and the organisation and those offerings of the course which might justify it being regarded as successful.

The assessment of teachers' classroom performance before and after the course. To employ this technique it would first be necessary to make a number of doubtful assumptions -- for example, that INSET courses aim to change classroom performance; that classroom performance can be objectively measured; that all influences other than the course can be allowed for; that permanent change will take place within a brief interval after the course; that observers' judgements of classroom performance are more valid than those of the teacher or of the pupils; and so on -- none of which can be accepted with any degree of confidence.

The assessment of teachers' attitudes before and after the course. Not only do all the doubtful assumptions mentioned above in connexion with classroom performance have to be made in order to adopt this technique but it has also to be assumed that changed attitudes will automatically translate into changed performance.

Accepting the opinions of course arrangers on the success of a course. For all sorts of obvious reasons the opinions of those providing an INSET course may well be the least objective basis for an evaluation. On the other hand, if such opinions are sought on specific aspects of a course and are treated as data for an evaluation study rather than the evaluation itself, this could make an important contribution to a case-study.

In the context of a Democratic style of evaluation in order to collect data for case-studies and to generate grounded theory, two research techniques seemed particularly appropriate:

Surveying the opinions of course participants in particular, as well as of contributors and course arrangers, about the success of a course in relation to their declared interests and intentions.

Gathering as much empirical data as possible about the course provision; ie the detailed characteristics and proceedings of a course (who did what, and when, and where).

The entry point for generating an initial theory from data involved conducting a national questionnaire survey of teachers involved in political education in order to obtain information on what they thought should be provided on INSET courses to meet their needs (See Chapter 5). The choice of

wording of questions reflected an intuitive theory about what such needs might be, based on ten years personal experience of such courses either as a participant, as a contributor or as a course arranger.

Responses to the survey served to clarify this theory a little and, by this means, to devise research instruments for questioning and interviewing course participants, arrangers and contributors and schemes for categorising course characteristics and proceedings. And all the while that these instruments -- questionnaires, interview, observation and transcribing schedules -- were being used to collect data about successive courses, the theory about the relationships between teacher satisfaction and course provision was progressively filled out and the data categories, and the research instruments themselves were progressively refined. How the framework for the theory was constructed, why particular categories and concepts were selected and the way in which hypotheses and models were developed is discussed in Chapter 6.

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Postscript: Ethical Issues and Methodological Problems

This approach to evaluation encounters or precipitates three sources of tension which arise from considerations of the validity, the utility and the control of the data.

Validity

One of the problems associated with qualitative research such as the use of case-studies is that it usually requires more attention to the justification of its methodology and to the validation of evidence than does quantitative research. There is an assumption embedded in Western culture that accurate understanding of the world is best approached through 'scientific' procedures and that all scientific procedures are quantitative. There is a further embedded tension between the presumed objectivity of empirical data and the presumed subjectivity of descriptive data. Much of the content of an evaluation study based on qualitative methods would necessarily need to discuss the choice of methodology and the significance of evidence.

The validation of qualitative data generally involves invoking recognised academic authorities, the exploration of formal, usually abstract theories and the use of their associated elaborate terminology. The inevitable consequence is that studies like these are likely to be more accessible to academics familiar with such authorities, theories and terminology than to classroom teachers. This articulates with and creates the second source of tension.

Utility

To be of practical use an evaluation study should be intelligible to the intended audiences and regarded by them as appropriate to their needs and as being realistic given their own particular circumstances. This is merely a different context of justification from the academic context. Moreover, without a clear practical emphasis the cooperation of INSET course arrangers, contributors and participants may not have been forthcoming. The unfortunate reality of the situation is the more an evaluation study addresses itself to the needs of practitioners the less it is likely to be regarded as rigorous and respectable by academic authorities. This study has attempted to steer a middle course (and has no doubt run the risk of falling between two stools).

To be regarded as realistic and relevant an evaluation study necessarily has to deal in real and recognisable situations rather than abstract generalisations. It is this portrayal of reality that generates the third point of tension.

Control of Data

In a study based on quantitative data and empirical generalisations all data is rendered anonymous. A case-particular qualitative approach represents data in a

form in which the subjects are identifiable. The more a study contains references to situations which are realistic and persuasive the more likely it will be that those situations, events and individuals will be recognisable.

'Inservice teacher education involves heirarchical relationships between people of different status with respect to content communicated ...' (Elliott, 1977d: 108).

This means that all those involved are vulnerable to representations and comments which expose them to 'superiors' or 'inferiors' in the heirarchy. Thus there is an embeded tension here between the right to know presumed by a Democratic Case-Study evaluation and the general right to privacy.

This study attempted to tackle this point of tension by a series of what may be regarded as compromises (accepted consciously on the basis that absolutes are seldom feasible in practice; total privacy would not generate any public data and total exposure would very quickly result in open access to courses being denied to the evaluator). At the initial stage of clearance the only portions of a draft report which were sent to course contributors for comment and approval were those which referred to them specifically

The only people who were given access to all the uncensored material were the course arrangers concerned. Otherwise, all those involved were guaranteed total anonymity and confidentiality in the final public versions of the

case-study reports.

Investigations of this kind necessarily involve dilemmas, choices and compromises. In this particular case all the choices which were made were decisions taken consciously (rather than of necessity) in the context of an emerging theory grounded on the cumulative study of successive INSET courses.

CHAPTER 5

A NATIONAL SURVEY OF TEACHERS' INSET NEEDS AND OPINIONS ABOUT INSET COURSE PROVISION

Introduction

In order to begin to develop a theoretical framework and devise research instruments for evaluating INSET courses it was decided to conduct a questionnaire survey of teachers' opinions while carrying out early studies of INSET courses. The questionnaire, which was sent to teachers involved with political education, sought their opinions on two specific issues, the main needs of teachers involved in planning, developing or teaching political education, and the most useful types of INSET course provision for meeting the needs of such teachers. (See Appendix A for the full questionnaire.) Respondents were offered two lists of possible needs and provisions, as set out below, and were asked to rank them in order of preference.

The main needs of teachers involved in political education? (Qtn.2)

- a) Up to date information about recent developments in Politics.
- b) Encouragement and support from local and national advisers, inspectors, etc.

- c) Advice on available teaching resources.
- d) Getting together with teachers with similar interests.
- e) Ideas for teaching methods from experienced teachers.
- f) Information on the requirements of examination boards.
- g) Advice on various ways of including political education in the curriculum.
- h) Explanations of the main theoretical debates about the need for political education.
- i) Help with constructing suitable teaching syllabuses and resources.

The most useful types of INSET course provision? (Qtn.3)

- a) Demonstrations of possible methods or lessons.
- b) Lectures from 'authorities' on political education.
- c) Time for informal discussion with other course participants.
- d) Displays/presentations of published resources, audio-visual material etc.
- e) Practical 'workshop' sessions to prepare schemes and materials.
- f) Presentations by ordinary course participants of their own experiences.
- g) Structured discussion groups on selected themes.
- h) Participation in small group exercises, gaming or

simulation.

- i) Open flexible sessions to be used for the particular interests of course participants as they emerge.

The lists of items were derived from a variety of sources, the principal one being my own involvement in INSET courses for political education over a period of ten years as a participant, as a contributor and as a course director.

A second source was the process of reflecting on data gathered during preliminary observations of INSET courses. The final source was ideas derived from an emerging theoretical framework for categorising and analysing INSET courses. (See Chapter 6).

The Survey

The questionnaire was sent to 260 teachers throughout England and Wales involved in political education or teaching Government and Politics and replies were received from 172 respondents (66.15%). [1] As fourteen of the

 1. The addresses were provided by Robert Stradling, research officer at The Hansard Society, who had conducted a survey of 10% of all maintained middle and secondary schools in England and Wales. Seventy nine percent of respondents to that survey (332 schools) claimed to be making some provision in their curriculum for political education (including Government and Politics). Addresses which were not used were the 72 schools where Dr Stradling was intending to conduct a further survey.

questionnaires were completed by teachers who indicated in their replies that they were not personally involved in the Politics courses in their schools the analysis below is based on 158 valid replies.

Additional Items

No respondent suggested any type of course provision other than the nine listed on the questionnaire and only twelve respondents identified needs other than those listed on the questionnaire:

1. "Teaching ability."
2. "Group discussions concerning the role of school boards of governors -- their specific political bias -- how to convince them that political education does not necessarily mean political indoctrination."
3. "Finance."
4. "Help with correlating various elements of political education that may be taught as part of several subjects across the curriculum."
5. "Names of recommended speakers."
6. "Freedom from damn stupid 'advice' issued by governing bodied worried about their image and Trendy Lefties trying to rebuild society."
7. "Motivating less-able students."
8. "A political education themselves."
9. "Teaching in a variety of school/college environments:"

different ability and motivation groups."

10. "Opportunities to see politics in action, eg visits to H of C, attendance at committee meetings. Also Crown and Magistrates Courts, etc."
11. "How to arouse and maintain the interest of less able apathetic teenagers."
12. "Relevant forms of assessment in political education."

All but two of the additional comments correspond closely to items already included in the list. Those numbered 1, 7, 8, 9 and 11 imply the need for ideas or inspiration for effective teaching methods -- item (e). Number 2 is covered by item (b); 3 by item (i); 4 by item (g); 5 by item (c); and 10 by item (a). Number 6, if expressed positively, might be reflected in item (b). Only number 12 added a significant and important item to the list.

It seems reasonable to conclude that the items included on the questionnaire provided a sufficiently comprehensive list of possible needs and types of course provision and the respondents were not unduly constrained by the choice offered.

To a significant extent respondents may have been spoiled for choice. Several respondents indicated, by

comments in the margin, that they found it difficult to identify preferences as, in their view, most if not all items were important. Many respondents ignored the request to rank items in order of preference and either simply ticked them or marked some "1=". In fact 46.8% of respondents dealt with the rank ordering of items on questions 2 and 3 in ways other than indicated by the instructions and the difficulties involved in attempting to equate different response formats has severely restricted the forms of valid statistical analysis which can be applied to the data.

In order to derive the maximum utility from an imperfect set of data the following procedures were adopted. Firstly, for each item the percentage frequency of rank choice was calculated. (Ticks were deemed to be undifferentiated, highly-ranked preferences and omissions were deemed to be undifferentiated, low-ranked choices.) Then, on the reasonable assumption that for most respondents it was rather artificial to try to discriminate between two or three items which, for them, might be equally important, the cumulative frequency of rank choice of the extreme choices (ticks, first, second and third placings compared with seventh, eighth, ninth placings and omissions) was calculated. Thus it was possible to identify reliably the most popular and the least popular sets of items for different categories of teachers.

Teachers' Needs

The overall rank ordering of items, set out in Table 5.1, did not produce any surprises. High on teachers' priorities are practical needs such as to do with teaching resources and right at the bottom comes the purely theoretical concern with the need for political education.

However, when the responses of those involved in teaching 'A' and 'O' level Government and Politics are compared with the rest a sharp contrast is immediately evident (See Tables 5.2, 5.3 and Figure 5.1). The Government and Politics respondents put item (a), Up to date information about recent developments in Politics, right at the top of their needs whereas it falls to sixth position in the other group. And item (f), Information on the requirements of examination boards, is also awarded a much greater priority. At the same time the Government and Politics respondents put items (i), Help with constructing suitable teaching syllabuses and resources, and (g), Advise on various ways of including political education in the curriculum, much lower in their priorities.

Table 5.1
(N=158)

Percentage frequency of the rank choice of the main needs of teachers listed in order of cumulative frequency of extreme choices -- All Respondents

<u>Item</u>	----- Ranked -----										<u>omitted</u>
	<u>Ticked</u>	<u>1st</u>	<u>2nd</u>	<u>3rd</u>	<u>4th</u>	<u>5th</u>	<u>6th</u>	<u>7th</u>	<u>8th</u>	<u>9th</u>	
c)	1	20	27	21	11	8	1	4	1	1	6
i)	1	16	18	11	13	9	6	5	7	1	15
a)	1	28	5	7	7	4	7	6	9	4	20
g)	1	16	10	8	8	13	9	7	8	2	17
e)	1	11	8	20	16	11	7	4	3	2	27
d)	1	7	9	15	16	13	9	6	4	1	18
b)	1	6	7	6	8	6	9	11	8	9	28
f)	--	5	4	4	4	5	8	11	8	17	34
h)	1	5	2	3	4	7	4	9	13	22	30

Table 5.2
(N=117)

Percentage frequency of the rank choice of the main needs of teachers listed in order of cumulative frequency of extreme choices -- Respondents NOT involved in Government & Politics

<u>Item</u>	----- Ranked -----										<u>omitted</u>
	<u>Ticked</u>	<u>1st</u>	<u>2nd</u>	<u>3rd</u>	<u>4th</u>	<u>5th</u>	<u>6th</u>	<u>7th</u>	<u>8th</u>	<u>9th</u>	
c)	1	25	25	21	9	5	2	3	1	1	7
i)	1	19	21	15	12	10	5	2	2	--	14
g)	--	19	11	9	9	15	11	4	7	1	15
e)	1	13	8	20	15	12	5	5	2	2	19
d)	2	7	10	11	17	15	9	6	4	1	18
a)	1	21	4	7	9	3	5	8	12	5	24
b)	2	7	7	5	7	5	10	13	8	9	28
h)	1	6	3	3	4	6	4	12	15	22	30
f)	--	3	2	3	4	2	8	10	10	24	38

Table 5.3
(N=41)

Percentage frequency of the rank choice of the main needs of teachers listed in order of cumulative frequency of extreme choices -- Respondents involved in Government & Politics

<u>Item</u>	<u>Ranked</u>										<u>omitted</u>
	<u>Ticked</u>	<u>1st</u>	<u>2nd</u>	<u>3rd</u>	<u>4th</u>	<u>5th</u>	<u>6th</u>	<u>7th</u>	<u>8th</u>	<u>9th</u>	
a)	1	49	7	7	--	7	12	1	--	1	10
c)	2	7	34	20	15	15	--	2	--	--	2
d)	--	7	7	24	15	10	10	5	5	--	17
e)	--	7	10	20	20	10	12	2	5	2	12
f)	--	10	12	5	10	7	7	12	7	7	22
i)	--	10	12	--	15	7	10	15	12	12	17
g)	2	7	7	5	7	10	5	15	12	5	24
b)	--	5	7	7	10	10	7	5	7	12	29
h)	--	2	--	2	2	10	5	2	12	32	32

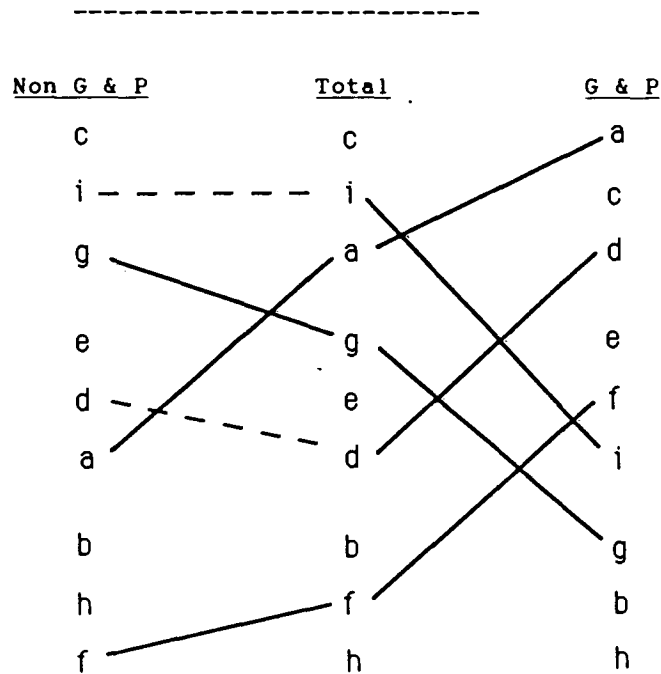


Figure 5.1

Comparison between the rank ordering in Tables 5.2, 5.1 & 5.3

The explanation for these differences clearly lies with the nature of the courses with which these teachers are involved. An examination syllabus is laid down by an examination board and a time-table slot is provided: these are not problematic for teachers of Government and Politics. What is problematic is ensuring that the material they teach meets the expectations of examiners and is 'correct' or, to express it in the specific context of political material, is 'up to date'.

An interesting feature of the choices of teachers of Government and Politics is the priority they give to d), Getting together with teachers with similar interests. A possible explanation is that many teachers of Government and Politics are working on their own and have less opportunity, when compared with teachers of political education, to collaborate with others who have similar interests and responsibilities.

It was noted with interest, and with particular relevance to the evaluation of INSET courses, that all teachers put low down in their priorities item (h), Explanations of the main theoretical debates about the need for political education.

Course Provision

The rank ordering of types of INSET course provision which teachers regard as most useful (Table 5.4) reflects the practical concerns expressed in response to question 2 with items (e), Practical 'workshop' sessions to prepare schemes and materials, (d), Displays/presentations of published resources, audio-visual material etc. and (a), Demonstrations of possible methods or lessons, right at the top of their preferences.

The most striking difference between Government and Politics and political education respondents is that the former rank much higher item (b), Lectures from 'authorities' on political education, and much lower item (f), Presentations by ordinary course participants of their own experiences. Thus, in contrast to those involved in broader forms of political education, they value more highly the contributions of experts in Government and Politics than the contributions of other teachers.

Overall, the choices indicate a general preference for systematically structured and planned course sessions rather than sessions which are intended to be open and flexible in order to cater for emerging interests.

Table 5.4
(N=158)

Percentage frequency of the rank choice of the types of INSET course provision listed in order of cumulative frequency of extreme choices -- All Respondents

<u>Item</u>	----- Ranked -----										<u>omitted</u>
	<u>Ticked</u>	<u>1st</u>	<u>2nd</u>	<u>3rd</u>	<u>4th</u>	<u>5th</u>	<u>6th</u>	<u>7th</u>	<u>8th</u>	<u>9th</u>	
e)	1	23	18	13	9	6	4	4	4	2	15
d)	1	20	15	19	9	10	4	4	4	3	11
a)	1	21	15	9	13	17	9	8	7	3	18
f)	1	10	14	11	13	10	8	6	4	2	22
b)	1	13	8	7	6	5	6	6	11	12	26
c)	1	8	11	9	15	11	10	9	5	3	18
g)	1	9	6	9	13	13	9	8	6	4	21
h)	1	4	11	9	7	6	11	12	8	8	22
i)	1	3	2	3	3	4	4	9	13	24	32

Table 5.5
(N=117)

Percentage frequency of the rank choice of the types of INSET course provision listed in order of cumulative frequency of extreme choices -- Respondents NOT involved in Govt. & Politics

<u>Item</u>	----- Ranked -----										<u>omitted</u>
	<u>Ticked</u>	<u>1st</u>	<u>2nd</u>	<u>3rd</u>	<u>4th</u>	<u>5th</u>	<u>6th</u>	<u>7th</u>	<u>8th</u>	<u>9th</u>	
e)	2	23	21	15	8	4	3	3	4	2	15
d)	2	21	15	19	7	11	5	4	--	4	12
a)	1	19	14	9	8	9	7	5	7	2	21
f)	1	12	17	11	14	10	3	5	3	2	21
c)	1	7	10	11	15	10	10	10	4	3	18
g)	2	9	4	7	11	15	10	9	7	5	22
h)	2	4	12	9	8	4	13	10	10	5	22
i)	2	3	1	3	3	4	4	10	12	22	34

Table 5.6
(N=41)

Percentage frequency of the rank choice of the types of INSET course provision listed in order of cumulative frequency of extreme choices -- Respondents involved in Govt. & Politics

Item	Ranked										omitted
	Ticked	1st	2nd	3rd	4th	5th	6th	7th	8th	9th	
a)	--	27	17	10	10	15	1	2	--	1	12
e)	--	24	12	10	12	10	5	7	2	2	15
d)	--	17	12	20	15	7	2	5	15	--	7
b)	--	17	10	7	10	10	7	5	7	10	17
g)	--	10	12	17	17	7	7	7	5	--	17
c)	--	12	12	5	17	12	10	7	7	--	17
f)	--	5	5	10	10	10	22	7	5	2	24
h)	--	5	10	10	5	10	5	17	2	15	22
i)	--	2	5	2	--	5	5	7	17	29	27

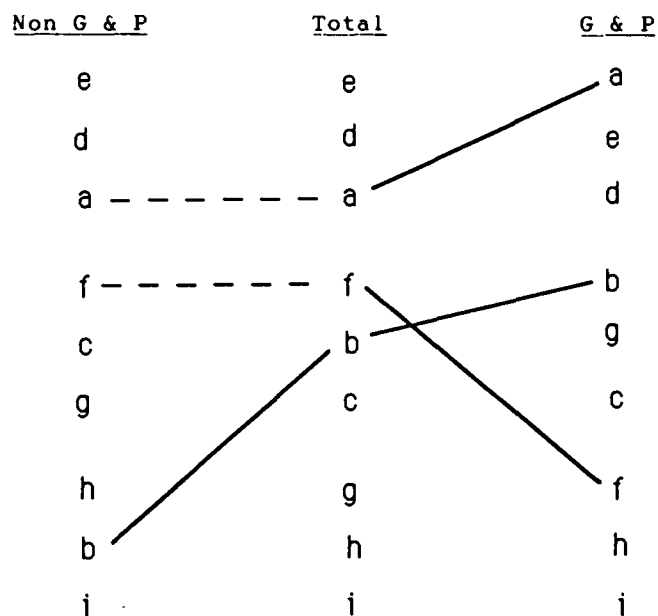


Figure 5.2
Comparison between the rank ordering in Tables 5.5, 5.4 & 5.6

Conclusion

There are at least two levels of conclusion. If the survey is taken as an end in itself it is clear that teachers involved in political education identify practical (as opposed to theoretical) concerns as their main need, and practical (as opposed to theoretical or reflective) INSET sessions as their preference.

What emerges from the survey, with regard to generating an approach to evaluating INSET course for political education, is evidence that the inventories of items presented in the questionnaire offered a range of choices which the majority of respondents both regarded as acceptable and could rank in a logically consistent way. Furthermore, the rank ordering suggested a scheme of priorities which could be used to build a range of models of INSET course provision which could form the basis of a theoretical framework for INSET course evaluation (as elaborated in the next chapter).

CHAPTER 6

EVALUATING INSET COURSES FOR POLITICAL EDUCATION: AIMS, OBJECTIVES AND MODELS

Introduction

It has been argued in Chapter 2 that the principal purpose of INSET courses should be for the professional development of teachers. As such INSET should set out, first and foremost, to meet the main needs of teachers as they see them and to do so in a manner which matches teachers' own expectations. A worthwhile and successful INSET course may therefore be regarded as one which, in the judgement of participants, meets their needs in an appropriate manner. Taking this proposition as the basis for developing a theoretical framework for evaluating INSET courses the next stage requires us to categorise the professional needs of teachers of political education and the ways in which these might be met through various forms of INSET provision.

Analytical Models

The national survey of teachers' of political education (Chapter 5) confirmed an intuitive theory about the range of

possible needs which INSET course arrangers have to set out to meet when planning courses. Thus the survey provided the foundation for a theoretical framework based on a given set of intentions which course arrangers should embrace.

It was desirable, for analytical purposes, to distinguish between two levels of intentions: those broad aims which should determine the overall purpose of an INSET course and those particular objectives which should be reflected in the details of a particular course provision.

Aims

From the range of needs identified (as well as from a consideration of the kinds of courses offered during 1979 - 1982 -- See Appendix C) it was possible to specify five distinct aims for INSET courses for political education:

- For participants to develop and adapt detailed teaching schemes and resources for their own use. This corresponds to and combines the two main needs ranked as top priority by teachers of political education -- 'Advice on available teaching resources' and 'help with constructing suitable teaching schemes and resources.'

- For participants to consider possible strategies and procedures for including political education objectives in the curriculum of their school or college. Advice on including political education in the curriculum ranked third in teachers' needs.

- For participants to consider various ways of relating political education teaching and learning objectives to lesson content, resources and classroom practice. This kind of need, which was expressed (more accessibly) as 'Ideas for teaching methods from experienced teachers', was ranked fourth by teachers.

- To enable participants to establish contacts with others who may share the same concerns (in order to make arrangements for jointly undertaking post-course tasks). 'Getting together with teachers with similar interests' was ranked fifth. This need is fulfilled to a certain extent by every course and so, if it is to be accorded any degree of prominence, it must either take priority over other aims or, preferably, be seen as the intended outcome of the course.

- To persuade participants of the need for political education in their school, college or authority. This corresponds to and combines question items (h), 'Explanations of the main theoretical debates about the

need for political education', and (b), 'Encouragement and support from local and national advisers', which, although ranked very low in teachers' priorities, is reflected out of all proportion by the courses offered during 1979 - 1982 (Appendix C).

(The needs which were ranked sixth and seventh differed from the rest in that they were rated very highly by teachers of Government and Politics. They have therefore been given particular attention in an Addendum to this chapter.)

Objectives

In practice few if any INSET courses were likely to be confined to just one of these aims exclusively. Nevertheless, it was expected that it would be possible to locate the particular intentions of any course under one or more of these headings. So, for the purposes of generating a theory about those factors which contribute to the success of INSET courses for political education, the five aims were used as the basis of five analytical models. These models were constructed by means of the second level of course intentions -- those objectives which reflect the details of a course provision -- by treating them as questions and by offering a set of responses derived from each of the five principal aims.

The theory/research-strategy was shaped by four clusters of questions focusing on Outcomes, Content, Style and Structure, and the responses to the questions were used to depict the format or pattern of each course model. These questions, detailed below, were proposed as those which would enable the basic characteristics of a course provision to be categorised and so to provide a theoretical framework within which an analysis of the case-study data could be undertaken. There are certainly other important questions, but it was considered that all other questions are likely to be subsidiary in as much as answers to them would depend on decisions about the basic characteristics summarised under Outcomes, Content, Style and Structure.

1. What are the intended 'Outcomes'?

Are participants intended (for example):

- to develop an understanding of, or a conviction about political education; or
- to consider ways of including political education in their curriculum; or
- to consider ways of translating political education objectives into teaching schemes and classroom practice; or
- to take away the products of some practical task; or

- to make arrangements for joint post-course activities?

Are the participants' experiences during the course intended to be as important as any possible outcomes?

For what sort of participants are the intended outcomes most appropriate? Whose needs are they intended to meet?

2. What should be the course 'Content'?

What particular objectives is the subject-matter intended to fulfil?

What kinds of input are necessary to fulfil these objectives?

What should be the format of these inputs -- printed, video/film, display, exposition, dramatisation, classroom experience?

Who should provide these inputs -- course contributors, participants, pupils, visiting speakers, publishers?

At what stage should various inputs be provided --

before the course?

How should the various inputs be linked together to achieve an overall coherence?

What precisely should the subject matter be? What, in particular, should the balance be between 'expert opinion' and 'lay experience'; between considerations of theoretical perspectives on political education and of classroom practice?

3. What should be the working 'Style'?

What kinds of interaction, procedures and experiences are most appropriate to the course aims, the proposed outcomes and the intended inputs -- lectures, practical workshop sessions, classroom teaching?

How much time should be allocated for various kinds of activities? Should time be provided for looking at resource displays, individual or group assignments, course evaluation, social activities, free time, etc.?

How much opportunity should be provided for individual participation and contributions? How should this be provided? To what extent should it be pre-structured

and formalised or left open for participants to determine?

Should opportunities be provided for optional and/or self-devised activities?

4. What should be the 'Structure'?

How much time might be required to achieve the intended outcome?

How many sessions of what duration each are needed?

Is this best arranged as a single self-contained course or as a 'sectional' course spread over several weeks, months, or even longer?

Is this best organised in the context of particular needs, interests or activities at the local level or at the regional or national level? If at the local level, would a school-focused or even a school-based course be more appropriate?

What arrangements for follow-up might be appropriate?

The five models which follow were derived by taking each

of the principal aims identified earlier (in a slightly different order) and outlining illustrative responses to the above questions consistent with those aims. The models presented are the final versions of models which were gradually developed and elaborated beginning with outline schemes and progressively filling them out and revising them in the light of data gathered from successive case-studies.

The models were intended to serve a dual purpose. Initially they formed the framework for the research theory, providing the hypotheses and the categories for the selection and analysis of data. Then, as they were successively refined, they were intended to specify the criteria for making judgements about the successful provision of INSET for political education. Although the manner in which the models are formulated could suggest that they comprise a schedule of definitive answers to all those important issues which course arrangers have to tackle, the models are not intended as recommendations for good practice.

All analytical models, by their very nature, are idealised and over-simplified syntheses of the real world. However, provided their limitations are understood and acknowledged they can provide, at the very least, a useful means of analysing and evaluating the complexities of INSET courses.

Model A : The 'Persuasion' Model

1. The principal aim is that participants should come away from the course convinced of the need for, and practical feasibility of political education courses in their schools and colleges. It is at least as important that no-one comes to the opposite conviction. Course participants are those who have the power and opportunity to act on their convictions.

2. Participants may be persuaded by authoritative statements, well-reasoned arguments and examples of successful practice. Contributors are, in the eyes of participants, authorities or experts on the need for political education, on its practical feasibility and on the answers to theoretical and practical objections. The content stresses the feasibility rather than the objections and problems. Contributors are likely to be the opinion leaders in education -- HMIs, headteachers, union officials, advisers, etc.

3. Persuasion may be achieved as much by the opinions of participants as by the arguments of contributors. Therefore some time is allowed for small group discussions or presentations. A plenary discussion or panel session

may develop the kind of group feeling which may persuade the hesitant. However, as sceptics can be a stronger influence in these circumstances, expert management of discussion groups and panels is necessary.

4. This is more likely to be organised at the local or school level. If successful it will be the forerunner of further courses with more practical aims. A half-day, or a full-day at most, is likely to be sufficient.

Model B : The 'Procedure' Model

1. The principal aim of the course is that participants take away with them strategies for introducing political education in their own schools or colleges and a determination to implement them. Course participants may include headteachers, teachers' centre leaders and advisers, as well as teachers and lecturers.

2. The course inputs match the real circumstances of participants. Some pre-course material is provided and participants are all asked to come prepared to give an account of their school's curricular arrangements. Procedures are used which enable them to share and discuss their own experiences as well as hearing the opinions of 'experts'. Experts are those with a wide range of

experience or an overview of the problem. The content is examples, analysis and answers. The course suggests, in general terms, possible strategies and enables participants to apply them to their own particular circumstances.

3. Circumstances for implementation are almost as varied as the number of participants. Some sub-division is often possible -- grouping together by education sector or subject specialisms for example (but avoiding the danger of course fragmentation and factions). Opportunities for practical planning (as opposed to theoretical discussions) are given but expert advice and guidance is always available.

4. The time required depends on the number of participants, their range of needs and the amount of pre-course preparation. A small, fairly homogeneous group of about five participants may require only a morning, whereas larger or more diverse groups may require up to about five sessions, either together in a self-contained course or at intervals.

Model C : The 'Practice' Model

1. The principal aim of the course is that participants consider appropriate ways of pursuing particular teaching and learning objectives in their established or projected

political education programmes. This involves considerations of the nature of, and implications of pursuing various objectives and the implications of employing particular lesson contents, resources and classroom practices. It also involves considerations of the interrelationships between objectives, content, resources and practice. In short, the course poses the questions: 'What and how should you teach, and why?' The process of considering these questions should be as worthwhile as any answers which may be arrived at. Course participants are all teachers and lecturers with a commitment to political education.

2. The inputs range from advice and guidance from 'experts' on the nature and implications of political education objectives etc., to presentations of examples of courses, resources, techniques, etc. from invited contributors as well as from the participants themselves. Some courses have a general brief whereas others feature particular kinds of objectives, content or practices; for example, socio-drama, gaming, community-based projects, group development work, decision-making skills, etc.. Courses may also provide examples of commercially published resources and details of audio-tapes, films and videos if appropriate.

3. There is a variable mixture of practical work and of

considerations of principles and theory, the proportions of which depend on the backgrounds and the experiences of the participants. Some sessions are demonstrations of materials and/or teaching techniques. Others are instruction in certain skills such as resource- or course-preparation or teaching skills. Other sessions provide participants with experience of using such skills and this may involve actual classroom teaching. Occasions are planned so that participants can make contributions from their own experience. Opportunities may be needed for browsing through displays of resources or other materials.

4. The time required depends entirely on the scope of the course. A demonstration of a game or simulation and a consideration of the various ways in which it might be used would probably only require two or three hours, whereas group work on teaching methods is likely to require much more time, especially if participants come from different schools or diverse backgrounds.

Model D : The 'Production' Model

1. The principal aim of the course is that participants prepare and take away their own political education schemes and/or resources. All course participants are likely to be teachers and lecturers currently involved in teaching on

political education programmes.

2. The main kinds of input are the suggestions and guidance of those experienced in enabling others to prepare materials. In order to make good use of the time available, information and instructions are sent to participants before they attend the course. Samples of teaching material are made available to serve as exemplars. Access to typing, copying, recording, or whatever facilities may be necessary, is provided. Other inputs depend on how focused or how open-ended the tasks are intended to be.

3. The intended outcome necessitates an adequate provision of workshop-type sessions and perhaps opportunities for individual 'research' and production time. Some free time, or other means of building in flexibility, is provided on a self-contained course spanning three days or longer. A preliminary consideration of the tasks to be accomplished, of the ways and means, of the help available, etc. is also included. The form of this depends on how open ended the activity is intended to be.

4. Obviously the time will be matched to the magnitude of the task. It is unlikely that anything worthwhile can be accomplished in less than a full day. In most circumstances participants need time to get to know each other and to form a working relationship (even in the case

of school-centred courses). Several sessions during residential courses over three to five days or spaced over a few weeks is normally required. The exception may be school-centred INSET courses where more should be accomplished in a shorter space of time.

Model E : The (Post Course) 'Planning' Model

1. The principal aim of the course is that participants are brought together in order to formulate plans for jointly undertaking various tasks after the course. (The tasks are likely to be concerned with one or more of the principal aims represented by the above models. Consequently, the particular details of course provision will depend on which particular tasks are to be undertaken.) Participants may either come from a wide representation of interests (including those from outside the education sector) or they are deliberately restricted to those from just one school, or from a particular area or Local Education Authority, or by means of a restrictive list of course aims.

2. Participants need to be convinced of the practical feasibility of certain plans or that adequate support will be forthcoming from their LEAs, training institutions, etc. and contributors need to provide the necessary reassurance. The role(s) of advisers, teachers' centre leaders, local

college/university lectures, subject association branches, etc. are considered. If post-course activities actually depend on the support of key people or organisations they are represented and their roles are explained.

3. Unless the intended activities have been prescribed, opportunities are provided for participants to consider possible plans and to identify themselves with particular projects. This involves the use of suitable procedures for generating and ranking ideas and for presenting and making choices. Opportunities are also given for forms of support to be offered and explained, for planning to be completed and for embarking on some of the tasks before the course disperses.

4. As the stimulus to further activities a half-day or a full-day may be sufficient. However, two full days or an immediate follow-up course provides more opportunity for participants to start their projects and begin to establish working relationships. (A longer course may well touch on the aims of some other models and thus involve other considerations than those directly relevant to this model.)

Conclusion

The theoretical framework developed for evaluating INSET courses was built on the assumption that any INSET course for political education must set out to fulfil one or more of the five principal aims exemplified by the foregoing models.

This is not to ignore the fact that INSET courses may have other purposes. Such additional purposes may involve promoting the aims or image of an organisation, or an institution, or promoting the careers of those employed by INSET-providing organisations. A specific example to illustrate this is when an institution of Higher Education provides a course for teachers and has, as a 'hidden' motive, the intention of favourably impressing teachers who may as a consequence persuade their Sixth Formers to apply for that institution's undergraduate courses.

It must also be recognised that participants may have reasons other than professional ones for attending INSET courses and that they may not always give wholly honest responses to survey questions. (Reasons which emerged during the research included improving career prospects, appeasing the wishes of a LEA adviser, socialising with friends and looking for a husband.) These additional

course intentions and participant interests may well have a direct impact on INSET course aims and outcomes but it is very difficult for an evaluation study to make allowances for them except in extreme instances. Thus, whilst for any INSET course there may be a number of 'hidden curricula', nevertheless the theory holds that the official agenda (whether or not it is made explicit) will be located within the principal aims identified in the models above.

This relatively small and clear list of broad intentions readily provided a set of criteria for examining INSET course provision and for judging how far course intentions had been fulfilled. For example, if we take the hypothesis (in Model B) that in order to enable participants to develop strategies for introducing political education into their curriculum there should be opportunities for participants to 'share and discuss their own experiences', this indicates a specific feature of course provision which may be investigated both quantitatively and qualitatively. The amount of time allocated for such discussion and how it is used can be measured and compared with participants' views on the adequacy and value of that activity.

The evaluation studies, therefore, focused on those specific and very detailed features of INSET course provision, which were indicated by the particular model(s) in the context of which the course could be located, in

order to portray as faithfully as possible the most significant events and to reveal and comment on examples of successful practice.

Addendum

Although the five course models described above cover the principal aims of INSET courses for political education, they do not cover the full range of courses and meetings which are often included in this field. Two other types of meetings for teachers which are concerned with Politics teaching are fairly common.

The first of these is concerned with teaching 'Government and Politics'. Although this is not embraced by the conception of political education developed in Chapter 1, nevertheless it requires particular mention both to emphasise the distinction which has been made between it and the other models of INSET courses and because it is an important form of provision which meets a definite, though distinct, need.

The second type of meeting is the 'Conference'. This is more marginal and, strictly speaking, lies outside of the terms of reference of this study because it cannot be regarded as an INSET course as defined by the criteria

established in Chapter 2. Nevertheless, this kind of meeting is often treated as if it is an INSET course. It is not uncommon that an INSET provision may be made during a conference and it is important to acknowledge that the earliest examples of INSET meetings for political education and the teaching of Government and Politics were provided by conference organisers.

Both the Government and Politics and the conference type of meeting are explained below as Models F and G respectively, following the same pattern as Models A to E. This is somewhat artificial in the case of conferences as they do not necessarily intend to have any outcomes or inputs in the sense that these terms have been used in this study. However, there is value -- for the purposes of comparison -- in following the same format.

Model F : The 'Government and Politics' Model

1. The principal aim is that participants take away new (to them) knowledge of the subject-matter of Politics or Political Science, or of the requirements of examiners, or of teaching resources. Course participants are all teachers of Government and Politics.
2. The input is the new knowledge on those topics and in

those areas selected by course arrangers. Knowledge of Politics and of Political Science is provided by authorities in this field -- politicians, public officials, academics, researchers, authors and commentators, etc. Knowledge of the expectations of examiners comes from the examiners themselves. Knowledge of suitable resources may come from other participants as well as the recommendations of experts or publishers.

3. Knowledge of new subject-matter and the advice of experts, if of relevance to all participants, is normally provided by means of plenary lectures followed by questions. Reference to particular examination syllabuses or syllabus topics may involve the use of option groups. Time may be given for participants to look at and discuss publishers' displays.

4. The time required can range from an hour for one lecture at one extreme to an open-ended series of lectures at the other. Even in the space of a few minutes it is possible for participants to obtain valuable information for future lesson planning.

Although this model could be divided into three more specific 'sub-models' (according to whether the focus is on the subject-matter of Politics, on examinations or on resources), or incorporated into the first five models by

disregarding the distinction between political education and Government and Politics, there are compelling reasons for the arrangement presented.

In practice, courses on Government and Politics tackle subject-matter, examinations and resources together for they are interdependent. And it is this interdependence which is part of the definition of Government and Politics and which sustains the distinction from political education. Whereas the aims, the subject-matter and approaches to political education are all problematic, Government and Politics is determined for teachers by the examination arrangements. In the Government and Politics model there is always a one-to-one correspondence between the needs of teachers (for information on what the experts determine to be worthwhile knowledge) and the aims of the course (to provide that information).

Model G : The 'Annual Conference' Model

1. The aims are very diverse. For example, some conferences are held by organisations in order to select officers, review past achievements, decide on future policies, and so on. Others are opportunities for people to present academic papers and exchange ideas. Some are simply occasions for people to renew acquaintances or to

regenerate the interest of members in their organisation.

2. To a great extent the content of a conference is the participants themselves. Large numbers (relative to membership) signify and celebrate the continuing vitality of an organisation. Important and influential participants endow the organisation or its purposes with importance and influence. Such people may be able to underwrite the success of future proposals. Some speakers and contributors are invited more for their ability to attract larger numbers of participants -- or even for the prestige which they convey on the conference or the organisation -- than for what they can contribute to the proceedings.

3. Conferences normally feature keynote addresses to symbolise, or to explain, the purposes of the meeting (a valedictory address from the retiring chairman, an annual report from the honorary secretary, a statement of encouragement from a visiting dignitary, etc.). Other arrangements depend on the particular purposes of the meeting. A fairly common feature is a concern for 'social' arrangements, eg a formal meal, an adequate bar, entertainment, sports facilities, etc.

4. The time required is not normally less than a day and in many cases residential meetings over 3/5 days are necessary in order to enable the social arrangements to take effect.

CHAPTER 7

CASE-STUDY 'I'

Introduction

The case-studies reproduced here and in Chapter 8 are submitted as samples of data generated by the study (analogous to tables of numerical data typical of an empirical survey). It will be immediately apparent that the format and style of the case-studies differs sharply from that of the rest of the report. It is important to reiterate that the intended audience for the case-studies was specifically those responsible for arranging the courses (See Chapter 4). Thus the wording of the studies presented here is virtually identical to that presented to course arrangers.

Each case-study is derived from data generated in response to the clusters of questions identified in Chapter 6. (The methodology used to collect the data is elaborated in Appendix B.) Thus the presentation of each case-study follows a similar format. The first five sections, A to E, give a structured account of the events of the course and of the participants' and arranger's reactions. The final

section offers an evaluation of the events based on the data already presented. Thus:-

- A. Details of the General Provision -- who arranged the course, when, where, how many attended, etc.
- B. The Setting of the course -- the location, the situation, the accommodation, etc.
- C. Details of the course Programme -- What happened, how frequently, for how long, etc.
- D. The opinions of Participants about the success of the course.
- E. The opinions of the Arranger and Contributors about the success of the course.
- F. The observer's Evaluation with reference to:
 - particular sessions
 - the intended outcomes
 - the content
 - the style
 - the structure
 - the overall impact

- - - - -

This study of a 1½ day course at a Teachers' Centre in Aldershot has been included because it represents a

significant stage in the development of a methodology for evaluating INSET courses for political education and a theory about the factors which contribute to their success. By this stage the first outlines of the five Models of INSET courses for political education (Chapter 6) had been drawn up and data was collected so as to saturate particular conceptual categories in order to test and modify the theory being generated. Thus greater attention was paid to, for example, participants' backgrounds and expectations and, in particular, to the match between contributors' inputs and the billed theme of their sessions.

CASE-STUDY

A. General Provision

1. Title: "Political Education in the Secondary School Curriculum".
2. Dates/Times: 1980, Friday November 14th (4.45pm) - Saturday November 15th (3.15pm).
3. Location: N.E. Hants Teachers' Centre, Aldershot.
4. Sponsor: University of Reading, School of Education in collaboration with the Warden of the Teachers' Centre.
5. Administrator: PM, Short Courses tutor, University of Reading.
6. Arranger: FR, teacher from a Hants Sixth Form College.
7. Published Aims: "...discussing some of the latest thinking and practice about political education in schools. It is a useful introduction to the topic for teachers of any discipline, and for anyone concerned with educational management or curriculum development."
8. Market: Secondary school teachers, advisers, etc.
9. Attendance: 20 (but only 19 common to both days) from

11 schools -- 5 came alone, 2 came from each of three schools and 3 came from each of another three schools.

10. Structure: Non-residential over $1\frac{1}{2}$ days.
 Day 1: tea - Lecture - Group exercise - supper - Group exercise continues - Drama presentation.
 Day 2: Lecture - coffee - Drama exercise - lunch - Audio-visual presentation - Plenary discussion.
11. Style: Lectures + questions - 2 47 + 97mins (27%)
 Seminar/discussion - 1 35mins (7%)
 Workshops - 1 153mins* (29%)
 AV presentations - 1 68mins (13%)
 Other (drama) - 2 36 + 88mins (24%)
 (*including work during the supper break)

B. Setting etc.

The Teachers' Centre is situated midway between Farnborough and Aldershot. Access by road was made easy, aided by the route map provided by the Teachers' Centre leader, and there was adequate parking space adjoining the Centre. However, although the Centre is centrally located within the region it serves, it was claimed by some of the participants to be a considerable and daunting distance from most of the schools in the region, particularly if private transport is not available. The actual distances of participants' schools from the Centre was:

1 mile	(2 participants)
2 miles	(3 participants)
4 miles	(8 participants)
5 miles	(3 participants)
11 miles	(1 participant)
20 miles	(1 participant)
25 miles	(1 participant)

The premises appeared to be a former rural primary school which comprised three large rooms and a combined assembly hall, dining hall and gymnasium. The impression

it now gives is of a well-equipped and regularly used resource and social centre for teachers. The atmosphere was relaxed and cordial, aided by the common room (ex-assembly hall) which featured a bar, pool table, table tennis, darts, easy chairs and an adjacent coffee-bar/kitchen. Refreshments were available from the coffee bar between sessions and the bar was open from 7:15pm on the Friday and from 12:00noon on the Saturday. Several of the course participants were regular users of the social facilities and there were at least 6 other teachers enjoying these facilities on the Friday evening.

The classroom in which all but one of the sessions were held was rectangular, about 6m x 9m, with a high ceiling matched by a few small high fixed windows. Walls were decorated with several 'beautiful thoughts' posters. At the back was a small book display, provided by the arranger, mounted on a couple of trestle tables. The front of the room, furthest from the door, featured a small raised area in an alcove, in front of which was placed a table, chairs, OHP and screen.

The room soon became far too warm and stuffy for comfort until ventilation was provided using the only two opening windows in the alcove. This, however, resulted in considerable traffic noise and a regular electronic 'bleep' from a pedestrian crossing signal, causing much comment and distraction.

For the first session there were three rows of seven chairs, the front two rows being low easy chairs and the back row stackable plastic chairs. This arrangement changed during the proceedings as noted in the account of the programme below.

Session (5) was held in a very large (10m x 30m) untidy attic room which was part used for storage of furniture. At one side there were rows of high stacked old canvas-seated tubular chairs. At one end were several trestle tables pushed together. Rain dripped in at the sky-light windows.

The atmosphere became very informal and relaxed at an early stage and all the signs were that participants were enjoying the proceedings and each others' company, and were absorbed in the various issues and tasks. The level of attendance was remarkable considering there was very heavy rain throughout most of the Friday and Saturday.

C. Programme

Day 1

The time-table invited participants to "Assemble over tea" between 4:15 and 4:45pm. Most arrived after 4:30pm and sat down in the classroom in small friendship groups. There was little conversation and hardly any mixing.

The proceedings began formally with a welcome from the Teachers' Centre leader who remarked that he had been under some pressure from the sponsors to recruit a minimum number of participants. It had been "a bit of a headache" he said, and he thanked those who had, at the last minute, agreed to come and he hoped everyone would enjoy the course.

After explaining he would be around during the weekend if any help or advice was needed he handed over to the arranger and left the room. Although he took no further part in the proceedings he was conspicuously present, joined informal groups during the refreshment breaks and continually enquired about comfort, amenities, progress, etc.

Session (1) 4:50 - 5:37pm. There were 19 participants -- 13 men and 6 women -- at each session [but see Session (4)]. This session was a 35 minutes talk by JS which covered four main topics -- (i) reasons for the DES's involvement in discussions about the curriculum; (ii) reasons for HMI's paper on Political Competence in Curriculum 11-16; (iii) reactions to these references; and (iv) possible strategies for including political education in the curriculum. The remaining 12 minutes featured six questions (and statements) from 5 participants covering a wide range of issues from the (in)competence of teachers to the nature of political knowledge.

JS had arrived at precisely the time he was scheduled to speak, much to the evident relief of the arranger and

perhaps to many of the participants who had been seated in subdued anticipation observing the growing anxiety of the arranger for about 5 minutes.

Session (2) 5:40 - 8:13pm. This was an exercise arranged by AP which involved participants in considering possible strategies for teaching 'Toleration'. Participants -- including the course arranger -- were organised into five groups of 4 and were given an agenda for discussion and decision-making. They were asked to note not only their conclusions but also the considerations which led to those conclusions. After the 41 minutes supper break there followed a report from each of the groups and a general discussion on the rapporteurs' comments and on the exercise itself.

Most participants continued discussion over supper and some groups brought their food and drinks (the bar opened during this break) back to the lecture room to continue work. The formal rows of chairs set out for session (1) became rearranged into five clusters around papers, plates and glasses. A fairly passive and impersonal audience became very active, noisy and affable huddles of participants.

Session (3) 8:24 - 9:00pm. A session on drama and political education led by MB (standing in at the last minute for the billed contributor) for which the chairs were

pushed back into a neat circle. His aim, he said, was to demonstrate, through the use of drama, his thesis that sufficient confidence in one's ability to hold an opinion in the face of opposition is a necessary prerequisite for any political education. He created a theatrical scene and prompted a few participants to improvise characters in that scene. This was interspersed with comments and discussion mainly about the credibility of various scenes and character portrayals, and occasionally about the significance of the exercise for the political education of young people.

At the end of the session several participants moved to the bar in the common room and at least 4 stayed after 10:00pm.

Day 2

Session (4) 9:27 - 11:04am. A talk by AS on 'Developing political skills in younger pupils'. The circle of chairs used the previous evening had been opened to face the front and although there were still 19 participants one man joined the course on Day 2 replacing one who had left. AS explained some of the background to her approach, the school and the rationale of its Humanities course with its emphasis on skills-based objectives.

After 31 minutes explanation and 11 minutes discussion -- during which 5 people made 11 comments/questions -- participants were arranged into six groups. The groups

were given an exercise which involved evaluating an imaginary environment and constructing rules to regulate relationships between the inhabitants and between them and their environment. This, including explanations and discussion regarding possible classroom uses and constraints, lasted 29 minutes.

A second exercise involved looking at a list of statements concerning capital punishment and deciding whether each point should be accepted as an argument 'for' or 'against' or 'irrelevant'. This, followed by an example of a similar exercise on the pros and cons of priority housing for Vietnamese 'boat people', lasted 10 minutes.

The final 6 minutes were used to briefly explain two other exercises, the session ending 14 minutes later than the scheduled time for the coffee break.

Session (5) 11:24 - 12:52pm. A session on drama and political education for sixth formers by CL. Participants were arranged seated in a large circle -- about 9m in diameter -- in the attic room. After a brief explanation that participants were going to be shown a series of drama exercises concerned with the notion of status they were arranged in groups of 4. Exercises included conversations with "Er Umm" inserted at various points in a sentence; or with various forms of eye contact/aversion; or with various sitting/standing positions. These lasted 36 minutes after

which time participants began asking questions about the use and intentions of the exercises.

After 31 minutes of discussion (13 contributions from 7 men and 1 woman) the arranger reported a remark by 1 participant that most of the talking was being done by men. There followed in the last 21 minutes a heated and erratic discussion, involving about 10 participants about who does most talking and why; should there have been a session on the political education of girls?; should girls have a special type of political education?; whether compliments about dress and appearance are patronising; and numerous other issues which were not connected with the billed title of the session nor invited, nor prompted, any comment from the session leader.

Lunch 12:52 - 1:43pm

Session (6) 1:43 - 2:51pm. A session on TV and Radio resources presented by HS. The circle of chairs in the classroom had been opened to allow for an easier view of the projector screen and TV monitor. The talk dealt with where to find information on the output of BBC programmes and the internal organisation of the BBC programmes planning group. Seven excerpts from programmes were played -- five Radio and two TV programmes. These were accompanied by explanations about their production, intended level and context, etc. and by a few questions and comments about, for

example, the way in which the programmes might be used. Most of the discussion focussed on the appropriateness of the structure and content of the programmes for their intended audience. The session was concluded with a short formal statement about the constraints operating on the BBC and in the field of political education, and about how responsibility must rest, in the last analysis, on the shoulders of teachers.

Session (7) 2:40 - 3:25pm. This was billed as 'Plenary Session: Where Next?'. The arranger began by providing a handout on a Sociology 'A' level course, referring to the game 'Starpower' and inviting a participant, who acknowledged his experience of playing it, to give a brief summary of the game.

After 8 minutes the arranger asked what topics the participants would have liked the course to have covered. One suggested "the role played by political parties" as an example of a substantive area of Politics; another said "The bomb worries me"; a third wanted "a more general methodological approach", and there was some discussion on all three comments.

The arranger then suggested participants would find a series of workshops useful -- ie "a group of people to develop lessons on particular topics." This suggestion went unnoticed or unheeded by the majority but, after

several repetitions during discussions of problems of assessment, party political opinion and newspaper opinions, a proposal was made that participants should send examples of their own resources to the Teachers' Centre leader in order that he could convene a workshop, and 1 participant 'volunteered' to act as the organiser (the one who spoke forcefully about the omission of references to political parties).

D. Opinions of Participants

A questionnaire was sent to the 20 teachers who attended and 11 replies (55%) were received.

a) Background and motivation

Although 4 respondents described themselves as 'Deputy Head' it is possible that at least 2 were deputy heads of departments rather than deputy headteachers. Two others were heads of departments, 4 were assistant teachers and 1 was a Community Education Warden. Their subject specialisms covered twelve areas:-

Social Studies	3	Economics	1
History	3	Classics	1
Politics	2	Creative Stds.	1
Guidance	2	Film Studies	1
Geography	2	English	1
Community Educn.	1	General Stds.	1

A Deputy Head was responsible for 'Curriculum Development'.

Only 1 respondent belonged to any subject association

and he was a member of the ATSS and the Politics Association.

The number of INSET courses attended by respondents in the last five years ranged from two to twelve, the mode being three. Two respondents had recently attended similar courses -- at Maidenhead, March 7/8th 1980 and at Winchester, October 3rd 1980.

In most cases their employer met all or part of their fees and expenses for this course:-

Fees paid by	Employer	6
	Self and employer	3
	Self	2

Only 2 respondents were prompted to apply for the course by someone else -- in both cases their head of department, who also attended. The majority took the initiative themselves in response to publicity being sent to the school.

The reasons given for wanting to attend fall under five broad headings:-

i)	To get ideas for teaching political education	5
ii)	A general (vague) interest in political education	4
iii)	A more specific interest in certain aspects of political education	2
iv)	To talk/listen to other teachers	3
v)	To get help to cope with a specific task	2

Examples of comments which illustrate these reasons include:-

- i) I teach A-level Government and Politics and wanted ideas.
- ii) I am aware of the developing debate about political education and wished to see it in its wider context.
- iii) To find out more about the objectives, the content, the concepts, the skills, the nature of 'political education', especially after reading the HMI Survey Aspects of Secondary Education in England (1979).
- iv) To gain some insight into how other people perceive political education. Meet other teachers involved in teaching at exam level.
- v) We are in the process of designing new syllabuses ... I wished to expand my range of ideas on the subject of political education to help me in this task.

I'm doing a dissertation on 'Politics in the Curriculum' and I thought it would be helpful. (interview)

b) Impact

With regard to their reactions to the course the

11 respondents appear to fall into three groups:-

A.	those who were very satisfied	4
B.	those who were fairly satisfied	3
C.	those who were very dissatisfied	4

<u>'How useful had the course been?'</u>	<u>A</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>C</u>	<u>Total</u>
- very useful	3	-	-	3
- only in part	1	3	2	6
- not useful	-	-	2	2

'Did it come up to your expectations?'

- more useful	3	-	-	3
- as expected	1*	3	-	4
- less useful	-	-	4	4

(* ie very useful)

'Was it appropriate for the majority?'

- Yes	3	3	-	6
- Don't know	1	-	-	1
- No	-	-	3	3
- "Not if they were interested in the subject."	-	-	1	1

Three of the 4 teachers in group C came from the same school and all 3 claimed to have overheard comments of dissatisfaction. No other respondent claimed to have overheard such comments.

There was some similarity between the reasons given by members of each of these three groups for their wanting to attend the course. The relationship between these groups and the five general reasons for wanting to attend (mentioned above) was as follows:-

	<u>A</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>C</u>	<u>Total</u>
i) Ideas for teaching	2	2	1	5
v) Help with task	2	-	-	2
iv) Talk/listen to others	-	2	1	3
ii) + iii) Interest	1	1	4	6

It seems that those whose motivation was more concerned with practical tasks were more satisfied with the course

compared with those who claimed they were just generally interested in the subject.

There was also some similarity between the subject responsibilities of respondents and the degree of satisfaction:-

<u>A</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>C</u>
Social Studies + Community Ed.	Social Studies + Guidance.	Creative Studies.
Social Studies + Economics.	History + Classics + Geography	Geography + General Studies.
Politics + History Guidance	Politics + History	Curriculum Devel. Film + English

It may also be useful to subdivide other answers from respondents into these three groups. For example, answers to the question:-

'Which parts of the course were the most useful for you?'

	<u>A</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>C</u>	<u>Total</u>
(1) Talk by JS	4	2	1	7
(2) Exercise by AP	3	2	1	6
(4) Talk by AS	2	2	1	5
(6) Talk by HS	1	-	-	1
(3)/(5) Drama sessions	1	-	-	1
"Practical examples of teaching"	-	1	-	1
"Large quantity of reading matter supplied before and during the course."	1	-	-	1
"None", No reply	-	-	2	2

There was more general agreement about:-

'Which parts of the course were the least useful for you?'

	<u>A</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>C</u>	<u>Total</u>
(6) Talk by HS	2	2	-	4
(5) Drama session by CM	1	1	2	4
(3) Drama session by M	1	-	-	1
(5)/(3) Drama sessions	-	-	1	1
No reply	-	-	1	1

All 8 respondents who made suggestions to improve the structure of the course were in general agreement that too much was attempted in too short a period. Four suggested that the course should have been longer, 3 suggested that there should have been fewer sessions in the same space of time and 1 said:

I would have preferred a course that used the same length of time, but either spread over several weeks in term time (ie 3 or 4 evenings), or in holiday time.

Only 1 respondent also commented on the sequence of sessions:

Probable about right. Good to put a session on objectives almost at the start as it concentrated ideas in the right direction.

Seven respondents made comments about the type of sessions they would have preferred. Here there was less agreement. Four suggested practical workshop sessions, 3 suggested more discussion [groups?] and 2 -- both Group C -- suggested "lectures" and "theoretical/academic" sessions. The latter suggestion was expressed by the participant who

was preparing a dissertation on 'Politics in the Curriculum'.

The references to discussion mentioned 'informal discussion'. For example:

More discussion could have been useful, but if sessions labelled 'discussion' (or something similar) are offered they tend to fall rather flat. It was interesting that the last session of the morning on the second day [(5)] was more or less 'abandoned' as heated discussion was in progress. This degree of flexibility seems very constructive.

The 9 respondents who made suggestions to improve the content of the course did not do much more than reiterate the views of the first, more forceful, contributor to the plenary session (7) that some attention should be given to Politics examination topics such as "political parties, parliamentary topics, elections, and ways of dealing with contentious issues." Seven of the 9 referred to the subject-matter of Politics or political education and 1 offered a compromise:

Speakers [lectures?] should be interspersed with practical sessions.

The only other comment was not directly concerned with content but interesting nonetheless:

My most constructive suggestion is that speakers should attend the full course and listen to the others. This would prevent repetition and make for greater overall synthesis of ideas (or could lead to more informed debate where there were areas of disagreement).

The general impression from the comments received is that respondents felt there was too much emphasis on considerations of teaching for skills and understanding and not enough attention given to knowledge of Politics. Two requests for considerations of the theoretical underpinning to political education -- both Group C -- may represent rather specialised interests as the following extract, from a taped interview with one of those respondents, suggests:

... the whole course has failed to answer what to me is the fundamental question, and that is, if one explains basic political processes, what happens when these come into conflict with the dominant ideology? ... [where] are you going to draw the line? Is it going to be merely a practical and make-believe exercise in 'responsibility' and 'freedom' when in fact these concepts don't exist? Is it just the dominant ideology -- the school being rooted in the capitalist system -- throwing a few crumbs to people and trying to brainwash them?

Respondents were asked what they thought the main needs were of teachers who are beginning to develop courses in political education. The majority thought the main need was for advice from experienced teachers on teaching methods:

	<u>A</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>C</u>	<u>Total</u>
Advice on teaching methods	4	3	-	7
Advice on resources	3	1	-	6
Considerations of theoretical problems	2	-	1	3
Advice on examinations	1	-	1	2
Information on subject-matter	1	-	1	2
Encouragement	1	-	-	1
Meeting other teachers	-	-	-	1
No answer	-	-	1	1

c) Effectiveness

Four respondents claimed to be continuing with development work prompted by the course sessions and 5 said they have definite plans to review their teaching methods etc. as a direct consequence of attending the course. These responses cover 7 people [64%], a much higher proportion than for any other course studied so far. Examples of the responses include:

The use of small group discussion groups trying to develop a group best answer to a problem.

The development of more skills-based learning and practical involvement in processes by children.

AP's session prompted me to develop work on Lord of the Flies.

Eventually hope to produce greater political awareness by less concentration on drumming in bits of knowledge and more on discussion, learning activities, etc.

It altered the way I teach decision-making in the fourth year.

Discussion and plans for 5th year guidance programme with -- (my 2nd in dept.). He has formed a working party at the Teachers' Centre to follow up ideas.

E. Opinions of the Course Arranger (Questionnaire response)

The main aims were "to make teachers aware of the political content of their own and others teaching."

The course was "very useful" and "discussions arising out of sessions" turned out to be the most useful parts. The course came up to her hopes -- "In particular I was glad

that there was a move to continue with workshops at a later date. I think one or two course members were encouraged to look at themselves and their teaching in a new light."

On the appropriateness to the needs of the participants -- "Difficult to judge with such a mixed bunch of teachers. I think most of them found something of use. More needed by some on overtly political material, especially party political."

The least useful part was the "talk by HS. Not really what I wanted. I wanted her to talk about producing teaching material in general and not the BBC. This mistake occurred because I did not contact her directly."

And in response to the question 'In what way do you think you could have improved the course with regard to the structure, style and content?':

I think the length of the course is right for a course that is outside school hours. Ideally a residential 2/3 day course in school time is better. Number and sequence of sessions was, I think, all right.

I think the mix of style and the balance towards practical sessions was good. The last session should have been practical.

Session (1) JS -- always good to have an 'authoritative' speaker. Perhaps a bit more time for questions needed. Also better if he had stayed for more of the course.

(2) AP -- good for breaking down barriers and stimulating thought. More time needed?

(3) MB -- intellectual, philosophical and practical. Also amusing. Good for Friday evening.

(4) AS -- brilliant. Perhaps more examples of children's work would be useful.

(5) CM -- a lot of good ideas. Again broke down barriers and allowed discussion to flow.

(6) HS -- disappointingly pedantic. Not what was wanted.

I would include a session on political education of girls; possibly a speaker from YWCA 'Girls at Work' project.

F. Observer's Comments

The general impression was of an event that was well organised and enjoyed by most participants. It has been claimed that the quality of the proceedings during a course are as significant as its more tangible outcomes. Certainly the atmosphere was more relaxed and informal than many comparable occasions and participants appeared attentive and responsive for most of the time. Undoubtedly the atmosphere was enhanced by the fact that a large number of the participants were already friends and colleagues. Also the very agreeable surroundings -- probably familiar to many participants as a social centre -- played their part. Although the importance of such factors must not be disregarded the main emphasis of these observations, for the purposes of comparison and generalisation, will be placed

upon the contribution of each part of the course programme to its overall success as perceived by the arranger, the participants and the observer.

Reception Whilst there were no comments from participants about the assembly and introduction, a more ordered and organised beginning would have been beneficial. This could have involved an individual welcome, registration, the provision of course information, directions to amenities and refreshments etc. during the period before the formal introduction.

The opening remarks by the Teachers' Centre Leader seemed, at the time, to be unfortunate and inauspicious and not really the kind of positive optimistic statement one expects in order to get the proceedings off to a good start. It also seemed that, although he was one of the joint sponsors of the course, he took no part in the course sessions. He was certainly concerned with the comfort of participants; an excessive concern which resulted in several interruptions in the first two hours with messages of no great urgency. Although other duties may have made attendance difficult, the final session, which raised the possibility of a workshop being convened by the Leader, ought to have included a contribution from, or a response by him.

There is nothing to indicate whether these preliminary

events had any significant effect on the course, nor whether any particular participants were reluctant 'conscripts' and consequently regarded themselves as make-weights or disinterested spectators.

There were a couple of very favourable comments about the literature distributed beforehand, eg.

I found the initial mailouts actually -- which came with the course -- very helpful. That encouraged me as it seemed to me to suggest a fairly liberal approach to the subject and the idea of looking at Politics and Government in a wide context and indeed a critical context ... [interview]

There is no indication of how closely the literature was studied by others or to what extent any such reading contributed to the proceedings. There is at least no reason to believe that this input had anything other than a beneficial effect.

Session (1) The opening address by JS was well received by participants and only those 4 respondents who comprise Group C did not include this session among those they regarded as useful.

It was useful. It was enlightened, which I think HMI's usually are. ... I was particularly impressed by the lucidity of the speaker. [interview]

The audience appeared to listen with interest and the questions which followed were astute and searching. They

had come prepared to take notes, probably expecting a series of formal fact-dispensing lectures, but most abandoned their notebooks after about 15-20 minutes. Although the content of the session was not primarily concerned with the objectives or methods of political education, the main benefit and cause of satisfaction would seem to be the reassurance and encouragement they received. It is unlikely that the same words delivered by other than an HMI would have carried the same authority. Here was the stamp of official approval, the high status backing which most teachers apparently need and appreciate. At the same time the particular comments, analysis and authoritative style must have been at least as significant as the status of the speaker.

Session (2) This was also highly rated by participants. There were several comments from respondents remarking on why they found it useful:

From the point of view of the course as a whole they [the exercises] were a great boon as they helped the participants to get to know each other more quickly. The session also illustrated to me the potential advantages of using such exercises as a teaching method.

Very useful. I think listening to a lecture on a Fri. evening or Sat. morning course is an insult. Course on Pol. Ed. must be based around participation, both for teachers and school students.

I think it has been lacking a bit on theory since AP sat down. I found his session very useful as well ... I think it was very interesting to see the political process at work and I think that was very very useful. I think it might have been followed up had there been time. [interview]

Further evidence of the value of this session and session (4) is provided by the fact that most of those who claimed to be planning to incorporate ideas from the course in their teaching referred to small group work or to session (2) in particular.

It can at least be said that many participants preferred relaxed discussion on a Friday evening to a formal lecture on theoretical aspects of political education. There also seems little doubt that the session fulfilled one of its intentions in that it transformed a rather formal and passive audience into a very informal and lively interactive group of participants. The discussion which took place during the session suggested that much more than this was achieved. It could be described as a self-directed and self-conscious learning exercise. Participants had to consider what political education entailed in the way of objectives, content and methodology. There was some evidence that a few of them began to think about how the exercise they were engaged in might illustrate some principles of political education.

What individual participants gained from the session will have depended on the accidents of group membership and on the ideas and experience they each brought to bear on the exercise. The greatest problem was that the task was too large for the time available. Very few concrete outcomes (in the sense of practical conclusions) emerged. There was not nearly enough time for groups to report on their decisions or for those decisions and the exercise itself to be discussed. As a completely open-ended exercise it would be very difficult to anticipate how much time is required for each stage and in total. This experience suggests that for the same time period a more limited range of tasks would be desirable or that the time should be extended by linking other parts of a course to this kind of session, thus developing more of a thematic or coordinated approach than is usual.

Session (3) Neither this session nor session (5), which was also concerned with role play and drama, attracted favourable reactions from participants. Only 1 respondent listed "drama" as a useful session in his opinion. This reference may have implied or included session (5) (See below). One of the more constructive though critical comments was:

[It] was not really concerned with the use of drama by politics teachers, which was to its credit as the prospect could be quite appalling. The chief message I took to be that the theatre is an awesomely powerful medium for

politicising people, whether they be young or old. With this message I whole-heartedly agree, and it was probably worth reminding those present of this fact. However, I suspect that teachers of 'political studies' could do little more than note this fact and carry on in much the same way as before.

Most comments were scathing. Perhaps any allowance people made at the time for the fact that the contributor was standing in at the last minute had been forgotten in the period before the questionnaires were completed. It seemed that there had been little time for preparation. The presentation was hesitant and uncertain, and the development of ideas was far from clear or systematic. There was little connexion between the theme -- his 'thesis' -- and the drama improvisation. In fact considerations of what is good and interesting drama were put well before considerations of its application to political education objectives. The rather forceful and coercive form of implementation contrasted with some of the ideas he wished to convey. The atmosphere was not as relaxed as in the previous session. Possibly there was a little apprehension -- 'Will he pick on me next?'. When someone was picked on and pressured into performing, all eyes were on that person.

In such a situation the neat circle which forces everyone to face each other may be more inhibiting than a disorderly arrangement of chairs.

If one purpose of this session was to provide a measure of entertainment or light relief on the Friday evening there

is no evidence of any success in this respect. It is not easy to see how it could be regarded as entertainment and it is doubtful that the session leader saw it as serving such a purpose. Moreover it is questionable whether any time on such a short course ought to be used for entertainment. Such a provision would seem to be more appropriate to longer residential courses. In any case this particular kind of session would always be risky, depending as it does on the theatrical talents and cooperation of participants.

Session (4) For participants this session ranked close behind sessions (1) and (2) as being very useful. One respondent said:

The last thing we had with AS was a nice balance where it was sort of 50/50 if you like, where she told us a lot about her way of working and then gave us a sample of some group work to do, which is a nice thing to do. [interview]

This session was a teacher talking to teachers from her own experience of implementing an ambitious teaching programme. It must have impressed the great majority and, although many expressed reasons why they couldn't do the same thing in their schools, just as many others probably took away something to use in their lessons. The session fitted in well with session (2) and served, among other things, to provide concrete illustrations of small-group, small-step learning experiences.

The practical exercises impressed themselves on teachers more than the rather long explanation of background and objectives. It would probably have been better if some of the background material had been given to participants in the form of pre-course or pre-session handouts. At the very least this would have benefitted approximately half the participants for whom the information displayed on the OHP was indecipherable. It would also have allowed more time for the group exercises, for group reports and discussion of the techniques and the approach.

Some potential conflict between the rationale or values of the course which the contributor was responsible for in her school and the manner in which it was implemented (or appeared to be implemented) was remarked on during the session -- a point developed later by one interviewee:

I thought we were given a description of the gap between well-meant theory and perverse practice because I was not impressed with the presentation. Firstly because I am suspicious about anecdotal presentations anyway ... And secondly I think there were paradoxies raised that weren't explored, particularly to do with the structure of the course and the staffing arrangements. It almost appeared to acquire sinister connotations about what happens to members of staff who don't toe the line.

Session (5) One respondent listed 'drama' as a useful session (see session (3) above). The session received more criticism than any other, although 2 respondents lumped this session together with session (3) in their remarks.

Drama presentations -- self indulgent, vague and irrelevant.

I can visualise drama being valuable in the teaching of this subject but I am still unable to see the point of the exercises that were directed by CM.

The objectives of the second session concerned with drama were less clear. If it was intended as advice to Politics teachers on how to enhance understanding of political concepts through role play it was hardly a success. If its intention was to show how political ideas and concepts can be meaningfully dealt with in a seemingly unconnected subject area then it was marginally more successful.

I would doubt even the modest success suggested in the last comment. The session was rigidly controlled and participants made to perform in very specific ways. They were asked to observe one another but when advice was sought help was refused. On one occasion, when his analysis about the relationship between status and standing/sitting position was questioned, the session leader used rather dubious tactics to impose his own definition of the situation on the questioner. The assertion was that there are universal political meanings to certain social mannerisms. Not only was the significance of cultural conditioning ignored but also, more seriously, the economic and political context of such relationships as master-servant or police constable-motorist. When participants began to ask about the connexion between the exercises and political education the answers suggested that not much thought had been given to the possibility.

Before this could be explored further the issue of the participation of women on the course was introduced. Only 2 participants in addition to the arranger expressed concern that the issue was important and ought to be debated. Seven other participant disagreed and the more impatient some of them became the more one man in particular insisted that it deserved special attention.

Only 1 respondent commented on this (quoted on page 182). Without other evidence it is difficult to judge whether this event was an example of democratic flexibility or unproductive chaos; or whether it matters. It could be said that the arranger, on overhearing a comment, saw a link between considerations of role and status, and sex differentiation and was prepared to allow the rest of the session to be devoted to this subject if participants wished. On the other hand it could be concluded that the session leader lost control of the session and that attempts by the majority of participants to get back to the subject were thwarted by a belligerent minority (with accusations of male chauvanism). In such circumstances some procedure for sounding out participants' opinions on whther or not to pursue side issues which emerge during sessions would seem to be essential.

Session (6) This session was subjected to as much critical

comment as session (5) and received only one favourable listing and one other favourable comment:

It was helpful to be made aware of the resources available.

Other remarks were uncomplimentary:

[It] was quite redundant.

BBC -- boring, disorganised, a very bad ad. for the educ. broadcasting service.

This was potentially a useful session, although presented in a rather disorganised manner. The usefulness was hampered by the fact that much of the material was only indirectly relevant to the subject under consideration.

Criticisms of the presentation probably refer to the hesitant and unsure manner rather than the organisation of what was a fairly complex array of equipment. In fact the sequence, selection and timing may have been so well arranged as to have been reminiscent of a saleswoman displaying her company wares and soliciting consumer response. The emphasis was on the content of the programmes rather than the way in which the media might be used. The participants were much more interested in the later and the session was not very politely received by some.

Those few teachers of Politics, History, Social Studies and General Studies were probably already familiar with most of the material. If a presentation of such material is

considered appropriate it may be better to provide an option, or access throughout the course, for those who are interested.

Session (7) This plenary session received no comment from any of the participants. Perhaps the real test of its value might be if the proposed workshop is established and does get support.

This kind of session would appear to be worthwhile although it would seem to be particularly difficult to organise. All too often courses simply end with the usual platitudes -- "Thank you for coming. We hope you all got something out of it." However, it may not be true to say that any attempt to consider what should happen next is better than none.

The arranger did not seem to have a prepared strategy for conducting the session. There was some preliminary consideration of what participants would have liked and an opportunity, for the more forceful participants, to complain about lack of coverage of those topics which were unlikely to be given any consideration according to the pre-course publicity. For the arranger to come unprepared was a big risk to take and the session could have ended with no constructive plans at all. Assuming the arranger had intended to suggest a workshop it would have been wise to ask the Teachers' Centre Leader to be present.

If such a session is to be open-ended and responsive to interests as they emerge then the use of planning groups -- either to suggest alternative activities or to pursue ones which have been suggested -- could be contemplated. However, a safer strategy might be to anticipate a few possible outcomes from the planning stage and to use a course to give those intended outcomes some momentum. It is probably expecting too much of a group of teachers meeting for the first time to organise themselves, in the space of half an hour to undertake any worthwhile tasks.

Aims As in many cases the publically-stated aims of the course were vague and a bit cosmetic. It is possible and reasonable to draw certain inferences from the selection of contributors and the topics they were expected to deal with.

In terms of the five-model description of INSET courses (see Chapter 6) this course would appear to combine Models A, C and E, ie. the 'Persuasion Model', the 'Practice Model' and the 'Planning Model'. It was intended that participants should become more "aware of the political content of their own and others' teaching" and, by implication, to acknowledge the importance of political education. Participants were invited to consider ways of translating political education objectives into classroom practice and, finally, to make some plans for post-course activities.

Content The theoretical inputs were fairly substantial. The papers distributed beforehand and on arrival were mostly theoretical; there was some theoretical input in sessions (1) and (2); and, in the first half of session (4), a number of interesting issues about the pedagogy of political education were touched on by the contributor although not developed. These included:

- developing ways which will liberate children by giving them skills, rather than inhibiting them;
- when they come to secondary school, children have not really learned to work together in groups, they have simply been taught to work alongside each other;
- adopting the enabling role as a teacher means that you relinquish control over the content and development of lessons and this can sometimes be uncomfortably threatening;
- there are political considerations to the hidden curriculum -- who has access to classroom equipment and resources? Who decides who may ask questions? What are the implications of classroom arrangements? etc.

Practical inputs: In quantifiable terms there seemed to be a great deal of practical input but in qualitative terms this input was rather weak. Probably only a small

proportion of it was directly transfereble to the particular circumstances of participants. It is therefore encouraging to have evidence that a number of them are doing just this with the suggestions presented in sessions (2) and (4).

In terms of planned content the course was fairly strong on 'Persuasion' and 'Practice' but fairly weak on 'Planning'. Session (1) sought to show that political education is now widely seen, even at the official level, as a legitimate area of the curriculum and a potential candidate for inclusion in a common core. Sessions (2) and (4) could have been interpreted as performing a related persuasive function by demonstarting that political education is feasible and a practical possibility within the context of current educational thinking and existing school structures.

Sessions (2) and (4) explicitly related teaching objectives to possible classroom practice and, presumably, considerations of such relationships were intended by sessions (3), (5) and (6). There was also a book display which could have stimulated further thought about possible resouces.

The final planning session (7) was allocated very little time and, in the event, only had 7 percent of the total time used. Of the 35 minutes used, less than 15 minutes were directly concerned with planning.

Style It follows, from the remarks above, that there was a mismatch between the perceived aims of the course and the kind of sessions provided. More time ought to have been given to occasions when possible post-course activities could have been considered. This time could have been found at the expense of sessions (3), (5) or (6). The kind of activity which might have been appropriate would have sought to identify (or offer) lines of development and/or to create enduring groups and obtain commitments to particular tasks.

This, like many courses, could be viewed as a succession of isolated performances with no necessary link or cohesion between each. Three contributors (JS, MB and AS) arrived just before and left just after their sessions; one contributor (CM) arrived for the previous session. Only two contributors (AP and HS) attended throughout the course. Any suggestions about relating sessions to one another to serve some overall purposes would imply that contributors should be present throughout and be cast more in the role of course staff or course tutors.

Structure There was probably also a discrepancy between the aims of the course and its length and timing. To give adequate attention to all the aims, if that was desirable, would require about $2\frac{1}{2}$ - 3 days and imply a residential course. Assuming that this option was not regarded as

viable, the alternative would be to limit the range of objectives and probably also the time to a one-day or even an evening meeting with specific plans for follow-up activities.

If it is assumed that the particular style adopted was more or less the most appropriate, then the matter of sequence can still be considered. Session (4), or something very similar, would have been better placed if it had followed session (2) inasmuch as it provided concrete illustrations of possible approaches developed in session (2). It may be possible that a better start to the course would have been better provided by session (2). There are good reasons for the stamp of official approval or dose of persuasion of session (1) being administered at the beginning but perhaps this could have been a useful stimulus for considerations of 'Where Next?' in session (7). On the other hand, session (2) would have been a useful beginning from both the point of view of the interaction which it stimulated and in the contextual issues it raised. The location of sessions (3), (5) and (6) is less important than considerations of their relevance.

Impact If the element of persuasion can be seen as a two-fold process of demonstrating that political education is regarded as both desirable and feasible then the participants were more likely to be persuaded of the former by this course. Some participants expressed the view that

the kinds of things suggested in session (4) were just not possible in their schools. Perhaps a less ambitious or less dazzling presentation by a teacher doing political education through Geography or Social Studies would have a more persuasive impact. It is difficult to gauge the impact of session (2) as it depended, to a great extent, on the analysis and interaction of teachers themselves.

Regarding the process of relating objectives to practice, the impact must have been very uneven. Session (6) was almost completely out of context; session (5) refused to make any links between the exercises and the 'political'; and session (3) failed this attempt. Sessions (2) and (4) both had fairly strong impact but both were rather narrowly concerned with skills-based objectives. Considerations of the use of drama, radio and television and the books displayed at the back of the room as suitable teaching resources were either poorly presented or, in the case of the books, not examined at all.

As mentioned earlier, the element of post-course planning was very small and almost certainly had a proportionately small impact. The impact it appeared to have may have been misdirected. The participant who volunteered to organise some post-course activities gave some indication that he was more likely to concentrate his efforts on topics of little interest to the majority of the participants; topics such as those which feature on some 'O'

level British Constitution syllabuses. (See page 176)

When judged against other courses studied so far this was certainly the most successful. In view of this it may be unjust to dwell on the shortcomings. However, when certain features emerge regularly their significance should be underlined.

The key deficiency of this course arises out of the lack of congruence between participants' needs and requirements, and what was actually provided. Among the possible strategies for overcoming this there are two which deserve particular mention:

- for arrangers to enquire about prospective participants' backgrounds and expectations inadvance of taking firm decisions on the details of the content, style and, if possible, the structure of a course;
- for arrangers to transfer to participants the autonomy they give to contributors. Contributors are given virtually total freedom to determine what they are going to do and how they are going to do it, even if their performance is completely at odds with the requirements and preferences of participants. (It is not enough to argue that participants know what they are letting themselves in for. Who could have foreseen that a session

entitled 'Political education in Sixth Forms' would have focussed on role play?) Arrangers should negotiate contributions based on what they know of participants' needs and involve contributors in the planning stage in order to develop a coordinated approach.

February 1981

CHAPTER 8CASE-STUDY 'K'Introduction

This study of a 2 day course at a Cambridge Extra-Mural college has been included because to a significant extent it may be seen as a 'laboratory' situation in which several aspects of the theory which had been generated were put into practice in order to be evaluated.

In response to an enquiry (see Appendix B) about possible INSET courses on political education, PC (Short Courses Tutor at the Cambridge Institute of Education) had indicated an interest in discussing the planning of such a course. During discussions CB was suggested to him as a suitable Course Director and he proceeded to make arrangements directly with CB.

Provisional plans were discussed at Cambridge on February 24th 1981. These included using just three tutors -- CH, IK and JS -- throughout the course, and to concentrate on groupwork rather than formal lectures from guest speakers. The course was to focus on the needs of

secondary school teachers involved in political education as part of a broad social education programme and was to be restricted to about twentyfive carefully selected participants. The following information was sent to all course applicants:

The idea of politics in schools is guaranteed to cause suspicion and controversy. Nevertheless, a small number of enthusiastic teachers, backed by inspectors and politicians, have succeeded in establishing political education as a contender for time-table consideration in secondary schools. Despite falling rolls and staff shortages and without much experience or guidance, some schools have actually embarked on programmes of political education. This course will enable teachers involved in such work to share experiences and explore together the learning possibilities inherent in political education.

The course is limited to a maximum residential participation of twentyfive. Participants should be teachers of fourth, fifth or sixth year pupils in secondary schools. In most schools where political education has been introduced it is regarded as an aspect of social education. This course will approach political education in a similar fashion and is not likely therefore to be relevant to those whose Politics teaching is confined to CSE or GCE work.

It is hoped that participants will be able to play a part in determining the content of the course; when applicants are accepted they will be asked to indicate their school situation and express their views on what the course should include. These views will be taken into account in the final planning. At this stage it is envisaged that the following areas will be included.

Aims Even when political education appears on a time-table, teachers may not have a clear idea of what they are trying to achieve. Is it just a basic understanding of the differences between political parties and the mechanics of voting or are we aiming to give pupils some political skills in a general sense? A definition of politics is required, and if we decide this should be wider than the official descriptions of how parliamentary democracy works then we are entering the difficult area of controversy -- just where and how do we draw the line?

Content What do we teach? Facts? -- how to complete

a ballot paper? Issues? -- is nuclear energy a threat to mankind? Concepts? -- the virtues of toleration? Is our content to focus on the 'corridors of power' or should we venture into the 'politics of everyday life'? Few schools seem to go beyond a lesson on each of the political parties, something on parliament and elections, local government and perhaps the EEC. Is this adequate or even necessary, or is such a syllabus guaranteed to confirm pupils in the widespread belief that "politics is boring, sir"?

Methods There are many teachers who feel that political education, along with social education generally, cannot be 'taught'. They see pupil involvement in lessons as essential for success. Is method more important than content in the case of political education? Moreover there is a very real problem in attempting to expound the virtues of liberal democracy using authoritarian teaching methods in the context of a hierarchical institution. If political education requires informal teaching strategies how can these be implemented?

It can be seen that we intend to run the course to cover a great deal of the ground relevant to teachers committed to political education. It may be that we should reduce the proposed scope of the course in favour of exploring one area in detail and the views of applicants on this matter would be welcome.

Throughout the planning period there was close collaboration with the evaluator. CB provided copies of correspondence and details of various developments; the evaluator provided him with information from his observations of other INSET courses. The evaluator sat in on informal discussions between the course tutors on June 6th 1981 and a whole-day planning meeting on July 11th 1981. By that stage planning was based on using only three course-tutors as IK had had a succession of illnesses and was unlikely to have time to prepare any contribution.

In October the Cambridge Institute provided copies of participants' application forms and a letter was sent, as if

from the Course Director, explaining the role of the evaluator, enclosing a questionnaire enquiring about participants' interests and needs together with some suggestions for pre-course reading. At the same time the course tutors were asked to provide outlines of their proposed sessions. Course tutors were given a summary of the replies to the pre-course questionnaire on November 9th. Replies had not been received from participants X3, X4, Y3, Y4 or Z5, nor from Y2 and Z4 who were late applicants. NB. All participants were coded and numbered by the observer according to which of three groups they were placed in in Session (2). (See the note at the end of this case-study on the groupings of participants.)

On November 9th it was realised that CB, who had been ill for some weeks, would be unable to direct the course and last minute arrangements were made for CH and JS to take over responsibility for all the course sessions. In the event most of the original plans, which had depended on management and inputs from CB, had to be abandoned.

CASE-STUDY

A. General Provision

1. Title: "Political Education in Secondary Schools"
2. Dates/Times: 1981, Friday November 13th (c.6.15pm) - Sunday November 15th (2.00pm)
3. Location: Madingley Hall, Cambridge.

4. Sponsor: Cambridge Institute of Education.
5. Administrator: PC, Short courses tutor,
Cambridge Institute.
6. Arranger:)
)
7. Published Aims:) See 'Background' above.
)
8. Market:)
9. Attendance: 15 comprising 8 Assistant teachers
4 Heads of Department
3 Deputy heads
10. Structure: Residential over 3 days.
Day 1: Dinner - groupwork (Session 1)
Day 2: Breakfast - groupwork (2) - coffee -
lecture (3) - lunch - free time - tea -
lecture (4) - groupwork (5) - dinner -
video presentation (6)
Day 3: Breakfast - lecture(7) -
coffee - groupwork (8) - lunch.
11. Style: Lectures + questions - 3 87 mins)
64 mins) (40%)
63 mins)
Working groups - 4 70 mins)
82 mins)
52 mins) (49%)
60 mins)
A.V. Presentations - 1 62 mins (11%)

B. Setting etc.

Madingley Hall is a large Manor House set in extensive ornamental grounds 2-3 miles west of Cambridge. The accommodation, hospitality and general atmosphere of the place was particularly congenial. There was not a formalised registration or reception. Participants were invited to arrive between 4:30 and 6:30pm and informed that tea and coffee could be made in pantry-kitchens, that dinner was at 7:15pm and that at 6:15pm "the bar opens and you can

meet members of the course there".

Madingley Hall was the setting for two courses that weekend and from the early evening on the first day through to the final meal participants regularly mixed and talked with the group of about 30 magistrates also in residence. It wasn't until the first session at 8:15pm on Day 1 that the teachers and the magistrates were segregated and the course participants were able to distinguish their colleagues apart from the magistrates.

All the sessions were held in the 'Board Room', an ante-room to the Dining Hall which had perhaps once been a drawing room. The room had not been designed for such occasions and had poor acoustics. It was about 7m x 14m, high ceilinged, with tall windows overlooking lawns and an avenue of trees. The room was furnished with eight large oak-veneer tables set in two rows of four facing a table, a TV monitor and a blackboard at the front. There was seating accommodation for 24 people in high-back leather-padded chairs.

The 'social climate' of the course was informal and fairly cordial. Participants seemed to develop relaxed and convivial relationships very quickly but, despite an undercurrent of wit and good-humour which surfaced once or twice, only 2 or 3 participants seemed willing to 'let their hair down'.

C. Programme

Day 1

Session (1) 8:22 - 9:32pm 15 participants.

After a 5 minutes introduction by the course organiser, CH explained that the purpose of the session was for participants to begin to consider the aims for political education in their schools as a preliminary to developing draft course outlines. He asked the participants to divide into pairs and then provided a list of five possible aims and asked participants to "write down where you think you stand and what you think the possibilities and problems are." Discussion in pairs continued for 30 minutes and JS visited each pair twice.

After 30 minutes participants were shown a list of ten quotations from headteachers which were a range of objections to political education. They were asked to get together in groups of 4, to introduce themselves to one another and to rank the ten quotations in order of "what you think are the main objections in your own institution." They were told to record their decisions on paper and that their opinions on both parts of the exercise would be used to determine the composition of working groups for the rest of the course. Thirty minutes later the session was drawn to a close and two handouts were distributed for participants to look at before the following morning.

(For full details of the composition of all groups and sub-groups see the note at the end of this case-study.)

Day 2

Session (2) 9:08 - 10:30am 14 participants.

CH explained that participants would be divided into three working groups in order "to produce some form of programme of political education." They would have three sessions to work together and that during this session they might begin by thinking about the aims and objectives, Where would it fit into the curriculum?; Is it best in a direct or an indirect form?; What are the problems and what might the knowledge content be? In addition to the two handouts provided the previous evening participants were given two further handouts and were put into working groups.

In allocating participants to groups JS explained to participants that it had not been easy to determine clear criteria and in the end they had formed three groups on the basis of (i) those who had slightly more experience of political education; (ii) those who appeared to share similar problems or concerns; and (iii) those who seemed not to be as far advanced in their planning. The groups were formed at 9:14am and worked until 10:30am.

Coffee 10:30 - 11:05am

Session (3) 11:05am - 12:32pm 14 participants.

This was a talk by CH on teaching 'The politics of everyday life' (29 minutes), followed by discussion and elaboration (16 minutes), viewing a video tape which illustrated aspects of the talk (23 minutes) and further discussion (19 minutes).

The talk stressed that participants were being offered an example of a deliberate attempt to get away from looking at State institutions and to portray politics as being both relevant to pupils' everyday lives and also, therefore, potentially interesting to them. The talk was characterised by regular examples and anecdotes from his personal experience of teaching the course, and with practical advice. Four handouts were provided including an article upon which the talk was extensively based.

Discussion between participants and the session leader arose from two specific questions from the session leader about using the school and the family as sources of illustrative material for political education.

The video, "Anatomy of a Gang", studied the activities and power relationships of two adolescent gangs. One of the handouts provided a list of questions to draw attention to the political characteristics of the material. A discussion followed arising from the video -- its qualities, and its possible uses and limitations.

Altogether 7 participants contributed 18 comments or questions and the contributions were mainly from participants Y2, Z2 and Z5.

Lunch - Free Session - Tea 12:32 - 4:34pm

Session (4) 4:34 - 5:38pm 15 participants.

This was a talk by JS on developing political skills (41 minutes) followed by discussion (23 minutes). There were two handouts, one of which summarised the main points of the talk. The session was concerned with how to develop the skills entailed in (i) obtaining information, (ii) evaluating information, (iii) formulating judgements, and (iv) presenting a case or achieving an aim, and with considerations of issues which teaching for such skills may generate.

Discussion was generally concerned with the question of what do we mean by political skills? and with considerations of what it might or might not be justifiable to include under that heading. Five participants contributed 21 comments or questions and the contributions were mainly from participants Z2, Y2 and X2.

Session (5) 5:38 - 6:30pm 15 participants.

Participants were asked to move into the three working groups which had been formed in Session (2) and to continue

with their planning of a programme of political education. A handout on teaching strategies for handling controversial issues was provided.

Dinner 6:30 - 8:16pm

Session (6) 8:16 - 9:18pm 15 participants.

This session was devoted to viewing three videos in succession, all from the series "Politics, What's It All About?" -- "What's News?"; "As Seen on TV"; and "A Free Press?". There was no general discussion after the viewing.

Day 3

Session (7) 9:43 - 10:46am 15 participants.

This was a talk by CH with a contribution from JS towards the end, about resources for political education. Five handouts were provided including an article upon which the talk was extensively based and one which was sent to participants soon after the course. The first part of the talk, which referred to various examples of resources and their possible uses, focussed on 'Politics at the level of the State' and was organised under such headings as 'Pressure Groups', 'Political Parties' and 'Parliament'. The second part was concerned with the international dimension -- World Studies, third world resources, Peace Studies etc.

The first part (58 minutes) was a mixture of exposition and comments from participants on their experience of using Community Service Volunteers material, party-political (especially National Front) material, visiting speakers, and films or videos. Seven participants contributed 17 comments or questions and these contributions were mainly from participants Y2 and Z2. The second part of the talk lasted 5 minutes.

Coffee 10:46 - 11:30am

Session (8) 11:30am - 12:30pm 15 participants.

Participants were asked to move into their three working groups to complete their planning of a programme for political education.

After 50 minutes the groups were asked to give brief oral reports on their conclusions. Reports were given by participants X3, Y2 and Z2. Participants were asked whether they had any comments and X3 reopened an issue which had arisen during Session (4) concerning the nature of political skills. There were no other comments.

Participation

Five participants (X1, X4, X5, Y1 and Y4), a third, made no contributions to plenary sessions and 3 others (X3, Y5 and Z1) made only one contribution each. At the other extreme, 2 participants provided more than half of all the

contributions between them (Z2, 16 contributions and Y2, 14 contributions). Contributions from members of Group Z outnumbered all others.

In contrast to this, the small group sessions, which occupied nearly half of the total session time, afforded considerable opportunity for individual contributions and there was no sign that any of the participants were significantly more or less forthcoming than others.

A more accurate indication of opportunities for participants' contributions than that suggested by the 'style' of the course would be as follows:

Video Presentations	85 mins)	
Talks	133 mins)	40.5%
Questions/comments	68 mins)	
Group sessions	254 mins)	59.5%

And this analysis overlooks the opportunities which were given (though usually not taken) during the talks for participants to comment.

D. Opinions of Participants

A questionnaire was sent to all participants and 7 replies (47%) were received (X2, X5, Y2, Y5, Z1, Z2 and Z4).

Although this is a low response rate, formal interviews were conducted with 9 participants (X1, X3, X4, Y1, Y2, Y3, Z2,

Z3 and Z5) -- and the data on the opinions of participants has been supplemented from the transcripts of those interviews. Thus, only the views of participant Y4 are not available.

(a) Background and Motivation

All the participants were secondary school teachers, as intended by the published course aims. The range of responsibilities and teaching subjects were as follows:

<u>Deputies:</u>	Y3	<u>Subjects:</u> History, General Studies
	Z1	History, Social Educ'n (Politics)
	Z5	English, Social Studies
<u>Heads of</u>		
<u>Departments:</u>	X2	Economics, History, Social & General Studies
	X3	Modern Languages
	Y4	Sociology, General Studies
	Z2	History, Env. Studies
<u>Assistants:</u>	X1	Social Studies
	X4	History, Sociology, Pol. Awareness
	X5	Economics
	Y1	Modern Languages
	Y2	Social Studies
	Y5	Pol. Ed., History, Env. Studies
	Z3	History, Social Studies
	Z4	English

Five of the respondents belonged to subject associations:

Association for the Teaching of the Social Sciences	2	(Y2 and Y5)
Economics Association	2	(X2 and X5)
Historical Association	2	(Y2 and Z2)
Politics Association	2	(Y2 and Y5)

The number of INSET courses attended by respondents in the last five years ranged from nil to 20 but only 2 respondents had ever attended a similar course before -- X5 had attended a series of meetings organised by the LEA (Suffolk) and Y2 had attended workshops at an ATSS annual conference.

Only 1 respondent had the full cost of the course paid by the LEA and 3 paid all the costs out of their own pockets. In 2 cases respondents were prompted to apply by their headteachers -- Y5 and Z2; the rest took the initiative themselves either in response to advertisements in the Times Educational Supplement or to a notice posted on their staff-room noticeboard.

Participants indicated their reasons for wanting to attend the course on the original application forms as well as in a pre-course questionnaire and the follow-up questionnaire. (There were no contradictions). Most respondents provided several reasons, all of which may be readily grouped under the following headings:

- | | | |
|-------|---|---|
| (i) | To get ideas or information on specific aspects of political education. | 4 |
| (ii) | In order to cope with a specific task. | 3 |
| (iii) | A general (vague) curiosity about political education | 3 |
| (iv) | For 'professional development' / career enhancement | 2 |
| (v) | To learn from other teachers | 1 |

(vi)	Social reasons	1
(vii)	Other comments	1

Typical comments under these headings were:

- (i) Where does it fit in? Is it the responsibility of the History Department? (Z2)
- (ii) Without any consultation 'Government' had appeared on my time-table ... (Y5)
- (iii) Interest in a subject which is attracting increasing attention. (X2)
- (iv) A course is a course - promotion/looks good. (Y2)
- (v) To see what others were doing and what had worked. (Z4)
- (vi) I enjoy courses. (Y2)
- (vii) Personal interest as a Politics graduate and political animal. (X2)

Headings (i) or (ii) were the main reasons given by most respondents and interviews and observation indicated that all respondents were either involved in a programme of political education which they needed to revise or were considering introducing a new course in the immediate future.

(b) Impact

Participants' reactions to the course correspond very closely to their group membership. Every member of Group Z was disappointed; every member of Group Y was very enthusiastic and the members of Group X were divided in their views. It will be important to return to group characteristics in a moment. Meanwhile it is useful to

compare questionnaire responses from those who were favourably impressed with the rest, ie participants X2, Y2 and Y5 (group 'A' in the tables below) with participants X5, Z1, Z2 and Z4 (group 'B' in the tables below). [1]

The majority of respondents thought the course had only been useful in parts and had been less useful than expected:

<u>'How useful had the course been?'</u>	'A'	'B'
- very useful	3	-
- only in parts	-	4
- not useful	-	-
 <u>'Did it come up to your expectations?'</u>		
- more useful	3	-
- as expected	-	-
- less useful	-	4

The contrast is slightly less stark on the appropriateness of the course to other participants:

<u>'Was it appropriate to the majority?'</u>		
- Yes	2	-
- D/K	-	3
- No	1	1

There is a complete correlation between these responses and the working group membership: the 2 'Yes' replies were from Group Y, the 3 'Don't knows' from Group Z and the 2 'No's from Group X. As 49% of the course was devoted to

1. Interviews indicate that participants X1, Y1, Y3 should be included in 'A' and that X3, X4, Z3 and Z5 should be included in 'B'. An interview conducted with Z2 at 12.35pm on Day 2 revealed that she was favourably impressed with the proceedings up to that point.

groupwork it is likely that participants would have drawn generalisations about all participants' feelings from the mood which prevailed in their own group. It appears that those in Group Y who were satisfied with the course thought that others were equally satisfied. From observation of the proceedings it seems likely that individuals in Group Z who were dissatisfied would have gained the impression that perhaps other group members did not share their negative views. Note, for example, the fact that all members of Group Z contributed to plenary discussions in a generally constructive matter. The proceedings in Group X were notably less enthusiastic and constructive than the other two groups.

Those parts of the course identified by respondents as being most useful were:

	<u>'A'</u>	<u>'B'</u>	<u>Total Mentions</u>
Sessions (2), (5), (8) Working Groups	2	3	5
Session (3) 'Politics of Everyday Life'	2	3	5
Session (7) 'Resources'	1	3	4
Session (4) 'Skills'	1	-	1
"Learning what had worked with others" [= working groups?]	-	1	1
"Books and contact lists"	-	1	1

Opinions about the least useful parts of the course were:

Session (4) 'Skills'	1	3	4
Session (6) 'Video'	1	2	3
Session (1) 'Aims and Objections'	1	-	1

Four of the respondents offered suggestions to improve the structure of the course while the others expressed

satisfaction with the structure provided. One respondent said:

Length OK for this sort of generalised theory course. Saturday afternoon should have been used. (X2)

Another expressed a similar view:

We had Sat. pm 'off' which was a waste of an afternoon (but not from a personal point of view as I went to an excellent lecture on Crime in another room). (Z4)

Two others thought too much had been crammed into the weekend:

Expectations to consider aims, objectives, content and methods too ambitious in the time allocated. Either (a) limit the groupwork to particular aspects of political education, or (b) extend the length of the course. (X5)

An enormous amount was crammed into a short time ... As an introduction to the subject a weekend was long enough but for an in-depth course five days or a full week would be possibly more suitable. (Z2)

Some comments from an interview reinforced these remarks:

Im pretty tired now. I've talked morning, noon and night political education since Friday over dinner, in the bar ... I'm just wondering when I'm going to reach screaming point
[Interviewer: You reckon that a long weekend conference is just about enough?]
Right. (Y2)

However other comments support the alternative view:

It's been a bit kind of low key ... and slow: I think a ... weekend course, I think you really do have to ... push people and work them hard to get through things and its just been very easy going. (Z5 Interview)

This paradox will be taken up later in Section F.

Three respondents made comments related to the types of sessions which were provided but only one of these was a suggestion for something different from what was offered:

I would have liked the session on simulated games which was on the programme originally. (Z1)

The other was more to do with the 'style' of the sessions themselves:

Possibly too formalised -- sitting behind desks in row perhaps inhibits contributions from the floor. (X2)

(This participant sat at the very front facing the same way as the session leader throughout the course).

Although there were comments from all respondents concerning the content of the course, most comments could be grouped under two heads (possibly two aspects of the same general concern). One aspect of this was the view that the course would have benefitted from 'more inputs', by which they appeared to mean a greater variety of ideas and information:

I would have liked more fed in by the speakers. (Y5)

Greater degree of external stimulus required. (X2)

More specific teaching methods and techniques, not just the odd one or two, to include a variety of styles and approaches -- not just the informal 'bag of tricks' type. (Z4)

The other aspect was the suggestion that more use should

have been made of the participants' own experiences or the ideas of other experienced teachers.

If it was going to work like that then we presumably should have brought along what course or whatever we are doing now. (Z3 Interview)

I should've brought materials that I use and I wish other people had brought material that they used -- worksheets and stuff and we could've photocopied and swapped and had a resource exchange here.

I would like more prior information about other members ... what we did at [another INSET course] we spent an hour talking about our courses. (Y2 Interview)

I would have liked to see examples of what is happening in other classrooms. Theory I already know, philosophy I can argue for pleasure, practice will benefit from a hard knowledge of what has been tried and its successes/failures. (X2)

Not high powered enough -- too general, waffly and vague. More lectures from successful pol. ed. teachers who can interest all types. (Z4)

I would've liked to have had preferably I think a teacher from, or several members of a department who felt they had a really well worked out course that worked and that would have been very useful. (Z5 Interview)

A few other comments provided other specific suggestions:

A more structured contribution .. on a) alternative aims of political education; b) objectives peculiar to political education; c) various teaching techniques. (X5)

... what about evaluation, especially in pupil-centred, concept formulating types of courses. (Y5)

More sessions to instruct teachers in the rudiments of political ideas and education as most of us were other subject specialists and unsure of our facts. (Z4)

Respondents were asked specific questions about the eighteen handouts provided during the course. Only 1 respondent was just a little bit critical (X2, group 'A'). The rest rated them as 'Useful' or 'Very useful'. There was, however, no agreement about which of the handouts were the most useful.

(c) Effectiveness

Despite the fact that a small majority of the respondents were disappointed with the course, 4 claimed to be continuing with development work prompted by the course sessions and 6 said they have definite plans to review their teaching methods etc. as a direct consequence of the course. The responses suggest that all respondents were stimulated by the course to undertake further development work or to formulate plans to do so. In only one case (Z4) it was not made clear exactly what planning was being undertaken.

Three of the 4 respondents who were continuing with work started on the course said that they had submitted a draft syllabus to their colleagues. The fourth (Y5) is referred to in slightly more detail below.

The 2 respondents who gave details of their plans intended to convene a meeting "to discuss syllabus and teaching methods" (Z1) and "to look at existing syllabuses in the school which already deal with certain aspects of

political education" (Z2).

Some of the interviews confirmed this impression of enthusiasm and motivation inspired by the course:

I think it's worked remarkably well and people like [Y5] are going back loaded with ideas and her enthusiasm maintained when I think it could so easily have been crushed in a couple of weeks if she survived on her own. So I mean that's success as far as I'm concerned. (Y2 Interview)

In the light of this comment it is interesting to note Y5's account of her post-course activity:

When I returned I wrote to all the addresses I had been given and I had the confidence to contact local politicians and the college. I have had a tremendously positive response to my request for resource material and also from people willing to take part in the course. (Y5)

There were many other comments indicating that the course was remarkably effective not only from the point of view of 'product' (producing declared intentions to do something) but also from the point of view of 'process' (being rated as a worthwhile experience in itself).

It's expanding my own knowledge and understanding, and making me realise I've got to go away and do further research into what's happening in my own school. (Z2 Interview)

I think it's widened my awareness very considerably. (Y3 Interview)

I think one gains enormously from the psychological value of meeting up with folk who share your enthusiasm ... I felt

that very strongly. I'm going away full of enthusiasm as well as loads of bumf.
(Y1 Interview)

However there were some remarks which suggest that not all participants had the same experience.

... a couple of people then said to me they thought of leaving at that stage, which I was really surprised at!
(Y2 Interview)

One of the couple referred to here was X1 who said that by the mid-point she had "almost decided to leave". (If another participant shared those views it was not disclosed in an interview or questionnaire).

Two other participants claimed, when interviewed, to have got nothing from the course:

I've been surprised, quite honestly, at how basic a lot of the stuff was really. I mean, I'm no expert on it but I certainly felt that --- I don't feel as though I've been challenged in any way.
(Z5)

I'm just going away, in a sense, feeling the same as when I arrived. (Z3)

These were the two, mentioned earlier, who thought the pace had been too slow.

Despite the few negative comments the weight of evidence is that as a stimulus to further work the course was relatively (perhaps considerably) more successful than all other courses studied so far.

E. Opinions of the Course Tutors

In the follow up questionnaire the course tutors were each asked:

- (a) to what extent the course matched up to their intentions?
- (b) whether they felt they were operating under any constraints and whether there were any particularly helpful facilities or circumstances?
- (c) whether they thought they had provided enough opportunity for participants to contribute their own ideas and to apply ideas to their own circumstances?
- (d) to what extent the interests and backgrounds of the participants appeared to match the intentions of the course?
- (e) what changes they would have made with benefit of hindsight -- with or without the constraints specified?
and
- (f) to what extent their own sessions fitted in with the general concerns of the course?

CH said the course went as planned and that the working groups seemed more ready to get on with discussing issues than he had feared. However one constraint was an uncertainty about the nature and extent of the participants' experience of political education. On the other hand proceedings were helped by "small numbers, pleasant setting and a bar." He thought that enough scope for participants' contributions had been provided both during group work and

in plenary sessions. As for interests and backgrounds, he said pre-course information indicated participants' interest in resources and methods, and they "were given a fair dose of these." Therefore he thought his own sessions fitted in quite well. With more advanced information on participants' interests (and assuming they had wanted it), he thought that even more time could have been devoted to practical matters such as resources, methods, assessment, etc.

JS also thought the course met her expectations and that participants were rather better at using each other in the groupwork than she had anticipated. One general constraint was not knowing enough about the participants' teaching situations and experience of political education. More particularly there was a feeling of being "slightly pressurised by extra responsibility [which] probably meant I spent more time talking to CH about what we were going to do and less time talking to the participants than I would normally." Proceedings, she thought, were helped by the presence of the evaluator because she felt more free not to participate in the group discussions and to spend time planning and trying to gauge how things were going. She was uncertain whether enough scope had been provided for participants' contributions or whether their backgrounds matched the course intentions simply for want of enough information on these matters.

F. Observer's Comments

Taking the location and accommodation first, Madingley Hall was in many ways an ideal situation for a weekend course. The accommodation, the amenities and the outlook were very pleasant indeed. It was remote, self-contained, with a minimum of distractions; the kind of place in which it is easy to forget the pressures and problems which await one's return to work on Monday. It was a little surprising that, given that situation, there was no evidence of any 'social spirit' on Saturday evening. (Only 4 people stayed up long after the bar had closed in a vain attempt to kindle a spark of revelry). However, considering all participants had been strangers, it was notable how well they appeared to get on with and work with one another during the course.

Course participants appeared to be generally very committed, involved and industrious. No one displayed any aggression or hostility (a remarkable, if not unique, observation) and the only cynics were 2 participants in Group X whose occasional comments were judged to be dry humour rather than evidence of disaffection (although those in their group may have thought otherwise).

Although the domestic and residential arrangements were excellent, the arrangements for the course sessions left much to be desired. The room provided was quite inappropriate for anything other than formal presentations

to a sedent audience. Even if the tables could have been rearranged the given furniture arrangement had a definite air of permanence about it. The course tutors had intended to display statements on posters around the walls during Session (1) but it was quite obvious that it would not have been acceptable to the management. The furniture arrangement and the feeling of being guests in a stately home were counterproductive to the course tutors' desire to promote participation and interaction between course members.

Registration and Reception This course was notable for an absence of any definite beginning and for the proliferation of introductions. Participants trickled in between 4:00pm and 7:00pm; they were greeted by a Hall administrator when they registered; they may have met up with other participants in the bar or in the pantry kitchens or at dinner; they were welcomed first by the Warden of the Hall, then by the course organiser and lastly, by one of the course tutors. The tone of the introductions was perhaps a little too apologetic. For example, a frank statement from the course organiser about the illness of the Course Director and last minute changes may have appeared to imply that given these circumstances they should not expect the course to be quite as good as it would otherwise have been.

Although there were no comments from participants about these particular features, it is reasonable to assume that

initial experiences can colour a participant's view of subsequent events. Experience of other INSET courses suggests that not enough attention is given to the reception of participants and to the introduction to a course, and this course conformed to the general pattern in this respect.

Session (1) Only 1 respondent listed this as the least useful session and this was a special case as she had been paired with the course organiser and would obviously have found it difficult to discuss the aims of political education as the session leader intended.

Two respondents expressed favourable views:

Opening tasks involved us quickly. (Z1)

I thought it was a good idea because teachers on a Friday evening aren't exactly at their best usually.
(Z2 Interview)

Participants Z1 and Z2 were original pairs and may have got on particularly well with each other. Other participants were less sure about the usefulness or the point of the first session.

Aims too vague ... possibly task insufficiently concrete to be productive in time available. Could all have written a book on aims. (X2)

I had a feeling that the Friday night exercise hadn't got the purpose that was explicitly stated. I thought the purpose was merely to get us to get to know one another. (Y1 Interview)

We never really finished that through did we ... I do that with my own Active Tutorial [Work] with first years ... next day I'll think well I didn't actually ever pull that together, they don't know why I did that, that's just something we did. (Y2 Interview)

There were two particular problems with the first part of the session. It was not clear to participants at the time what the purpose of the activity was. If they concluded that the main purpose was to sort them into groups or to get them talking then it is possible that they may not have treated it very seriously. The other problem was that the task seemed to be too difficult -- especially as a 'warm-up' activity. The paper on aims which was provided referred to the literature rather than to the practice of political education. Also it is likely that some participants may have been reluctant to identify themselves with either of the extreme ends of the spectrum of five aims. Perhaps the task would have been made easier if they had been asked to say which of the five aims they hoped political education could achieve and to identify elements of each in their own teaching.

The first criticism also applies to the second part of the session and, in addition, the instructions were not clear. Participants were asked to rank statements in terms of what they thought would be the main objections in their own institutions. The results of the exercise show that participants interpreted the instructions differently. Some were concerned with their own misgivings, others with

their colleague's objections, with headteachers', parents', and governors' views and so on. Five participants did not prepare a rank-order list and 3 wrote down only one objection each. There was a contradiction between being asked to provide an individual response but having to discuss the issue in groups and this may have had an effect on the outcomes. (See the note at the end of this case-study.)

The session appeared to have three main aims; (i) to identify individual participants' attitudes to aspects of political education (in order to form working groups), (ii) to identify those institutional problems which the majority of participants agree are the most important (in order to enable course tutors to 'deal with' them later in the course), and (iii) to enable all participants to get to know one another as quickly as possible. The technique used conflated the three aims together and, in the confusion, none of them were adequately fulfilled.

Groupwork - Sessions (2), (5) and (8) Participants were asked a specific question in the follow-up questionnaires about the groupwork. All 7 respondents said it had been very useful and only 3 of those interviewed had any reservations.

I would want to start off [with] a lecture ... dealing in ideas which he has encountered or has actually used or seen in practice ... and then ... in the small groups looking at how these ideas could

actually be implemented. ... I don't think that small groups are any benefit unless you've got an expert within it ... (Z3 Interview)

And I think that unless you've got an outsider in small working groups what tends to happen with teachers is they ramble on and we all do it, about: 'in my school' and 'with my kids' and 'I can't do that with my kids because' ... (Z5 Interview)

I was rather put off by the waffle and messing around of the small group. (X4 Interview)

Some of the views were supported by those who otherwise responded very favourably to the working groups:

Outside stimulation needed before the second group session. (Z1)

We were bogged down. Difficult to progress past diverse viewpoints in group. (Y5)

Another participant from Group Y responded to the same events in a different way:

... We had a feeling it didn't matter because we were doing something intrinsically valuable. (Y1 Interview)

It is interesting that a respondent from each of the three groups reported virtually identical experiences:

Time: Group relationship was only now such as to be fully productive. (X2 referring to Session 8)

Crystallisation of ideas. (Y2 referring to Session 8)

Inevitably tentative as we were finding our way. (Z2 referring to Session 2)
Development taking place as confidence in the subject and each other grow. (Z2 referring to Session 5)

We finally got down to brass tacks.
(Z2 referring to Session 8)

Whilst the groupwork was probably the most stimulating and satisfying aspect of the course for participants there are a number of ways in which it could have been improved. Criticism has already been made of the procedure used for forming the groups. Suggestions for better procedures warrant more space and attention than is possible in this context. However, if the purpose of a group exercise is to arrive at a consensus on, for example, a syllabus or teaching method then it may be desirable to begin with groupings of people who have common backgrounds, or objectives or experience of political education. Other purposes not requiring a consensus may necessitate a mix of opinions and experiences.

Because the groups were each expected to prepare a syllabus outline it might have been better to establish their membership from the beginning. Three sessions is a very short space of time to go through all the usual stages of group development (See Brown, 1979). Moreover a lot of time was taken up -- possibly wasted -- during the first groupwork session with participants trying to clarify exactly what they had been asked to do. The instructions had invited them to consider 'aims and objectives' or 'where it would best fit into the curriculum' or 'direct -v- indirect approaches' or 'knowledge content'. Although they

had made very little progress towards a draft syllabus it was observed that in the last session the groups quickly put together an outline report with no real commitment to their proposals. In Group Z for example the report was dictated by Z4 and Z2 in order simply to have something to offer the course tutors at the end.

The main problem was that the groups did not each have the benefit of a group leader to provide the kind of comments or questions which would bring them back to the topic which they were supposed to be discussing; they were left, 1 participant said, "to share their ignorance". Moreover, the course tutors did not visit the groups frequently enough to be able to gauge the content or direction of discussion. To some extent it would appear that the presence of the observer may have inhibited the course tutors.

Yet despite these shortcomings the participants were very pleased. This would appear to confirm the impression gained from several sources that teachers in this field value the opportunity to meet others who share similar interests and to exchange experiences. At least half the discussion during the working group sessions involved an exploration of one another's biographies and it is likely that this would have happened no matter what procedure had been adopted by the course tutors. It would have taken a very strong-willed and insensitive group leader to have

prevented such exchanges and, if successful, the result might well have been counterproductive.

Session (3) This was also rated as one of the most useful sessions by respondents but there were more reservations and criticisms expressed about this compared with the groupwork sessions. Most of the favourable comments were low-key:

Useful. (X5)

Motivating. (Y5)

Interesting. (Z1)

Useful. Such methods already used in careers course at my school. (Z2)

The above comments are quoted in full. For a more detailed statement we have to turn to an interview:

I found that [session] perhaps more useful --- because that's not the way I've been doing it, because what I have been doing is a very -- in retrospect -- very boring civics approach --- I wasn't aware there were other approaches.
(Y3 Interview)

The negative comments are not particularly illuminating either:

Too trite. (Z4)

Interesting view of attitudes in the ivory tower. (X2)

Full of educators' jargon and high-falutin' notions. (X3 Interview)

There is a close correspondence between responses to this session (and the course as a whole) and opinions about how rushed or slow the course had been. This will be

explored later as part of the general conclusions.

Many participants obviously found the suggestions presented in this session useful and interesting. It is possible that greater value could have been derived from the material if the session had been more open-ended or flexible. It seemed as if the session leader had set himself the task of getting through a fairly substantial script and he was anxious to get all his ideas across to the audience. Consequently there was very little opportunity to explore any of the implications of the various suggestions. The participants were left with several ideas about subject-matter but not much about process. Possible alternative approaches are considered after Session (7).

Session (4) Only 1 respondent listed this session as the most useful:

Very useful. Points to think on. (Y5)

Another participant summed up the feelings of the majority who were rather critical:

There was only one session that I think hasn't been good. [interviewer - which one was that?] Well I think JS was under-prepared with hers and ... you could see everyone getting shifty and uneasy. They were thinking umm, you know, she's using the wrong techniques here ... A lot of people came out dissatisfied.... But our [group] discussion afterwards was, I thought, really really useful. (Y2 Interview)

There was also another strand to the critical comments:

My objection to it wasn't anything about lack of preparation -- that didn't actually strike me or worry me -- but that fundamentally she got it wrong: she wasn't actually talking about political skills. (Y1 Interview)

Unconvincing. ... Most course members were very critical of the abstract nature of the talk. (Z2)

This last point is in many ways the most difficult to grapple with. The scope of 'the political' will always be debatable. The fact that most participants thought the subject matter of the talk was not narrowly confined to their preconception of politics was not really the fault of the speaker, who was more concerned with issues of how to teach for political skills rather than how do you distinguish political skills from other skills. Although it might be argued that the identification of political skills should have taken precedence, perhaps this topic would have been most inappropriate in the context of this course and would have produced even more discontent.

The main point was summed up by 1 respondent who wrote "Medium swamped message" (X2). The session leader was seeking to share tentative thoughts with the audience, to explore various lines of thought, and to raise issues for consideration. In contrast to the other sessions, she was offering alternative lines of enquiry and asking participants (implicitly) to consider their implications, rather than presenting a tried and tested scheme. The style therefore was tentative and reflective rather than

assertive and authoritative, and participants mistook this for uncertainty regarding the content and direction.

To a certain extent participants would have formed their misconceptions long before the session as a result of the apparent relationship between the course tutors. CH had, it seemed, been put in the position of deputising for the absent Course Director and so he took a prominent role. Unfortunately, for the first three sessions JS's contributions were restricted to distributing handouts and similar tasks which implied that hers was a subservient role. If their relationship had been presented as an equal partnership these misconceptions might not have arisen.

The message was not entirely swamped if participants had cared to listen. The session had a lot of potential, probably more than most others, for enabling the participants to get to grips with the processes of political education rather than the subject-matter. Other sessions offered a shift away from the traditional subject-matter, Session (4) invited participants to think about an equivalent shift in methodology. Unfortunately they were not actually required to think about it. An alternative to the 41 minutes talk might have been a briefer introduction followed by discussion in threes on the implications and then a plenary discussion on the ideas which emerge. Other possibilities would have been to provide specific illustrations or issues for discussion.

Session (6) This was not a particularly useful session for any of the participants. Two (Z1 and Z2) said that it was "Interesting" and the most favourable comment was heavily qualified:

Quite useful, but haven't been able to get hold of it. Too expensive. (Y5)

Most comments were doubtful of the relevance of the videos to their main concerns. For example:

Too boring and cerebral for my groups. (Z4)

I thought they weren't appropriate to the 14-16 age range. (Y2)

It is difficult to decide on the criteria with which to judge the session (and to know what criteria the participants used). Films on a Saturday evening could be regarded as a light relief from the toils of the day. Certainly, had the session been held at any other time it would have been regarded as a serious consideration of possible resources for classroom use. But a 'light relief' session would normally have been billed as optional and the fact that the whole afternoon had been free-time (when perhaps the videos could have been shown for those who were interested) implied that the rest of the Saturday programme was all serious stuff. On the other hand there was no discussion or comment afterwards and at least 1 participant seemed to think that the session was intended more for relaxation:

I thought, from the psychological point of view, that that [session] was at the right time -- Saturday evening -- and we couldn't have sustained anything else.
(Y1 Interview)

The session probably suffered from this ambiguity. As entertainment it was neither particularly stimulating nor relaxing. There must be a number of activities, relevant to political education which would have fulfilled either purpose more effectively. And as a serious consideration of resources it amounted to no more than a book-display type of provision whereby participants are left alone to browse and indulge in solitary contemplation of the merits of the resources.

Session (7) Although this session was regarded as among the most useful by 4 respondents it is interesting to note that 3 of these were in group 'B'. That is to say, those who were dissatisfied with the course as a whole found more value in Session (7). However, their comments were not particularly enlightening and were restricted to "Good", "Quite useful" and "Very useful". Only X2 (group 'A') provided a further comment:

Considerable value; access to free material is of enormous importance to 'peripheral' departments.

Only 1 participant appeared to disagree with the majority opinion:

There were a lot of things that were gone through that you could assume that reasonably intelligent teachers could have done for themselves. I mean like the resources lists. We didn't really have to go through reading them. We could've just been given that.
(Z5 Interview)

Picking up this point, it appeared from the presentation that the main concern of the session was with itemising a wide range of resources rather than with considering how they might be used in different contexts and for different purposes. Once again, as in Session (3), content/subject-matter/material was divorced from strategies/methods/processes. This impression was reinforced by the style of presentation, the arrangement of the room and the interaction, ie exposition from the front to a passive audience arranged in rows.

The furniture made it difficult, if not impossible, to change the arrangement. However, in different circumstances it might have been better to have conducted Sessions (3), (4) and (7) 'in the round'. Even with the given arrangement an alternative procedure (for all three sessions) might have been for the session leader to have handed out the summary or 'script' of the talk before the session and go through it in 20-30 minutes. The other course tutor could have taken over to set up discussion groups on issues concerned with the application of ideas covered in the talk, and then perhaps to conduct a plenary discussion session involving the principal session leader.

Conclusions The most striking feature of the course to all concerned was the lack of a clear direction or purpose. Participants used different words or phrases to sum up the same feeling:

I think it just needed something very kind of strong and definite in a way.
(Z5 Interview)

It wasn't really structured.
(Z3 Interview)

and there were several comments to this effect made in questionnaires.

At one level any intended or possible links between sessions were not made explicit to the participants. At some points there were contradictions: although Session (3) was concerned with the politics of everyday life and the teaching of political concepts, Session (7) was more concerned with resources for State politics and teaching about institutions, and the particular videos shown in Session (6) fell somewhere between these two alternatives. Also participants were not given a clear idea about what the point of the groupwork was (whether it was to be seen as an end in itself, or to prepare something useful for other teachers, or to prepare something which individual participants could use in their own schools) and how it should be related to other sessions, especially the first one.

These and other discontinuities amounted to a general lack of cohesion. It must be said that virtually every other course studied, especially those which featured a succession of lectures from experts, have exhibited exactly the same characteristics. Perhaps the familiar pattern of a lecture-based course leads people to overlook such discontinuities, just as school students do not expect there to be any continuity between two successive lessons on their time-tables. However, in the context of a course which puts a high premium on participants' contributions and small-group work a lack of cohesion and purpose seems to be more visible. Unfortunately not all teachers are as accommodating as Y1:

It was somewhat vague but we didn't seem to suffer ... perhaps this sort of vagueness, lack of structure, reflects the nature of the thing we are talking about. That didn't disturb me at all, I expected it to be bitty. (Y1 Interview)

Another very distinctive feature was that although participants shared very similar interests -- especially when compared with the range of interests represented on most courses on political education -- there seemed to be as much of a divergence of opinion about the usefulness of the course and a greater than usual consciousness of differences in interests and needs.

The last point is simply explained. There were more opportunities for participants to find out about one another

and differences between them had a strong bearing on progress in the working groups. The divergence of opinion is a more complex matter.

One symptom of this divergence was identified earlier: there were some who thought the course far too slow and others who had a diametrically opposed view. Also there were those who thought that the course was too basic and others who said it took too much for granted.

On the basis of all the information now available it seems that there were three fairly distinct types of participant.

1. There were those who had some considerable experience of political education (in the broad 'politics of everyday life' - cum - Social Education sense). Participants Z3 and Z5 may be the only two who fit into this category and both were critical of the pace and felt they had not been challenged enough.

2. A larger proportion were those who had a little experience and who were more interested in providing the Civics type of course which stresses State politics and institutions. Participants X3, X4, X5, Z1, Z2 and Z4 seem to come into this category. They were all disappointed with the course and thought that one of the most useful parts was Session (7) on resources. Many of them were

impressed by the 'politics of everyday life' approach but thought that the course had assumed more background knowledge than was reasonable.

3. The rest of the participants, all of whom were pleased with the course, had the least experience of political education and were anxious to get away from a Civics/institutional approach.

It would appear then that only Working Group Y shared common interests. Working Group X had a mixture of those from 2 and 3, and Working Group Z had the worst possible combination -- those experienced in political education put together with those lacking experience but inclined towards Civics. (The note at the end of this case-study indicates why this problem arose.)

Suggestions for alternative group structures would depend on the particular purposes of the groupwork and how it relates to the course as a whole, and doubts have already been expressed about the coherence of these features.

Attempting to put the above rather negative comments into perspective, the overall conclusion is that the course contained the germ of something very good indeed and this seems to be verified by the proportion of participants who claimed to be engaged in activities prompted by the course.

The trouble (if that's the right word) appears to be that when significant gestures are made towards taking more account of participants' needs and improving the interaction between participants, then participants become more aware of the course procedures and more conscious of the shortcomings. Something of this feeling came across in the interview with Y2. At no other course studied would it have been likely for a participant to make the following kind of remarks:

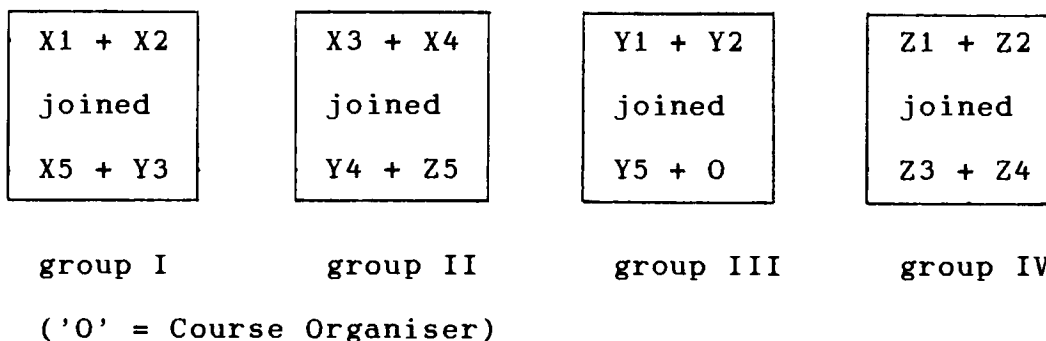
What we all found was that we were doing political education in our group, albeit in many different ways -- which really struck me, how many different ways there were -- but that we all had problems with it. And it was the discussion of those problems in the small groups which has been of immense value. I think the course has set that up!

Given this awareness of course procedures it is vital, on courses which adopt this approach (if not on all courses), that session leaders should demonstrate, through what they do and how they do it, what they think should characterise the process of political education.

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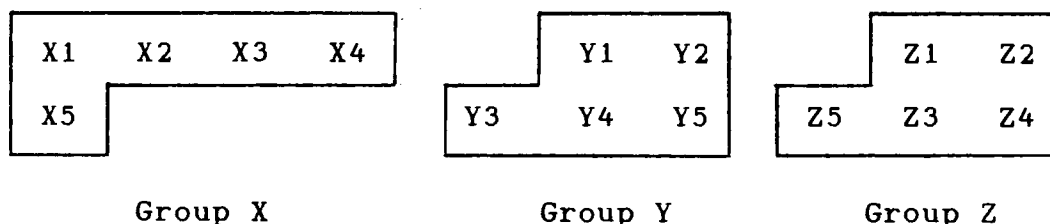
A Note on the Grouping of Participants
(Identified as X1, X2, and so on).

Session (1): 'Pairs' and 'Fours'



In Session (1) participants paired up with the person next to them, behind them (X1 and X2) or across an aisle (Z3 and Z4). Fours were formed from adjacent pairs. Participants had not met before. The seating arrangements and thus the grouping arrangements were random.

Sessions (2), (5) and (8): 'Working Groups'



In Session (2) groups were determined by the course tutors on the basis of participants' responses to tasks given in Session (1) and some information on their backgrounds. JS gave the following account of their procedure:

"First we looked at the participants choices from the five basic aims of political education. This was inconclusive because they were nearly all 'liberal' or 'reformist' [liberal = 5, liberal/reformist = 2, reformist = 2, liberal/radical = 1, conservative = 2, no response = 1].

Then we looked at the participants' ranking of problems. What began to emerge was a pile we called 'experienced' [Group Y], which meant that they were not worried about problems of indoctrination and bias but neither did they have a particularly conservative view of the aims of political education. The second pile were worried about problems of indoctrination and bias [Group X]. The third pile [Group Z] seemed least experienced, least aware of possible problems and slightly more conservative on average with one exception. [Participants Z5 and Y1] were the most arbitrary assignments and our main worry was with [Z5]."

What struck the evaluator immediately was the frequent reference by many participants to the difficulties created by having so little in common with other members of their group, and the close correspondence between the membership of groups formed in Session (1) with the working groups created in Session (2) despite the fact that the course tutors were not conscious of the Session (1) groupings. Groups III and IV remained intact and formed the core of Working Groups Y and Z. Working Group X comprised three members of group I and two members (an original pair) from group II. Only two of the original pairs (with the exception of the ad hoc Y5/O pairing) were split up by the arrangement of working groups. The composition of the working groups and the procedure for creating them obviously merited further investigation.

The information available, from application forms, questionnaires, interviews and observation, provides strong evidence that 2-3 members of each working group had very little in common with other members of their group.

The procedure used by the course tutors to obtain information about participants' opinions or circumstances failed to provide reliable data for two reasons. Firstly the instructions were unduly complex. It was not clear to participants whether they were to list just their own objections to political education, or those of headteachers', pupils', parents', governors', and others'. Secondly, and most significantly, the discussion groups formed in Session (1) implied (although it was not stated) that participants were working towards a group consensus. In any case the process of discussion was likely to result in group members influencing one another's ideas. It is not surprising, therefore, that the process of constructing new groups on the basis of opinions emerging from group discussion should result in almost identical groupings. Rather than identifying characteristic differences between participants, the procedure seems to have obscured those differences.

March 1982

CHAPTER 9

THE CHARACTERISTICS OF SUCCESSFUL INSET COURSES FOR POLITICAL EDUCATION

Introduction

It was apparent from the outset that among the factors which contribute to the success of an INSET course are those which would have the same effect regardless of the particular concerns of the course as well as those which may be specific to political education. In the early stages of the research it was assumed that the 'general' factors would include such aspects as organisation, setting, publicity, etc. and that the 'specific' factors would be to do with the particular needs of course participants and the particular characteristics of political education. It was assumed that it would be possible to focus attention on the 'specific' factors, but these proved in the course of the study to be mistaken assumptions. There were two principal reasons for this.

It is a common procedure -- and probably an essential one -- in studies such as this to identify and investigate an array of distinguishable elements. For example, not simply to distinguish between various sessions on a course but also to distinguish between types of session, to look at

social and domestic arrangements, at the provision of resources, at pre-course publicity and at post-course follow-up. In reality it may not be any of these discrete elements which has the greatest impact but (to try to sum it up) the-course-as-a-whole. That is to say, it might be to do with the interaction between the elements, or what the participants contribute to it, or the feeling participants have about the event which is important. Of course, specific discrete elements contribute to this but it may not always be possible to identify them in a reductionist manner. In short, it was seldom possible to determine which factors were specific to INSET courses for political education and which had a more general application.

The second reason why such a distinction could not be made stems from those characteristics of political education which distinguish it sharply from such subjects as mathematics, economics, and even Government and Politics (See Chapter 1). In contrast to these subjects there is no widespread agreement on what political education is and how it should be included in the curriculum. It is commonly regarded as controversial. It is certainly problematic. It is very much in its infancy and few schools have much experience of a systematic provision of political education. Consequently access to experienced teachers and well-tried teaching schemes and resources is far from easy. Participants on INSET courses for political education are likely to come from the widest range of possible

backgrounds.

To spell out the implications of these characteristics in more detail: given a diversity of opinion about what is meant by political education, misunderstandings by participants about the intentions of a course arranger or of other participants is almost certain to arise. The chances of misunderstanding is increased if course participants are a mixed group of historians, English teachers, geographers, RE specialists, and so on. Even with a group who have similar backgrounds there is likely to be disagreement over appropriate strategies for providing and teaching political education. For some participants the problematic nature of political education endows certain disagreements or misunderstandings with even greater significance. And it seemed that many course participants (or course contributors) were unable to call on a sufficient degree of experience so as to be able to allay the anxieties of those who were particularly unsure of themselves.

Thus the most significant characteristics of political education as far as course participants are concerned are likely to be to do with relatively vague and elusive matters such as aims, curricular strategies, problems of commitment and values, and with terminology and definitions. Handling such topics as these is not a matter of having an expert provide the answer or of a group choosing an answer by voting between alternatives. Whether such topics are

handled to the satisfaction of participants depends as much on the general organisational features of an INSET course as on the structure and content; ie on their experience of the course as a whole.

It proved impossible, therefore, to identify and to isolate any significant factors as being so general as not to warrant any attention at all (other than the patently obvious kinds such as whether participants could hear a contributor). Thus it has not been possible to claim that the findings of this study are unique to INSET courses for political education. Indeed, many of the conclusions would apply to the majority of INSET courses. The most that can be claimed is that, whilst the comments may be applicable in other contexts, they appear, from observations during this study, to be especially important in the case of INSET courses for political education.

The observations which follow are organised under two main headings -- Planning and Implementation. Planning is concerned with course aims, the role of contributors and participants' needs. The discussion of Implementation focuses on issues of style, participation, small-group activities, coherence, balance, initial events, concluding events and general administration.

Planning

Aims

The most successful courses featured a process of planning and implementation which followed a spiral configuration. This meant in practice starting with the needs of teachers, understood and expressed initially in general terms, and returning regularly, in the process of planning and implementation, to those needs, which are expressed in increasingly more precise terms at each stage.

Thus, the starting point of a successful course was to decide which one or more of the five principal aims (set out in Chapter 6) a particular course was intended to fulfil. All other decisions depended on this.

Some combination of aims were practicable, others are not. For example, it proved to be very unsatisfactory to try, on the same course, to persuade participants of the need for political education (Model A) and to try to enable them to prepare teaching materials (Model D). Other unsatisfactory combinations of aims included those expressed in Models A and C, and Models B and D. Attempting to combine the aims of Models A and B might be possible. However, in the case studied where this was attempted there was general agreement that it was a total failure.

Combinations of three aims were manageable where more than $1\frac{1}{2}$ days were allowed for the course. However, it was hard to understand why course arrangers chose to pursue two or more aims, when planning to fulfil just one aim is very demanding.

To decide on the principal purposes of a course is, in effect, to indicate in very general terms the main needs of the teachers which the course is intended to cater for. The decisions which follow this determine in much more detail exactly how a course will meet those needs -- decisions about subject-matter, activities, contributors, structure, etc.. The significance of some of these will be dealt with later. However, the matter of the instructions given by course arrangers to contributors warrants particular attention at this point.

Contributors

In the majority of instances contributors were asked to give a talk or lead a session and were given almost complete freedom to decide on the nature of their contribution with barely any guidance on the purpose it was intended to fulfil and no information on the interests of participants.

In many cases the outcome was fairly satisfactory as contributors were usually chosen on the basis of their reputation as a speaker or as an authority on a particular

aspect of political education. But it was observed that, the more precise the course intentions were and the more clearly expressed and understood the participants' needs were, the more unsatisfactory the situation was when contributors failed to match up to course arrangers' hopes.

There was clearly an implicit expectation among course arrangers that participants should attend a course prepared to accept whatever was to be provided. For participants to question the value or relevance of a contribution was often regarded by course arrangers as a sign of ingratitude and discourtesy. Perhaps this attitude by arrangers may be more understandable in the field of INSET courses for established subject disciplines where there are recognised authorities on the subject-matter and methodology, but it hardly seems appropriate in the case of political education.

The most successful courses were those in which course arrangers reverse this traditional relationship between contributors and participants and granted participants the right to be the main influence on the proceedings of a course. In such cases arrangers specified clearly to contributors what the intentions of a course were and exactly what kind of contribution would be expected in the context of those intentions.

Participants' Needs

Planning processes which involved procedures for identifying precisely what the needs of participants were contributed to the success of courses. An example of such a procedure may be found in Case-Study K (Chapter 8). As soon as the basic plans (concerning aims, dates, and location) were finalised, the course publicity and recruitment literature specified the main aims of the course, indicated the kinds of teachers and areas of the curriculum for which it was intended and requested from applicants some general information about their teaching responsibilities and interests.

Such information about the aims and intended market reduces the chances of receiving applications from teachers for whom the course is quite unsuitable. No measures can prevent this happening: no doubt there will always be some who will apply to attend INSET courses without regard to the particular purpose of a course (including those with the kinds of ulterior motives and incentives mentioned in Chapter 6). However, information from applicants about their reasons for wishing to attend enable the course arrangers to select those whose interests coincide most with the purpose of the course.

Where the information obtained from participants was sufficiently detailed it was possible to begin to 'fine-tune' the aims of the course closer to the needs of

participants. In some cases the arranger put the onus on contributors by providing them with this information and expecting them to plan their contributions to fit their audience. However, in the majority of instances there was no preliminary survey of participants and contributors were obliged to provide an input with no regard to the prevailing interests of participants. It was also common practice for contributors to arrive shortly before their session and leave immediately afterwards, having given a talk or demonstration perhaps, without knowing anything about the participants. For many areas of the curriculum this may not be particularly significant but, given the diversity of provision in political education and of the backgrounds of those who are interested in developing it, an explicit and adequate response to participants' needs is essential.

Implementation

Style

Many of the observations which follow are facets of one particular principle which appears to be the key to a successful INSET provision for political education: that the overall style and procedures of a course, as well as each of the separate elements should, as far as possible, adhere to and portray in general terms those pedagogies of political education which the course espouses. There should, at the very least, be a clear consistency between course

experiences and those pedagogies which are identified. For example, using a lecture followed by questions to consider the possible advantages of using a game for developing political skills was far less successful than enabling participants to engage in a game designed to identify such advantages and constraints.

Such methods as those mentioned above appeared to be a very effective means of INSET. Teachers, in common with everybody else, learn more about skills and techniques by practising them than by merely listening to lectures about them. Secondly, the use of such methods usually provided extensive opportunities for participants to become personally involved in the proceedings of a course, to make individual contributions, to influence the turn of events and to determine what they will take from a course. (These points will be developed in more detail later.) Thirdly, such an approach provided examples of teaching techniques which participants could copy or adapt to their own circumstances while, at the same time, setting the example of employing the principle of maintaining consistency between theory and practice.

Finally, the principle is based on an observation that successful courses reflected in their organisation and procedures that aspect of political education which stresses the importance of 'process' rather than 'product' (See Chapter 1). By actually making this shift on an INSET

course away from product ('What facts should we teach?') to process ('What strategies and procedures should we deploy, and what experiences should we provide?') the effect was to sensitize participants to the possibility of giving process primacy over product in their own planning and teaching.

Participation

Political education is far from being a simple exercise in providing pupils with significant facts about their political environment. Unlike many areas of the curriculum, the emphasis is more on relevant skills and on feelings and on ways of understanding. If getting the facts straight was the sole objective then INSET courses could concentrate on clarifying what those facts are -- a fairly straightforward task (See Model F in Chapter 6). Focusing on skills and feelings and on ways of understanding is far from straightforward. There is no single set of accepted strategies and procedures nor, if one adheres to the procedural values of political education (See Chapter 1), should there be. Every teacher and course participant is potentially as much of an authority on strategies and procedures for political education as their colleagues -- at least in the early stages of curriculum development in this field. It came as no surprise, therefore, to discover that one of the most important factors contributing to teacher satisfaction with a course was to do with opportunities for participation. Teachers who preferred to sit passively and

listen to authorities and experts were very rare indeed.

Opportunities for participation seemed to depend on four interrelated variables. One of these was obviously the total time which was allocated for those activities which are conducive to participation. Moving on to more important, though less manageable features: the second factor was to do with the actual course structure and processes. Arrangements which, for example, put participants into pairs allowed for considerably more opportunities for participation than plenary sessions in which participants sat in rows listening to a lecture delivered from the platform. Between these two extremes there were numerous arrangements and activities which afforded and promoted participation.

A third factor was to do with the agendas of the various course sessions. A lecture followed by questions usually allowed a few course participants to seek clarification, challenge the speaker, or make a counter-point. On the other hand, when small groups of participants were given a set of problems to tackle or issues to discuss this, when suitably structured, stimulated much valuable input and exchanges by course members.

Finally, there is the matter of course management. Even the best laid plans were thwarted by individual participants who wanted to ride their pet hobby-horses.

Where opportunities for participation were increased, so also was the need for skilful leadership to avoid a few individuals dominating the proceedings and obscuring the interests of others. Apart from such 'crisis-management', there was also a need to attempt to get the climate or atmosphere of the course right and to establish this as early as possible.

A further factor of some significance concerned the total number of participants attending a course. It has been difficult to discern any precise figures. In general terms the larger the number of participants the more difficult it was for course arrangers, contributors and participants themselves to create opportunities for participation. Large numbers tended also to increase the spread of interests and the chances of conflicting expectations between participants. On the other hand very small numbers limited the range of contributions and experience which could be tapped by a course arranger. Small numbers also reduced the chances of a participant meeting up with another who shares similar interests. Observations indicated that these difficulties were likely to be experienced when numbers dropped below fifteen and rose above thirty.

Small-group activities

Small-group activities proved to be the most successful means of both increasing opportunities for participation and for focusing on the process of political education. It was not sufficient, however, to merely divide the body of participants into a number of groups and to label the session 'Discussion Groups'. This practice was fairly common and invariably caused much dissatisfaction whenever it occurred.

In the same way that courses benefited from having a clear aim, so also did the success of individual sessions. This was particularly important for those sessions which featured a high degree of involvement and direction from participants. There were six types of aims or activities for group work which seemed to warrant special attention in the case of INSET courses for political education:

- exchanging experiences, ideas, opinions, etc.;
- generating ideas and 'brainstorming';
- decision-making and problem solving;
- practical tasks;
- exercises and activities such as drama; and
- establishing satisfactory working relationships or defusing potential causes of frustration and tension.

The first three of these are very similar, being

distinguished only by the direction of discussion. Exchanging experiences does not actually provide anything that did not already exist but it may lay the foundations for later activities. The other two aim at producing new ideas, either in a divergent, open-ended manner or, in the second case, by focusing on problems or issues to be resolved.

Practical tasks included such activities as preparing teaching schemes, forms of assessment, resources, etc. -- tasks more easily accomplished in small groups than by large numbers together. This is what was usually envisaged when courses included 'workshop' sessions although, having become a fairly fashionable idea it would seem, the term was often used to cover other activities involving group-work such as such as gaming and role-play activities. In the latter case, however, the activities and group processes are more important than the product (if any). The activities may be designed to provide experiences which shed light on various curricular or classroom problems. For example, participants were asked on one course (Case-Study I) to mark a projective test in order to illustrate the potential uses and limitations of projective testing techniques in political education.

The sixth type of activity may be identical in form to any of the other five; the difference residing only in the reason for its use and therefore on its timing. If

discussion in a large group got stuck in a rut or became dominated by a few individuals or if the atmosphere became tense, some contributors coped with difficult situations such as these by dividing the larger body into small groups -- usually 2's, 3's or 4's -- and setting a small task appropriate to the situation. Small groups were asked, for example, to each suggest two or three fresh ideas or to suggest alternative ways to resolve a disagreement or to construct an argument from their opponents point of view. How such procedures have been used to establish working relationships at the beginning of a course is considered later.

Other studies have shown that small groups take some time to build up a good working relationship (Button, 1967 and 1971; Gibson, 1979; Johnson & Johnson 1975). For any longer term enterprise such as entailed in INSET courses with aims like those of Model E -- the post course planning model, groups must expect to go through stages of enthusiasm, doubt and self-examination. In the more usual short term the most important consideration appeared to be to plan for one group session of about $1\frac{1}{2}$ hours for group members to learn about one another's interests and experiences. Course arrangers appeared to feel that they could not afford to discount so much time. The reality of the situation was that even when they were unwilling to build that time into their planning participants still took at least that amount of time to explore one another's

opinions etc.. These were circumstances in which requests to participants to come prepared to give an outline of their curriculum and to show examples of their teaching schemes were particularly productive.

In most cases the composition of groups was quite important. For some purposes a mix of types of participant was useful, especially when diversity of ideas and experience was needed -- for example, when a wide range of alternatives strategies or of potential problems was being sought. On other occasions the intention was to work towards an agreed end-product or to satisfy common needs or to solve common problems. In this case a grouping of participants with similar interests was more satisfactory.

Where groups were formed according to the interests of participants the following four examples of criteria for selection appeared to provide the foundations for successful sessions.

1. The amount of experience participants had of teaching on political education courses. In random groupings those who had a lot of experience often expressed impatience when new entrants to the field held up progress or went over what the experienced members regarded as old ground. Similarly many of those with only a little experience felt that the old hands did not appear to treat their problems or difficult circumstances seriously enough.

2. The type of curriculum provision for political education. Occasionally further distinctions were made between provisions which are:

- in the formal curriculum or in the pastoral curriculum;
- exam-based or not exam-based;
- for different age groups;
- direct (exclusive or modular courses) or indirect;
or
- within different subject areas.

3. The particular aims and intentions of participants. In this case procedures were used to identify common opinions about the main aims of political education -- often simply in terms of what kinds of knowledge or skills participants consider to be important, or in terms of what they consider to be the main problems to be overcome.

4. Particular tasks to be undertaken or difficulties to be resolved, eg devising a simulation, considering forms of assessment, confronting racism in the classroom, and so on.

However, even within groups formed according to common interests such is the nature of political education that there was always a diversity of opinion and approach and so there was still a need for careful planning and management.

The observations indicated that to allow sufficient opportunities for participation a working group ought not to exceed seven members. Groups of two or three members promote considerable participation. However, when engaged in a practical task very small groups have the effect of limiting the range of useful experience and ideas.

Some people involved in political education hold strong views about the allocation of roles and responsibilities in a collective enterprise such as a working group. There were occasions when some participants made assertions to the effect that, if the principle of attempting to maintain a consistency between the procedural values of political education and the practices of INSET is to be applied, then this would mean for them that groups should operate without leaders and externally imposed agendas. However, no examples of leaderless or agendaless groups operating successfully were observed. On the contrary, the majority of course participants stated a clear preference for group activities to be well organised and to be directed with a fairly firm hand. Some INSET courses included working-group leaders among the course staff and involved them in the early stages of planning. Where this happened it appeared to be an especially valuable procedure.

It was not unusual to find that sessions based on small-group activities on INSET courses for political education involved no more than an instruction to get into

groups and 'get on with it'. However, the most successful sessions involved detailed structuring on the following lines.

1. The provision of adequate time at the beginning to allow working relations to be established.

2. The provision of adequate time for participants to listen or to read and absorb any theoretical background material, instructions, etc.. Sometimes participants were sent materials before the course and were asked to do some pre-course preparation.

3. The provision of a clear agenda for each session, either displayed for all to see or duplicated for each individual.

4. The provision of definite arrangements for the outcome of group work to be disseminated to other course members. Sometimes immediate reports or exchanges of information were required or the product of groupwork were displayed. On some occasions provision was made for a lengthy reporting-back session for all groups. On many occasions duplicated summaries of group-work were distributed to participants during or after the course.

5. The provision of time for reflecting on group-work experiences.

Group-work was not the only way in which opportunities for participants to exchange ideas and experiences was increased. Other procedures included:

- Time being set aside which was not scheduled as a formal session. Such occasions were sometimes identified as 'free-time' or 'study-time'.
- More than adequate time being allocated for refreshment and meal breaks.
- Providing a social event or item of entertainment or of light relief from the formal sessions.
(These provided the stimulus rather than the opportunity for interaction.)

On very short courses such procedures would be difficult to justify. However, even on longer courses, when there was adequate opportunity and justification, some participants felt that that to include occasions for casual and unstructured interaction was time wasted rather than well spent. Paradoxically, there was almost no concern expressed by participants when the beginnings of sessions were delayed by late arrivals or when sessions ran over time. On all courses observed participants would habitually extend the proceedings of each session and move with no obvious sense of urgency between session locations.

Coherence

It was noticeable that those courses which provided more of those features which participants claim to prefer came in for as much criticism as those which were based on the traditional lecture-plus-questions format. However, the criticisms were quite different in kind and it appeared that those courses which were more imaginatively arranged had the effect of stimulating the imagination of participants and made them conscious of what else could have been offered to them if only time and resources had allowed.

One common criticism was that courses lacked a sense of purpose or a sense of direction; they were described as 'bitty' or as 'not hanging together'. However, it was interesting to note that such complaints were not levelled at courses which were no more than a succession of unconnected lectures. It seemed that the familiarity of the lecture-plus-questions format induced an uncritical acceptance of that kind of provision (after all such courses reflect the same pattern as the typical school or college time-table -- a sequence of disconnected lessons). When course arrangers raised their own level of intentions and expectations it appeared that this served to raise the expectations of participants.

The most successful courses featured an internal coherence and sense of continuity from beginning to end.

If any one session was successful in its aims then participants had their ideas and experiences, as well as their expectations, changed by the end of that session and the sessions which followed needed to take account of this. Unfortunately, on many courses the sequence of sessions was arranged to suit the availability of contributors rather than the aims of the course and the needs of participants. As mentioned earlier, it was not uncommon for contributors to arrive just before their session and to leave immediately afterwards. The fact that they were therefore unaware of what participants had experienced prior to their session served to heighten the sense of discontinuity. Courses appeared to be more successful when contributors attended and participated throughout the course. One important aspect of coherence is consistency. The possibility of inconsistency between the principal aims of a course has already been mentioned.

Balance

Another feature which warrants special attention is to do with the balance between issues of theory and issues of practice. There are three aspects of this dichotomy which caused course participants particular concern.

The first was to do with the balance between the inputs from experts (especially academics) and the inputs from teachers and course participants (who were seen as being

more in touch with reality and down to earth in their approach).

The second was to do with the relative amount of time which was devoted to theoretical issues -- such as those concerning ideology, values, conceptions of politics, etc. -- compared with that given to practical concerns.

The third concerned the ratio between the attention given to the subject-matter or knowledge-base of political education and to the strategies, methods and processes of political education. (This point was touched on earlier under 'Style').

Although the large majority of participants expressed a strong preference for courses which emphasised the practical issue of teaching strategies and which featured the contributions of experienced teachers, where this was provided the lack of sound theory and academic rigor from authorities in the field was regretted by many participants.

Clearly the 'right' balance is difficult to achieve and, indeed, may be totally elusive. The evidence appears to indicate that something between 75% and 80% of a course should be devoted to practical matters concerned with classroom methods and based on the contributions of experienced teachers.

Initial Events

All the studies indicated that the initial events of a course were particularly significant. Not only was it the case that first impressions made a difference to how later events were perceived by participants but the beginning of a course often determined what followed. It is clearly important to try to establish the appropriate atmosphere from the start.

Initial events include recruitment literature, pre-course information and instructions and reference has been made already to the significance of these matters. Turning to the events of a course when it actually assembles, there were usually three phases to the beginning of a course -- registration or reception, introductory remarks by the course arranger and the first formal session of the course.

Regarding the registration or reception arrangements, on many courses the procedure was very lax and in some cases non-existent, and participants were very critical of such shortcomings. The practice of handing out folders of course programmes on arrival was appreciated by participants.

The introductory remarks were often presented as a brief welcoming speech, more as a courteous gesture rather than as

a means of providing information and getting the proceedings underway. A clear statement of the intentions of the course and an explanation of the arrangements which have been made to achieve those intentions was the exception rather than the rule. In a number of cases the introductory remarks dwelt on administrative problems and failings and sounded more like an apology for impending disaster than enthusiasm for anticipated achievements.

The first session on courses which were planned to focus on the interests and needs of a particular set of teachers was often used to find out more about participants' interests. This was organised in a variety of ways. However, almost all of the more common procedures involved small-group activities.

One simple and straightforward method was to put participants together in very small groups and ask them to introduce themselves to one another and to outline their backgrounds. (This was usually conducted initially in pairs before moving into groups of four or six to repeat the introductions.) The next stage involved inviting the participants to identify experiences, opinions or problems etc. which they regard as relevant to their own circumstances, either from a list of items provided or from their own ideas. Some of the items chosen were selected by course arrangers or by the participants themselves for consideration later in the course.

Another apparent advantage to adopting such procedures was that it provided an early opportunity for participants themselves to begin to find out something about one another's backgrounds and interests, and to start to establish working relationships for the rest of the course. Even in those cases where there were teachers from the same school on a course the opportunity to express and explore interests was always appreciated. The diversity of experience and expectations associated with political education would seem to make such procedures as these essential.

The Concluding Events

Concluding events were also significant, although apparently not as significant as the initial events. In the case of courses which resemble Model E -- the post-course planning model -- it was of course crucial that the course should not end without details of who was to undertake what tasks, and when and how, having been agreed. This was also important in all circumstances in which some form of follow-up was intended. In all other cases a review of the course achievements or some other form of consolidation was appreciated by participants.

General Administration

In addition to the main observations detailed above there are a few points which, although appropriate to the general administration of any INSET course, warrant some comment as they were so often overlooked. The study provided ample evidence that course arrangers were either unaware of the likely consequences of various arrangements or they did not regard them as being particularly important.

Perhaps the most important of these general matters concerned the location of a course and the amenities of that location. The latter was particularly important when, for example, space and facilities were required for practical work or small-group work or drama presentations.

Although it was difficult to judge the intrinsic value of handouts provided by contributors it was clear that participants expected to come away with a substantial quantity of such material.

The better courses were flexible enough to be able to adapt to the particular needs of those who formed the membership. One procedure used to promote a greater degree of flexibility was for course staff to conduct one or more reviews of the state of play at intervals during a course. By this means they were able to alert themselves to potential difficulties and attempt to overcome them by

modifying their plans.

The final observation should in practice be the very first consideration. This is the question of who is responsible for the course planning? Those with long experience of organising INSET courses and those with official responsibility for such courses in a university or a LEA were not always the most aware of the needs of teachers or of current developments in the field of political education. There may be a possibility that teachers themselves might be better placed to organise successful INSET course, but there were no examples of it in political education for any judgements to be made about the effectiveness of such an arrangement.

Conclusion

Much attention has been given by educationists in recent years to the 'hidden curriculum' of schooling; to the extent to which pupils learn norms, values and beliefs which are expressed and transmitted through the underlying structure of social relations in school and classroom life as well as through the content of the formal curriculum.

For some writers (such as Henry, 1963; and Jackson, 1968) the hidden curriculum is regarded as a benign

influence, teaching desirable social attitudes and qualities of character like patience, respect for authority, and so on. But for many, however, the hidden curriculum has been seen as a mechanism whereby the children of successive generations are subtly indoctrinated into accepting pre-ordained roles in society; a mechanism which reproduces the social order and maintains social and political control in the hands of an elite. (See for example Illich, 1971; Bourdieu, 1973; and Bowles and Gintis, 1976).

This hidden curriculum has been studied extensively and written about in considerable detail. The contents of textbooks have been analysed, school rules have been scrutinized, the general procedures, routines and rituals of school life have been examined, classroom relationships and interactions have been investigated, and even the significance of school building design has been surveyed.

Not everyone accepts the view that the hidden curriculum should be understood as a simple and effective process of value-transmission. Recently debate has focussed on the question of whether some pupils are resistant to the messages of the hidden curriculum or, alternatively, whether in resisting the intentions of the formal curriculum they unwhittingly conspire with the processes of the hidden curriculum. Nevertheless, although there are disagreements over particular details, there is still broad agreement that the hidden curriculum of schooling is very significant and

that the contextual organisation, interaction and procedures of schooling make a very substantial contribution to the learning of pupils.

In general terms, this study has demonstrated that the broad principles of hidden curriculum theory are also applicable to INSET courses for teachers; that the organisation, interaction and procedures of INSET courses have a significant impact on the experiences of participants. Moreover, it provides some evidence that many of those involved in arranging INSET courses appear not to be aware of, nor are particularly concerned about those aspects of INSET which might contribute to its hidden curriculum.

As far as INSET in general is concerned this is a significant observation. In the particular case of INSET for political education the observation is especially important. Quite apart from the irony of the fact that those involved in in-service teacher training in the field of social and political awareness appear themselves to lack awareness of the possible social and political implications of alternative forms of INSET course provision, there is the likelihood of a clash between the intended outcomes of a course and the probable consequences of the usual style and structure of INSET courses for political education.

It seems clear that the most successful INSET courses

are those in which the assumptions and values proclaimed and affirmed by the structure and processes of the course are consistent with the assumptions and values of political education and the pedagogies which it affirms. INSET courses for political education should be models of effective teaching in political education; they should exemplify, in their procedures and pedagogies, that which they wish to explicate.

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APPENDICES

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APPENDIX A

Survey of In-Service Training in Political and Social Education

The general intention of most in-service courses on Political Education is to cater for the needs of teachers who are teaching some form of Political Education or who may be planning to introduce new teaching schemes or who are trying to develop schemes which are already operating.

The provisions made by course arrangers could be improved if they had more information about what such teachers think would be useful. We would therefore value your answers to the following questions based on your experience.

1. Have you personally been involved in any of the following:—

a) Planning a new teaching scheme for Political Education?

YES NO

b) Developing an existing scheme?

YES NO

c) Teaching on a course with Political Education objectives?

YES NO

2. Which of the following do you think are the *main* needs of teachers involved in planning, developing or teaching Political Education? Please list those you select in order of importance by marking them 1, 2, 3, etc. in the boxes provided.

a) Up to date information about recent developments in Politics.

b) Encouragement and support from local and national advisers, inspectors, etc.

c) Advice on available teaching resources.

d) Getting together with teachers with similar interests.

e) Ideas for teaching methods from experienced teachers.

f) Information on the requirements of examination boards.

g) Advice on various ways of including political education in the curriculum.

h) Explanations of the main theoretical debates about the need for political education.

i) Help with constructing suitable teaching syllabuses and resources.

Others (please specify)

.../PTO

3. Which of the following types of in-service course provision do you think would be the *most* useful for meeting the needs of teachers involved in planning, developing or teaching Political Education? *Please list those you select in order of importance by marking them 1, 2, 3, etc. in the boxes provided.*

- a) Demonstrations of possible methods or lessons.
 - b) Lectures from 'authorities' on political education.
 - c) Time for informal discussion with other course participants.
 - d) Displays/presentations of published resources, audio-visual material etc.
 - e) Practical 'workshop' sessions to prepare schemes and materials.
 - f) Presentations by ordinary course participants of their own experiences.
 - g) Structured discussion groups on selected themes.
 - h) Participation in small group exercises, gaming or simulation, etc.
 - i) Open flexible sessions to be used for the particular interests of course participants as they emerge.
- Others (please specify)

4. Approximately how many in-service courses of all kinds have you ever attended?

5. Approximately how many in-service courses concerned with Political Education have you ever attended?

Name:	Post:
-------	-------

School/College:

School/College Address:

Telephone No:

Teaching subjects and areas of the curriculum with which you are mainly concerned:

Please briefly describe the kind of political education scheme in which you are now involved:

Thank you for your cooperation.

APPENDIX BRESEARCH METHODOLOGYPreliminaries

The first procedure involved collecting information on as many INSET courses for political education as possible. Early in the Summer of 1979 a request (Document 1) [1] was sent to the following categories of people asking for regular notification of any such courses known to them:

- Secretaries of all Subject Teachers Associations covering the humanities and the social sciences.
- Tutors in University, Polytechnic and Colleges of Higher Education Politics, Education, Short Course and Extra-Mural departments.
- Teachers' Centre Leaders.
- LEA Advisors concerned with the humanities and the social sciences.
- Members of the group of HMI concerned with political education.

In return for their help they were sent a periodic

1. All documents referred to in this Appendix appear between pages 300 and 317.

bulletin listing all forthcoming INSET courses for political education. (A list of all courses notified in the period September 1979 to January 1982 -- excluding those which were cancelled -- appears as Appendix C).

Each course arranger was then asked to provide basic details about the dates, time, location and the general aims of the course. In the light of this information decisions were made about whether to approach the course arranger for permission to study the course.

In the period from September 1979 to November 1981 permission was granted to study ten courses. In addition a pilot study was conducted in April 1979 in order to try out draft questionnaires, observation and interview schedules and other research techniques.

The eleven courses, including the pilot study, were investigated in increasing detail using progressively more elaborate and sophisticated techniques. The methodology described here is an account of the final version, the set of procedures and the particular foci of interest which were applied towards the end of the period of research. However, the framework and the general conceptual categories, such as 'Intended Outcomes', 'Structure', 'Style' 'Content', 'Impact' and 'Effectiveness' (see below), had been established from the outset and something very close to this final version of the methodology was in use by

the eighth case-study.

Research Framework

Data on each INSET course studied was collected initially under four main headings.

1. Basic Data. ie. everything concerning the intentions and arrangements of the course. Who was involved. For whom it was intended. What the planned activities were. How much time was allocated to each activity, and so on.

2. Motivation of participants. The backgrounds of participants and their reasons for wanting to attend the course.

3. Impact of the course. The opinions of the course arranger, the contributors and the participants, as well as of the evaluator on the value, appropriateness, coherence and other qualities of the course.

4. Effectiveness of the course. Whether participants had embarked on any curriculum development or had any definite plans to do so as a consequence of attending the course.

As a theory of successful INSET course provision emerged to these four headings were added a further four forming a conceptual matrix:

	Intended			
	<u>Outcomes</u>	<u>Content</u>	<u>Style</u>	<u>Structure</u>
<u>Basic Data</u>	:	:	:	:
<u>Motivation</u>	:	:	:	:
<u>Impact</u>	:	:	:	:
<u>Effectiveness</u>	:	:	:	:

5. Intended Outcomes. What participants were intended to get from the course, what they hoped to get from the course and what they actually got from it.

6. Content. The subject-matter of the course, the way in which this was presented and the effect of the presentations.

7. Style. The kinds of activities and experiences offered during the course and the perceived suitability of such activities and experiences.

8. Structure. The arrangement of elements of the course in terms of the sequencing and the timing, and the perceived suitability of such arrangements.

This framework established coherent sets of questions focusing on specific and interrelated features of a course, the answers to which pointed to important value judgements about the success or otherwise of arrangers and contributors

in providing what they had intended to provide, and about the impact and effectiveness of a course from the points of view of all involved. (For a more detailed account of the research questions entailed in categories 5 - 8 see Chapter 6).

Research Procedure.

Before a Course:

1. As soon as approval had been given to study an INSET course the arranger was asked to provide full details of the purposes and organisation of the course. (The specific categories of information sought are listed in Document 2).

These details were progressively elaborated and clarified by:

- studying all pre-course publicity material and other pre-course literature sent to participants;
- receiving copies of all letters sent to course contributors;
- attending any pre-course planning meetings; and
- interviewing the course arranger.

2. A questionnaire, which sought clarification on the aims and content of their proposed sessions was sent to all contributors (Document 3).

3. All participants who had sent in their application forms up to three weeks before the beginning of the course were sent a questionnaire seeking information on their background and their reasons for wanting to attend the course (Document 4).

During a Course:

1. All sessions were tape-recorded. Two tape-recorders were available and if the participants were divided into groups one group was observed while two others were recorded. (There were always people present who were willing to operate a tape recorder, such as course contributors sitting in and observing other contributors' sessions.)

2. Throughout each course detailed notes were made on the timing of all activities and events, on the numbers participating in each activity (attending, questioning, discussing, etc.), and on the nature of the interaction between participants. In addition an observation schedule (Document 5) was used to record the general progress of each session and to record impressions in response to a set of Observation Issues which were prepared for each course. (One example is given in Document 6.)

3. As soon after each session as convenient the recordings

and observation notes were reviewed and a further, more structured schedule was completed (Document 7).

4. Towards the end of the course as many participants as possible were interviewed. The interview schedule was an open schedule based on a set of Observation Issues (such as those in Document 6) and the interviews were tape-recorded. Throughout the course notes were made of any overheard conversations which might throw further light on participants' opinions on various aspects of the course.

After a course had dispersed:

1. Questionnaires were sent to all participants (Document 8), to all contributors (Document 9) and to the course arranger (Document 10) seeking their opinions on the events and on the success of the course.

2. When all the data from questionnaires, observation schedules and tape transcripts was available a draft case-study was prepared. This included a summary of the the basic data, the opinions of participants on individual sessions and on the success of the course as a whole, and an analysis of the events of the course together with a commentary and evaluation of its impact and effectiveness.

3. The basic data, opinions, commentary, analysis and

evaluation of their own sessions were then sent to individual contributors for their comments.

4. Revisions were made in the light of comments received and the full draft was then sent to the course arranger for comment before the case-study was finalised.

Generating Theory

The research strategy was based on what L M Smith has termed the 'cumulative case-study' method (see Chapter 4). This involved the progressive refinement of research procedures, alongside the development of a theory of the provision of INSET courses for political education, throughout the process of studying successive INSET courses.

The first few INSET courses selected for study were chosen more-or-less randomly. Thereafter, as a set of hypotheses began to emerge and as the research methodology was adjusted accordingly, courses were identified which might be expected to shed further light on the hypotheses. Thus a 'theoretical sampling' procedure was employed (see Chapter 4).

In addition some course arrangers were shown a summary outline of the hypotheses before their course arrangements were finalised. By this means it was hoped that their

awareness of all the features with which the study was particularly concerned might result in courses in which more of these features were evident and available for investigation.

Finally, in one instance -- Case-Study 'K' -- the course was planned co-operatively with the course arranger with the intention that it should reflect as closely as possible one of the idealised models developed in the theory and thereby offer an 'experimental' situation in which an important part of the theory could be tested.

DOCUMENT 1



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Director: William Taylor BSc Econ, PhD, D.Sc, FCP Deputy Director: Professor Denis Lawton BA, PhD

Please provide below available details, no matter how vague, of any course, meeting, or other event for teachers which comes to your attention which appears to have some bearing on social and political education. This will be followed up by a request to the course organiser for more detailed information.

Date(s) /Time(s):

Location/Venue:

Title:

Type* of Event:

Name of Organiser:

Address and Telephone Number: Tel:

Names of Speakers or Contributors:

Source of Above Information:

When Obtained:

Signed: _____ Date: _____

Please return this form to Alex Porter at the address above.

[*Subject association conference/Teachers' Centre meeting/M.Ed. Course, etc.]

DOCUMENT 2

<u>Basic Course Data</u>		<u>This column for Office Use Only</u>	<u>Course No.</u>
1. Course Title:	2. Date(s)/Time(s)		
3. Location of Course:	4. Course Sponsors:		
5. Who is responsible for course administration & organization?			
6. Who is responsible for arranging the course programme?			
7. Who first suggested that the course should be held?			
8. What are the main aims of the course?			
9.1 With what area(s) of the curriculum is the course concerned?			
9.2 For what sort of teachers/educationalists is the course intended?			
		PRO/—	

This column for Office Use Only

<p>If the course is self-contained i.e. a continuous 1/1/2/2/? day course:</p>	
10.1	Is it a residential course?
10.2	Over what period of time?
<p>If the course comprises several sessions with several hours, days or weeks between each session :-</p>	
10.3	How many sessions are there?
10.4	Over what period of time?
11.0	How many of the sessions are of the following formats:
	Number
.1	Lecture + questions
.2	Seminars/discussions
.3	Panel
.4	Practical Workshops
.5	A.V. Presentations
.6	Gaming/simulation
.7	Other academic
.8	Social and other non-academic
.9	Total No. of sessions

DOCUMENT 3

1. What kind of teachers will your session be mainly for - in terms of their present curricular responsibilities; their experience of Political Education; their needs, etc
2. In general terms, what will be the content of your session?
3. Will you be providing participants with any information before the Course? If so please give brief details.
4. Do you intend to use or demonstrate the use of any resources, gaming, drama, etc? If so please give brief details.
5. What do you hope participants will derive from your session?
6. In what ways have your intentions been influenced by the course arranger?
7. Have you provided a similar session on a previous occasion?

Will your session relate to other sessions in any specific way? If so give brief details.
9. Are you planning to attend throughout the whole course? If not, which parts will you have to miss?
10. Do you think there are any benefits which you might derive from attending the course and, in particular, from providing your session?

DOCUMENT 5

OBSERVATION SCHEDULE: I

TIDES	MATERIALS & EQUIPMENT	TEACHING ACTIVITIES	LEARNING ACTIVITIES	CONTENT DEVELOPMENT

DOCUMENT 6

POLITICAL EDUCATION IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS - Cambridge 13-15 November, 1981

OBSERVATION ISSUES:

(Principally 'Model C' Content and Style. Possibly 'Model B' for Session 1 and 4?)

How much (objectively and subjectively):

- a) - time was given to the presentation of examples of practice by session leaders and participants?
- b) - advice was given by leaders?
- c) - time was given for practical work?
- d) - time was given to providing experience of examples of practice?
- e) - time was allowed for participants to apply example and advice to their own circumstances?
- f) - opportunity was provided for participants to share their opinions?

Did the session deal adequately with:

- g) - the nature of pol. ed. objectives?
- h) - the implications of objectives for teaching and assessment?
- i) - types of lesson content and forms of pedagogy?
- j) - the interrelationships between (h) and (i)?
- k) - strategies for including pol. ed. in the curriculum?

Generally, did there seem to be any problems due to:

- l) - lack of time?
- m) - accommodations, distances, etc?
- n) - size or division of groups?
- o) - differences of expectations between participants or between session leaders and participants?
- p) - the domination of discussion by a few 'unrepresentative' individuals?

Could any such problems have been alleviated mid-course?

DOCUMENT 7

- 1 -

OBSERVATION SCHEDULE : II

COMMENT	EXAMPLES
1. <u>SL INTENTIONS</u> as reflected in session content and style (vis-a-vis Models A - F):	
2. <u>SL STRATEGIES</u> : <u>Content.</u> Types/forms of input; Proportions; Sequences;	
<u>Style.</u> Nature of instructions; Forms of interaction; Ratio of exposition to involvement; Division of tasks?	
3. <u>SL USES OF</u> :	
<u>Lang.</u>	
<u>Illus.</u>	
<u>Media</u>	
<u>R.-Play</u>	
<u>Part.Exp.</u>	

/---

COMMENT	EXAMPLES
<p>4. <u>PARTICIPANTS RESPONSES TO:</u></p> <p>1.</p> <p>2. C</p> <p>S</p> <p>3. L</p> <p>I</p> <p>M</p> <p>R</p> <p>P</p>	
<p>5. <u>CONSTRAINTS ON :</u></p> <p><u>SL</u></p> <p><u>Participants</u></p>	
<p>6. <u>OVERALL CLIMATE:</u></p>	
<p>7. <u>OBSERVER'S IMPRESSION:</u></p>	

SL _____ STRUCTURE

TIME _____

Start _____ Finish _____ Total _____

GROUP-No. _____

Composition: _____

DOCUMENT 8

Survey of In-Service Training in Political and Social Education

1. Course Title:	2. Dates:
3. Location:	4. Course Sponsor:
5.1 Who, if anyone, suggested you should apply for this course?	
5.2 Who, if anyone, officially authorised your application?	
6.1 What were your main reasons for wanting (or agreeing) to attend?	

6.2 Who is paying all your fees and expenses? (Please tick one)

Yourself (or other
private source)

Your
employer

Partly funded by
your employer

6.3 If the course sub-divided into group sessions, please state the group(s) which you were in:

7.1 Did you attend all the sessions of this course?

YES (Please go on to
question 8.1)

NO (Please go on to
question 7.2)

7.2 Which sessions did you not attend and why?

--/8.1

Please return the completed questionnaire to:

Institute of Education
20 Bedford Way, London WC1H 0AL

2- QUESTIONS 8 TO 17 SHOULD BE ANSWERED WITH REFERENCE TO POLITICAL
AND SOCIAL EDUCATION OBJECTIVES IN PARTICULAR

8.1 Taken overall, how useful would you say that the course had been to you?
(Please tick one)

Very useful Only useful in parts Not useful at all

8.2 Which parts of the course were the most useful for you?

8.3 Which parts were the least useful for you? (Please include comments about why they were less useful.)

8.4 To what extent did the course come up to your expectations? (Please tick one)

More useful than I expected About as useful as I expected Less useful than I expected

9. Regardless of your own interests and needs, would you say that, in general, the course was appropriate to the needs of the majority of those who attended? (If not, please indicate why)

QUESTIONS 10, 11 & 12

What suggestions would you make for improving this course with particular reference to:
(a) the 'structure', ie the length of the course and the number and sequence of sessions
(b) the 'style', ie the type of sessions provided (eg practical workshops, lectures, discussion groups, etc.)
(c) the 'content', ie the speakers, session leaders and subject matter.
(Please write suggestions in the appropriate spaces below and over the page)

10. Suggestions about length of course and number and sequence of sessions:

11. Suggestions about the type of sessions provided:

12. Suggestions about the subject matter, speakers etc. :

13.1 Since the conclusion of this course, have you continued with any development work which was prompted by any of the course sessions?

YES (Please go on to question 13.2)

NO (Please go on to question 14.1)

13.2 Please provide a brief summary of this development work:

13.3 Has this work been undertaken in collaboration with any other course participants?

YES (Please include their names in the space above)

NO

13.4 Has this work been encouraged or supported by the course sponsors/organisers?

YES

NO

13.5 Has this work been encouraged or supported by your local authority?

YES

NO

14.1 As a direct consequence of your attending this course, have you any definite plans to review your teaching methods, syllabus or/and resources?

YES (Please go on to question 14.2)

NO (Please go on to question 15.1)

14.2 Please provide details of your plans:

15.1 Have you recently attended any courses with similar objectives or subject matter to this one?

YES (Please go on to question 15.2)

NO (Please go on to question 16)

15.2 Please provide as much of the following data as you can recall for each course attended:

Title

Dates

Location

Sponsor

-4- QUESTIONS 16 and 17

The general intention of most in-service courses on Political and Social Education is to cater for the needs of teachers who are beginning to develop courses in this field.

- (a) What do you think the main needs of such teachers are? and
 - (b) What specific kinds of provision should such courses make in order to meet their needs?
- (Please write your views in the appropriate spaces below).

16. Teachers' needs:

17. Desirable course provision:

PERSONAL DETAILS:

Name:	Post:
-------	-------

School/College:

School/College Address:

	Telephone No.
--	---------------

Area(s) of the curriculum with which you are mainly concerned:

Are you, or is your school/college, a member of any of the following associations?:

Association for Liberal Education	<input type="checkbox"/>	Association for the Teaching of the Social Sciences	<input type="checkbox"/>
General Studies Association	<input type="checkbox"/>	Politics Association	<input type="checkbox"/>

Any other related organisations?: _____

About how many in-service courses, of any kind, have you attended in the past 5 years ?:

Thank you for your help. (see front page for return address)

18. Please provide brief comments about each of the course sessions mentioning, in particular, those features which you found more useful and those which were less useful. (See enclosed list of sessions).

Session 1. Groupwork

Session 2. Groupwork

Session 3. 'Teaching the Politics of Everyday Life'

Session 4. 'Developing Political Skills'

Session 5. Groupwork

Session 6. Videos

Session 7. 'Resources for Political Education'

Session 8. Groupwork

19. A particular feature of the course was the opportunity provided for teachers, with approximately similar interests, to work together and exchange ideas. How useful did you find these occasions? (Please give reasons.)
20. Another feature of the course were the handouts, articles and reports provided. (a) how useful, in general, did you find these materials?
- (b) Which handouts, articles or reports would you say were the most useful for you?
21. Have you any other comments about the course not covered by previous questions?

Please return the completed questionnaire to the address given on the front page.

DOCUMENT 9

Political Education Workshop 5 - 6 June, 1981

With regard to the session which you provided

1. To what extent did your session match up to your intentions? (In what respects and for what reasons did it fall short of your intentions?)

2. Did you feel that you were operating under any constraints? If so please specify.

3. To what extent did the interests and background of the participants appear to match the objectives of your session?

4. Do you think enough opportunity was provided for participants
 - (a) to contribute their own ideas; and
 - (b) to apply ideas from the session to their own circumstances?

5. To what extent would you say your session fitted in with the general concerns of the whole course?

6. Were you given enough guidance by the Course Arranger?
7. a) With benefit of hindsight (and in view of any constraints mentioned in 2) what changes would you have made to your session with regard to both the content and the procedure?
- b) ... and without constraints mentioned in 2 ?
8. Are there benefits which you derived from attending the course and giving your session?
9. Other comments ?

Name _____

DOCUMENT 10

1. To whom was the course publicised?
2. Were there any participants who were not included on the publicity mailing? If so, who?
3. Do you think the total number and general backgrounds of participants was 'about right'? If not, why not?
4. What, in general terms, were the intended outcomes of the course?
5. To what extent do you think the course match up to your intentions? (In what respects and for what reasons did it fall short of your intentions?)
6. Do you have any reason to believe that any session leaders or participants were not sufficiently aware of the general intentions of the course? (Please specify)
7. Did you give session leaders or participants any advice about modifying their approach at any stage during the course? (Please specify)
8. Do you think enough opportunity was provided for participants:
 - (a) to contribute their own ideas and
 - (b) to apply ideas from the course to their own circumstances?
9. With the benefit of hindsight, what changes would you have made yourself or suggested to session leaders?

APPENDIX C

THE PROVISION OF INSET COURSES FOR
POLITICAL EDUCATION: Sep 1979 - Jan 1982

<u>Date</u>	<u>Sponsor</u>	<u>Location</u>	<u>Topic</u>	<u>Case-Study</u>
1979 (Apr 20 - 22)	PA + ATSS*	Oxford	Social Science and Political Education	<u>A</u> <u>pilot</u>
Sep 7-9	PA	Leicester	Politics and the Mass Media	<u>B</u>
Oct 20	ATSS Branch	Birmingham	Political Education and Social Studies	
Dec 8	PA Branch + Univ'ty	Manchester	Teaching Politics	<u>C</u>
1980 Jan 21 + 28	ILEA	London	Political Education in Primary Schools	<u>D</u>
Feb 26	PA Branch	Lough'bro	German Politics	
Mar 5	PA Branch	Manchester	Teaching Politics	
Mar 7-8	Reading Univ'ty	Maidenhead	Political education in Secondary Schools	<u>E</u>
Mar 15	ATSS Branch	Birmingham	Teaching Politics	<u>F</u>
Mar 18	DES + Univ'ty	Durham	Political Education	<u>G</u>
Mar 25	PA Branch + Univ'ty	Manchester	British Politics	
Jun 6	Univ'ty	Lancaster	Government & Politics	
Jun 7	Univ'ty	York	Political Education	<u>H</u>
Jun 11	W.Yorks LEA	Leeds	Political Education	

*PA - Politics Association

ATSS - Association for the Teaching of the Social Sciences

Jun 24	Avon LEA	Bristol	Political Education 14-16	
Jul 5-7	Essex Univ'ty	Colchester	Government & Politics	
Jul 8	City Univ'ty	London	Teaching Politics	
Sep 12 - 14	PA + Univ'ty	Manchester	Government & Politics	
Sep 16	Avon LEA	Bristol	Political Education 14-16	
Sep 24	Univ'ty	Liverpool	Government & Politics	
Sep 24 -Oct 3	Teeside Poly	Mids'boro	British Politics	
Oct 8	Dorset LEA	Purbeck	Political education	
Oct 15	Univ'ty	Nottingham	Political Education	
Nov 14 - 15	Reading Univ'ty	Aldershot	Political education in Secondary Schools	<u>I</u>
Nov 19	Univ'ty	Manchester	Teaching Politics	
Dec 15	Warwick Univ'ty	Coventry	Teaching Politics	
1981				
Jan 14 - 18	Warwick Univ'ty	Coventry	Political Education	
Feb 4	Univ'ty	Manchester	Teaching Politics	
Feb 13 - 15	ILEA	London	Political Education in Secondary Schools	
Feb 19	PA Branch	Northampton	European Politics	
Feb 20 - 21	PA + ASGP*	London	Pol.Ed. in Britain and West Germany	
Mar 5 + 12	Poly	Brighton	Teaching Politics	

*ASGP - Association for the Study of German Politics

Mar 11	Univ'ty	Newcastle + Poly	Teaching Politics	
Mar 14	Humber. LEA	Scunthorpe	Political education in Secondary Schools	
Mar 28	ATSS + BFI	Bath	Politics on TV	
Apr 4	Kent Univ'ty	Canterbury	Marxism since Marx	
Apr 10 - 11	Univ'ty	Lough'bro	British Politics	
Apr 25	Univ'ty	Manchester	Teaching Politics	
Jun 5 - 7	Univ'ty	York	Political Education	<u>J</u>
Jun 24	Humber. LEA	Hull	Political Education in Secondary Schools	
Jul 4 - 5	Essex Univ'ty	Colchester	Government & Politics	
Sep 12 - 14	PA	London	Government & Politics	
Sep 30	Univ'ty	Nottingham	Political Education	
Oct 8 - 22	Univ'ty	Manchester	British Politics	
Oct 8 - 22	Univ'ty	Liverpool	British Politics	
Nov 13 - 15	Inst. of Educ'n	Cambridge	Political education in Secondary Schools	<u>K</u>
Nov 21	Kent Univ'ty	Canterbury	Soviet Politics	
Dec 11	Univ'ty	Manchester	Teaching Politics	
1982				
Jan 8	Univ'ty	Manchester	British Politics	
Jan 14 - 28	Univ'ty	Manchester	British Politics	

APPENDIX DDEVELOPMENTS IN THE NATIONAL CO-ORDINATION
AND REGULATION OF INSET SINCE 1981

Since 1981 there have been sweeping changes in government policy towards INSET which have altered the whole framework of the funding arrangements, policy formulation and the provision of INSET whilst leaving the machinery of co-ordination between the providers and their clients (teachers and LEAs) as confused as ever. Since 1982 the government has earmarked proportionately more and more INSET funding for what it has identified as National Priority Areas (ie curriculum subjects or issues of professional concern); the Advisory Committee on the Supply and Education of Teachers (ACSET) was abolished with effect from April 1985; and the main source of funding of award-bearing and other long courses -- the pooling arrangements which had operated since 1959 -- was discontinued from April 1987.

A C S E T

In August 1984 ACSET submitted an impressive report to the Secretary of State for Education which recommended far-reaching changes in the arrangements for the planning and funding of INSET designed to promote a closer match

between the training needs of teachers and the provision available (ACSET, 1984). The main recommendations were for the development of more systematic procedures at school, LEA and area levels for the identification of training needs and the planning of provision, and for the introduction of a substantial grant to LEAs in support of their expenditure on INSET coupled with a doubling of the resources available.

The report began by emphasising the importance of INSET. In discussing the funding of INSET it pointed out that the arrangements were extremely complicated and confusing. For example, no specific element of the Rate Support Grant for education was earmarked for INSET. Also, because the cost of provision by Higher Education institutions was met by various forms of central funding -- by University Grants Committee grant, allocations from the Advanced Further Education Pool or by DES grant depending on the sector -- the institutions could not be sure what specific forms of INSET activities were covered by the funding. These and other complexities meant that it was not possible to know how much money was being devoted to INSET each year. Nevertheless, it was clear that funding arrangements favoured teacher secondment to award-bearing courses rather than other forms of short LEA-based and school-focussed INSET provision. (Although subsequent amendments had widened the scheme, the original pooling arrangements regulations were specifically for 'full-time courses of further training at colleges or centres or other

institutions' (Ministry of Education, 1959).)

ACSET's main recommendations included proposals:

- that teachers should identify their own training needs in relation to the objectives of the school, the LEA and their professional development;
- that there should be a coherent LEA policy for the identification of needs and the training of teachers;
- that there should be precise 'targeting' of provision to teachers and schools who would benefit from particular kinds of provision;
- that greater attention should be given to school-based INSET and that every school should prepare an annual statement of its INSET needs;
- that LEAs should establish Area INSET Advisory Committees. The existing Regional Advisory Councils and existing ad hoc INSET co-ordinating committees were not suitable for regional co-ordination and that a new mechanism should be established to match INSET needs of groups of LEAs, which could not be met by their own provision, with

the INSET provision made by Higher Education institutions. About 20 Area INSET Advisory Committees in England and 1 in Wales comprising representatives from LEAs, institutions of Higher Education and teachers were recommended;

- that national priorities for INSET should continue to be identified (see page 326), preferably through machinery which enabled 'collective consideration', for example representatives from Area INSET Committees together with ACSET itself;
- that a new mechanism for direct funding of INSET was needed which would replace the current pooling arrangements and which should cover 90% of LEA costs; that LEA expenditure should be targeted at about £210m (at 1983/84 prices) or 5% of the teachers' salary budget; and that Higher Education institutions should continue to receive substantial central funding.

The government's initial, guarded reaction to the report was a statement that it would consider its response in the light of comments from interested organisations. Then in January 1985 the Secretary of State announced that he had decided not to reconstitute ACSET after its final meeting in April 1985 but to consider convening a new committee 'in about two years time'. To date no new committee has been

convened.

There are no clear indications of the reasons for the abolition of ACSET. Unlike its predecessors it had provided a useful forum for the discussion of policies concerning the education and supply of teachers and had been a source of particularly perceptive and objective advice to the government. But it has to be remembered that the ultimate responsibility for decisions in this area rests with the Secretary of State and on most matters he would necessarily depend on the advice and expertise, not of ACSET, but of his officials and inspectors. For example, in March 1983 a White Paper on initial teacher training appeared which effectively pre-empted the deliberations ACSET had previously been invited to undertake.

A possible explanation is that, as the Secretary of State actively sought to establish a greater degree of control over the curriculum and, inevitably, over the initial and in-service training of teachers, the independent, non-partisan advice from ACSET became not only an irrelevancy but a potential source of irritation and embarrassment. Certainly a tension and a paradox had developed as DES officials attempted to serve two masters and provide two versions of impartial information, advice and secretarial support on exactly the same issues to both ACSET and the Secretary of State virtually simultaneously.

Grant-Related INSET

A decision was taken in Autumn 1982 to provide direct funding of INSET for certain priority curriculum subjects or areas of professional concern. This represented a significant change from the hitherto relatively non-interventionist policy. The only significant way in which the DES had previously sought to influence the provision of INSET had been by means of regional courses funded and organised in collaboration with Higher Education institutions and Institutes of Education.

The first four National Priority Areas for primary and secondary teachers were identified in March 1983 (DES Circular 3/83) as management and training for heads and senior teachers, maths, special educational needs, and pre-vocational education. Science teaching was added to these areas in April 1984 (DES Circular 4/84) and INSET on pre-vocational education was opened up to FE teachers.

In March 1985 the government published Better Schools which contained proposals upon which the subsequent Educational Reform Bill (1986) was based. The paper observed that extensive in-service training would be needed to equip teachers to respond to the 'increasing demands on teachers' practical teaching skills, their breadth and depth of subject knowledge and their knowledge of and skills in assessment' (DES, 1985a: 53). It claimed that the pooling

arrangements scheme had serious defects in that it favoured long courses rather than 'shorter, less traditional activities which may be more effective for many purposes', and that it reduced 'the incentive to individual LEAs to satisfy themselves that releasing a teacher to attend a particular course is likely to represent good value for money' (DES, 1985a: 53). It also claimed that consultation on the ACSET proposals had shown widespread support for a new funding mechanism and more purposeful planning of INSET. The paper proposed to introduce a new specific grant to support LEA expenditure on INSET replacing the INSET pooling arrangements. The grant would be in two parts to cover National Priority Areas of training as well as locally assessed needs. Responsibility for planning and implementing INSET would continue to rest with LEAs 'but within a framework which would lead to more effective planning and management of training.' (DES, 1985a: 54).

Close on the heels of the publication of Better Schools the government announced that, pending the new specific grant for INSET, the Manpower Services Commission had been invited to administer a scheme of training related to the objectives of the Technical and Vocational Education Initiative (TVEI Related In-Service Training -- TRIST). A total of £25m was made available for England, Wales and Scotland over two years.

The National Priority Areas were extended in June 1985

(DES Circular 3/85) to cover :

- Craft Design and Technology,
- Technical, commercial and professional subjects, and awareness of technological change (for FE teachers), and
- GCSE (for secondary and FE teachers);

and again in January 1986 (DES Circular 1/86) to cover:

- The curriculum in a multicultural society,
- Computing and micro-electronics, and
- Organisation and management (for FE teachers).

In a Position Paper distributed for comment in mid-September 1985 (DES, 1985b), the government proposed to legislate to extend the Secretary of State's powers to grant-aid INSET in line with the intentions announced in Better Schools, to abolish the INSET pooling arrangements, to reduce the level of funding below that allocated through the pool, and to 'strengthen regional coordination of INSET'. These arrangements were expected to take effect from April 1987 and comments on the Position Paper were invited by the end of October 1985.

The DES Circular on the new Training Grants scheme published at the end of August 1986 (DES Circular 6/86) was not notably different from the Position Paper. It announced that LEA pooling arrangements and specific grant schemes were to be replaced by April 1987. The revised

list of National Priority Areas for primary and secondary (and, in some cases, FE) teachers was to be:

- Management (including FE teachers),
- Maths,
- Special Needs (including FE teachers),
- Industry, commerce and the world of work (including FE teachers),
- Science teaching,
- Craft, Design and Technology,
- The curriculum in a multicultural society,
- Micro-electronics (including FE teachers),
- Religious education,
- GCSE (secondary and FE teachers),
- Misuse of drugs (including FE teachers),
- Technical competence (FE teachers only), and
- Advanced FE in Polytechnics and other institutions (FE teachers only).

Local Education Authorities were invited to submit proposals for grants to fund INSET courses concerned with these National Priority Areas (for which 70% grant support would be available) and for courses concerned with locally assessed needs (for which 50% grant support would be available). The total grant was to be £200m in 1987/88 of which £70m was earmarked for courses concerned with the National Priority Areas. On the co-ordination and planning of INSET the Circular merely proposed that LEAs should collaborate with teachers, schools, colleges and the

Regional Advisory Councils.

It is too early to do more than speculate about the motives behind these proposals and their likely consequences. The Secretary of State's desire to exercise a greater degree of control over the provision of education has been apparent for some time and there is no doubt that the Grant Related INSET Scheme (GRIST) is an instrument of that policy. (For a useful discussion of these developments see Harland, 1987.)

There is also the significance of the government's attempts to contain the growth of public sector expenditure. It has been estimated that the INSET pool expenditure alone grew from about £30m in 1981/82 to over £61m in 1986/87 and that it was likely to continue growing at an accelerating rate (Graham, 1986).

A major problem for LEAs will be categorising their INSET priorities. In the context of falling rolls and other urgent restructuring problems the scale of LEA INSET requirements would be expected to drop and to change as they apply criteria of relevance and value for money. So one can foresee an increase of INSET to service 'system needs' (ie immediate school, LEA and DES demands) at the expense of costly award-bearing courses (which previously had not been a major expense to LEAs as fees and replacement costs were paid for by the pooling arrangements) which are usually more

relevant to teachers' personal and career development than to system needs. (Dorset estimated that to continue with the same level of teacher secondments to award-bearing courses, 26% of all INSET money would be absorbed for the benefit of only 1.5% of their teachers.)

It is probable that only INSET which an LEA considers it cannot provide itself will be sought from institutions of Higher Education and the future contribution to INSET from Higher Education is unlikely to resemble that in the past. In particular the future of long award-bearing courses is very uncertain and these forms of INSET, which have been regarded as valuable to the professional development of teachers, is most at risk.

Perhaps the most significant aspect of Circular 6/86 was the conspicuously vague reference to the co-ordination and planning of INSET at the national and regional levels. Responsibility for deciding what kind of INSET is required by the teaching force (within the constraints imposed by the DES) was vested with each LEA, but still no machinery was proposed for co-ordinating the provision of INSET by institutions of Higher Education and other agencies with the particular needs identified by LEAs.

One might conclude that the DES has been careful not to create the basis for regional structures (in which the universities might have a strong voice) which could begin to

formulate their own policies on priorities which might run counter to the policies of central government. If this observation is correct we should also expect to see in the not too distant future the glimmer of government machinery to ensure that the provision of INSET from Higher Education corresponds closely to centrally constrained LEA 'needs'.

December 1987

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