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# EDUCATION

The Journal of the Faculty of Education

The University of Malta



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*Education* is published twice yearly as the journal of the Faculty of Education at the University of Malta.

The editorial board welcomes articles that contribute to a broad understanding of educational issues particularly those related to Malta.

Submitted articles are referred at least once; the editors reserve the right to make editorial changes in all manuscripts to improve clarity and to conform to the style of the journal.

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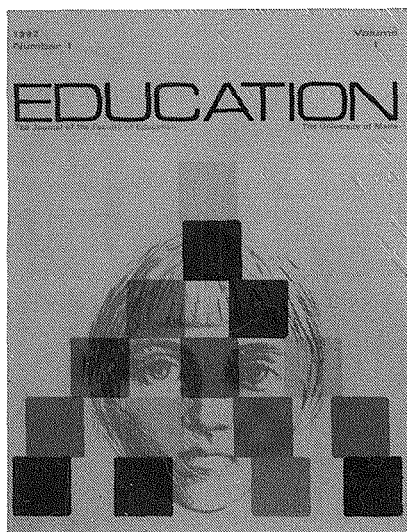
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# EDITORIAL

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The launching of a new journal is a most complex undertaking which entails decision-taking on a variety of multiple and inter-related issues: academic, organizational, financial, technical. Without doubt the critical issue in the launching of *EDUCATION* has been its justification. How valid is the decision by the Faculty of Education to publish yet another journal in a field already replete with publications dealing with every subject, every facet in the educational realm? What special features will this journal offer that other existing publications do not?

*EDUCATION* aims to fulfill two needs both necessary enough to warrant its existence.

*EDUCATION* aims to provide a forum wherein local and foreign educators are able to write about topics in education which will be of great interest and relevance to the local context but may not contain the international bearing to appeal to foreign publications. At the same time the content of the journal will be of too specialised a nature for inclusion in the local popular press. *EDUCATION* aims, therefore, to fill the void that exists in Malta, that is to provide a professional journal for teachers.

Equally important, the Faculty looks on *EDUCATION* as an essential link with schools. It is also hoped that this journal will serve as a further link between the schools themselves. Teachers can in fact use the journal to keep their colleagues aware of new techniques and experimental approaches undertaken both at the University and the schools. Furthermore, the journal can serve as a significant source of information to parents who wish to acquire insights into the educational and pedagogical issues influencing their children's education.

The content and format of this issue of *EDUCATION* reflects the journal's two objectives. The articles by Frank Ventura and Denis Cuschieri on "Sex Differences in Science Achievement at G.C.E. 'O' Level" and "English and the Science Subjects", respectively, are approached from angles that reflect their local flavour. Those by Kenneth Wain on "The Normative Foundations of lifelong Education", and by Peter Vassallo on "The Value of Discussion in the Teaching of English as a Foreign Language" deal with topics which are of a general educational nature. The abstracts from works by Carmen Dalli and Michael Fenech illustrate examples of local research undertaken by the Faculty and should generate interest and further studies among practising teachers and educational researchers. The Reviews, "Issues and Events", "Stimulus and Response", Book Reviews and "At a Glance", together with an envisaged Correspondence will be regular features which will provide the informational and communication content of the journal.

Obviously, it is far too early to refer to an *EDUCATION* 'image', however, the Faculty looks forward to the emergence of the journal as a major medium of communication among members of the teaching community who have the advancement of local education at heart. The Faculty of Education invites the teaching profession in Malta to help *EDUCATION* develop this identity.

# The Bachelor of Education Course

Charles J. Farrugia

## Commitment to Teach

The Greek Philosopher Isocrates (300 B.C.) identified the characteristics of a good teacher as one who is capable of influencing students through a demonstration of his knowledge, teaching skills and ethical conduct. Four hundred years later the Roman orator Quintilian reiterated the desirability of these qualities by his insistence that teachers should possess moral excellence, complete mastery over content, the skill to teach at a level appropriate to the learner's abilities, and the enthu-

siasm to motivate students by making learning interesting and attractive. These qualities, held as fundamental in the teaching profession, are built in the B. Ed. programme and generalized under two major objectives, namely to develop in course participants the commitment and the competency to teach in the most effective manner.

A commitment to the teaching profession is evinced by one's efforts to understand oneself and one's role as an educator; a commitment towards the well-being of one's pupils, towards the furthering of one's own knowledge and that of the pupils; and equally, a commitment to the ethics and values of the profession. The teacher education programme attempts to instil this commitment through an understanding and appreciation of the values and functions of education.

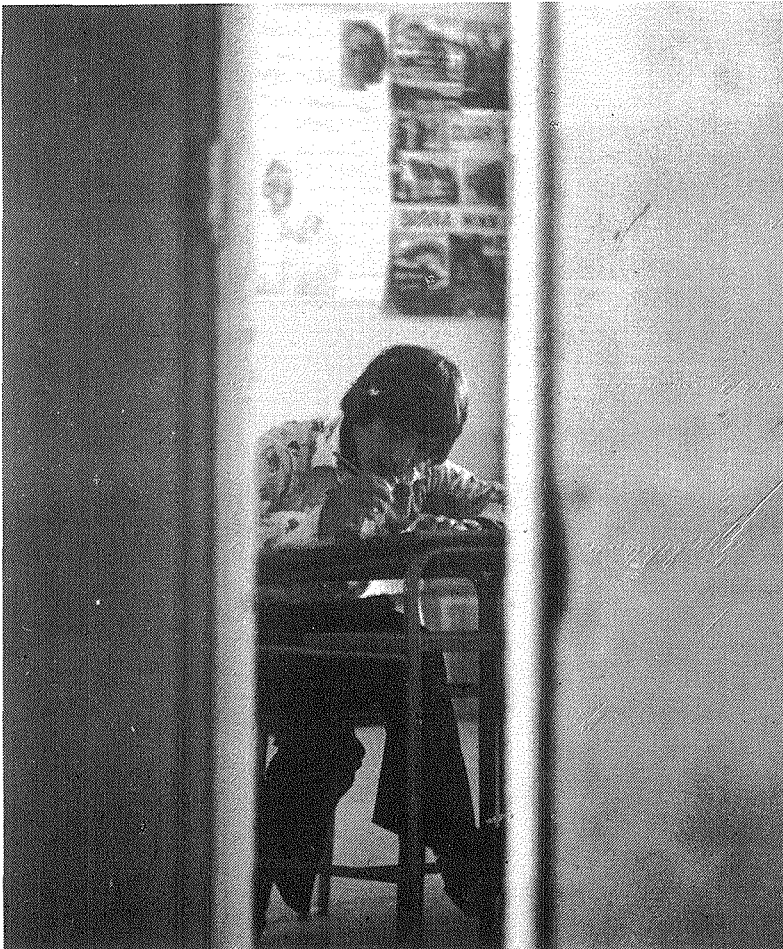
Students come to the course after some thirteen years of schooling where their concepts of education may become confused and garbled. The Faculty attempts to follow John Dewey's advice and encourage students to:

'... through reflective thought, transform a situation in which there is experienced obscurity, doubt, conflict, disturbances of some sort; into a situation that is clear, coherent, settled and harmonious'

or, in R.S. Peters's words to initiate students by 'getting them to see, understand, appreciate the inside of things, in this case things educational. Such initiation includes an awareness and an ability by students to organize their own learning and teaching processes so that they are able to adapt themselves to various teaching strategies not only in the early immediacy of their leaving university, but as far as they could possibly do so throughout their career'.

Commitment by itself is not enough, competency is complementary to commitment in any profession: in teaching no less than any other. Anybody remotely associated with education is

*(continued on bottom of p. 14)*



# Sex Differences in Science Achievement at G.C.E. 'O' Level

Frank Ventura

It is usually taken for granted that boys are better than girls in science subjects. A recent study that shows science achievement of males and females separately indicates that this assumption has an empirical basis. Thus the I.E.A. (International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement) study of science education<sup>1</sup> in nineteen countries shows that boys consistently achieve significantly higher than girls in the physical science items at each of the three age levels sampled in every country, and the differences widen with increasing age.<sup>2</sup> On the other hand Jan Harding, quoting percentage passes of boys and girls in the three Nuffield 'O' Level sciences and one other 'O' Level examination in each of Biology, Chemistry and Physics that represented a more conventional course in 1974, comes to a different conclusion. She finds no significant *overall* differences in any of the six examinations. However she notes significant sex differences, generally in favour of boys, particularly in mixed and single-sex comprehensive schools.<sup>3</sup> A Maltese report mentioning sex differences in attainment on the national examinations held in Government Secondary schools in June-July 1975 shows that in seven subjects (English, Maltese, Mathematics, General Science, Italian, History of Malta and Geography) at Form I and Form II level, the performance of girls is consistently higher than that of boys. In General Science, in particular, the superiority of girls' attainment is such that in Form I, the *average* girl's score is only four points lower than that of a boy at the *75th percentile*, while in Form II, the *average* girl's score is equal to that of a boy at the *75th percentile*.<sup>4</sup> These latter results are quite reliable as they are based on a sample of 1682 pupils in Form I and 1127 pupils in Form II. However the authors of the report note that more boys than girls are creamed off to private schools and that the girls' greater verbal ability may have given them added advantage over their male counterparts in the General Science examination.

In view of these divergences and of the educational implications of any sex differences in science education, it was decided to investigate the achieve-

ment in science of a selected sample of Maltese students at school leaving age. For this purpose, G.C.E. 'O' level results were chosen because of the relatively objective way of setting the papers and of correcting and moderating student scripts. Only results of students sitting for at least five 'O' levels in Biology, Chemistry, Physics, Mathematics and English Language in the same session of the London University G.C.E. 'O' Level Board were considered. This selection was adopted to obtain as homogeneous a sample of students as possible. No distinction was made between candidates from state or private schools or private entries. In order to obtain a reasonable sample size, the results of each session from June 1975 to June 1978 were checked and the following were found suitable.

June 1975 14 results    January 1978 6 results  
 June 1976 14 results    June 1978 50 results  
 June 1977 33 results

During the January sessions of 1975, 1976 and 1977 there were no candidates sitting for the five subjects under consideration at the same time. The total of 117 results (80 male and 37 female) were then analysed for any sex differences.<sup>5</sup>

## RESULTS

### Male (M) and Female (F) G.C.E. 'O' Level results

Grades	Biology		Chemistry		Physics	
	M	F	M	F	M	F
A	4	2	7	1	5	0
Pass B	13	7	14	6	16	4
C	16	8	15	11	16	4
D	4	7	7	3	6	8
Fail E	15	5	7	3	14	6
U	28	8	30	13	23	15
Totals	80	37	80	37	80	37

From June 1975 only Grades A, B and C are considered as Pass.

If one considers percentage passes, the

following results are obtained:

	Biol.	Chem.	Physics	Maths.	English Language
Male	41	45	46	65	39
Female	46	49	22	65	57

## DISCUSSION

From these results, the following points emerge quite clearly.

1. In Chemistry and Biology the girls' achievement is equal to that of boys. In fact a chi squared test on the number of passes and failures of boys and girls in these two subjects shows no significant difference between them. However one should note that in this sample, boys obtained better pass grades than girls in Chemistry.
2. In Physics, boys fare much better than girls. In fact one can say that the girl's achievement here is rather poor. A chi squared test on the number



of passes and failures of boys and girls now shows a significant difference ( $0.02 > p > 0.01$ ). In general one can say that while the girls' achievement is equal to, if not better than that of boys in Biology, Chemistry, Maths and English Language, one cannot help noting that their achievement in Physics falls below expectations.

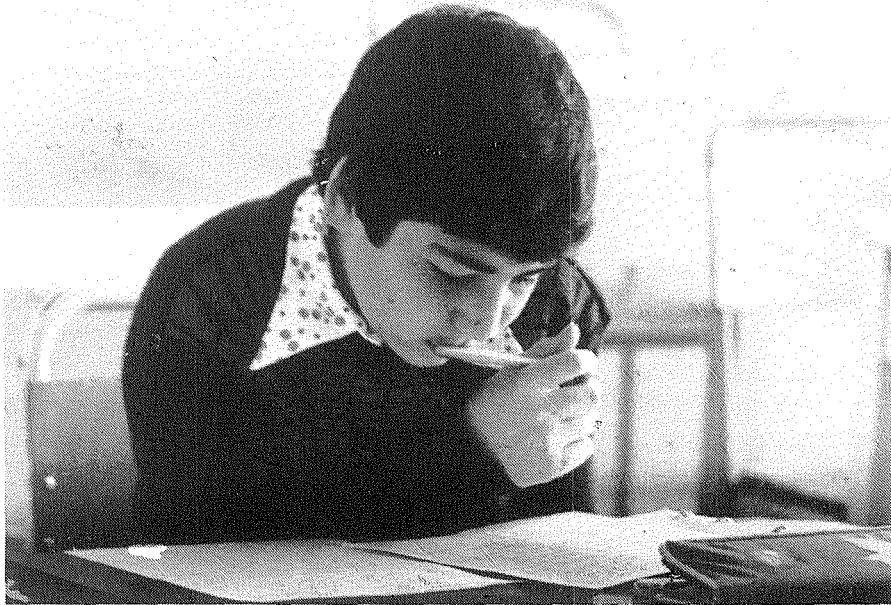
The reasons for this inequality in Physics are difficult to point out but one must certainly exclude differences because of textbooks, laboratories and teachers, at least as far as state schools are concerned, since there is no reason to believe that girls are at a disadvantage in these areas. One must also reject the belief that girls are not science-minded since their results in Biology and Chemistry prove otherwise. In this respect, any misconception about the scientific worth of Biology and Chemistry should be dispelled because, even at 'O' Level, these subjects require an amount of scientific reasoning skills comparable to that required by Physics.

Plausible explanations for the difference in Physics results which have empirical support<sup>6</sup> are that girls exhibit a generally negative attitude towards the subject and that their own expectations and those of their teachers are particularly low. If these explanations for girls' underachievement in Physics are accepted, corrective measures should be taken to develop more positive attitudes towards the subject and to raise expectations. Ensuring better results for girls is certainly important because of the implications for their tertiary education prospects.

- 
1. Comber L.C. and Keeves J.P., *Science Education in Nineteen Countries*, Almqvist and Wicksell/Wiley, 1973.
  2. Whitfield R.C., 'Educational Research and science teaching' in *School Science Review* 60, 212, 411-430, 1979.
  3. Harding, Jan, 'Sex differences in Science Examinations' in *The Missing Half: Girls and Science Education*, Manchester University Press, 1981.
  4. Falzon J.M. and Sammut A., *A report on the national examinations held in Government Secondary Schools (Forms I to V) in June-July 1975*, Education Department, Malta, 1976.
  5. These results were collected by D. Mizzi in connection with her long assignment on correlations between science subjects, Mathematics and English presented in part fulfilment of the PGCE course, 1979.
  6. Kelly A., 'Sex differences in science achievement: some results and hypotheses' in *The Missing Half: Girls and Science Education*, Manchester University Press, 1981.

# English and the Science Subjects

Denis Cuschieri



In his paper, 'Sex Differences in Science Achievement at G.C.E. O Level', Mr Ventura refers to an analysis by Falzon and Sammut<sup>1</sup> of the results of national examinations held in Government Secondary Schools in June-July 1975. Much against expectation, they found that girls scored significantly higher than boys even in a subject like General Science. In trying to account for this result, Falzon and Sammut hazarded that one of the reasons for the girls' superiority was their better grasp of English.<sup>2</sup> Such a conclusion would give English a determining role in a candidate's success, or failure for that matter, in subjects where the language is the medium of instruction - of reading and writing and, often, of teacher's explanation.

If we now analyse some of the results obtained by D. Mizzi in her investigation of 1979,<sup>3</sup> we shall find further confirmation of the conclusions reached by Falzon and Sammut. (For details concerning D. Mizzi's investigation the reader is referred to Mr

Ventura's paper in this issue.)

TABLE 1

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### CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS

English - Physics = 0.45

English - Chemistry = 0.42

English - Biology = 0.56

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N. 80 Boys      379 Girls

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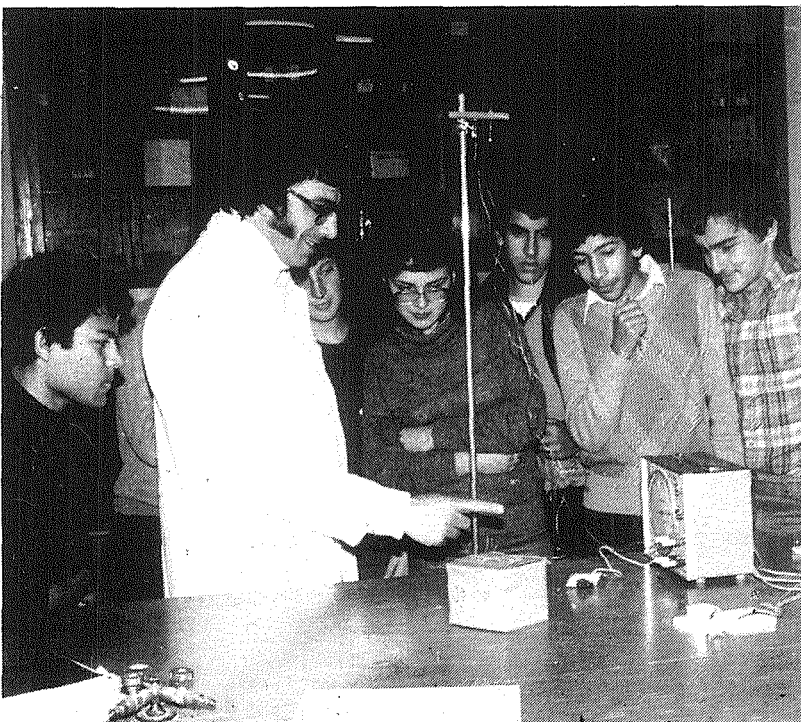
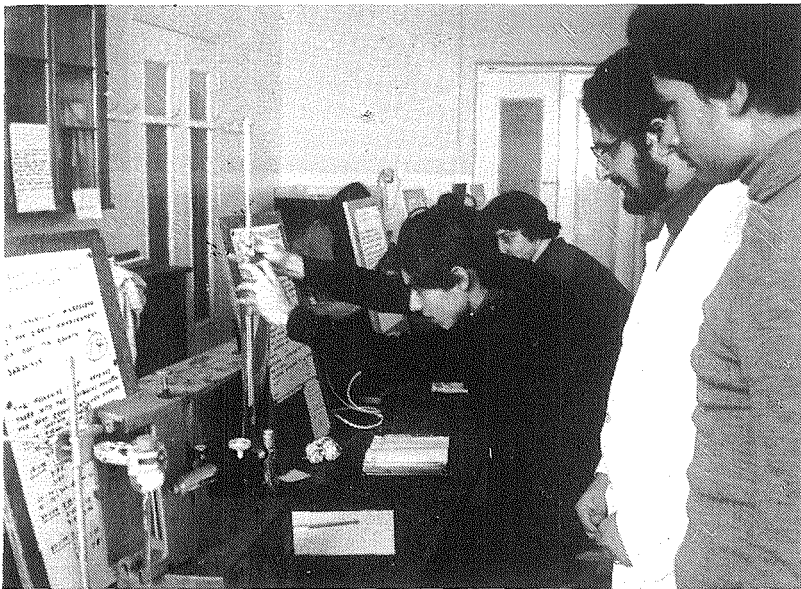
This table shows the correlation coefficients obtaining between English and the three Science subjects, Physics, Chemistry and Biology when the G.C.E. 'O' level results of her sample are compared. These coefficients are all significant at the one percent level using a one-tail test of significance, which means that there is more than a

chance correlation between English and each of the other subjects. However, such evidence cannot be taken at this point to lead to the conclusion that a good level of English contributes to success in Physics, Chemistry and Biology. We can only say that a candidate who does well in English will probably also do well in these subjects but we cannot assume that there is a cause and effect relationship here. On the other hand, if we accept the commonly held belief that boys do better than girls in Science subjects, then how are we going to account for the fact that D. Mizzi found that in her sample girls did just as well as boys, if not better, in

Biology and Chemistry, falling back only in Physics? What enabled the girls to do so well? Or turning the question round: What held back the boys?

It will be recalled (vide Ventura's paper) that boys had a significantly lower pass rate than girls in English language (39% as against 57% for girls). Could the answer to the question asked in the previous paragraph lie in this simple statistic? The argument would then go something like this: Since girls are better than boys in English they possess a tool which enables them to compete on equal terms with boys in those subjects which have traditionally been considered to be the preserve of the male sex. The correlation observed between English and the Science subjects would turn out to be not just a reflection of general intelligence or of personality factors but one of dependence, where success in Biology, Chemistry and also Physics depends on the level of a candidate's knowledge of English. This interpretation would be an echo of Falzon and Sammut's tentative conclusion with the difference that whereas they were referring to Form 1 and Form 2 results, in this case we are talking about G.C.E. 'O' level results. It appears, therefore, that English remains a deciding factor in achievement in the Science subjects throughout the secondary school years. What we should go on to investigate now is whether it is the receptive or the productive language skills that enable girls to do as well as boys. In other words does the girls' superior knowledge of English help them to understand scientific explanations more readily than boys or does it simply help them to express themselves better?

We are not at present equipped with the necessary empirical evidence to answer such a question but the two investigations referred to in this paper have produced enough evidence to show that there is a causal relationship between an acceptable level of English and achievement in science subjects. The implications of this for the teacher of English as well as for the teacher of science will be examined in a future paper.



1. Falzon, J.M. and Sammut, A. (1976) Secondary Schools Annual Examinations 1975. Education Department, Malta.
2. *Ibid. op. cit.* p. 5.
3. D. Mizzi (1979) Correlation between Physics, Chemistry, Biology, Mathematics and English Language. A dissertation in the Faculty of Education presented in part fulfilment of the requirements for the Post-Graduate Certificate of Education. New University, Malta.



# The Normative Foundations of Lifelong Education

Kenneth Wain

'Lifelong Education' is a term which is bandied about nowadays with equanimity and fashionable ease wherever educationalists of whatever kind get together for brainstorming sessions about educational problems or to discuss policy or strategies. But, more often than not, the ways in which it is used demonstrate radical limitations and even misconceptions in the minds of many of its users, who tend to misemploy it. Either it becomes for them a handy slogan, or else they use it in a manner which demonstrates its equivalence in their minds with certain limited areas of educational policy; usually adult educational or vocational retraining programmes. These equivalences are, however, both misleading and oversimplified; adult educational and vocational retraining programmes are only partial strategic elements within an all embracing policy blueprint for education. Underpinning this blueprint is a complex educational philosophy with a central humanistic core. At the same time, lifelong education concurrently presents itself as a pragmatic educational response to several observed problems and aspirations of a mankind living in a unique historical situation. The set of issues that represent the humanistic core of lifelong education all gyrate around a particular concept of 'universal' or 'generic' man, those representing the pragmatic justifications of lifelong education are concerned with 'concrete' man. It is with these issues and justifications that this paper is concerned.

Paul Lengrand, in his seminal book *An Introduction to Lifelong Education*, declares:

"The true subject of education is man in all his aspects, in the diversity of his situations and in the breadth of his responsibilities, in short, man as he really is."<sup>1</sup>

The same observation in a more extended and elaborated form is found in the Faure Commission report entitled *Learning to Be*, which has the status of a source book with educationalists working

within the perspectives of lifelong education:<sup>2</sup>

"Man, considered as the subject of education is, in a large measure, the universal man – the same at all times and in every place. However, the particular individual who becomes the object of a particular educational process is an eminently concrete being able to reconcile dialectically the two aspects of human nature in the course of his limited existence in time and place. . . . Every learner has his own history which cannot be confused with any other. His personality is determined, more and more so with age, by a complex of biological, psychological, geographical, sociological, economic, cultural and professional data which are different for each individual."<sup>3</sup>

From the point of view of the philosophy of lifelong education the fundamental task of education, as stated in the latter quote from the Faure report above, is to 'reconcile dialectically' the two aspects of human nature referred to, the 'concrete' and the 'universal'. It is well therefore to say something further about these two aspects and how they are elaborated in the same report. We can begin by re-quoting the observation that 'concrete man' is 'the particular individual who becomes the object of a particular educational process'. In other words he is the inhabitant of a determinate geographical space and of a particular span in time, the possessor of a distinct and distinctive on-growing stream of experiences and attitudes, the participant in a particular cultural milieu, the inheritor of an eventful and potentially meaningful past, the potential aspirant for and initiator of a challenging and purposeful future. About this picture of the 'concrete man' there should be no controversy, because the picture is a descriptive one. The concept of a 'universal man' lying inherent within each concrete individual is more difficult, and I propose to elaborate it by reference to two further quotes from the Faure report, wherein is indicated also how the dialectical nexus referred to

**Education is to 'reconcile dialectically' concrete and universal man.**



between the two component perspectives on man can be obtained. The first says:

“Individuals must be able to use the power inherent in consciousness through the agency of historical and group consciousness, through research, through preserving their authentic identity and, finally, through each individual’s feeling that he fully belongs to the entire species. In this way, the twin poles of the singular, which is irreducible, and the universal, comprising diversity within identity, will achieve expression. This age, which has been called that of the finite world, can only be the age of total man; that is to say, man entire and all of man.”<sup>4</sup>

What is universal, then, about the individual according to this point of view, is partly what he has inherited from history and from his community. At this level it can be explained historically and sociologically; what is universal is not the possession by man of some inherent potential ideal which seeks actualization and which is subject to metaphysical explanations, it consists in what he shares in historical and cultural inheritance both with the other members of his species and with the other members of his more localized community. But there are other levels of universal identity suggested in the report. In another place the report further emphasizes the fact of humanity’s universal biological need to be constantly over-reaching itself; this is true both of the general human species itself and of individuals within it. The report refers to man’s ‘permanent incompleteness’, his need to learn unceasingly in order to survive and evolve, his possession, at the same time, of ‘potentialities which may miscarry’ (which is why he needs education).<sup>5</sup> This biological argument is taken as a basic one for lifelong education. Finally there is also a certain universality at the psychological level:

“If there are permanent traits in the human psyche, perhaps the most prominent are man’s rejection of agonizing contradictions, his intolerance of excessive tensions, the individual’s striving for intellectual consistency, his search for happiness identified not with the mechanical satisfaction of appetite but with the concrete realization of potentialities, and with the idea of himself as one reconciled to his fate – *that of the complete man.*”<sup>6</sup>

In sum, this composite picture of man which is presented by the Faure report, indicates two levels of educational needs within him that, it can be argued, point inexorably towards an educational policy of lifelong education. Universal man, or rather the universal or generic component in man, with his permanent biological need to be constantly over-reaching himself, with a historical and cultural background with which he constantly needs to come to terms, and which at the same time,

properly assimilated and approached, offers him inexhaustible possibilities for creativity and development, with a psychological constitution which drives him consistently in the direction of aspirations that have to do with his own self-realization and identity and away from ‘agonizing contradiction’ and ‘excessive tensions’, must come to terms with concrete man, who, as we have said, is very much a creature of his times, and whose needs derive from the actualities of his current situation. This is the tension that education needs to resolve, the synthesis it needs to achieve, and it can do it, it is argued, only if it is an education ‘for life’ (in the temporal sense of the expression) and one that is intimately interrelated with life at all its levels. This picture of total man is already an elaborate one, but it needs to be rounded off if it is to be seen for what it is; an attempt to justify lifelong education.

What still needs to be rounded off, I feel, is an even further elaboration of our picture of concrete man. We need to fill him out with flesh. Concrete man, we have said, is man living in a particular determinate historical and temporal context. For us he is industrial and post-industrial man; man living out our current civilization. It is this type of person we should have in mind when we design our educational strategies, this type of person specifically. It is currently within the context of an industrial and post-industrial existence that one needs to search for a synthesis with the universal aspirations of man, which, we have said, are marked by his strivings towards self-realization. It is the potential sources of his alienation within his own existential context, those factors that can create the ‘agonizing contradictions’ and ‘excessive tensions’ referred to, as well as the potential sources of his advancement towards that target of self-realization, that have to be kept constantly in mind when we define our educational priorities.

The Faure report says that

nothing, to the present day, is comparable to the scientific-technological revolution in its consequences for men’s lives and more particularly men’s minds. The technological revolution it says, has simultaneously conquered the physical and the mental world with its immediate transmission of information over any distance, and its invention of increasingly perfected, rationalised, calculating machines.<sup>7</sup>

It draws attention in this way to the positive potentialities of the scientific-technological revolution which characterises the industrial, post-industrial context, for modern men’s lives and for the quality of their civilization. But there is another side to the same coin. This same scientific-technological revolution has created problems for these same men unknown to their ancestors in any previous age. Most fundamentally contemporary man is

**Universal man’s need to overreach himself.**

required to overcome what has variously been described as the most pervasive and intense existential and metaphysical problem of our times; the problem of rapid 'change' at all the different levels of his life, the physical, cultural, occupational or vocational, ideological, and so on. Enough has been written about this phenomenon elsewhere, and only passing reference to some of the more relevant problems it generates need be made here. Thus we know that the scientific-technological revolution has created an environment that is potentially and often actually, as incomprehensible and mystifying to modern man as nature is to the savage. It has created a situation wherein our knowledge and skills become swiftly dated or even obsolescent, with radical consequences for the character of jobs, vocations, professions and naturally, for the individuals who occupy them. It has created levels of abstraction and fragmentation, crises in ideologies and cultural beliefs that have reached to the deepest levels of man's faith and knowledge and that threaten his very understanding of his life and his sense of identity.

To return to our question: How can education help achieve the successful synthesis between the twin aspects of personhood described, given the problems and aspirations just outlined? The response of lifelong education is the *autonomous*, or *self-directed* learner. Given the aspirations of universal man towards self-realization taken together with the problems of concrete man to achieve it in a world dominated by the phenomenon of change, the fundamental aim of education, it is asserted, must be to create persons who have the motivation backed by the skills and opportunities to take charge of their own learning and to pursue it throughout their lives; an educational philosophy which is partial and static is disastrous for modern man.

The implications of this position can be radical indeed, both from an educational and from a socio-cultural and political viewpoint. Let us begin with the conditions of motivation and skills. The philosophy of lifelong education asserts that the task of the school, the traditional place where education takes place, can no longer be to produce the 'educated person', the educationally *finished* product, the person who, having completed his schooling can then get on with the business of 'life' falling back constantly and confidently on the stock of knowledge and skills acquired then, for this cannot be a coherent ambition in our day and age. It must be, on the contrary, to produce the 'educable person'; the person who can, and more important wants, because he sees its relevance, to get on with his education beyond the period of his schooling. The school must set its tasks within this perspective and must therefore see its role differently as a

preparation for education. This is because in the modern context a vast amount of a person's learning, in adulthood in particular, will have to take place through informal and non-formal channels, and will therefore require skills of a particular sort; skills which will themselves be evidence of the learner's autonomy. Moreover the motivation to learn in adulthood is vital and needs to be inculcated in the school, because it may be the very condition for the person's very survival in that same context.

As far as the opportunities for learning are concerned the philosophy of lifelong education takes up a very precise position. Suchodolski states,

"In philosophical terms, one might say that the indispensable condition for the realization of the programme of lifelong education is to overcome alienation. Lifelong education can only become a reality in surroundings that are neither hostile nor indifferent."<sup>8</sup>

In the Faure report and elsewhere it is frequently emphasized that the programme of lifelong education is only properly feasible in a 'learning society'; the 'learning society' ought to be the crowning goal of the future both from an educational and from a socio-cultural and political point of view. As Suchodolski points out, the first condition for the realization of such a society is that the problem of alienation be overcome, and this can happen only if the political basis of the 'learning society' is 'democratic'. The Faure report argues strongly that "strong support must be given to democracy as the only system compatible with progress and individual dignity."<sup>9</sup> But the same report continues to say that "the concept of democracy itself must be developed for it can no longer be limited to a minimum of juridical guarantees." Even earlier on in the report we read:

"What is known as formal democracy - which it would be wrong to deride, for it marked great progress - has become obsolete. The delegation of authority for a fixed period had and still has the advantage of protecting the citizen from the arbitrary exercise of power and of providing him with the minimum of juridical guarantees. But it is not capable of providing him with an adequate share of the benefits of expansion or with the possibility of influencing his own fate in a world of flux and change; nor does it allow him to develop his potential to the best advantage"<sup>10</sup>

The 'learning society' then, which is at the service of the autonomous individual learner, will enable men to realize both their concrete needs and the universal potentialities of their nature only if it is free from alienation and democratic. It will therefore need to be structured in a manner which is egalitarian in a meaningful way, in terms of equal

access to educational resources, and which will allow man to 'influence his own fate in a world of flux and change', in order to 'develop his potential as a person'; in other words it will be structured so as to educate him for autonomy. It must in addition overcome the challenge of technology at both the cultural and the political level by mobilizing itself educationally and by creating for itself a culture which writers define as one of 'scientific-humanism'.

Thus, organizationally, the 'learning society' will be underpinned by two important concepts of policy; those of *vertical* and *horizontal* integration, both aimed to achieve the most coherent mobilization of the learning resources of society within the all-embracing perspective of an education for life. In the first sense, a vertical integration of educational resources concerns the learning strategy for individuals within the perspective of lifelong education, and it means the organization of a person's learning life in such a way that it will proceed by stages throughout his lifespan but in such a way that at the same time the stages will cohere with each other to form a totality of experiences and a totality of vision. From this point of view society must organise itself in such a way as will provide the necessary provisions, and this leads us on to the other concept, that of 'horizontal integration'. The concept of 'horizontal integration' focuses not on the individual but on society; the integration it refers to rather than being that of the different stages in the individual person's learning life, is that of the different learning resources available to a society. According to the principle of 'horizontal integration', the 'learning society' must organize itself educationally in a manner that exploits or maximizes all the learning resources available to it. This means that it must look beyond the school and into the general community. This means, again, that rather than remaining the school's monopoly education in a 'learning society' becomes the joint responsibility of all those institutions with which individuals come into contact throughout their lives; their place of work, their trade union, their social club, political party etc. These need to be meaningfully integrated in a joint strategy in which the whole community participates, according to the principle of 'horizontal integration', so that the educational resources of the 'learning society' be they what they are, may be disposed in the best possible manner to service the individual's needs as an autonomous lifelong learner.

On the other hand the culture of the 'learning society', as has already been said, will be one of 'scientific-humanism'. Such a culture will be *humanistic* in the sense that it is concerned mainly with man and his welfare as an end in itself, and it will be *scientific* in that it recognizes that this welfare must be defined by the continuing new contributions of science to the field of man's own know-

ledge about himself and the world. In a society moved by such a culture it is evident that a major curricular aim becomes that of furnishing all its members with a solid scientific background. This will be necessary to overcome the threat of alienation and to guarantee individual freedom, for a democratic learning society with a scientific and technological base would have to guard itself against the danger of a technocratic elite taking over the reins of power on the basis of its own authority and enterprise, and that of the total mystification of the masses.

We have spoken briefly about the autonomous learner and the kind of society he requires to function as such and to fulfil his universal aspirations and satisfy his concrete needs as a person living in a determinate temporal and cultural context. Finally the Faure report also makes reference in its individualistic approach, to the additional and limiting condition that should accompany autonomy; I am referring to *responsibility*. Lengrand says:

"... for the right to be man is complemented by the duty to be man, and this means an acceptance of responsibility: the obligation to be oneself; to be responsible for one's thoughts, judgements and emotions; to be responsible for what one accepts and what one refuses."<sup>11</sup>

Lengrand calls this responsibility 'fearful'; even more so since it is a condition which man will inevitably face in our times, since freedom is forced upon man by his very need in coping with constant change, to make choices of all kinds, some even ethical.

In conclusion, then, the philosophy of lifelong education is centred upon a certain view of human personality (the one described in this paper), and a conviction that education is all about fulfilling the normative aspects of this view. In doing so it further projects proposals about the sort of society which would be supportive of its view with the ensuing educational implications. It is evident that the aim of this paper has been to bring the issues together and press them to the foreground, where they are in a better position to be realized and studied at greater depth.

## The 'learning society'.

## Scientific-humanism.

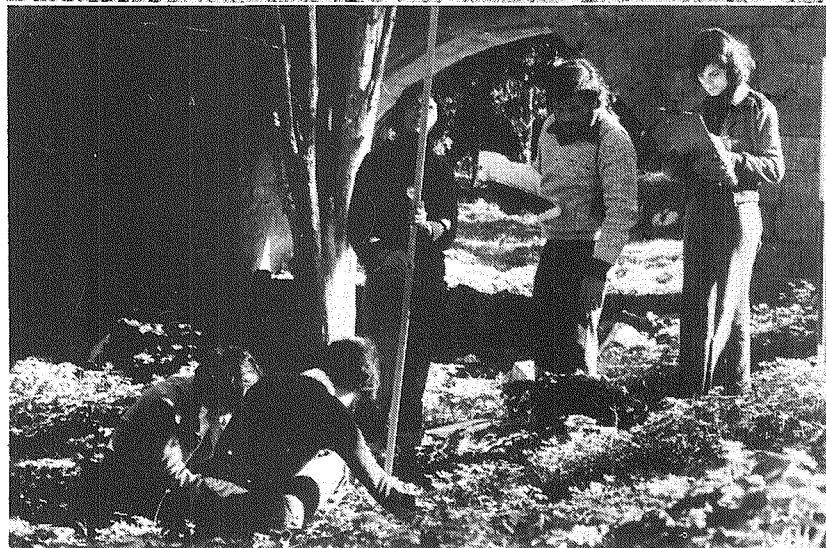
1. Paul Lengrand, *An Introduction to Lifelong Education*, London, Croom Helm, 1975.
2. Edgar Faure *et al.*, *Learning to Be*, London, Harrap, 1972.
3. *Ibid*, p. 157.
4. *Ibid*, xxxix.
5. *Ibid*, p. 157-158.
6. *Ibid*, p. 159.
7. *Ibid*, p. xxi-xxvii.
8. B. Suchololski, 'Lifelong Education — Some Philosophical Aspects' p. 11 in R.H. Dave (led). *Foundations of Lifelong Education*, Pergamon Press, 1976.
9. Faure, p. xxvi.
10. *Ibid*, p. xxiv.
11. *Op. cit.*, p. 37.

# Stimulus & Response: Fieldwork in Science

J. Abdilla  
J. Buhagiar

*From time to time students at the faculty of Education are asked to air their views on particular educational topics which the editors propose to them.*

*In this issue of the journal we reproduce the ideas of two students about the value of fieldwork in science.*



What advantages do you see in making secondary school students undertake fieldwork in science?

The advantages of fieldwork in science largely depend on what we as teachers understand by the term. Fieldwork may simply be taken to imply the casual excursion trip to a museum, industry or a natural track where students just walk around the exhibits or the industrial plant without deriving any truly educational benefit.

On the other hand if fieldwork is presented in such a way that it allows the science student to put theory into practice, to relate those basic principles acquired from school to realistic situations occurring in his every day life, then the advantages of such an exercise are of utmost importance. Thus for example, a biology student will be able to see and study animals and plants in their natural habitats, this helping to put science in its true perspective namely, that theoretical principles which usually stand as a set of simplified generalizations are given a realistic global perspective of their high complexity and diversity. These principles do not apply only to biology but also to physics and chemistry where students often find themselves deluded by theoretical simplicity when they come to apply these in industrial field work or life in general.

Another advantage of the organized fieldwork is its social training; fieldwork gives the students an opportunity to work as a team, learning to share ideas, help each other, understand and accept the limitations and differences of other individuals – factors with a vocational importance which cannot be overstressed. Finally, the well organized field work allows the student to put the scientific approach of problem solving, to practice under the direction of the teacher. Such a practical approach helps the student to see its relevance in the field, acquire it as an inbuilt skill and apply it in his post-school life to gain a better understanding of the world around him.

# The Value of Discussion in the Teaching of English as a Foreign Language

Peter Vassallo

Few teachers of English as a foreign language will gainsay the value of discussion sessions as a means of enabling students to attain fluency of expression. The role of the tutor, however, in such an activity tends to be misunderstood and very often abused. This paper is an attempt to define and determine the teacher's role in conducting discussion sessions with groups of advanced students of English who are normally conversant with the language and wish to achieve a high degree of fluency.

The discussion session tends to be used as a soft option where the tutor can safely depart from the rigorous demands of a language lesson and ease the pressure a little by withdrawing to the background and allowing the students to engage in a free-for-all debate on a controversial topic of his choice. This line of procedure tends to find support among teachers who would argue that the inhibiting presence of the teacher is eliminated and the students are thus free to give vent to their feelings. They would further argue, with some justification, that such discussions enable the students to establish a kind of camaraderie through the medium of argument for it is here that students of various nationalities are given the opportunity of 'tuning in'.

Nevertheless, if one were to weigh the discussion session in terms of its pedagogical value the result would not be as rewarding as some teachers suppose. There are in fact many reasons for this. The teacher's role indeed, seems to waver between two extremes. On the one hand, there is the strong temptation for the tutor concerned to intervene which is prompted by the feeling that he ought to assert himself and justify his existence. Such intervention usually takes the form of disagreement with the argument put forward, the questioning of facts presented, or on the spot correction of the speaker's errors in grammar and pronunciation. There is a danger too of the tutor's channelling the discussion to his own area of experience thereby monopolizing the conversation. All this points to subtle and probably unintentional ways of silencing

the student who has been bold enough to venture a comment or two. On the other hand, a tacit policy of non-intervention on the tutor's part often tends to end in a heated discussion during which the tutor himself is forced into the role of helpless bystander in the proceedings. Given such a situation it would now be opportune to reconsider the tutor's actual role during the discussion session.<sup>1</sup>

The main difficulty here for the tutor concerned is that of allowing the students sufficient latitude to use the language for their own purposes while at the same time keeping the discussion within the constraints of the lesson. The tutor's problem, in other words, is that of controlling spontaneity. I should now like to offer the following suggestions which may help the tutor concerned to overcome this difficulty.

First, it should be made clear from the outset that the tutor who decides to hold a discussion session with an intermediate or advanced group of foreign students should not be primarily concerned with the ideas expressed but with the expression of ideas, particularly since the discussion itself can be a useful medium for the teaching of contemporary English.

Secondly, a convenient way in which the tutor

**The tutor as helpless bystander, or overbearing participant**

**The problem of controlling spontaneity**



can control spontaneity is by exerting a kind of 'remote control'. That is, he must allow sufficient time for the discussion to take place with the minimum of intervention on his part while at the same time devoting part of his time to a 'follow-up'. Ideally, two normal language sessions should be allotted to this activity – roughly three quarters of the time at one's disposal to the discussion proper and the remaining quarter to the follow-up.

The 'follow-up': this from the tutor's point of view should be of the first importance for it is here that the tutor should deal effectively with individual and general lapses such as language transfer, ignorance of rule restrictions, overgeneralization of rules, spelling pronunciations, cognate pronunciations and other systematic errors made by foreign learners at this stage.<sup>2</sup> This, of course, presupposes constant note taking on the tutor's part throughout the discussion. The 'follow-up' provides an excellent opportunity for the tutor to list and discuss key words and phrases directly connected with the topic in question which are not necessarily restricted to the passage. The purpose here would be that of developing the students' vocabulary since most students at this level normally tend to play safe and avoid taking risks.

The third and last suggestion I wish to make concerns the actual material for discussion. It may prove difficult to set the discussion in motion especially if the tutor is confronted with a somewhat unresponsive class. Perhaps the best way to begin in such cases is to provide handouts containing deliberately provocative material. The response is usually immediate and it saves the bother of having to nudge the shy or reluctant student; it also serves as a common referent during the discussion. Useful

material could be culled from the newspapers in the form, say, of an irate letter to the editor on the subject of violence on television. Other suitable source material are *Argument* by Alan Harris and Gerald Gurrey or L. P. Alexander's *For and Against* which could serve as a text.<sup>3</sup> The latter book contains short, informal essays on controversial topics and purposely designed, because of the extremist view they represent, to spark off a discussion.

It is hoped that these suggestions and observations will be valuable to those teachers who are keen on holding discussion sessions with their students as part of a language teaching programme. These considerations, I am convinced, should lead to the successful imparting of communicative competence without undermining confidence in communication.

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1. The role of the teacher in a formal debate has been discussed by Hugh Leong in 'The Debate: A Means of Eliciting Semi-Spontaneous Communication in the TELF Classroom' *ELT*, 1980.
  2. For a systematic treatment of such errors and their classification see Marina K. Burt, 'Error Analysis in the Adult *EFL* classroom, in J.E. Alatis and R. Crymes (eds.) 'The Human Factor' in ESL, *TESOL*, 1977. For a full discussion see L. Selinker, 'Interlanguage', *IRAL*, X, 3, 1972; J. Richards 'Error Analysis and Second Language Strategies' in *Language Sciences*, 17, 1971 and S. Pit Corder, 'Error Analysis' in J.P.B. Allen and S. Pit Corder (eds.) *The Edinburgh Course in Applied Linguistics*, Vol. 3, Oxford University Press, 1974.
  3. L.G. Alexander, *For and Against*, Longman, 1968 and A. Harris and Gerald Gurney, *Argument*, Cambridge, 1969.

## THE BACHELOR OF EDUCATION COURSE

(continued from page 2)

sensitive to the fact that 'telling' is not teaching, that merely listening does not necessarily lead to learning. Teaching requires, and learning depends on specific techniques: techniques in the selection and structuring of content, communication techniques, together with techniques in the evaluation and assessment of the pupils's work and one's own instructional process. Competency in teaching must include the ability to understand one's pupils, gauge their needs and sense their likes and dislikes. The teacher who is committed must also be able to arouse the pupils' interests, maintain their attention and keep discipline. It is a poor teacher indeed, who has profound commitment but lacks instructional techniques.

The Faculty believes very strongly in Alfred N. Whitehead's maxim that:

'The importance of knowledge lies in its use, in our active mastery of it: that is to say, in its wisdom.'

A third major concern among Faculty staff is to practice what they preach through a conscious effort to apply sound educational principles in all their relations with students. Thus, the Faculty has developed a policy of consultation, and a healthy rapport with the students, who are regarded as mature individuals capable of benefiting from, as well as contributing to academic and professional growth.

### Competency to Teach



# Creativity and Drama

Michael Fenech



## CREATIVITY

The aims and objectives of drama can be distilled into one general long-term aim – drama is concerned with the development of the individual's personality to the utmost. How is one to go about this task? This paper will deal with a factor which is considered of great importance in reaching the aims and objectives of drama – creativity. Creativity for whom – children or adults? But, even before this question is determined, we must ask ourselves a prior one: What is creativity?

'Creativity signifies a specific human capacity for achievement. But what capacity? How can that be explained? Wernher von Braun, the rocket researcher, once pinned down in an interview what counts – inspiration in new ways of utilising what is already known, invented, and constructed, and in establishing new links between what already exists. What is known must be reorganised and applied in different ways. Children achieve that in play. They take the blanket from the sofa, hang it over the table, and play at 'exploring caves' between the table

legs. Everyday objects – blankets and table – have suddenly acquired a new function with assistance from imagination.’ (Kischke, 1979).

The key words in the above quotation are ‘inspiration’ and ‘imagination’. Both carry a shade of meaning that can easily be equated with what Brian Way (1977) calls ‘intuition’.

The definition of creativity implies the courage and adaptability of the child – in other words initiative. Can the child be courageous and adaptable if the average parent, for the sake of peace and tranquillity at home, represses his (the child’s) initiative through too many rules and through the common demand that orders be complied with immediately? (Slade, 1976). (App. 1).

Initiative depends largely on self-confidence – can the child remain self-confident if he is scolded and told off every time he does something ‘wrong’? Does the adult who judges peremptorily that a child’s action is ‘wrong’ ever consider the fact that it



may simply be a different way of doing or looking at things? Does the adult, who takes pride in his maturity and experience, realize that the child may have a different set of values – that he is strongly motivated by needs totally different from those of the adult?

A child’s initiative and imagination can soon disappear if they are time and again suppressed by adult prohibitions – perhaps reinforced by the threat of punishment. If there is a ban on taking the blanket from the sofa so as to prevent ‘untidiness’, pleasure in such play will not last long. Dare we, through too much insistence on ‘correctness’, (which many a time is only conventional) risk the wasting away of all the characteristics on which creativity thrives through the most cruel of deaths – undernourishment? As Sybil Marshall (1969) states about the outcomes of her research: ‘To put it simply, we found that in our adult pride and ignorance we had constantly underestimated the ability of children, and because we, the ignorant adults, were in authority, we had actually been holding back their burgeoning ability to learn and to achieve’ by forgetting that ‘their basic taste is good’ (idem) and by imposing on them a ‘fifth-rate standard of conformity’. (idem). A child used to be thought ‘creative’ if he could paint beautiful and faithfully reproductive pictures or maybe play the piano well. Through Educational Drama we realize that creativity entails much more than that. Creativity cannot be institutionalized (it *can* be, but it no longer remains ‘creativity’ for the majority of children).

Imagination *will* atrophy if it is not continuously stimulated. Children must be shown that the world is not shut off by prohibitions.

It is time for adults to reverse the current state of affairs that atrophies imagination and help the child develop through creativity.

But, again, it is important that we should not try to pigeon-hole creativity. If we equate it with such school subjects as ‘Art’ and ‘Music’ only, we will only be looking at single facets of a complex phenomenon. After all, why can’t children be creative during English and Maths for instance?

Much less can we equate creativity with what happens in the school. In fact, the educational system being what it is, it is safe to assert that much of what I would term ‘creativity’ takes place everywhere but at school. Since it involves the entire person, all the senses and the intelligence, creativity occurs wherever the personality of the child is given the minimum chance of developing.

Creativity occurs everywhere where children are playing, gathering experience, and interpreting the environment in their own fashion. This ‘theory of creativity’ is based on the view that inventiveness, originality and ability to solve problems

can receive expression in a great diversity of tasks and physical environments.

At this point, perhaps, one needs to stop and retrace one's steps, because we haven't asked ourselves or sought to reply, yet, to the most basic question. Are children capable of creativity? The answer is most definitely 'yes'. Children express their capabilities for creativity whenever they are not drilled and deprived of enthusiasm and pleasure in discovering, inventing and experiencing. Children are creative whenever they build a 'playground' in the most unlikely of places. Children are creative in finding exciting adventures where most adults expect only boredom. They are creative when they are able to unabashedly react to the ever-present stimuli of life. Most adults have long lost the flair and courage for such fun.

But creativity raises its problems and this could lead, through misunderstanding, to its suppression. Whereas 'good' children, who do not give expression to their imagination, are 'easy' children for parents and adults, the creative child is disconcerting. Parents and adults praise the child who follows the rules, respects and seems to have the values of adults (seems - or has the child been bullied into accepting them?). There is no trouble with such children, nor are there any new ideas, any fun, any surprises.

On the other hand, life is not easy for the child who asks questions, who wants to try out things, who challenges rules. The difficulty arises from the fact that adults - educationalists and parents alike - want two conflicting things at the same time. They want children to be original as well as well-adjusted and inconspicuous. They want a kind of creativity that does not upset and disturb - creativity without conflict and deviation.

But all creative thought and action is characterised by the very fact that it deviates. It is a healthy deviation from known solutions. It is a refusal to accept the idea that only traditional ideas can be uniquely correct. If parents want the easy way out, they need only train children to switch on the television set and sit quietly. Teachers need only ominously brandish a ruler (maybe use it!) and scream for the first week of school.

Creativity, on the other hand, demands a deeper commitment to children. Adults must be more informed. They must be ready to devote time and attention to them, to reassess their values in terms of those of the child.

## CREATIVITY AND EDUCATIONAL DRAMA

'Civilizations are best remembered for the creative activities of those people who helped build them. If schools do not nurture creativity above all

else, civilization cannot move forward' (Shuman, 1978).

I have already said that I consider creativity as the single most important factor for Drama to reach its aims and objectives. In what follows I will be more specific - I will deal with how educational drama can help creativity develop.

Among the first steps to be taken must be a change of attitude to one in which the 'child is regarded primarily as a subject, that is, as a being who is actively involved in, and intensely curious about the process of constructing and arranging his knowledge of the world. . . .' (Morgan, 1978).

Through drama the teacher can help to awaken the potential for creativity in children who have been forced to let it 'sleep' through regimentation, fear of punishment, under-estimation and under-nourishment at home and at school. The drama teacher's task is then, in the first place, to



encourage creativity and provide opportunities for creative outbursts using what there is already:— the child's thirst for life.

This means that the child's capabilities of



imagination, and self-expression, as well as his physical senses, will be treated as 'tools' which will be sharpened by educational drama to help towards what is ultimately the main aim of education, the development of the 'whole' person. Drama proceeds from the known to the unknown. It therefore creates a point of departure by helping the child to understand himself. This is the first step towards helping him on the road towards understanding the people around him and the world.

Teaching a child to be creatively alive entails training him to receive impulses from imaginative stimuli and helping him to make these real so as to produce the necessary sensory and emotional responses. In other words, the child must become imaginative enough to enter into the make-believe world of the drama class, suspend his disbelief and yet at the same time possess sufficient self-control and concentration to sustain the effect. The closeness of educational drama to discovery through play is evident here.

Through 'free play, drama will try to develop the child's ability to use his own imagination. This can be helped through guiding in the use of the five senses - a form of imaginative experience founded on memory which is itself founded on observation (Barnfield, 1974).

There should be no inhibitions against the enterprise, for:

"Every human being is born with imagination. Unfortunately, however, in education, imagination is usually equated with 'art'; art is equated with professional practice; those children who show some degree of achievement in one or other of the arts are labelled imaginative, and the closer their work is to the accepted criteria of 'good' professional art then the more imaginative they are. The remainder are 'no good' at art, and, because imagination and art are equated, are therefore 'unimaginative'. Human dignity being the bastion that it is, the majority effortlessly accept this quality of unimaginativeness." (Way, 1977).

There are inhibitions only if one's conception of creativity is delimited and is identified with 'professional practice'. For the whole point of drama teaching is to realize that the imagination is idiosyncratic, and the great educational advantage of drama is its dramatic attitude towards the imagination.

This means that every individual imagination must be first developed in its own right before it is put through the trials of competition, comparison and criticism. There must be confidence in it.

Confidence in anything requires, naturally, a certain amount of preparedness. How are we to prepare the grounds for the development of



imagination?

Most important is the atmosphere in which practice in using each individual's potential for imagination takes place. The child must not be preoccupied with a fear of failure, nor must there be any hint of competition or comparison (Let's see who can do it best!). We must avoid comment, 'sarcastic or caustic' as Brian Way puts it. It is also important that children, perhaps at the start of their work with imagination, are not scared off by being asked to act *for* the class - there must be no audience - actor divisions which tend to reinforce all the negative aspects outlined above. Therefore such instructions as 'let me see you . . .' should be avoided. We are concerned with authenticity of reactions not with the ability of their portrayal.



# An Approach to Picture Compositions

Carmen Dalli

Most language teachers would agree that teaching composition, the “putting together . . . of a sequence of connected sentences” (Byrne, 1978) is a long and often intricate process involving the use of a progression of techniques ranging from very controlled exercises to “free compositions”. Along this continuum of methods one finds a major technique which Sarkar (1978) describes as unsurpassed as a stimulus to creative expression”: the use of the Picture Composition.

## What is a Picture Composition?

Picture compositions are defined by Breitzkreuz (1972) as including all those texts which are composed in response to one picture or a “series of three to nine pictures, normally depicting logical or continuous actions, situations, thoughts or scenes in the form of sketches or drawings”. These pictures may be presented in the form of wall pictures (produced commercially or through the concerted efforts of teacher and learners), or stencilled so that each student has a copy, or an overhead projected transparency.

One need not here repeat all the arguments which stress the educational value of using a visual stimulus to enhance learning. In respect of composition work it is enough to quote the major one: if nothing else pictures provide the learners with material to talk and/or write about.

## Choice of Pictures

But how is the teacher to decide which picture/s would constitute adequate material?

Different people<sup>1</sup> offer various sets of criteria which might be used as a gauge of the appropriateness of a picture. The following is a list of what would seem to be the more important ones:

*Scope of relevance* to the part of the programme the learners are currently engaged in studying. Questions to ask oneself would include: Does the narration of the action implied by the picture/s require the practice or consolidation of the select corpus of a new instructional item (e.g. the Part

Tense) currently being studied? Is it relevant to the adopted Scheme of Work?

*‘Point-of View’ and Nature of Content.* Is the point of view implied by the picture (if at all) a socially acceptable one? Is it desirable to include a “value judgement” teaching point with the linguistic ones? e.g. the moral aspects of riding a bicycle: the need to drive well and carefully.

*Appropriateness to Age, Grade and Interest of Learners.* Will the learners find the topic appealing and interesting? Can they relate to it, identify themselves with the characters in the pictures? Does it appeal to students of both sexes?

*‘Local Colour’ and/or Necessity of not being Culturally alien.* Does the picture/picture-sequence present an environment and a context which is familiar to the children? Does it use local matters to increase actuality and interest? Are there any culturally alien features?

## Physical Features

Is the picture/picture-sequence of a practical size?

Is it suggestive of reality? Pleasing to the eye?

Is it well planned and well produced, clear and distinct? Are the colours (if any) clear and deep?

Is it a recent production?

Is the material durable? Is the picture well mounted?

Is it artistically finished but not in a way as to destroy the simplicity and directness of the message?

Is the relationship between each picture in a sequence easily perceived?

## Using Picture Stories

When a teacher decides to set a picture composition task the first choice he/she faces is whether or not it is desirable to adopt a free or guided approach. It is only in respect of the second approach that the following is relevant.

Within the guided approach of teaching com-

position it is common practice to talk of an "oral picture composition" and "written picture composition" and to consider them as two separate works necessitating different pedagogical techniques. When one studies the available literature<sup>2</sup>, however, it is possible to distinguish a basic pattern underlying each of the variations<sup>3</sup>. It is this "basic pattern" of which an outline is here attempted.

The need of having a set of clearly defined criteria to apply in the choice of picture-sequences for a composition task has already been emphasised. A second requisite for a successful composition lesson is that the teacher's own preparation be as full and complete as possible. Thus it is felt that in the choice of the picture or picture-sequence, the teacher should:

Identify the main points of the story as shown or implied by the picture-sequence. These points should correspond with what the students themselves see when they first look at the pictures.

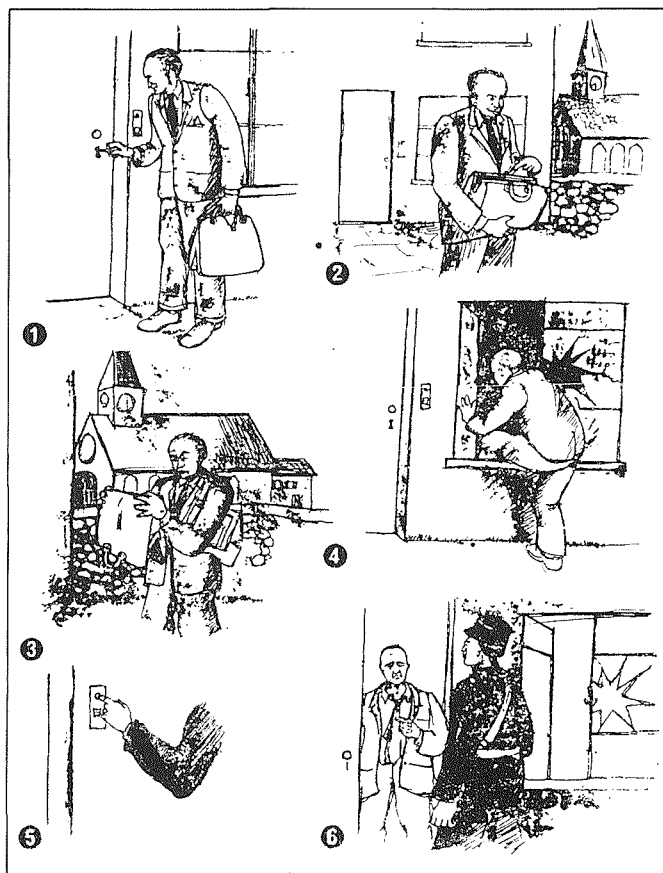
Thus, for example, in the picture-sequence reproduced on this page the main points of the picture sequence would be:

A man left home in the morning and locked the front door. (He went to the office.) He put the key in the briefcase. (He did not want to lose it.) Later that day he went back home. He looked for his key in his briefcase. His key was no longer there. He took out all his papers and upturned his briefcase. He still could not find his key. (Since there was no one else at home he decided to try to enter his home through the window.) He broke the window-pane, pulled back the latch and got in. Soon the doorbell rang. A policeman wanted an explanation of the man's strange behaviour.

The writer suggests that the teacher should prepare a brief summary, such as the foregoing, of the points noted. The parts in brackets correspond to the information which is implied as opposed to that revealed by the pictures themselves. It should be noted that this text was prepared with average Form II students in mind.

Note the language needed to express their main points and identify any difficulties.

Do the students know the word "briefcase"? Can they offer another suggestion for the same item? Perhaps *bag*, *case*, or *satchel*. Is there an alternative way for saying "He discovered that his key was no longer there?" It will be seen that by identifying all the points in the story, the teacher will be able to anticipate the areas which might offer difficulties to the learners, and will, therefore, be able to provide solutions for them. This does not, however, necessarily imply that the teacher has to circumvent such difficulties. On the contrary, he may well decide to use these difficulties as an opportunity for extending his students' vocabulary,



or even, for practising known (or even new) language structures. It is, however, desirable that new structural items be introduced during a language lesson. Despite this, however, a new structure may have to be introduced during a composition lesson since it is essential to the lesson. When this happens the teacher may practise the structure by first using the linguistic item himself and then getting his students to use it.

Note what kind of background or setting is needed for the story.

Thus the teacher should consider such questions as who the man is and where he is going: to the office, or the bank, or visiting his old parents. If the story is to be developed in any detail, it might also be necessary to consider how the man managed to break the window-pane and pull back the latch as well as why he looked so dishevelled when he opened the door for the policeman. Naturally, the teacher should not answer all these questions himself. Rather, he should pose them to the students at the beginning of the lesson and agree together with his students as to which version to adopt.

Finally the teacher should prepare a number of guiding questions to help him elicit the story from his students. There are various questioning techniques which might be used, depending upon the

particular teaching point the teacher wishes to make. As has been indicated, the foregoing points may serve as a guide for the teacher's own preparations. Once this has been done, he may then start to plan the actual lesson itself.

### The "Basic Pattern" of the Picture Composition Lesson Plan

An illustration of how the various steps of the "basic pattern" mentioned above is here given. Reference is made throughout to the picture sequence appearing in the diagram.

The teacher presents the picture-sequence (or part of the picture-sequence) and, with the help of the class, decides on the background or setting of the story.

In the case of our particular picture-sequence, it might be preferable to present the first two pictures together as the second picture establishes that the man is leaving the house thereby providing further relevant information as to the background. Thus, the teacher elicits from the class who the man is, (his name), *what* he is doing, *where* he is going, and possibly, what type of work he does. This type of work is called "description" by Haycraft (1978) and is used in most proposed methods - whether specified under such a title or not.

The teacher here presents any vocabulary or structural item he would like his students to use in the particular composition task.

Since the object is to present these items and familiarise the students with them, the students themselves are not expected to use them at this stage. Thus only the teacher uses them by putting them in questions which require only "Yes/No" answers. These questions allow for the possible presentation of any new linguistic item which might need to be introduced for the purposes of the particular picture composition. Such questions may be:

- (i) formed with the use of the auxiliary verb;
- (ii) tag-questions.

For example:

<i>Teacher</i>	<i>Student</i>
Did Mr Peters <i>lock the door</i> ?	Yes, he did.
Did he put the key in his <i>briefcase</i> ?	Yes, he did.
Did he want to <i>lose the key</i> ?	No, he didn't.
Was he <i>leaving home</i> , or wasn't he?	Yes, he was.
He was <i>going out</i> then, wasn't he?	Yes, he was.

Alternative type questions may also be used as in the example:

<i>Teacher</i>	<i>Student</i>
Was he leaving home or was he	

going back home?	He was leaving home.
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Here the teacher asks questions which elicit the actual development of the story.

The questions which are most likely to do this are the *Wh*-questions (where, what, when, who, why) as well as *how*. Such questions bring out the "facts" of the story which may now begin to emerge. For example:

<i>Teacher</i>	<i>Student</i>
What did Mr Peters do?	He locked the front door.
What was he carrying in his hand?	He was carrying a briefcase.
Why did Mr Peters put the key in his briefcase?	Because he did not want to lose it.
Where was he going?	To the office.

At this stage the teacher may recapitulate or use guides to get students to do this.

The story for the first two pictures might therefore run:

Mr Peters left home. He locked the front door. He was carrying a briefcase. He put the key in his briefcase. He was going out. He was going to the office.

It will be readily seen that the material for the "sequence of connected sentences" is accumulating. It is now necessary that this is built into "a connected sequence".

The teacher elicits sentences which are connected.

This is done with both variations of picture-composition methodology: The "oral as-an-end" and the "oral as-a-means-to-an-end". In the latter case this step is given more emphasis. Various techniques may be used for eliciting connected sentences, chief among which one could include:

- (i) asking the students to continue a statement;
- (ii) asking the students to explain a point;
- (iii) asking the students to say whether a statement is important in the context of the story.

For example:

<i>Teacher</i>	<i>Student</i>
What did Mr Peters do?	He locked the front door.
What happened after that?	He put the key in his briefcase.
That's right. Now repeat the two sentences.	He locked the front door and put the key in his briefcase.
Good. Now can you tell me why Mr Peters put the key	Because he did not want to lose it.



in the briefcase?

Quite right. Now, can you give me a whole sentence telling me why he locked the front-door and put the key in his briefcase?

He locked the front door and put the key in his briefcase because he did not want to lose it.

The foregoing examples illustrate questions of type (i) and (ii). So far, the story does not offer an opportunity for asking questions of type (iii) but this would be possible when dealing with later pictures in the same picture-sequence. Thus when the above steps are repeated for the next picture or two pictures according to one's initial decision about the presentation of the pictures, the teacher may use a question of type (iii) thus:

*Teacher*

So Mr Peters couldn't find his key. What did he do to try to find it?

But could he find it?

Right, can anyone put these sentences together?

Do you think it's important that Mr Peters couldn't find his key?

Why?

Right, so Mr Peters had to break the window-pane to get in. Why did he break it? Wasn't there something else he could do?

Why not?

Yes, I like that, Now, can you put that in one sentence?

*Student*

He took out all his papers and upturned his briefcase.

No, he couldn't.

Mr Peters took out all his papers and upturned his briefcase to try to find his key but he still couldn't find it.

Yes, it's important.

Because then he couldn't open the door and had to break the window-pane to get in.

No, there wasn't.

Because there was no-one else at home.

Mr Peters decided to break the window-pane to get in because there was no-one else at home.

When each of the pictures has been dealt with in this way, the students should be able to tell the story quite easily.

In the case of the "oral-as-an-end" variation, the aim is achieved at the end of step 4. Similarly, it may be said that the same step 4 is the end of a process which fulfills all that may be required of a method which is expected to "prepare for written work". The preparatory work ends with step 4. All

that remains to be done, according to the "oral-as-a-means-to-an-end" variation is that the students are asked to reproduce the story in written form. In the production of the "written composition", a number of variations may again be used.

Space is, however, too limited to allow an account of what some of these variations might be. Suffice it to say that they comprise two main types: those used in producing a narrative composition and those used when a particular picture-sequence allows for the use of dialogue as its main feature.

Variations used in the production of a narrative composition would include variations in the presentation of the picture or picture-sequence as well as the introduction of various aids such as vocabulary lists, oral call-words or written key-words in the appropriate step of the lesson. The oral preparation may then culminate in the student's being asked to prepare the narrative as seen from a particular point of view or as a newspaper report.

In the case of the composition where dialogue constitutes a main element the final text may be produced in the form of a playlet and work on this (as in the narrative composition) may be done either individually or in groups. Students may also be asked to include some basic stage-directions and some of the playlets could even be acted out.

These and many other variations would all help to make the composition lesson more attractive, interesting and, above all, enjoyable. The experienced teacher will undoubtedly be able to think of many other ways of varying the development of the steps proposed in this paper.

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## Notes and References

1. Ref: Richardson 1975.
  2. Ref: Byrne 1978, Bright and McGregor 1970, Haycraft 1978, Kennedy 1975, Winks 1978, Gatenby 1967, Gurrey 1956.
  3. For a full discussion of this point of view please refer: Dalli, M.C. *Picture Compositions: a Survey and Assessment* pp. 50-58.
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## Classroom Arrangement

The progressive approach to teaching outrightly condemns the type of classroom arrangement where pupils are seated in rows facing the teacher as being too rigid, assigning to pupils a listeners' and to teachers a talkers' role. Besides it impedes the creative organization of teaching and learning activities. Groupwork, to name one example, cannot be organized effectively within such a classroom set-up. Progressives, therefore, would do away with dual benches and have them replaced with tables around which pupils sit in groups. Such an arrangement, they claim, brings about more effective teaching and encourages pupils to work together in carrying out learning tasks. Emphasis, therefore, is placed on cooperation rather than competition.

Recently, however, such a vigorous claim has been somewhat contested. The result of a survey conducted by the University of Birmingham's department of educational psychology\* shows that, first, pupils work better when they are seated in rows than when they sit around tables, and, secondly, they prefer the traditional classroom arrangement.

The researchers studied two junior classes of mixed ability groups of pupils aged 10-11 in which the pupils normally sat around tables. The performance and behaviour of pupils while working at their usual tables were measured over a two-week period, then for two weeks with the pupils seated in rows, and finally, for another two weeks with the pupils back at their usual tables. The results showed that in both classes pupils performed 15% higher while sitting in rows. The researchers conclude that when pupils are expected to work independently they should be seated in rows, but, such an arrangement is not appropriate when pupils are assigned learning tasks which involve working in groups. There seems to be a need, therefore, to make distinctions between types of learning activities and then provide those classroom arrangements within which these types of activities can be

carried out.

\*Rows versus tables: an example of the use of behaviour ecology in two classes of 11-year-old children, by K. Wheldall, M. Morris, P. Vaughan, Yink Yuch Ng, published in "Educational Psychology" Vol. 1 No. 2.

## Corporal Punishment

Do pupils behave better when they know that their teachers are not prohibited from using corporal punishment? Many teachers are prompt to give an affirmative answer to this question. Research evidence, however, is not on their side. According to the findings of the Scottish Council for Research in Education (SCRE) pupils' behaviour does not deteriorate with the abolition of corporal punishment in schools.

The SCRE reports the findings\* of six seconded teachers who visited 13 Scottish schools in 1980/81. Five of the schools had abolished the use of the cane or were phasing it out, the remaining eight formed a control group of schools where the cane was used. The conclusions of the team were based on 600 hours of classroom observation during which they looked into the ways in which teachers managed their charges.

The results of their investigations indicated that (1) different ways of exercising class control existed *within* each school, not *between* schools, and, (2) the abolitionist schools were developing new ways of maintaining discipline, such as the creation of a system for better record-keeping, better-designed courses for unmotivated pupils and greater parental involvement in dealing with behaviour problems.

However, teachers in special schools in England and Wales are reluctant to ban caning completely. The move by the Sunderland Education Committee to ban corporal punishment in its ten special schools was declared by the National Association of Schoolmasters and the Union of Women Teachers as unconstitutional on the grounds that the teachers concerned had not been consulted. They felt that they had been deprived of

an effective means of keeping pupils under control. Colin McInnes, the Association's regional officer, said that "The long term effects of removing an important sanction from teachers and not replacing it with anything else will be very serious".

\*"Making the Change", (1981), (Hodder and Stoughton).

### **Luring pupils to the library**

A hard task for schoolteachers is to encourage their pupils to use the library and take home books to read in their free time. For more than two decades many educationalists have been blaming the pupils' aversion to reading on television. More recently, however, television itself is being used to lure pupils to the school library. School authorities are piling up library shelves with books which are based on films and television programmes with very encouraging results.

A survey of 60 pupils aged 13-15 and their teachers over a two-year period conducted by the Centre for Research in User Studies\* at the University of Sheffield shows that some television programmes stimulate pupils to read more on their own. Eventually, it is hoped, pupils will move on to read other books which have not been serialized on the media.

\*"Young People's Reading: A Study of the Leisure Reading of 13-15 year-olds", by Pauline Heather.

### **Seminar on Language Teaching**

The Matriculation Board of the University recently organized two seminar sessions on "Language Testing at Matriculation Ordinary and Advanced Levels". The main participants were members of the Examination Boards involved in language testing and members of the University Staff lecturing in the various languages. The first session was mainly taken up with a discussion on some basic concepts such as reliability and validity of examinations and the relative merits of norm-referenced and criterion-referenced tests. These discussions provided a background for the second session which centred mainly on the mechanics of examining. During the second session participants discussed some of the test forms which are being used such as essay-writing and comprehension tests and translation exercises as well as variations of oral examinations. Marking procedures were treated at length with special reference to impression and analytical marking as well as the model answer technique. Another topic which was studied was the writing up of reports on examinations especially as regards the generality of specificity of the examiners' recommendations.

### **Seminar on General Pedagogy**

In December the Faculty of Education held a Staff Seminar on General Pedagogy. Participants included lecturers in Education Theory, Curriculum and Methodology and other staff members. Its objectives were: (i) to identify common elements, (ii) to suggest new effective ways of coordinating work and, (iii) to evaluate sequence of topics.

The discussion, which was conducted by Professor C.J. Farrugia, Head of Faculty, Mr J. Fenech and Mr K. Wain, lecturers in the Faculty, focused on the objectives, content and instructional procedures of the General Pedagogy units in relation to the units offered in the Early and Middle Years and Main Subject Methodology.

After a brief introduction to the General objectives of the Pedagogy units by Professor Farrugia, the seminar leaders moved on to identify the aims and elaborate on the procedures of the units "Introduction to School Experience", "Instructional Design" and "Curriculum Development".

Topics brought up for the discussion which followed included: (i) the integrated approach to curriculum planning; (ii) the development of the Curriculum; and, (iii) coordination between the lecturers involved in the General Pedagogy area and those teaching subject methodology in the Early and Middle Years.

At the end of the Seminar participants recognized the educational validity of the integrated approach, advised the postponement of the Curriculum Development unit to a later stage in the course and recommended better coordination between (the various lecturers in) the Faculty of Education and the schools.

### **Teaching Practice: Expectations and Constraints**

In June the Faculty of Education organized a half-day seminar with the aim of examining the expectations of and the constraints on Teaching Practice. Participants included Education Officers, Heads of Schools and Staff of the Faculty.

The Seminar was chaired by Mr. D. Cuschieri, Senior Lecturer in Pedagogy and the speakers on the panel were Professor C.J. Farrugia, Head of the Faculty of Education, Mr. C.J. Xerri, Education Officer in the Department of Education and Ms M. Puli, Headteacher of Msida Primary School. Mr M. Morgan, External Examiner and principal of Froebel Institute, gave the concluding talk.

Professor Farrugia, the first speaker, identified the opportunities which Teaching Practice

provided both to student-teachers and tutors in the Faculty. Teaching Practice is a time for students to put into practice theoretical models, ideas, concepts, skills and principles explored in lectures, seminars, tutorials and individual study and to test and evaluate their practical applicability in teaching and learning situations. It offers students an opportunity for socialization into the schools. They will be able to see how the school as an organization works, to interact with the staff of the school and the pupils and to internalize those attitudes which help them build up their image as future teachers. They will be able to demonstrate their commitment to the teaching profession by the care they show for the pupils under their charge, their preparation of work, the way they tackle pupil problems and the willingness to learn from their own experience.

Teaching Practice also offers students a chance to try out new ideas and see how they work in actual practice. Students are expected to be innovative, and their attempts at innovation should not be stifled. At this point, however, the speaker put in a word of caution: students must not be expected not to commit mistakes. Indeed, it would be very unreasonable on the part of those who supervise them to expect students at the initial phases of their carrier to be faultless in their practice.

In conclusion, Professor Farrugia drew attention to the human aspect in the educational situation. The activity of education involves people: pupils, student-teachers, supervisors and others - whose needs should not be disregarded. It is also important to attend to the morale of all individuals

concerned

Ms M. Puli, the second speaker, looked at Teaching Practice from a headteacher's point of view, She identified those qualities which she considered to be essential for the student-teacher to have. She included among these: the basic skills of planning work, familiarity with the school syllabuses, preparedness to face a class and, lastly, an ability to adapt to the assigned class.

She moved on to identify the problems in the allocation of classes to student-teachers. She expressed the view that 'A' stream classes should not be offered because this would be to the detriment of the pupils in these classes. However, she also emphasized that the lower streams were not suitable either, because unmotivated pupils presented considerable problems to the new teachers. She indicated that the middle streams were more appropriate. Ms Puli also stressed that examinations were not making the difficulties of assigning student-teachers to classes any easier.

Finally, the speaker suggested that it would be to the benefit of pupils and student-teachers alike if the latter were not assigned classes during their first teaching practice. Instead during the 5 1/2 month period, student-teachers would gain experience of a variety of classes and be allowed to take up guided teaching sessions. She envisaged this guidance to come from the staff tutors, headteachers and other teachers on the staff of the school. She suggested that student-teachers be allowed to handle a class on their own throughout the whole work-phase only in the third, fourth and final years. It was also important for student-



teachers to acquire the ability to teach pupils at all levels of schooling - Infant, Primary and Secondary - and of all ranges of ability. This would help the future teachers to adapt better to the requirements of the educational system.

Mr. Xerri said that it was important to study carefully the parameters which determine the present system of teacher-education. It was equally important to assess the particular objectives of teaching practice and also the way in which student teachers gain their work experience in schools. An appreciation of the way the system operates as well as an awareness of the objectives of teaching practice are essential to ensure that student-teachers gain maximum benefit from their experience in schools.

After the break, seminar participants separated into groups which were co-ordinated by members of staff. They were asked to discuss how the work-phase was fulfilling the objectives of the Faculty vis-a-vis Teaching Practice, what the policy of the Department of Education in the utilization of the student-worker services should be, and how the schools and the Faculty could collaborate to make the work-phase a mutually beneficial service.

The following tentative recommendations

emerged from the discussions:

1. The objectives of the Faculty would be better attained if student-teaches were not assigned a regular class during their first work-phase.
2. Other duties, besides teaching, should be identified for student-teachers to carry out during their first work-phase in schools.
3. Communication between the Heads of Schools and the Faculty of Education should be improved.

In his concluding remarks, Mr M. Morgan shared the views of the previous speakers and sympathized with the concern with which the various people involved - Education Officers, Head-teachers and tutors in the Faculty - looked at the problems encountered. He was of opinion that the three parties concerned - The Education Department, The Schools and the Faculty - should get together and issue a jointly approved statement regarding the suggested ways in which the expectations of Teaching Practice would be more satisfactorily fulfilled and the constraints on it dealt with.

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*The above reports are by Joe Fenech. "Seminar on Language Testing" is by Joe Falzon.*

## CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

A good teacher is a good classroom manager. Whatever mode of teaching he is employing, and whatever subject matter or skill is being explored, a teacher has the major task of managing the classroom. This involves control of the group, the manipulation of time, the teacher's own voice and manner. The book argues that this craft is a necessary one for the teacher, and one about which much can be taught and learnt. The craft of the classroom is something at which you can work and at which you can get better. In doing so you will not only increase your control of the classroom, but, perhaps paradoxically, you will also find yourself giving less attention to class management, getting closer to the pupils, teaching more helpfully, and, above all, enjoying the pupils more. Good relationships are to some extent an ingredient of successful classroom management, but to a considerable degree they are also the result. There is more crossness, shouting and criticism in a badly run classroom than a good one. The well-organized teacher is in a better position to be pleasant to his pupils. A mastery of group management techniques frees a teacher from concerns about group control.

Some of the procedures I have outlined in this book are easier to describe than to do. Practice will make them possible but you will find the task

easier for pre-planning. One of the paradoxes of classroom management is that some initial fuss often reduces subsequent fuss; that some apparently complicated initial procedures actually simplify procedures in the long run; that formal routines free the sessions for close relationships. To be organized and firm is to have cleared the decks for variety of activity and friendliness, but to be slightly confused and wavering is to produce a muddle that will lead only to frayed tempers, cross words, less pupil enjoyment, and less learning. All this is especially true with less well-motivated and with 'difficult' children. For them your techniques must be impeccable. I have seen teachers trying to muddle through for years: it doesn't work. If, on the other hand, you analyse an aspect of classroom management to establish what makes it difficult, you will usually see where the difficulty lies, and be able to go a long way towards avoiding it next time around. For instance, contrary to many of our easily adopted attitudes, it isn't the presence of two or three troublesome pupils that makes it difficult to get a lesson started. It is an inherently difficult task whatever the composition of the pupil group, and some teachers would run into difficulties with a hand-picked class of obliging pupils. With any pupils, your class management skill must be as polished as possible. Have no doubt, though, that this is a skill, can be learnt, and does matter."

# BOOKS NOTICED AND REVIEWED

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— a guide to some recent accessions in the Faculty of Education

## Introductory Statistics for Psychology

Levine G. (1981). Academic Press, N.Y.

The declared aim of this book is to “maximise the understanding and retention of the technical language and underlying concepts” of the research methodology of psychological investigation. As a practising lecturer, the author has been in a good position to try out different ways of achieving that aim; this book goes quite far in achieving that aim – with the added bonus of being quite attractively written up and presented. The usual techniques and concepts (measures of central tendency, distributions, percentiles, sampling, significance, correlation and analysis of variance) are covered more than adequately even though the chapter on analysis of variance goes beyond what one would call “introductory statistics”. Some devices make the book ideal for self-tutoring: key statements and definitions of new terms are underlined so that the reader is alerted to the more important material, a large number of worked examples are scattered throughout the text and each chapter concludes with a short self-administered test of the sentence completion type. Another welcome feature of the book is the final chapter (‘Choosing a Statistic’) which comprises a set of guidelines for deciding on which statistic is appropriate given the nature of the data followed by 24 brief descriptions of experiments for each of which the student is to choose the appropriate statistic (answer provided). The chapters on correlation are well-stocked with worked examples with each step in the working made perfectly clear; this section is however rather thin on that very crucial aspect of correlation as used in psychological research: the problem of sorting out cause and effect. The problem of interpreting correlation in terms of causation is, as a rule, a minefield in psychological research, certainly more difficult to handle than the computation. One shortcoming of the book which should be pointed out: the concepts of reliability and validity are treated in only 10 pages with the lion’s share (7 pages) falling to reliability when, of course, validity is much the more important concept. One of the bugbears in psychological research is not only

accurate measurement but also the extent to which we are measuring what we really want to measure; for a satisfactory treatment of validity one has still to fall back to Cronbach’s near classic “*Essentials of Psychological Testing*”. One would also have liked to see a chapter on item analysis included in the text, certainly a more useful addendum than the 25 pages of squares, square roots and reciprocals – surely such tables are utterly unnecessary in this age when every student has a pocket calculator. Still, with those few reservations, this is a work which should prove useful to social and behavioural science students who are about to start on an experimental investigation.

Joe Falzon

## Teaching Techniques for Communicative English

Revell J. *Macmillan’s Essential Language Teaching Series* Edited by Roger H. Flavell 1979.

The book is a practical approach to language teaching written by a seasoned teacher of English as a foreign language and designed to foster communicative activities in the classroom. The author’s primary aim is that of enabling students to transfer their learning to real situations thus attempting to bridge the gap between ‘skill getting’ in the classroom and ‘skill using’ in real life. Her remarks on the difficulty of genuine communication in the classroom are interesting and penetrating and the book abounds in specimen lessons which are designed to enable the teacher remove the barrier between linguistic competence and communicative competence. Her comments and suggestions are sensible and judicious as, for instance, in her attitude to errors and the concomitant argument that emphasis on correct production at all times can lead to serious inhibitions in the learner. The activities she suggests are evidence of her pragmatic approach to the subject and range from non-verbal aspects of communication to

script-writing and the acting out of situations to short dialogues which could be developed and enlarged by the students. These could certainly be adapted to the best advantage in the context of the classroom. All in all I find this book a good investment for the language teacher; it also contains a valuable select bibliography of practical supplementary material.

*Peter Vassallo*

## Assessing Language Development

*Andrew Wilkinson, Gillian Barnsley, Peter Hanna, Margaret Swan, Oxford University Press, 1980.*

The material for this useful guide for teachers of English interested in the personal development of the child grew out of postgraduate research work in the School of Education at the University of Exeter. The authors, who have directed research in this area, contend that teachers often fail to take into account, when marking and correcting children's compositions, the fact that the child is a constantly developing human being beset by problems and inhibitions to which most teachers would be insensitive. To counteract this they propose four models devised to serve as a system of analysis in the fields of cognition, affect, morals and style thereby claiming to heighten awareness in teachers and prospective teachers. Of these aspects the most interesting and stimulating seems to me to be that on 'affect' in children's writing where the authors claim that a child can be trained to develop aspects of his personality in writing as distinct from logical reasoning. Although the reader may not share the writers' convictions, he may profitably apply some of their proposals to the Maltese classroom.

*Peter Vassallo*

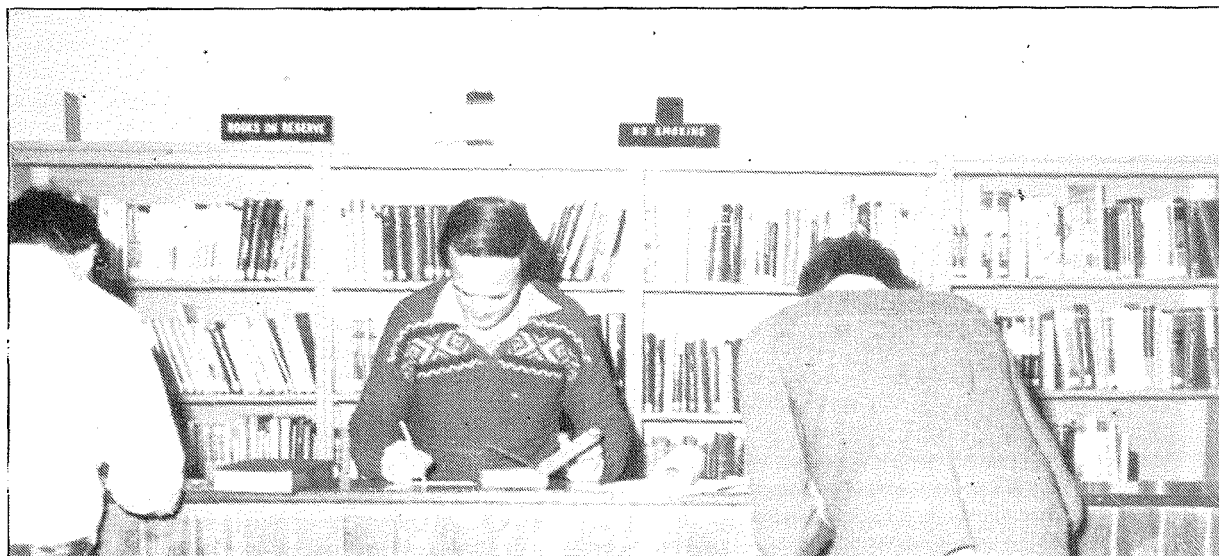
*"A teacher 'must be friendly without becoming a friend, although he might pave the way for later friendship, for friendship is a mark of preference and expresses itself in indulgence, favors, and distinctions that unconsciously find an invidious form . . . A teacher who becomes 'just one of the boys', who counts popularity, who builds up personal loyalty in exchange for indulgent treatment, has missed his vocation. He should leave the classroom for professional politics" - Sidney Hook.*

## Making Transitions

**T**eachers have to learn how to provide transitions for their pupils. It is not possible for most young people to make choices after five or six years of being told what to do every minute they are in school. It is equally hard for them to share resources, help other students, or decide what they want to learn after years of being expected to hoard, compete and being expected to hoard, compete and conform. Transitional situations often have to be provided. Young people are no different from adults. When faced with new possibilities they want something old and predictable to hold onto while risking new freedom. Inexperienced teachers often make the mistake of tearing down the traditional attitudes their students have been conditioned to depend upon before the students have time to develop alternate ways of learning and dealing with school. In their impatience they become cruel to students who do not change fast enough or who resist change altogether. One just cannot legislate compassion or freedom. Teacher as a craft involves understanding how people learn; as an art it involves a sensitive balance between presenting and advocating things you believe, and stepping away and encouraging your students to make their own sense of your passion and commitment.

*Michael Marland*

# At a Glance



A list of articles in some of the educational journals available in the 'reference library' at the University.

compiled by Peter Vassallo

## ***The Use of English, Autumn 1981***

Language across the Curriculum, *Doufus Barnes*  
The Myth and the Pot, *David Allen*  
Ten Year Old Poets, *David Holbrooks*  
Ten Year Old Readers, *Raymond Holt*  
The Wind of Change, *A.C. Capey*  
The Voluntary Reading of F.E. Students, *J.D. Clench*  
Cranford, *Roger Knight*

## ***Education Research Journal of the NFER4 June 1981***

Behavioural Disturbance and Failure to Learn: A Study of Cause and Effect, *Dannis H. Stote*  
Secondary Schools: Some Changes of a Decade, *R.A. King*  
Religious Attitudes and Thinking in Belfast Pupils, *J.E. Greer*  
A Survey of Attainment and Progress of Learners in Adult Literary Schemes, *T.P. Goman*  
Disruptive Pupils and Teacher Stress

## ***Educational Studies, Vol. 7, N. 2, 1981***

Group Work: Time for Re-evaluation? *M.K. Sand*  
Education Differentiation and Curriculum Guidance: A Review, *Iain Smith*  
Cost-effectiveness Analysis as a Method of Assessing 'A' Level Performance in Different Educational Establishments, *Hywell R. Thomas*  
Self-described Marginality and Hearing School, *Alan Gordon*  
The Effects of Sex-role Orientation and Cognitive Skill on Mathematics Achievement, *Barbara Kaplan & Barbara Plake*  
The Testing of Reading in LEAS: The Bullock Report Seven Years on, *Caroline Gipps & Robert Wood*

## ***Journal of Curriculum Studies, Vol. 13, N. 4, 1981***

Instruction and Time-on-task: A Review, *L.W. Anderson*  
Between all the Stools: Some Methodological Considerations in Curriculum Research, *D. Barnes*  
Negotiating Classroom Knowledge: Beyond Educational Proce-

dures and Attitudinal Objectives: A Paradox, *L. Stenhouse & G.K. Verma*

Can Traditional Love Guide Right Choice in Teaching? *M Buchmann*

Curriculum Process in School and University Physics, *J. Jones*

## ***Journal of Moral Education, Vol. 11, N. 1, 1981***

Moral Personhood: A Tentative Analysis, *Francis Dunlop*  
Moralities and Hebraic Christian Religion, *Jason Wright*

The Moral Education of Emile, *G. John*

Moral Beginnings: The Just Community in Montessori Pre-Schools, *Suzanne L. Knogh*

A Classroom Discipline Model for Promoting Social Cognitive Development in Early Childhood, *Robert D. Enright*

So, Virginia, is there right and wrong? *Don Locke*

## ***Journal of Educational Psychology, Vol. 74, N. 4, August 1981***

Relationship Between What Is Remembered and Creative Problem-Solving Performance in Science Learning, *Bruce K. Bromage & Richard E. Mayer*

Teacher Effects on Cognitive and Affective Pupil Outcomes in Elementary School Mathematics, *Hilary L. Schofield*

Peer Group Influence on Educational Outcomes: A Quantitative Synthesis, *Judith K. Ide, JoAnne Parkerson, Geneva D. Haertel, & Herbert J. Walberg*

Effects of Model Persistence and Statements of Confidence on Children's Self-Efficacy and Problem Solving, *Barry J. Zimmerman & Jeffrey Ringle*

Some Data and Comments Regarding Educational Set Theory, *Charles D. Holley, Donald F. Dansereau, & Richard M. Fenker*  
Effects of Mood on Learning, *Charlotte M. Hettena & Bonnie L. Ballif*

Self-Concepts, Motivation, and Academic Achievement of Black Adolescents. *Theresa J. Jordan*



Alternative Student Evaluation Structures and a Focused Schedule of Instruction in an Inner-City Junior High School, *Charles H. Beady, Jr., Robert E. Slavin, & Gail M. Fennessey*

Relationship of Family Constellation and Schooling to Intellectual Performance of Mexican American Children, *Richard R. Valencia, Ronald W. Henderson, & Richard J. Rankin*

The Interaction of Children's Attribution and Level of Control Over Error Correction in Reading Instruction, *Ernest T. Pascarella & Susanna W. Pflaum*

Cognitive and Emotional Components of Anxiety: Literature Review and a Revised Worry-Emotionality Scale, *Larry W. Morris, Mark A. Davis, & Calvin H. Hutchings*

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### **Reviews**

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Distance Education, Vol. 11, No. 1, 1980, reviewed by *G.D. Moss*

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## Picture Credits:

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F. Cauchi pp. 2, 4, 5.  
Marsa Primary B pp. 15, 16, 17.  
St. Dorothy School, Tal-Virtù pp. 18, 19.  
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## Editorial Correspondence

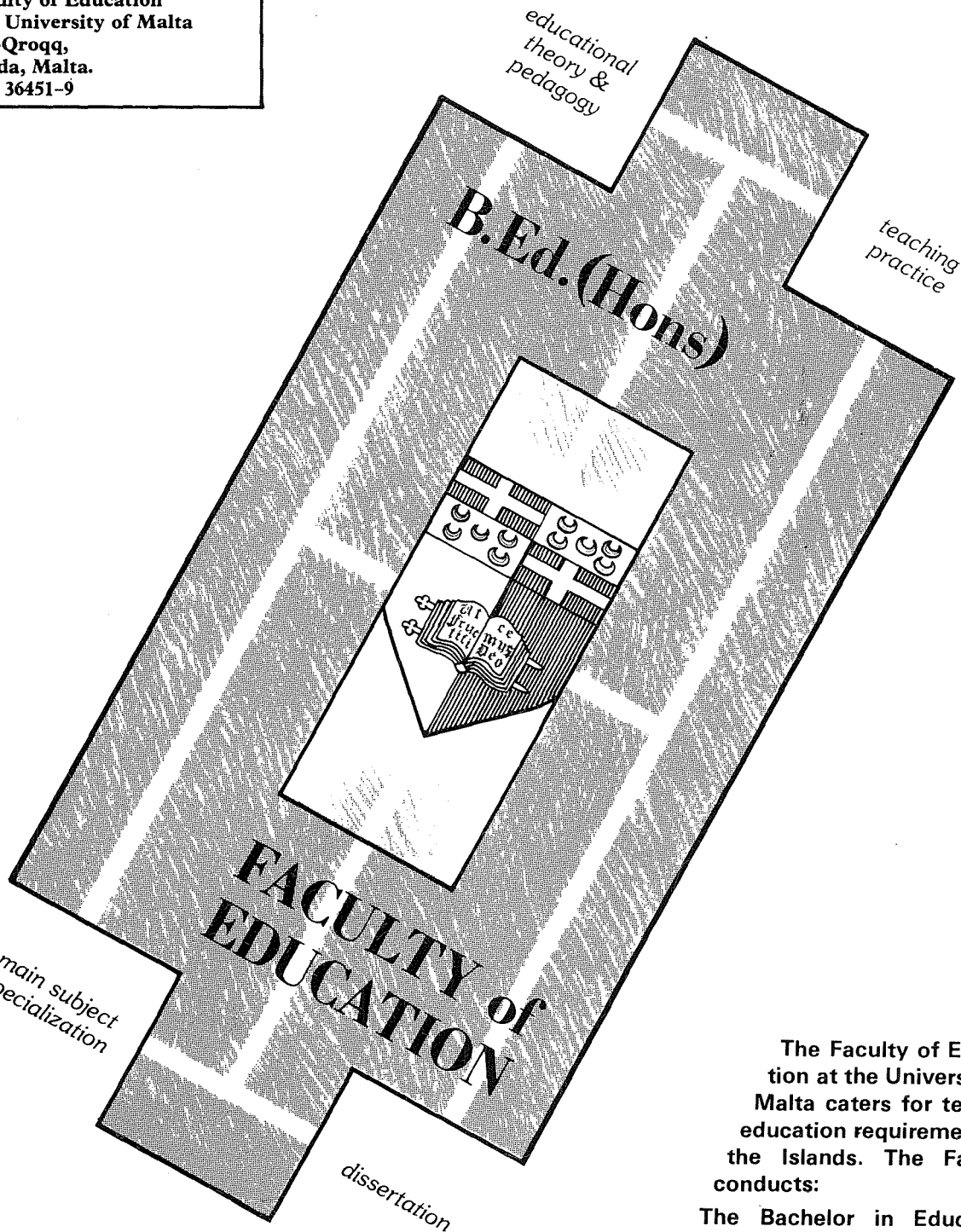
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The Faculty of Education at the University of Malta caters for teacher education requirements in the Islands. The Faculty conducts:

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- Diploma level Courses.
- In-Service Courses.
- Courses in the Teaching of English as a Foreign Language.

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