Durham E-Theses

Low Achievers: the youth training scheme

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A

ABSTRACT

A fundamental hypothesis of this thesis is that the Youth Training Scheme, to the extent that it is largely practical and vocational, will achieve positive results with children who are regarded as low achievers at school, where, research suggests, academic values are paramount.

It was proposed in this research that the following key propositions be explored:-

1) The conventional academic, exam orientated, curriculum is not suitable for our less able children resulting in boredom, anti-school and anti-social behaviour.

2) The consequences of this lack of success, measured in external examination grades, resulted in children which are neither attractive to employers nor prepared for a future vocation.

3) The Y.T.S. has potential for motivating these children which helps them gain skills and thereby improves their attractiveness to employers.

B

Evidence from personal professional contacts, the author's own experience, literature, official statistics and specially designed questionnaires have been advanced to support each of the positions explored in the thesis.

Empirical findings within the author's school have been compared with findings from the submitted literature review. The hypothesis has been tested by comparing the performance across a range of items, of a group of fifth year low achievers, with their performance, across the same range of items, during the Y.T.S. year following their secondary education. The fundamental finding is that the Y.T.S. results in greater success, less absenteeism, more positive attitudes, better behaviour and more harmonious adult relationships than the final year of secondary education for these students.

STATEMENT OF COPYRIGHT

Low Achievers : The Youth Training Scheme

A comparison of the response of a group of low achieving young people to their experience of schooling and the Youth Training Scheme.

Barry Douglas Coulthard B.Ed. Honours (Dunelm).

A thesis submitted for the Degree of Master of Arts (Ed) to the School of Education, University of Durham.

1986.

DECLARATION

In accordance with the rules for submission of work for higher degrees (C). I declare that this material is entirely my own work and has not been submitted previously for a degree in this or any other university.

Acknowledgements

A Comparison of the Response of a
group of low achieving young people
to their experience of schooling
and the Youth Training Scheme.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Summary of Argument.

Before analysing the author's own field data an intro-
ductory section will explore wider research into education,
training and unemployment on the following themes:-

a) Ability grouping and its detrimental effects
    on the less able.

b) The academic curriculum and its detrimental
    effects on the less able.

c) Evidence to suggest that the type of child,
    identified as the low achiever, has been
    motivated towards success in some areas.

d) Literature exploring which types of curri-
    culum would be most suitable, for the less
    able child, in a period of high unemploy-
    ment and rapid social and technological
    change.

Key Characteristics of Student Sample

Before commencing with these four areas, however, I shall give a brief history of the subjects of this study who form the bottom 40% of the ability range, as they are at present organised, at Dunview Comprehensive school. The situation in question is a medium sized 11 - 18 inner city school within the Metropolitan Borough of Shipton.

This study is concerned with a sample of 79 children, aged 15, consisting of 43 boys and 28 girls who on Monday 5th September 1983 entered the 'B' band in year 5 at Dunview Comprehensive. They make up forms 505, 506 and 507. More specifically their numbers are as follows:

	Boys	Girls	TOTAL
Form 505	15	12	27
Form 506	14	9	23
Form 507	14	7	21

Year I

There were six unstreamed classes from 101 - 107 plus 103 a remedial class. Pupils in the latter have, with only a few changes, remained together to form the present 507. All other six forms were placed in A, B and C sets for Mathematics and English.

Year II

A similar organisational pattern continued except that the children were also "set" in French lessons. This meant that they were in ability groups for 18 out of 40 lessons. End of the year examinations were used to determine the children's future examination potential. English and Maths were given a value weighting of 3 against 1 for most subjects. Significantly, Music, Art and practical subjects were not included in year positions. Since 203 children followed a different curriculum and sat different examination papers an objective approach to promotion was impossible. Instead it was determined by teacher recommendation rather than by any objective assessment at the end of the second year.

Year III

Based on the summer school examination, at the end of second year, children were placed in pre G.C.E. 'O' level

or pre C.S.E. classes which were organised as follows:-

Table I   3rd Year Classes

301]	
302]	G.C.E.
303	'O' level / C.S.E.
304]	
305]	C.S.E.
306]	
307]	C.S.E. / non exam

These classes were streamed so that the lower the number the higher ability. 307 was the remedial class which had been 203, so attempts to disguise the fact that they were the 'bottom' class were discontinued. At the end of the third year the children faced further exams and subject options. Both would determine the nature of their future school career. Each examination was important in its own right. For example a child might have a year position of 20 in English and so be offered a G.C.E. placement but be 80th in Geography and so, unless he chose to drop this subject, would have to do C.S.E. Our survey children would similarly be classified as C.S.E. or non-exam depending on these same exams which again were not taken by 307.These children were also given subject options although there was not a completely free choice. Places in Commerce and Domestic Science were over subscribed so boys were persuaded to choose something else. As a result only 3 boys did Home Economics and one did Typing. Similarly only 4 girls did either Metalwork or Woodwork. When the author questioned one boy as to why he did Physics, when he hated it so much, he declared that as the alternative was Religion he did'nt think there would be many jobs in that area.

Year IV

Table 2   4th Year Banding

401]		.405]	
402]		406]	B BAND
403]	A BAND	407]	
404]			

As in the 3rd year these classes were also streamed. As a result most children in 405 would be expected to do a high proportion of C.S.E.'s whilst pupils in 407 only few subjects at most. Each subject option group was allocated two teachers. The children were then sub-divided into the 'top half' who followed a C.S.E. course and 'the rest' who did non-examination work.

At this stage in their school career the 'B' band children were referred to in staff room conversation, as the "non-academics" as well as, in less professional language, the "thickies". The school was trying to convince these pupils to strive for a few lower grade C.S.E.'s stressing the philosophy that poor qualifications were better than none at all in the eyes of would - be employers. Evidence to be presented will critically examine the soundness of this policy.

The Effects of Ability Groupings on the Less Able

If research into the "self fulfilling prophesy" is to be believed than at least part of the answer as to why the lower streams fail lies in the fact that teachers expect and consequently receive lower standards of work from them. Work in the late sixties suggested that intelligence gains in children could be "manipulated" by altering the teachers' perceptions of the children. Thus children identified as 'bloomers', although chosen at random, made progress in excess of the norm. [Rosenthal & Jacobsen, 1968]. These authors also found that by reversing the process those labelled poorer children progressed more slowly than the norm, the result being an ever-widening gap between our better and poorer children. Streaming, setting or banding served to widen the gap even further:

"Were we relegating a large proportion of
our children in the schools to inadequate
learning simply because we were convincing
teachers that children could'nt learn?"
[S.L. Guskin 1971].

Rosenthal & Jacobsen 1968. 'What do you expect An Inquiry into Self Fulfilling Prophecies'.
S.L. Guskin. 1971. 'An Inquiry into Self Fulfilling Prophecies'.

The evidence of the research into streaming would suggest a firm "yes".

"Streaming is a self fulfilling prophecy
and that far from catering for differ-
ences of ability it creates such differ-
ences itself".

[A.V. Kelly 1975].[3]

Kelly disagrees with the argument that remedial children are discouraged by working alongside brighter children or, indeed, the follow-up assumption that streaming is seen as ultimately of most advantage to the less able pupil. He points to improved teacher-pupil and pupil-pupil relationships in unstreamed secondary schools. Streaming encourages rejection and therefore can lead to disaffection.

Further support for this argument comes from Postlethwaite and Denton,[1] [1978] at Banbury Comprehensive who found:-

a) Lower ability pupils achieved higher
   standards if taught in mixed ability
   groups.

b) Less able pupils were more contented
   in the mixed ability situation.

c) Mixed ability taught pupils had a
   more positive attitude towards school.

Elsa Ferri[2] [1970] found that unstreamed schools were more likely to adopt a curriculum which appealed to the less able:

"Streamed schools had a formal approach,
non streamed used an informal, discovery,
practical approach".

As long ago as 1964 Jackson[3] recognised the problems resulting from ability groupings:-

"Streaming in itself and the beliefs that
lie behind it may be responsible for our
long 'C' stream tail".

More recently Ball [1981] [4] lends support to the idea that banding leads to stereotyping traits. A few examples

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A.V. Kelly 1975. 'Case Studies in Mixed Ability Teaching'.
K. Postlethwaite & C. Denton 1978. 'Streams for the Future'.
Elsa Ferri 1970. 'Streaming Two Years Later'.
B. Jackson 1964. 'Streaming an Education System in Miniature'.
S.J. Ball 1981. 'Beachside Comprehensive'.

of these applicable to the lower groups are: maladjusted, anti-school, immature, emotionally unstable, poorly behaved, lacks concentration etc. His study is relevant to this research as the children at Beachside Comprehensive like those from Dunview were banded from the very first year.

Viewed from a slightly different angle (e.g. the pupils'), streaming can be seen as highly beneficial to the anti-school elements by placing them together inside four walls. Rather than "divide and conquer" the school establishment seems to believe in "unite and surrender" as potential trouble makers are grouped into a classroom unit.

Furthermore the earlier these children are grouped together the quicker they emerge as a problem to the school [Lacey 1980].[1] Lacey illustrates how streaming at the end of year one resulted in the majority of the anti-school element being placed within the same teaching class. This group emerged in the second year and developed markedly in years 3 and 4.

Therefore the evidence would seem to suggest that the 'B' band children in our survey in so far as they are typical, would have been harmed by streaming. Although they entered a comprehensive school theoretically committed to egalitarianism the practice was an establishment committed to selection. Those placed in the lower sets or bands found little opportunity to display late development as they worked in classes with low teacher expectation and therefore a slower work rate with no opportunity to be judged by criteria they were good at. Instead 'B' band students could expect:-

    a) A widening ability gap between themselves
       and the 'A' band.

    b) A formal, unimaginative style of teaching.

    c) To be discouraged by repeated failure.

    d) To be viewed and treated less favourably
       by teachers.

    e) To be more likely to indulge in anti-
       school behaviour.

These can hardly be described as a favourable foundation for the commencement of the negative attitudes and problems this thesis will investigate were already prevalent.

Lacey 1970. 'Hightown Grammar'.

What they would have developed into as an unstreamed comprehensive can now be only hypothetical speculation. However the D.E.S. inquiry in 1978,[1] carried out by H.M.I.'s, despite reservations that brighter children were not being pushed hard enough in some schools, found that where there was an individualised approach:

1) Lower ability pupils were more highly motivated.

2) There was less disruptive behaviour.

It therefore seems that there is a strong possibility that the 'B' band children in this survey would have developed more both academically and socially under a mixed ability situation in a more egalitarian comprehensive school. This theory is supported by Fogelman [1982].[2] He found that only 40% of children were in the same broad band (i.e. top, middle or bottom third of the total distribution) at the ages of seven and sixteen. More relevant to the secondary school is the fact that only one quarter of those in the top third at 16 had not been there at 11. As explained earlier this natural movement, at Dunview, had been stifled by rigid ability groupings. However if the hypothesis of this thesis is correct then perhaps this latent ability has not been lost forever but is merely waiting for positive stimulation which hopefully the Y.T.S. will provide.

This author's assessment, of the evidence, is that mixed ability grouping offers more to the low achievers than streaming. Nevertheless in the interests of completeness it must be mentioned that Lunn [1970][3] Acland [1973][4] Cox & Marks [1980][5] argue strongly in the opposite direction. They argue that brighter children are held back in unstreamed classes by the slower pupils and that the progress of the more able child can be held back by up to 5 I.Q. points. Therefore, streaming is essential if our brighter children are to be pushed to their full potential.

HMSO 1978. 'Mixed Ability Work in Comprehensive Schools'.
Fogelman. 1982 'Growing up in Great Britian'
Lunn 1970 'Streaming in the Primary School'.
Acland 1973 'Social Determinantes of Educational Achievement'.
Cox & Marks 1980 'Education and Freedom'.

As the brighter child is outside the considerations of this thesis it is not necessary to become involved in a lengthy argument on this topic. Suffice to say that there is conflicting evidence on the academic benefits of streaming for brighter children whilst there is over-whelming evidence that streaming harms our less able children both socially and academically.

The Effects of the Academic Curriculum on the Less Able

If streaming has had an important counter productive effect on these children then so has the curriculum which continues to be exam-orientated and largely academic. As a result many of our children become bored and troublesome. This problem was first identified by H.C. Dent [1949]. [1]

It was a major cause for concern in the Newsom Report [1963][2] as one headmaster commented:-

> "There are far too many of our slow
> and average children who long ago
> reached saturation point doing tedious
> and hateful work year after year. They
> are provoked not only by the tedium of
> the work but also at being treated as
> children".

This rather subjective opinion is re-inforced by a Schools Council Enquiry [1968].[3] Of 14 "Typical" school subjects only 6 were ranked as useful and interesting by 50% or more of school children.

Sir Alec Clegg in a lecture at Central Hall Westminster [1-5-70] stated uncompromisingly:

> "We should continue at our peril to
> neglect the development of non-
> academic pupils". [Hemmings 1980].

Despite these forceful words the problem remained largely ignored. Education and society survived R.O.S.L.A. and the quest for academic excellence for the most able pupils prevailed, along with a watered-down version of the same quest for the less able.

Doing research in Ireland John Raven [1977] found

H.C. Dent 1949. 'Secondary Education for All'.
Newsom Report 1963. 'Half our Future'.
Schools Council Enquiry 1968. 'Young School Leavers'.
Educ. Research. November 1977. Vol.20. No:1. p.4.

$1/3$ of pupils questioned sometimes or nearly always hated going to school. Almost identical findings came from a survey in London by Fogelman [1976].[1] Raven found that disenchantment with school was highest amongst non academics e.g. 51% compared to 8% by brighter children. Also Pringle [1973][3] found that criminal offenders tended to come from anti-school pupils.

James Hemmings [1980][2] is highly critical of the traditional, exam orientated, approach to education. He argues that it destroys or neglects other important attributes e.g. aesthetic, awareness, imagination, intuition, judgement, initiative, creative capacity, relational skill, manual proficiency and capability in general affairs i.e. many of the qualities needed to survive in modern society. Hemmings uses biological knowledge to add weight to his powerful arguments. Analysing the human brain its functions, in relation to interaction with the environment, are through the left and right mode. Yet our present educational system whilst utilising the functions of the left mode, which can be loosely described as the cognitive function or intelligence, almost totally ignores the functions of the right mode which can, equally loosely, be described as divergent thinking or creativity.

Adolescents become submerged and broken or aggressively hostile if their confidence is shattered by the excessive failure which our present system generates. Ahead of our children lies revolutionary change according to (Watts 1983).[4] Schools must prepare children to understand the world of the future and how to adapt to be able to cope with it. Inward-looking protective schools are counter-productive and cannot respond to the four key areas for education which Hemmings (1980) outlines:-

1. Adaptability to change.
2. Basic understanding of micropressors.
3. Constructive use of leisure.
4. How to utilise the information revolution.

Ken Fogelman 'Britains 16 Year Olds' 1976
National Children's Bureau p.51.
James Hemmings 'The Betrayal of Youth' 1980

K. Pringle, Mia 'The Roots of Violence & Vandalism' 1973

A.G. Watts 'Unemployment, Education, and the future of Work'.

The reason that Hemmings and so many others are critical of our educational system is that it is hopelessly inappropriate as a means of preparing children for the challenges they will face as adults. Most of our curricula were developed in response to the needs of a society that has now disappeared but that response is maintained by the many people (including teachers) who have a vested interest in maintaining the status quo for as long as possible. Additionally, change can be disturbing, organisationally troublesome or simply expensive. (James Hemmings 1980).[1]

In spite of the weight of evidence so strongly against the conventional curriculum one is entitled to ask why it took until 1982 before serious attempts were taken to deal with the problem. (In 1982 Dunview Comprehensive was chosen along with two other schools, in the borough of Shipton, to participate in a national D.E.S. project aimed at finding a more interesting and relevant approach to the education of our lowest achievers).

Action has at last been taken and indeed the initial national concern for the problem has been intensified by high youth employment. During the 50s, 60's and early 70's with relatively full employment failure at school was not reflected by failure to find a job, Phillips (1973)[2] and Cherry (1976)[3] found that even a poorly thought out career choice was not a serious problem. They found that young workers changed jobs frequently with apparently few adverse personal or occupational effects. This meant that even after wasting much of their time at school they could still find a satisfactory job through trial and error - a sort of multiple work experience programme on full pay.

However, Roberts et al (1981)[4] found that in the late 70's and early 80's , this type of youngster was resurfacing as hard-core unemployed. The evidence from Shipton, as can be seen in the graph, Appendix 1, supports this research. The number of vacancies, and therefore the opportunity to change jobs regularly, has decreased

D. Phillips 'Young Unemployed in a Northern City' 1973
James Hemmings. (1980).
N. Cherry 'Persistent Job-Changing : Is it a Problem?' 1976
(Journal of Occupational Psychology Vol.49 p.203-221).
K. Roberts, J. Duggan & M. Noble 'Unregistered Youth
Unemployment & Outreach Careers Work' 1981

alarmingly since the 50's and 60's. On Tyne & Wear 40,000 or 1 in 3 people under 25 are out of work (Murray 1985). Therefore if a young person is to find a job or career with reasonable satisfaction he must be well prepared for this vital placement which will most probably be through Y.T.S. Job hopping is no longer an available strategy. Therefore teachers and Career advisers have a monumental responsibility in helping young people avoid a Y.T.S. or job mismatch.

Evidence of Success with the Less Able

The purpose of this short section is merely to demonstrate that work with this type of child is not necessarily doomed. A few examples of success with the less able are sufficient to justify this point. To search for a fully comprehensive list or to quantify these methods would be a diversion from the original aim of the thesis.

What is necessary is that a widely held view, listed below, be discredited. These comments were made at the Dunview Comprehensive Pastoral Board on 1st December, 1983:-

a) However education is dressed up this type of child would not be motivated.

b) There will always be an anti school, disruptive element.

Watts (1983) sees this type of attitude as a common problem. Schools, he argues, have a tendancy to turn towards a more repressive and restrictive curriculum in self defence. Fortunately this is not true of all schools and some have taken a more radical approach and become catalysts for change. Even the present Conservative government, not widely described as progressive, disagrees with the pessimists. Their policy is that all schools are to be offered an alternative, practical curriculum from September 1985. Students will work towards a certificate based on achievement profiles instead of examinations.

Phil Murray 'The Journal' 30th April 1985 p.3.

The new curriculum will also be closely co-ordinated with Y.T.S. courses. (Jackson 1984). Though not all who favour curriculum change would welcome a centralised approach, it may well be necessary in order to hasten progress and to standardise assessment i.e. nationally recognised assessment. Local innovations could always be incorporated at a later date.

However, in spite of the pessimists whose assumptions would destroy the whole hypothesis that the type of child in our sample has latent ability, the author's own experience leaves him to expect that his research will show at least a high proportion of these children being motivated and gaining skills which will prove useful to both themselves and society. So before proceeding it is worthwhile pointing to a few examples of a more radical curriculum being successful.

1) Midwinter (1972) showed how an E.P.A. school in Liverpool became transformed into a successful Community School with not only the children becoming motivated but the parents also.

2) The author's own experience of the implementation of R.O.S.L.A. between 1972 - 74 indicated that children did enjoy a number of activities which were organised on the basis of flexible half days with small groups. Successful activities included:- industrial visits, baseball, visual aids, printing, car maintenance, gardening and pottery. The scheme was abandoned after two years so that wider options could be provided for G.C.E./C.S.E. children.

3) Hemmings (1980) gives the example of Leslie Smith, Headmaster at Mark House Secondary School, methods on pupils' aspirations. Within two years Hemmings reports the school was converted from indolent confusion into a busy happy place.

4) Raven (1977) found the following ten most interesting things which children wished to do in school:-

Mark Jackson 'Times Educational Supplement' p.1 6.1.1984.

E. Midwinter (1972) 'Projections'

TABLE 3 ˜ Raven Questionnaire

School Should Do More	% Selecting Item
1. Encourage co-ed friendships clubs and hobbies.	80
2. Visits to factories etc.	80
3. Subject educational visits eg. theatre.	76
4. New subjects eg. philosophy, sociology.	73
5. Advise parents to give sex education.	71
6. Have outside speakers.	69
7. Run courses for adults.	67
8. Teach bringing up children, home repairs etc.	67
9. Teach wide range of culture and philosophies.	65
10. Implications and responsibilities of marriage.	64

This survey showed a strong desire for a more vocational, practical and life skills content to the curriculum. A good deal of material on life and social skills had been prepared by the Schools Council and is being used successfully in a number of authorities of which Newcastle is one. On a visit to a local High School in July 1983 the author saw evidence of such work where children who were usually poorly motivated and reluctant to do homework became involved in action research, producing work over and above what was requested.

Often closely linked to life and social skills is profiling which offers our children realistic reachable goals, regular rewards and continuous assessment. Though still in an experimental stage and with a wide and varied approach the signs are there that they can motivate the less able child (Janet Balogh 1982).

> "We're not good at exams but when we leave school we'll have a booklet full of ourselves and our hobbies'. (Pupil).

> "It tells more about you than an exam certificate".
> (Ex-pupil).

Janet Balogh 'Profile Reports for School - Leavers'(1982).

The N.U.T. (1983) expressing concern for the 40% of our pupils who will leave school with few or no academic qualifications supports profiles:

"The use of profiles would ensure that the work of these pupils was properly assessed and recorded, in order that they might leave school with a detailed record of their particular abilities and achievements, which would have value and creditability both in their own eyes and in the eyes of users".

This document also argues that all the work of all the pupils in school is worthy of being recorded and that all pupils deserve our professional time and effort. Indeed all successful projects with our less able, more difficult children are demanding of time and effort. Initial success like the E.P.A. and R.O.S.L.A. innovations will wane when enthusiasm and funds 'dry up'. Profiling offers a structure which should not be too dependant on changes in personnel whether they be teacher in school or Y.T.S. supervisors. Indeed as profiling forms a integral part of Y.T.S. assessment there will be an excellent opportunity to measure how it relates to pupil motivation.

A Suitable Curriculum for the Non Academic

At this stage it is necessary to consider what changes might be made if education is to become more relevant for less able pupils during a period of high unemployment.

Unemployment since 1982 has rarely fallen below 3,000,000. Missing from official figures are:-

a) Since 1982 those who do not claim benefit owing to insufficient stamps.

b) Since 1983 men over 60.

c) Youngsters and adults taking part in MSC schemes.

Though unemployment is a problem throughout the age range it is especially serious for the young. Between 1972 - 77 unemployment amongst young people (under 25)

National Union of Teachers (1983) 'Pupil Profiles' A Discussion Document.

T. Rees & D. Gregory 1981 Educ.Analysis. P.11. 'Youth Employment & Unemployment : a Decade of Decline'.

rose 120% compared with 45% over the whole population (Rees & Gregory 1981). The reasons for this accelerated rise are:-

    a) Increasing pay differentials. Full pay at 18 has meant that school leavers are no longer a source of 'cheap' labour.

    b) Firms have cut recruitment to shed man-power by natural wastage.

    c) New technology:-

> "They estimated that the falling cost of a word processor compared with a conventional typist would lead to a loss of some 25,000 office jobs, the majority being in the positions normally occupied by young people".

                        (Rees & Gregory 1981)

This national trend is highlighted by even greater difficulties for girls, ethnic minorities, the handicapped and the regions. Because of the scope of study in this thesis it is necessary to concentrate on the regional aspects of the problem. As an inner city school in a region of high unemployment Dunview children are affected by the decline in local manufacturing and engineering as well as the national depression. In 1980 the "Employment Gazette" (Rees and Gregory 1981) demonstrated the seriousness of the problem as unemployment amongst the under 25's was 29.5% for males and a staggering 55% for females.

Unlike previous post-war slumps there appears to be a total lack of confidence as to when or indeed if ever there will be a dramatic upturn in the economy. Indeed the Manpower Research Group at the University of Warwick forecast - 1980 that there would be a further loss of 200,000 engineering craft jobs and 800,000 semi-skilled and operative jobs by 1985. These are the very types of work which offered employment to the Dunview non-academics in the 60's and 70's e.g. clothing firms, a rope factory, a glassworks or engineering firms. The reason for this has been a pruning of staff resulting in no new recruitment or worse still the firm has closed down. Worst hit has been the clothing industry which has seen three large Shipton closures in recent years.

The less able children who found work in service industries have been replaced by Y.O.P./Y.T.S. school leavers. Here the main employment areas have been supermarkets and departmental stores. (See Appendix II).

The figures for 1983 (Dunview school leavers, on the surface, seem to indicate an improvement in the local economy. 25% gaining full time employment. This figure should be 35% if sixth form and college students were removed. As for the non-academics they were placed as follows:-

<div align="center">Table 4   <u>Leavers</u></div>

1	Further Education	1 girl
12	Employment	11 girls 1 boy
23	Y.T.S.	11 girls 12 boys

In the very bottom class, which had been a streamed remedial group throughout the school, 66% of the girls secured full time employment, also many of those doing Y.T.S. schemes appear to have a reasonable chance (estimate range from 40-70%) of gaining permanent employment. Reasonable optimism on Y.T.S. traineer' employment prospects can only be based on statistics from the Y.O.P. programme. Figures for those doing work experience on employers premises and becoming immediately unemployed never reached 50% Indeed, the figures ranged from 22% in 1978 (when unemployment was 5.1%) to 47% in Jan/March 1982 when unemployment was 12.7% (M.S.C. 1983).

Although these figures appear to run counter to my general argument they are not as optimistic as they appear. These facts should be noted:-

    a) The demand for low ability girls is based on
       the knowledge that they will be doing repetitive
       work for low wages e.g. making paint brushes
       or biscuits. Their wages are slightly higher
       than the Y.T.S. allowance.

    b) Neither of the two firms, which have provided
       the majority of these jobs, consulted the school

in connection with any of the pupils' past records or ability. This certainly reinforces the view, at least amongst the pupils, that school was of little or no value to them.

    c) The type of Career previously preferred by these girls, as indicated in Careers lessons or interviews with their Careers officer in no way matched what they secured. They merely took the first available job.

Therefore, at least temporarily, we had returned to the job hopping strategies mentioned earlier by Phillips (1973) and Cherry (1976) but in the present situation of structual youth unemployment described by Roberts et al (1981). If typical, these children, unless they wish to remain in a job from which they are unlikely to gain great satisfaction, will become hard-core unemployed with not even the skills gained by the Y.T.S. trainees.

School had neither prepared these children for work nor aided them in the transition from school to adult life, a response which resembles learning to swim by being thrown in at the deep end. These young people will not be able to hop from job to job until they find the right one. So again the importance of adequate preparation and accurate assessment to help find a suitable Y.T.S. or job is vital. To bring this about we must thoroughly examine how we bring about a satisfactory transition from school to work. Rees and Gregory (1981) identify 3 approaches.

    a) <u>The Traditional Approach</u> This applies to many of our secondary schools, including Dunview. There is a clear break from school to work with a largely academic curriculum. Careers is taught in isolation and seems remote from the realities of the labour market and there is little preparation for either employment or unemploy- ment.

    b) <u>The Programmed Approach</u> Here is a clear break from school to work but efforts are made during the final year to smooth the transition with school/industry projects,

forums, conferences etc. The curriculum
for non-examination pupils may be altered
to fit the perceived needs of local industry.

c) <u>The Radical Approach</u> There is no clear cut
break in the school to work transition.
The emphasis is on a two way interchange
between school and industry through prog-
rammed work experience for students from the
age of 13 onwards. Teachers would spend time
in local industry and industrialists spend
time in school.

Though the terminology is somewhat different this
argument is wholly supported by Neave (1978)[1], whose main
proposals were:-

1. <u>Improved motivation</u> through better industrial
contacts e.g. work observation.

2. <u>Changes in curriculum</u> including the need of
every child to have a common core of necessary
academic, technical and vocational skills on
which he can later specialise and build.

3. <u>More effective curriculum evaluation</u>

4. <u>Changes in organisational patterns</u> to allow
more flexibility and greater student parti-
cipation.

If the transition from school to work is to be improved
then it must be through an effective Careers programme.
However Peter Smith (1983)[2] refers to Careers education
as a failure because it is a 'cinderella' subject which
devotes sufficient time to neither pupils nor teachers.

Bill Law (1981)[3] is also critical of the inadequate
Careers provision within the school curriculum identifying
the ideal as:

"The careers teacher, the pastoral-care tutors
and in particular but not exclusively the teachers
of youngsters of lesser academic achievement, made
extensive use of the student's neighbourhood know-
ledge, brought in a variety of members of the

G.Neave 1978 'Research Perspectives on the Transition from
School Work'.
Inst. of Ed. Wksp for the Commission of European Communities.
Peter Smith 'Guardian' October 4th 1983.
'Why careers education often fails to work'.
Bill Law (1981) Education Analysis. p.63
'Careers Education and Curriculum Priorities in Secondary
Schools'

neighbourhood (including ex-students) to participate in its programmes, and set youngsters out to use local places of employment as 'classrooms' with carefully - designed preparation and follow up procedures".

Further weaknesses of conventional Careers teaching are outlined by Jamieson and Lightfoot (1981) who point to the limited success of:-

1. Work observation and work visits which give pupils a superficial view and fail to accommodate the views of the ordinary worker.

2. Work experience which is often spoilt by poor preparation and follow-up and suffers from not being part of a comprehensive school-to-work programme.

3. Industrialists in the classroom are usually supervisors or managers and consequently never reflect shop floor/trade union views. The joint authors recommended:-

    a) A more comprehensive radical approach.

    b) A teacher to act as an agent for change and not against it.

    c) Stronger links between schools and industry.

A survey of 11 Shipton comprehensive schools in October 1983 clearly indicates that Careers provision within the borough is very much of the 'cinderella' cosmetic nature. The questionnaire and findings which the author helped design and administer are attached (Appendix 3 i-v) as is the summary which highlights inadequate time and facilities, but, most important of all, the low status of Careers education. It had been unable to radically effect curriculum change. In Dunview Comprehensive Careers represents 1% of a child's total school career (provided he leaves at 16) or 2½% of his time during the final two years.

Shipton schools also have an examination success league table which is now available to parents as well as teachers and education officials. This type of information makes the poorer schools, or those near the bottom of the league, defensive and causes them to strive for academic success at all costs. Therefore curriculum change becomes

Ian Jamieson & Martin Lightfoot (1981)
'Learning About Work'. Ed.Analysis p.39

even more difficult to achieve and many pupils find themselves locked into inappropriate educational experience. (Hemmings 1980).

Dunview which has fared badly in these comparison tables (13th out of 14 in the 'O' level league table 1983) as I have earlier indicated, has turned to streaming and a more determined but arguably inappropriate search for academic excellence. Staffroom opinion is that, as there are more unemployed than job vacancies, employers, who are in a buyers market, can demand higher and higher qualifications. Therefore it is argued education must become more academic not less. Even if employers recruited totally in this fashion i.e. employed those with the best 'O' levels, this theory has little to offer our bottom 40% who will only ever get 'O' levels or grade 1 C.S.E.'s if the standards or pass marks are dramatically lowered. With 80 or 90% of the population doing the equivalent of 5 'O' levels one is then rather bemused as to how employers will screen them. Before this theory becomes totally ridiculous it is worth pointing to research by Maguire and Ashton (1981) carried out for the Department of Employment. They recognise five distinct strategies used by employers to recruit labour:-

Strategy 1 Employer stipulates minimum qualifications for the job but in practice tends to recruit those with the highest qualifications.

Strategy 2 Educational qualifications are used as a means of screening but much depends on the interview.

Strategy 3 Educational qualifications perform a focussing function but non-academic qualifications are more important.

Strategy 4 All emphasis is on non-academic quali-fications and education qualifications are irrelevant or unnecessary.

Strategy 5 Educational qualifications disqualify young people for a job. The authors identify the type of approach favoured by firms classified by size. They were asked how useful are academic qualifications.

M.J. Maguire & D.N. Ashton 1981 'Employers Perceptions and the Use of Educational Qualifications'. Educational Analysis p.27-29.

Table 5
Maguire and Ashton Survey on Academic Qualification

No: of Employees	Useful%	Sometimes Useful %	Not Useful%
Under 25	30	21	49
26 - 100	51	26	23
101 - 250	50	20	30
251 - 500	45	34	21
501 - 1,000	66	17	17
Over 1,000	72	16	12

Despite these figures. schools persist in trying to motivate the average and below average child with the philosophy that a grade 4 C.S.E. is better than nothing. Yet McGuiness (1983) questions the value of low grade C.S.E.'s and there is evidence of their limited value in a submission by headteachers to the Welsh Under Secretary in 1978 which states that C.S.E. grades 2-5 are discounted by employers and increase the sense of being second class citizens. What these figures seem to indicate for the less able is:-

a) The smaller the firm the better the chance of employment.

b) They should be concentrating on strategies 3-5.

c) They should develop a number of personality and work situation factors identified by Maguire and Ashton as valued by employers:-

Personality

1) Self presentation eg. smartness, cleanliness, punctuality and manners.

2) Attitude to work - motivation and enthusiasm.

3) Interest in the job.

4) Family background.

Work Situation

1) The type of work group to be entered.

2) The abilities, skills or physical attributes required for the job.

J.McGuiness (1983) 'Secondary Education For All?'
'Sacred Cows in Education'.
National Association of Head Teachers 27.11.78.
Submission to Welsh Under Secretary. 'Guardian'.

Schools who persist with an academic rather than life skills approach produce counter productive results. The young person becomes frustrated and, as a result, has a tendency to move towards untidiness, latecoming, absenteeism, laziness, lack of interest and often disruptive behaviour.

The basic hypothesis identified at the beginning of this thesis would lead one to assume that many of these characteristics will be demonstrated in the final findings. Indeed whatever knowledge we pass on to children will be of limited value unless our children develop skills which attract employers. A number of workers in this field have argued along these lines:-

> "It does seem important that there is an increased emphasis on education and training programmes which help young people to develop into flexible and adaptable adults confident in their abilities to learn different skills to cope with new situations".

(Townsend & Devereaux 1981).[1]

McGuiness (1983)[2] is more specific and lists 23 survival skills in order to 'survive and prosper'. Included in the comprehensive list are decision making, involvement, personal attention, vocational guidance, leisure, unemployment and less academic pressure.

The M.S.C. (1981)[3] also highlights the lack of skill training and vocational education amongst school leavers in a comparison with France and West Germany.

Table 6

M.S.C. Comparison

Summary of activities of young people after compulsory schooling

	Year	Full time Gen.Educ.	Full time Voc.Educ.	Apprenticeship	Work or Unemployment
France	1978	27	40	14	19
W.Germany	1980	25	18	50	7
Gt.Britain	1977	32	10	14	44

'Skill Development and the Curriculum' (1981) Townsend & Devereaux.

J.McGuiness (1983) 'Secondary Education For All?'

'A New Training Initiative' (1981) p.9. A Consultative Document.

To bridge these enormous gaps the New Training Initiative aimed at improving vocational and skill training which we have seen is inadequate in many of our schools. The three major objectives outlines were:-

1) To offer employers a much more assured supply of key skills.

2) To offer employees a better start in working life and access to a wider range of jobs.

3) To the education service the opportunity to replace traditional approaches with new techniques.

So the Y.T.S. is intended to offer the children in the survey the chance to gain skills in a manner which could have been used in schools. The thesis will follow and measure their progress, or lack of it, comparing their final year at school with their year on the scheme. Whilst the M.S.C. is optimistic, staffroom opinions often expressed are that it is the children who are failures not the educational system. Grubbs and Lazerson (1981) are also pessimistic although for different reasons. They are highly critical of vocational programmes which neither boost the economy nor provide real long term jobs:

"If youth unemployment is to be considered a serious problem, then expansion of employment programmes as training programmes seems an obvious prerequisite'.

(Grubbs and Lazerson 1981).

Whilst not arguing against the need for an expanding economy there are serious questions as to whether it would absorb masses of unskilled young people. (Trevor Owen 1981). As mentioned earlier unskilled and semi-skilled occupations have disappeared at an alarming rate. New industries are unlikely to require these same type of people. In any case there appears little prospect of an expanding economy during the lifetime of this survey. So an important hope for these youngsters is a training programme. Whilst noting the comments of the pessimists I prefer to conclude

W.N. Grubbs & M. Lazerson (1981). 'Vocational Solutions to Youth Problems'.

T. Owen (1981) 'NICEC Training Bulletin.'

this chapter on a more optimistic note. Along with David
Young (M.S.C.) 1983 Len Murray (T.U.C.) 1983 Sir Terence
Beckett (C.B.I.) 1983 and Peter Morrison (Minister of
Employment 1983) the author believes the scheme can succeed
and hopes for positive findings for the children in this
survey.

Evaluation

This chapter has followed these lines of argument
which can be summarised as follows:-

a) Those pupils in our 'B' band sample have been
branded as failures in terms of the academic
curriculum.

b) Boredom and streaming has alienated them from
the school.

c) There is evidence that this type of child does
not have to fail, by necessity, and hopefully
the practical, vocational nature of the Y.T.S.
will enable many of the sample to develop
relevant skills for today's society.

CHAPTER TWO

Section 1

School Questionnaires

Summary of Argument

In this chapter, five questionnaires will be examined in detail. They deal with the following aspects of school life:-

Table 7   School Questionnaire Headings

1. Absenteeism and Truancy.
2. Pupils' behaviour.
3. Teaching styles.
4. Classroom activities
5. Pupils' achievement.

The general aim of all the questionnaires was to test that part of the hypothesis, which postulates that our less able children at Dunview Comprehensive are bored at school. Therefore the questionnaires should demonstrate a variety of ways in which pupils react to that boredom. We might expect them to reflect passive disinterest through poor attendance and active disinterest through lack of effort, lack of achievement and disruptive behaviour. If the hypothesis is correct one would expect questionnaire one, dealing with attendance, to show high levels of truancy and absenteeism for fairly trivial reasons because of the pupils' lack of interest in what school has to offer. The data derived from the questionnaire will be supplemented by the official records of the register and confidential information from the Year Head in order to add a numerical dimension of an official nature to the pupils' responses.

Again, if the hypothesis is correct, one would expect that questionnaire two dealing with pupils' behaviour in all subjects would demonstrate that there are more discipline problems in academic than in practical lessons. This questionnaire will compare pupils' views of their own behaviour with those of their subject teachers in order to give greater professional weight to the findings.

Questionnaire three deals with recognised teaching

styles and here, if the hypothesis is correct, one would expect to find better teacher/pupil relationships where the teaching style is informal than where the style is formal or traditional.

Questionnaire four deals with activities, which have been sub-divided into formal, social, practical and vocational areas. We might well expect pupils in this questionnaire, if the original hypothesis is accurate, to display a preference for the informal over the formal lessons.

Questionnaire five, completed by both pupils and teachers, investigates pupils' achievements. The expectation of the hypothesis is that responses on both pupils' and teachers' questionnaires would reflect limited achievement of these pupils in formal/academic subjects. The data from these questionnaires will be supplemented by examination results in order to add some non-standardised numerical comparisons of the questionnaire data.

Section 2

Questionnaire One   Absenteeism and Truancy

A number of researchers have investigated the scope and causes of poor attendance at schools eg. Milham (1978), Raffe et al (1978), Rutter et al (1979) and Grunsell (1980. The evidence from the findings of the research suggests that truancy is a simple and eminently measurable form of anti-school protest. Children find school neither interesting nor relevant so they simply do not attend. Research in the extent of the problem (Pack Report (1977) Fogelman (1976) Kahn & Nursten (1964) Denney (1974) and Corrigan (1979) indicates that truancy has been practised by something in the region of 50% of our children, that it is widespread amongst all classes, occurs pesistently amongst many of our children and may well increase with unemployment becoming more likely to be a major part of their future. The problem is not without a solution as research by Neil (1962) Sproule (1971) Midwinter (1972)

Grunsell (1980) and Lamb (1984) demonstrates that both the school and the law can be used to seriously reduce absenteeism from school.

Central to the hypothesis that the conventional curriculum is failing our less able children is the relationship between the quality and relevance of education and the response from the pupils. The literature cited above demonstrates quite clearly that truancy is indicative of a distinct lack of enthusiasm, to what is being offered by many of our schools, including Dunview.

Rutter et al (1979) cites boredom and lack of communication between pupils and the curriculum formulators as the major cause of truancy. Schostak (1982) in a similar vein cites boredom and fear of the teachers as the major causes of absenteeism. These findings are further extended by Raffe et al (1978) Regular truants were questioned after they left school and only 12% stated that they found school either quite or very useful.

Further support for the belief that the school is the major cause of truancy can be found in Millham et al (1978)[1].

> "It is the failure of schools to measure up
> to expectations which produces high levels
> of truancy amongst vulnerable adolescents
> in the year before leaving".

Reynolds (1976)[2] is also strongly critical of the conventional academic curriculum and cites it as the major cause of truancy. He backs this statement up with research into Welsh schools (Reynolds et al 1976)[3]. In secondary modern schools with similar intake he found attendance varied from 89.1% to 77.2%. Tests taken at intake to these schools strongly suggested that the differences found could be largely attributed to the prevailing regimes.

Grunsell (1978)[4] (1980)[5] declares strongly that truancy was the response of urban children in revolt against the

S.Millham, R.Bullock, K.Hosie (1978) 'Springboard : A Study of C.S.V.'s Job Creation'. Project in Sunderland.

D. Reynolds '1976) 'The Delinquent School'. M. Hammersley & P. Woods (Eds).
Routledge & Kegan P. 'The Process of Schooling'.
D. Reynolds, D. Jones & S.St.Leger (1976). 'Schools do make a Difference'. 'New Society'. July 1976 P.223-225.
R.Grunsell (1978) 'Born to be Invisible'.
R. Grunsell (1980) 'Absent from School'.

conventional school.

Other lesser factors contributing to truancy are unemployment i.e. low expectations of work (Corrigan 1979)[1] and the social class of parents (Pack Report)[2]. Neither of these pieces of research destroy the theory that the school is the major cause of truancy. Low job prospects are another reflection on the school, in the opinion of many children who have the feeling that all those years of education are useless. The investigation by the Pack Report into truancy analysed by social classes found only a 9% discrepancy between the highest and lowest scores between different social classes. Highest were professional people of whom 35% had never truanted whilst lowest were skilled manual with 26% who had never truanted. This social group fell two percentage points behind both the unskilled and semi-skilled worker.

Like most of the research on truancy the Pack Report suggests that truancy has much more to do with the school than the home:

> "Questionnaires put to classes of secondary modern
> school children (not all of whom were truants)
> showed that they attributed truancy to boredom
> with school work, difficulty with school work,
> dislike of a particular subject and conflict
> with some teachers".

Schools could well expect that whatever their curriculum or approach some children would be dissatisfied and absent themselves. However, when in the region of half of them stay off school for unofficial reasons, then the problem is one of serious proportions. For instance Fogelman (1976)[3] found that 52% of children questioned in a survey admitted truancy in their final year of school. The school registers at Dunview Comprehensive would seem to suggest that these findings are neither wildly exaggerated nor untypical. (Appendix 4).

In the final year at school out of 68 children in the 'B' band classes only one achieved full attendance whilst only 19 managed to have less than 30 absences. Looking at the worst attenders the figures for the registers

P. Corrigan (1979) 'Schooling the Smash Street Kids.'
Pack Report (1977) 'Truancy & Indiscipline in Schools in Scotland'
Scottish Education Dept.
K. Fogelman (1976) 'Britains Sixteen Year Olds.'

indicated that:-

1. Nine pupils were absent above 50% of the time.

2. From October to April two pupils managed to attend only half a day each, despite frequent visits from the Educational Welfare Officer.

(3 class registers, Appendix 5 (i)(ii)(iii).

These examples from the school registers matching the findings of Fogelman (1976), The Pack Report (1977) and Corrigan (1979) demonstrate the extent of the problem. In particular it clearly shows the high level of part time attendance. There are countless examples of both broken days and broken weeks. A staggering 55 of the 68 students (81%) rarely managed a full week's attendance. Persistent truancy of this nature is described as follows (Kahn & Nursten 1964).

> "This type of truancy is often a comparatively normal reaction to surroundings that are un-sympathetic or lacking in stimulation".

Relating to Dunview, in particular, this indicates that children are reacting negatively to teachers or lessons they do not like on particular days. For example, in all three classes attendance regularly fell quite sharply on Friday afternoons. These persistent poor attenders fall into two main groupings, identified by Denney (1974).

a) Absent from school without parents permission.

b) The withholding of a child from school by parents.

A third group would include the child who was absent because of school phobia. However, as there were no known cases in the 'B' band and as it is a complicated psychological problem, not related to the hypothesis, I decided to leave it out of my investigation.

It is worth mentioning that the statistics would have been even worse had they reflected internal truancy, which was known to be a serious problem amonst the survey group but not accurately recorded. It manifested itself in three ways all of which resulted in non-attendance at the official lesson:-

1. Doing work for another teacher.

2. Hiding on the school premises.

Rev. A.H.Denney (1974) 'Truancy and School Phobias'.

3. Leaving the school premises between lessons.
This data has not been included in the study, since it takes us away from the major focus of the investigation.

Returning to external truancy, of the 68 pupils 29 (43%) were known and self confessed truants. (Year Head 1984). Other children and indeed most of these truants mentioned above had covering notes from the parents suggesting:-

Either a) Parents, to some degree, condone absence from school.

or b) Parents believe that their child is genuinely poorly on a regular basis.

Whether or not these basic statistics reflect truancy or parental excused absence, they do demonstrate an absentee rate way above reasonable illness. These high levels of absence were certainly most evident in the top two ability classes which were filled with 'O' level children as these comparisons show:-

Table 8   Absence Rates

	Boys	Girls		
501	3%	9.9%	]	
502	7.5%	16.2%	]	Average 9.15%
			]	
505	28.8%	19.2%	]	
506	16.6%	22.7%	]	Average 23.31%
507	32.1%	20.5%	]	

Absence rates were 14% higher in the 'B' band classes than in the two 'O' level classes. These classes contained pupils who were more highly motivated towards the academic curriculum. If one accepts:-

a) All the absences were because of genuine illness (and this is highly questionable particularly amongst the girls).

b) 'A' and 'B' pupils being of broadly equal health and physical fitness should have similar attendance records.

Then in the region of 60% of our survey groups' absence is without a genuine excuse. In view of the questionable nature of supposition (a) the real figure is probably much higher. This adds further weight to the overwhelming evidence that 'B' band children stay off school without due cause.

Fortunately for these pupils they are residents of Shipton and not Leeds. If they were residents of this Yorkshire city they could well be amongst the 400 children who appear before juvenile court every week for non-attendance at school (Lamb 1984). [1]

Heavy fines aimed at hitting the pockets of parents have resulted in all but 13% returning to regular schooling. However at Dunview there were no prosecutions so children and parents could break the law without danger of reprimand. Indeed, unless the law is vigorously applied, as in Leeds it can prove counter-productive. Anna Sproule (1971)[2] found that, when her special school for truants dropped compulsion, attendance rose by 80%. This suggests that schools can go a long way towards combatting truancy.

Also at Dunview there was a dramatic improvement in attendance during the first term of the D.E.S. low achievers project as these figures show. They compare the D.E.S. group with the thesis sample.

Table 9

Attendance Statistics Sept - Jan (inclusive)
'B' Group 1983/4 Average 81.67% Boys 80.84% Girls 82.74%
DES Group 1984/5 Average 92.07% Boys 91.04% Girls 93.07%

These figures were supplied by the Head of Dunview Comprehensive. (March 1985). They show a remarkable improvement in attendance when school appears to the pupils to be more interesting and relevant. The evidence of the literature (A.S. Neill 1962,[3] E. Midwinter[4] 1972 and R. Grunsell 1980) supports this school evidence that a more radical, relevant curriculum leads to better attendance. This means there are two tried and tested ways of improving school attendance, i.e. through the schools themselves and the law.

Barbara Lamb (4.9.84) 'Education Guardian'. P.11.

A. Sproule (1974) 'Rebels with a Cause'. (Ed. Barry Turner)

A.S. Neill (1962) 'Summerhill: A Radical approach to Education'.

E. Midwinter (1972) 'Projections'.

Heavy penalties imposed by law may only serve to cover up the inadequacies in the education system and forcing children, who are unwilling, to attend school would almost certainly result in a higher number of behavioural problems as one member of staff repeatedly remarked:

"They're no bother when they're not here".

Indeed at a school N.A.S./U.W.T. meeting (December 1984) one member of staff complained that the 1984-85 5th Year 'B' band attended school far too regularly.

Questionnaire one is designed to go beneath the basic statistics and explore some of the reasons for these extremely high absence figures. Basically, the author outlined three general reasons for absence, the two outlined earlier (parental approval and truancy) plus serious illness.

One of the author's aims was to distinguish between those who were only absent when very ill and those who only needed a trivial excuse. Then the poor attenders would be studied to see if they were absent with or without the knowledge of their parents or indeed if there was overlap, i.e. children stayed off sometimes with and sometimes without parental consent. The answers provided by the children would help determine, at least in the case of Dunview, if absence was an anti-school protest

Perhaps the findings would have been even more interesting had many of the hard core truants filled in the questionnaires but unfortunately they were absent from school.

QUESTIONS

	Reasons for Absence	Never	1/2	2+
1.	Headache	46.3	34.1	19.5
2.	Bullied	90.5	2.4	7.1
3.	Fracture	65.9	3118	2.3
4.	Cold	11.4	40.9	47.7
5.	Gone elsewhere	70.5	22.7	6.8
6.	Chicken pox, measles etc.	63.6	36.4	-
7.	Tired	90.9	4.5	4.5
8.	Dislike lessons or teachers	79.5	18.2	2.3
9.	Flu	50.0	40.9	9.1
10.	Off colour	39.5	48.8	11.6
11.	Owed homework	81.8	9.1	9.1
12.	Dentist or hospital	25.0	43.2	31.8

13.	Messages for parents	77.3	18.2	4.5
14.	Watching T.V.	88.6	6.8	4.5
15.	Relative seriously ill	70.5	20.5	9.1
16.	Bad back	84.1	13.6	2.3
17.	Persuaded by friends	84.1	13.6	2.3
18.	Funeral	68.2	29.5	2.3
19.	Uselessness of school	88.6	11.4	-
20.	Interview or test.	67.4	27.9	4.7

Question Grouping

Parental Approval
         &   1, 4, 7, 10, 13, 16.
Slight illness

Social reason (Truancy) 2, 5, 8, 11, 14, 17.

Serious illness   3, 6, 9, 12, 15, 18.

Motivation   19 & 20.

<u>Serious Illness</u> Undoubtedly this was not the major cause of the poor attendance. As the absentee figures showed high levels of broken weeks this would hardly be explained by a fracture, serious disease or family death. Indeed 28 (63.6%) of the sample had gone through the trauma of childhood 'spotty' illnesses by the time they started secondary school. Hospital, dental appointments or an occasional funeral would only account for the very rare broken week. By the children's own admission only 14 (31.8%) had ever been absent to attend a funeral and the same number been absent more than twice to attend hospital or the dentist.

On serious illness the questionnaire reveals that only 1 child (2.3%) escaped major illness or injury during 5 years at secondary school. Also the figures revealed:

(1) 1 child (2.3%) had more than two fractures.

(2) 4 children (9.1%) had influenza more than twice.

(3) 4 children (9.1%) had relatives who were seriously ill
        on more than two occasions.

Nevertheless serious illness to self or serious illness or death to family neither explained the high levels of absence nor the type of regular short term absence so much in evidence.

<u>Parental Knowledge</u>.   It is almost impossible for a teacher or parent (perhaps even a doctor) to make a definite judgement as to the legitimacy or seriousness of this type of illness. However the figures do suggest high levels of absence for things which might have been conquered or overlooked had the choice not been. school.   Highest on the excuse chart is the common cold.   Out of the survey group only 5 (11.4%) had never used that as an excuse for absence. Indeed almost half the group 21 (47.7%) used it as a regular excuse.   On at least one occasion over 50% used a headache, 60% "off colour", 16% a bad back and 10% tiredness as reasons for absence.

Given the scope of this study it was methodologically impossible to assess the extent to which parents were deceived by children for this type of excuse.   Because of the regular occurrance of these illnesses one can only doubt the thoroughness of parental investigations.   Indeed working parents might only find out about the illness on arriving home in the evening.   Even taking into account understandable concern, and indeed necessary caution over their children's health, the questionnaire does appear to indicate a lack of commitment by parents as well as children towards regular schooling.   Whilst only a small majority might encourage absence eg. 10 (22.7%), to run messages a much higher number was not doing enough to discourage absence.   Although exact figures are not possible this part of the questionnaire demonstrates that the vast majority of children are only too ready to stay off school for a trivial excuse and their parents appear unwilling and/or unable to change this situation and in the vast majority of absences present their children with a covering note (Year Head 1984).

<u>Social Reasons</u>.   (Truancy)   As mentioned earlier about 40% of the 'B' band children had admitted truancy.   All the reasons suggested in the questionnaire has subscribers:

Had somewhere better to go.	13	(29.5%)
Disliked lessons or teachers.	9	(20.5%)
Owed homework.	8	(18.2%)
Persuaded by friends.	7	(15.9%)
Watched T.V.	5	(11.4%)
Bullied	4	(9.5%)

The two main reasons outlined in these figures are anxiety and boredom. Either the child was afraid to go to school because of teachers or persons or the school could not complete with outside attractions on even something as uninspiring as daytime T.V. Altogether 20 (45.5%) admitted truancy for one of the suggested reasons. This was very much in line with the Year Head's official figures and leads us to examine possible remedies.

Conclusion. As both the literature, school registers and the questionnaire point to shortcomings in the appeal of school to many pupils it would appear illogical to expect an outside agency i.e. the law to solve the problem of high absenteeism. On the surface in Leeds the law has done just that, but forcing children back to an unchanged school does not cure the underlying causes of truancy. Indeed forcing resentful children back to a place they dislike can only result in a further straining of pupil/teacher relationships.

Therefore the only realistic answer to poor attendance is to give our schools greater appeal and relevance. This means radical changes to the school curriculum as suggested by the Pack Report (1977), Fogelman (1976) Sproule (1971) D.E.S. Survey (1978) and Grunsell (1980). These authors are amongst those who recommend changes in the school curriculum. Examples of the recommended changes are:

1. School should be more interesting and relevant.
2. There should be better communication at all levels.
3. Education should be continuous and avoid traumatic change, for example primary to secondary.
4. There should be an improved Careers programme with regular contacts with local employers.
5. There should be group activities and decision making to improve the pupil's self esteem.

Almost certainly the pupils of Dunview Comprehensive would agree with the majority of these suggestions for a more progressive curriculum and more democratic school structure. However, as they were not consulted, along

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'Truancy' & Behaviour Problems in Some Urban Schools' (1978) D.E.S.

with the vast majority of teachers, by the school establish-
ment and timetable formulators they voted with their feet
and stayed away from school.

Section 3

Questionnaire Two   Pupil Behaviour

The Author's considerations were the extent and causes of pupil's misbehaviour at school and so he investigated literature on these issues. Wickman (1928) and Harrop (1983) provide examples of the way pupils misbehave. Research into the extent of this misbehaviour can be found in Baxter (1979) N.A.S./U.W.T. (1976) D.E.S. (1979) Mitchell and Shepherd (1966) and Rutter (1967). The causes of this deviant behaviour which can largely be summarised as academic repression have been researched by Cleugh (1971) Baxter (1979) N.A.S./U.W.T. (1976) and Rutter (1967). In conclusion literature indicating that children can, and do, behave better where more progressive methods were used, was considered. Support for this arguement comes from Lindgren (1969) Rogers (1961) D.E.S. (1979) Purkey (1978) and Young (1984).

As long ago as (1928) Wickman identified fifty forms of children's behaviour which was troublesome to teachers. Although the author personally did not feel the examples were out of date it was far too comprehensive for his purposes i.e. constructing a questionnaire on pupils' behaviour. Therefore he turned to the more modern work of Harrop (1983) who outlines a number of types of behaviour unacceptable to teachers:

Table 11   Harrop's Deviant Behaviour

1. Calling out answers without raising hands.
2. Calling out irrelevant answers.
3. Chatting to classmates.
4. Muttering to self (but audible to observers).
5. Turning away from the teacher when he is talking to class.
6. Leaving their seats unnecessarily.
7. Working noisily.
8. Preventing others from working.
9. Daydreaming.

E.K. Wickman (1928) 'Children's Behaviour and Teacher's Attitudes'.

Alex Harrop (1983) 'Behaviour Modification in the Classroom'.

I used this list as a starting point to discuss the problems of discipline with my colleagues at Dunview Comprehensive. After these consultations I modified the list because:-

(1) There was a certain degree of overlap eg. Questions 3, 4, 7 and 8.

(2) The second behaviour problem on this list was not regarded as a serious problem at Dunview Comprehensive.

I went on to examine their ideas for other previously mentioned discipline problems and came up with the following list in roughly the order of diminishing seriousness ie. starting with agressive behaviour which disrupts the whole class, through to behaviour disrupting a small number of pupils and finally, to behaviour only a problem to the individual concerned.

Table 12   Behaviour Questionnaire

```
 1. Foul or aggressive language to teachers.
 2. Foul or aggressive language to classmates.
 3. Leaving seat without permission.
 4. Disruptive/silly noises.
 5. Pestering others.
 6. Not listening - turning head or body.
 7. Blurting out - not raising hand.
 8. Talking about unrelated subjects.
 9. Ignoring teachers' commands.
10. Daydreaming - lacking concentration.
```

The frequency of pupils' misbehaviour has been a cause of great concern to teachers. This is, at least, the view of the N.A.S./U.W.T. whose most recent survey of members was in March 1985. In (1976) they stated that crimes of violence were increasing by 15-20% per annum. The problems were worst in the inner cities eg. 25.4% of London children displayed psychiatric disorders compared with only 12% in the Isle of Wight. This last point is supported by the D.E.S. (1979). Their survey of 384 schools found that of the 25 with severe discipline problems 19 were inner city schools.

N.A.S./U.W.T. (1976) 'The Retreat from Authority'.
D.E.S. (1979) H.M.Inspectors of Schools

Further research into the extent of children's misbehaviour is provided by Rutter (1967)[1] who found 2.3% of children with definite behaviour disorders and 24.1% with possible behaviour disorders. Mitchell and Shepherd (1966)[2] found that below average children were much more badly behaved than their brighter peers:-

<u>Children 11-15 years with 7 or more items of deviant behaviour</u>

<u>Boys</u> Above average   4%   <u>Girls</u> Above average   7%

      Below average 47%   Below average 35%

Finally Baxter (1979)[3] referring to a report from the Clwyd Education Committee (1976) found that just under 10% of pupils caused disruption in schools at least once a week. Although this figure seems not too alarming Baxter points out that these figures underestimate the problem as it only cites discovered deviant behaviour. Also, as Mitchell and Shepherd (1966) point out, the hard core trouble makers are not evenly spread around but grouped together in the bottom sets where, as at Dunview, children are streamed or 'banded'.

Indeed, Baxter goes even further and states that these low ability children turn to deviant behaviour because of the demoralising effects of low marks, negatively critical reports and being placed in 'no hope' sink sets or bands. Cleugh (1971)[4] cites academic repression in certain lessons. He cites children who sit quietly at their desks all day only to go 'wild' when admitted to the playground. Certain members of staff at Dunview cite academic repression in a previous lesson as a factor in children going 'wild' in their own lessons mirroring the findings of Cleugh (1971) who states that this type of desk-bound discipline, experienced by pupils, is geared to the needs of teachers rather than children. He cites a boy who frequently punched children and refused to do academic work but completely changed for the better when given practical tasks.

Rutter (1967) 'A Children's Behaviour Questionnaire for Completion by Teachers : Preliminary Findings' (Journal of Child Psychology & Psychiatry'. 8. P.1-11).
Mitchell & Shepherd (1966) 'A Comparative Study of Children's Behaviour at Home and at School'. (British Journal of Educational Psychology'. 36. 3. 248-54).
B. Baxter (1979) 'The Disciplinary Function of the Head' in 'Discipline in Primary & Secondary Schools Today.' (Edit. A. Jennings)
M.F. Cleugh (1971) 'Discipline & Morale in School & College.'

The N.A.S./U.W.T. --(1976) is highly critical of the curriculum:

> "We are aware that there are many complaints
> especially among pupils of the 14-16 age
> groups, about the nature of the curriculum
> offered by their schools".

Rutter (1967) found that the vast majority of children with 'behaviour' problems are, in fact, well behaved in the lessons they like, suggesting that deviant behaviour is basically not a deep rooted psychiatric problem but more of a protest at a boring academic curriculum.

The Questionnaire - Structure

This dealt with pupils' and teachers' views on frequent misbehaviour. The columns were as follows:-

1. Number of Academic subjects studied by the pupil.

2. Number of Practical subjects studied by the pupil.

3. Frequent misbehaviour in Academic subjects as admitted by pupils.

4. Frequent misbehaviour in Practical subjects as admitted by pupils.

5. Frequent misbehaviour in Academic subjects as indicated by teachers.

6. Frequent misbehaviour in Practical subjects as indicated by teachers.

Table 13

Behaviour Chart Comparison

NAME	No:Acad Subs	No:Prac Subs	PUPILS		TEACHERS	
			F's in Ac.Sub	F's in Pr.Sub	F's in Ac.Sub	F's in Pr.Sub
1. Michael	5	4	21	7	0	0
2. Mark	6	3	7	1	0	0
3. David	5	4	0	5	0	0
4. Ian	6	3	2	0	0	0
5. Ivan	5	4	0	0	0	0
6. Paul	6	3	23	10	0	0
7. George	5	4	1	1	0	0
8. Michael	5	4	0	0	7	0
9. Mark	7	2	10	3	0	0
10. Tony	5	4	0	0	8	0
11. Graham	5	4	0	0	11	0
12. David	5	4	5	0	0	0
13. David	5	4	0	0	0	0
14. Gary	5	4	0	0	0	0
15. Ronald	5	4	0	0	1	1
16. David	7	2	6	2	0	0
17. Toney	5	4	0	0	12	0
18. Philip	6	3	0	1	7	0
19. Shaun	5	4	0	0	0	0
20. Gary	6	3	7	2	0	0
21. Garry	6	3	0	0	5	0
22. John	5	4	10	7	0	1
23. Simon	4	5	0	0	0	0
24. Neville	5	4	5	3	0	1
25. Annette	5	4	3	11	0	0
26. Julie	5	4	3	3	0	0
27. Susan	4	5	0	0	0	0
28. Kim	4	5	0	0	0	0
29. Irene	5	4	0	0	0	0
30. Jill	5	4	0	0	0	0
31. Michelle	4	5	0	0	0	0
32. Julie	5	4	0	0	0	0
33. Avril	4	5	3	1	0	0
34. Lisa	4	5	0	0	0	0
35. Suzanne	5	4	0	0	0	0
36. Julie	5	4	3	0	5	0
37. Christine	4	5	0	0	0	0
38. Catherine	4	5	0	0	0	0
39. Beverley	5	4	3	0	16	0
40. Debbie	4	5	4	3	0	0
41. Carol	5	4	0	3	0	0
42. Jillian	5	4	0	0	0	0
43. Debbie	6	3	0	0	0	0
44. Sharon	4	5	2	0	0	0
TOTALS	221	174	138	63	72	3

FINDINGS

A. From the pupils' scores they are almost twice as likely to get involved in disruptive behaviour in academic lessons as practical. (138 instances against 63). (62.44 cases per thousand against 36.2 cases per thousand).

B. From the teachers' scores the pupils are 20 times as likely to get involved in disruptive behaviour in academic lessons as practical. (72 instances against 3). (33.58 cases per thousand against .02 cases per thousand).

C. Pupils views on their own behaviour often differed wildly from the teachers' views. In general teachers viewed their behaviour more favourably than they did themselves by citing fewer instances of deviant behaviour.

D. Teachers identified 8 pupils, who engaged in regular disruptive behaviour, all of which occurred in academic subjects. (18% of survey group).

E. The 3 cases of disruptive behaviour in practical lessons referred to the least serious problem i.e. daydreaming. This was 6.8% of survey group.

CONCLUSION

Although there is little correlation between the two sets of scores i.e. teacher survey and pupil scores, they both indicate disenchantment with the academic curriculum as a major cause of disruptive behaviour. To improve behaviour Cleugh (1971) recommends the following:

(1) a child centred approach

(2) a more exciting curriculum

(3) better methods of school organisation

(4) that education must be relevant to the needs of society

He blames much of the poor discipline in schools as:-

(a) a fear of failure by students

(b) lecturer - centred approaches

(c) a lack of involvement by students.

His views are supported by Lindgren (1969)[1] who states
that greater pupil involvement not only leads to better
attitudes but also improved motivation and learning.
Also Rogers (1961)[2] supports the view that the non-directive
approach leads to better pupil-teacher relationships.
This was born out by many schools in the D.E.S. (1979)[3]
when radical changes were made. In similar vein Purkey
(1978)[4] states that for discipline problems to diminish
teachers must be as relevant and exciting as possible.
Finally, Young (1984)[5] reports of radically improved behaviour
by students in the 88 pilot schools involved in the Technical
& Vocational Educational Initiative which began in 1983.
This is further evidence that the practically focussed
work of the T.V.E.I. scheme is a more effective motivator
of young people. Therefore the evidence of the questionnaires
and the literature is that children are much better behaved
in practical lessons than in formal lessons giving over-
whelming support to the hypothesis that the traditional
curriculum is totally unsuitable for the below average
child and merely presents the school and teachers with
avoidable discipline problems.

H.C. Lingren (1969) 'Contemporary Research in Social Psychology'
C. Rogers (1961) 'On Becoming a Person'
D.E.S. (1979).
W. Purkey (1978) 'Inviting School Success'.

D. Young (1984) 'T.V.E.I. Review' p.6.

Section 4

Questionnaire Three   Teaching Styles

This questionnaire was devised to investigate the extent to which teachers reflected the general academic aims of the school.   Having more freedom when not tied to an examination syllabus, as would be the situation for most of these children, should enable teachers to experiment with formal approaches.

Thus the questionnaire is largely preoccupied with the consideration of teaching styles.   Sterotypes of these teaching styles have been well described by Lippitt and White (1943), Ryans (1960), Lynch and Plunkett (1973), Woods (1979) and Best et al (1983).   A further consideration is that teachers are basically middle class and perhaps have communication problems with working class children. On this topic I considered research from Floud and Scott (1961), McLeish (1970), Cane and Schroeder (1970) and Bernstein (1951).   They do provide support for the argument that there is a class and language barrier between teachers and many children.

In concluding I considered research into what methods obtain the best teaching results.   Overwhelming support came from radical conservative styles from Flanders (1964), Glidewell et al (1966), Hinsen and Hughes (1982), Schools Council (1980) and Stolz (1981).

Much of the questionnaire was designed from the four teaching styles outlined by Lynch and Plunkett (1973) i.e. subject centred, system centred, child centred and community centred.

(1) Subject centred.   The authors define this type of teacher as a scholarly purveyor of the accepted view of knowledge.   Therefore the subject is more important than the child and the teacher tries to pass on his own enthusiasm to the student.   Some of the traits of this type of teacher which I built into the question-naire were:-

a) Does the teacher talk too long?

b) Is the teacher interesting?

c) Does he have a good knowledge of the subject?

d) Does he give copious notes?

J. Lynch & H.D. Plunkett (1973)
'Teacher Education & Cultural Change'

(2) <u>System Centred</u>. This type of teacher conforms to tradition and social norms. Of course these values might not be shared by youngsters with an uncertain future leading to conflict. These children might regard this type of teacher as best portrayed by the phrases used by Dunview children, such as:-

a) Treats us like kids.

b) Makes fun of us.

c) Is too strict.

d) Is bossy.

e) Moans.

(3) <u>Child Centred</u>. This type of teacher favours informal approaches such as individualised learning. The child is seen as being more important than the subject. He can be characterised in these phrases:-

a) Chats to us.

b) Is friendly.

c) Explains things well.

d) Is happy.

e) Takes time to listen.

f) Is too soft.

(4) <u>Community Centred</u>. This type of teacher gets involved in guidance, counselling, home-school relationships and the outside world in general. There is an overlap with the child-centred teacher as many of the previous six phrases would apply to the counsellor. His worldly knowledge however should also make him:-

a) interesting.

b) show films.

c) have a good knowledge of the world.

Whilst modelling the questionnaire on these stereotypes it would be mistaken to think that teachers fit neatly into one distinct role. Eighteen of the fifty four staff have a well defined pastoral role as Year Heads, Assistants and House Heads. Indeed almost all teachers have a minor pastoral role as form tutors. Yet, all of these teachers have a subject role.

The system centred teacher's true role may not be fully recognised in the questionnaire as the Head, two

Deputies and two Senior Teachers whilst having a small teaching load provide a major influence on the running of the school.

Therefore, the questionnaire will attempt to determine if teachers are combining these differing roles and if they are, are they largely formal or informal in their approach? Lippitt & White (1943)[1] recognised two basic teaching styles:-

1. Authoritarian Teacher centred, high teacher dominance, formal, competitive, teacher directed with low pupil participation.

2. Democratic Learner centred, high pupil autonomy, encouraging divergent thinking. Greater concern for individual needs, high pupil verbal activity, group work and discussion.

Ryans (1960)[2] would describe these two stereotypes thus:-

1. Authoritarian aloof, egocentric, restricted, evading, unplanned, slipshod, dull and routine.

2. Democratic warm, understanding, friendly, responsible, business like, systematic, stimulating and imaginative.

Basically these stereotypes have not been radically altered and when Woods (1979)[3] refers to teachers as Formal-traditional and Informal-progressive, his discriptions are very similar to the classic model of Lippitt and White (1943). This could also be said of Best et al (1983)[4] who describes the teacher as Administrative and Executive against Instructional. In so doing they are recognising the increase in technology and bureaucracy in the modern school with the formal teacher being compared to the police-man, clerk, librarian and planner.

R. Lippitt & R.K. White (1943) 'The social climate of children's groups'
'Child Behaviour & Development'
D.G. Ryans (1960) 'Characteristics of Teachers, Their Description, Comparison and Appraisal'. (American Council in Education, Washington, D.C.).
P. Woods (1979) 'The Divided School'

R. Best, P. Gibbons, C. Jarvis & D. Oddy (1983).
'Education & Care'.

The questionnaire would fall neatly into ten questions which would describe the authoritarian teacher if answered positively and ten describing the democratic teacher if answered positively.

Yet one final thought went into the wording of the questionnaire. Teachers were more conservative in their beliefs and language than their students. Although Floud and Scott (1962)[1]found that 40% men and 35% women were of working class origin McLeish (1970)[2]found teachers conservative in their political attitudes and allegiance.

This conservatism has resulted in an unwillingness to research into new methods and a total unfamiliarity with leading educationalists. Cane & Shroeder (1970)[3]summarise what they consider to be typical of teacher attitudes towards research:-

"We know best, and there is nothing that research can tell us".

There is also the problem of speaking above the heads of children who understand a restricted code not the elaborated code of teachers. (Bernstein (1961) .[4] Thus children lose concentration because they cannot understand teacher vocabulary.

Floud & Scott (1961) 'Recruitment to teaching in England & Wales' in Halsey, Floud and Anderson.
'Education, Economy & Society'
McLeish (1970) 'Students Attitudes and College Environments'

Cane & Shroeder (1970) 'The Teacher & Research'

B. Bernstein (1961) 'Social structure, language & learning'
Educational Research Vol.3. p.163-76.

Table 14   Style Questionnaire Findings

	% Few	% Half	% Most
1. Treat us like kids.	61.4	20.5	18.2
2. Chat.	82.9	17.1	-
3. Talk too long.	40.9	50.0	9.1
4. Interesting.	54.5	40.9	4.5
5. Make fun.	69.8	23.3	7.0
6. Give films.	47.7	36.4	15.9
7. Too strict.	31.0	54.8	14.3
8. Good general knowledge.	16.3	37.2	46.5
9. Use difficult words.	50.0	34.1	15.9
10. Knowledge of world.	34.1	48.8	17.1
11. Friendly.	18.2	45.5	36.4
12. Bossy.	48.8	34.9	16.3
13. Explain things well.	29.5	3118	38.6
14. Talk above us.	54.8	35.7	9.5
15. Happy.	54.5	40.9	4.5
16. Copious notes.	43.2	43.2	13.6
17. Spend time discussing problems.	50.0	38.6	9.1
18. Too soft.	54.5	40.9	4.5
19. Know subject.	14.0	27.9	58.1
20. Moan.	18.2	61.4	20.5

Questions relating to the system centred, subject centred, authoritarian type of teacher were 1,3,5,7,9, 12,14,16,18 and 20. 63.5% of our survey sample believe that half or more of the teachers at Dunview use this formal style of instruction.

Questions relating to the child centred, community centred, democratic type of teacher were 2,4,6,8,10,11, 13,15,17 and 19. 54% of our survey sample believe that half or more of the teachers at Dunview use this informal style of teaching.

These findings are not particularly decisive indicating only a marginal preference for traditional styles amongst Dunview staff. To the pupils it meant that roughly 22 lessons a week would be formal whilst the remaining 18 would be informal if their questionnaire answers accurately portrayed Dunview teachers.

On the subject of the restricted code:-

a) 50% of children believe that ½ or most use
   words which are too difficult.

b) 45.2% of children believe that ½ or most
   talk above them.

This shows solid if not overwhelming support for
Bernstein's theory that there is a language barrier between
teachers and working class children.

From this questionnaire a rather complex, confusing,
stereotype emerges of a teacher who is largely authorit-
arian, subject and system centred with conservative tendencies
yet community centred, friendly, communicating quite well
and gaining reasonable respect.

Many teachers have thus walked the educational tight-
rope and watered down their academic approach and made
constant use of the video (now four in school) to prevent
alienation. However a much more radical approach would
have been more likely to have achieved better educational
results. For example Flanders (1964)[1] found much more
favourable attitudes by pupils to teachers where indirect
teaching methods were used. This research was strengthened
by the findings of Glidewell, Kanter & Smith (1966)[2] who
found where progressive styles were used:-

(1) More pleasant atmosphere eg. less moaning teachers.

(2) Less conflict & anxiety eg. more happy teachers.

(3) Teachers held in high esteem.

(4) More pupil interaction and responsibility.

Even academic subjects can be made more interesting:

"In the past, over directed teaching, dictated
notes and vigorous uniformity have been major
features of the Science, Geography and History
lessons".

(Hinsen & Hughes. 1982).[3]

The authors recommend clear objectives, flexible
strategies, appropriate content and regular monitoring
to make these subjects more interesting. Similar recommend-

N.A. Flanders (1964) 'Some relationships among teacher
influence, pupil attitudes & achievement' in Biddle.
'Contemporary Research on Teacher Effectiveness.'

J. Glidewell, M. Kanter, L. Smith & L.Stringer (1966)
'Classroom socialization & social structure' in 'Review
of Child Development Research'. Hoffran & Hoffran.

M. Hinsen & M. Hughes (1982) 'Planning Effective Progress'

ations were made towards improving the teaching of Mathematics by the School Council (1980)[1] and Stolz (1981)[2].

Therefore the evidence of the literature is that the style of teaching at Dunview needs to be radically altered if better relationships between teachers and less academic children are to be achieved. Less talking and lecturing by teachers would also diminish the problem of poor communication because of teacher's use of the elaborated code.

Schools Council (1980) (Pamphlet 17)
'Mathematics Teaching in Schools.'
C. Stolz 'Low Attainers in Mathematics 5-16'
Schools Council Project. 'Times Educational Supplement 27.3.81.

Section 5

Questionnaire Four   Classroom Activities

A number of researchers have investigated the scope, type, effects and incidence of the activities experienced by pupils in English and Welsh Secondary Schools e.g. Lawton (1977), Welsh office (1978), Robertson (1980) and Schools Council (1980).   There is common agreement that many of our schools spend far too much time on repetitive unstimulating exercises such as listening, copying and note learning.   Research from Brierly (1980) Tough (1977) Schools Council (1980)   Joint Board for Pre-Vocational Education (1984) O'Connor (1984) Newman (1984) and Hofkins (1984) indicates that there is general agreement that children need to learn by experience and therefore the balance of education must switch from academic to the practical with the most recent research e.g. O'Connor (1984) Newman (1984) and Hofkins (1984) suggesting T.V.E.I. as the most probable way forward.   Using this literature base this questionnaire was designed to find out how much children enjoyed or disliked school activities e.g. writing, listening, drawing as opposed to specific subjects e.g. English, History, Art.   Rather than depend wholly on literature or children's attitudes towards classroom activities the author assembled the survey group and asked them in an informal brainstorming session which activities they had experience of at secondary schools.

A mass of varied answers added weight to the argument put forward by Lawton (1977) that the modern comprehensive school had combined:-

    a) The leadership and high status values from
       the grammar school.
    b) Basic skills and training from the old
       elementary school.

His comment on the resultant mixture was:-
"The result is often an incoherent mess".

Out of the mass of answers as to which activities they had experienced, the author selected 24 different activities, identified by the pupils, which grouped as

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D. Lawton (1977) 'Curricular Reoriation' In E. King (Ed).
'Reorganising Education: Management and Participation for Change'.

follows:-

   a) <u>Academic/formal</u> This involved listening, learning
      from books, revision and role learning.

   b) <u>Communication</u> This was based on discussion and
      finding out things from people.

   c) <u>Practical</u> (non vocational).

   d) <u>Practical</u> (vocational).

Literature a pupils views on the curriculum would
suggest that the academic/formal approach constitutes
by far the largest part of the curriculum although it
only constitutes 25% of the questionnaire. Therefore
the pupils have had far greater experience of academic/
formal activities as opposed to those which constitute
75% of the questionnaire.

For example a Welsh Office report (1978)[1] found that
below average pupils spent several lessons every day copying
out passages from books. Also Robertson (1980)[2] found a
typical comment from pupils was that teachers spent half
a lesson explaining a concept which the pupils failed
to comprehend. However, when they did eventually grasp
the concept it was so simple that is was difficult to
understand why it had taken so long to be presented. There-
fore it seems that a great deal of teacher talk confuses
rather than helps children.

The Schools Council Working Paper 70 (1981) makes
a number of observations on the routine academic ritual
so prevalent in many schools:-

   (1) One form was given workcards every lesson that
       day.

   (2) H.M.I.'s followed groups of pupils and found
       too much reading and writing and too little
       discussion.

   (3) Pupils became inattentive after long periods
       of listening and observing.

   (4) Exercise books revealed that almost 50% of the
       content had been copied or dictated.

Welsh Office (1978) 'Literacy and Numeracy and Examination
Achievements in Wales ' p.27.
I. Robertson (1980) 'Language across the Curriculum'
Schools Council Working Paper 67 p.65-6,77,98,103-111.

(5) A week long survey found pupils time spent as follows:- 32% writing, 30% listening, 18% thinking, 10% speaking and 10% reading.

So if these comments represent what also happens in Dunview, and my discussion with the group seems to suggest they do, then the pupils are well qualified to give an accurate opinion on academic activities.

The activities in the questionnaire were grouped as follows:-

(1) Academic/Formal:- Questions 1, 5, 9, 13, 17, 21.
(2) Communication:- Questions 2, 6, 10, 14, 18, 22.
(3) Practical:- Questions 3, 7, 11, 15, 19, 23.
(4) Vocational:- Questions 4, 8, 12, 16, 20, 24.

Table 15   Activities Questionnaire Findings

Questions	Dislike	Aver	Like
1. Talk from teachers	4.5%	79.5	15.9
2. Discussion in class	9.1	47.7	43.2
3. Drawing maps	53.5	23.3	23.3
4. Making things from wood or metal	26.2	26.2	47.6
5. Taking notes	40.9	54.5.	4.5
6. Discussion in small groups	15.9	34.1	50.0
7. Doing P.E./Games	9.1	22.7	68.2
8. Cooking or sewing	36.6	24.4	39.0
9. Finding things out from books	23.3	60.5	16.3
10. Drawing or painting	16.3	23.3	60.5
11. Watching videos,films etc.	-	19.0	81.0
12. Running errands/doing odd jobs	9.3	41.5	44.2
13. Revising for exams	52.3	43.2	4.5
14. Talks from outside speakers	36.4	52.3	11.4
15. Making models	27.9	16.3	55.8
16. Making pottery or toys	22.7	22.7	54.5
17. Reading aloud	59.1	36.4	4.5
18. Finding out things from people	9.1	65.9	25.0
19. Reading comics or magazines	7.1	45.2	47.6
20. Working on typewriters/computers	19.0	21.4	59.5
21. Learning foreign words & phrases	56.8	34.1	9.1
22. Going on outside visits	-	18.6	81.4
23. Acting or miming	47.7	34.1	18.2
24. Getting work experience	2.3	30.2	67.4

Table 16   Findings of Academic/Formal Activities
Questionnaire.

(a)	Dislike	Aver	Like
Talk from teachers	4.5	79.5	15.9
Taking notes	40.9	54.5	4.5
Finding things out of books	23.3	60.5	16.3
Revising for exams	52.3	43.2	4.5
Reading aloud	59.1	31.4	4.5
Learning foreign words or phrases	56.8	34.1	9.1
(MEANS)	39	52	9

In line with the introduction on the failure of the academic - exam orientated curriculum there was no great liking for any of these activities.   Although somewhat surprisingly in the author's personal opinion, a high percentage of the group found these activities, average. When questioned they stated that they became bored fairly quickly (10-20 mins) suggesting that formal instruction or teacher explanation should be kept brief.   Indeed only one person (4.5%) disliked listening to the teacher. This indicates a reasonable level of receptiveness giving the teacher scope for explanation and organisation if not for sermons or lectures.

There was a much greater dislike for other formal activities with revision, reading aloud and learning a foreign language being disliked by over 50% of the survey group.   At the other end of the scale there were very few pupils who actually liked any of these activities. Only four (15.9%) actually liked talks from the teachers or finding out from books whilst only one (4.5%) enjoyed taking notes, revising for exams or reading aloud.

Not only do children see these activities as boring it can also be argued that they are educationally unsound (Brierly 1980).   He argues that each child develops at a different pace physically, mentally and emotionally and that education should fit this development rather than some theoretical composite curriculum using formal methods to measure only academic objective tests and exams, which are based largely on chronological age.

J. Brierly 1980. 'Children's Well Being: Growth, Development and Learning from Conception to Adolescence'.

Table 16 Communication Findings

(b)	Dislike	Aver	Like
Discussion in class	9.1%	47.7	43.2
Discussion in small groups	15.9	36.1	50.0
Watching films, videos etc.	-	19.0	81.0
Talks from outside speakers	36.4	52.3	11.4
Finding things out from people	9.1	65.9	25.0
Acting or miming	47.7	34.1	18.2
(MEANS)	20	42	38

There was a little difficulty in structuring this group of questions. The author included watching films etc and talks from outside speakers as activities which should stimulate interest and discussion although they need not necessarily do so. Indeed a talk from an outside speaker, who lacks the teacher's experience of knowing when to finish, might be boring to these children.

Nevertheless there was a much higher positive response to this area of activities. Not one child disliked visual aids as a means of learning whilst only 4 (9.1%) disliked class discussions and finding things out from people. Slightly more 7 (15.9%) disliked discussion in small groups. Least liked of all the activities were talks from outside speakers 36.4% and acting or miming 47.7%, the latter possibly because of a lack of role play experience at Dunview.

Therefore, although there was a high level of average responses, the children still showed a marked preference towards talking activities as opposed to just listening. Not only are these activities more enjoyable to them, they are educationally more beneficial. Tough (1977) speaking of language development states:-

> "Children learn what becomes available to them through their experiences".

J. Tough 1977. 'Talking and Learning'

Table 17 - Practical Findings

(c)	Dislike	Aver	Like
1) Drawing maps	53.5%	23.3	23.3
2) Doing P.E./Games	9.1	22.7	68.2
3) Drawing or painting	16.3	23.3	60.5
4) Making models	27.9	16.3	55.8
5) Reading comics or magazines	7.1	45.2	47.6
6) Going on outside visits	-	18.6	81.4
(MEANS)	19	25	56

Although these activities were of limited vocational potential they were enjoyed by the vast majority of the group. The exception to this rule was drawing maps which was obviously regarded as an academic exercise and disliked by 53.5% with an equal number (23.3%) finding this activity average and enjoyable. All other activities had low 'dislike' scores and high 'like' scores ranging from 47.6% for reading comics or magazines to 81.4% to going on outside visits.

Not only are these experiences more enjoyable they aid the learning process (Schools Council Working Paper 70) 1981:-

> "Whatever their abilities pupils can learn some things only through concrete and practical experience".

Table 18   Vocational Findings

(d)	Dislike	Aver	Like
1) Making things from wood or metal	26.2%	26.2	47.6
2) Cooking or sewing	36.6	24.4	39.0
3) Errands or odd jobs	9.3	46.5	44.2
4) Making pottery or toys	22.7	22.7	54.5
5) Working with typewriters/or computers	19.0	21.4	59.5
6) Getting work experience	2.3	30.2	67.4
(MEANS)	19	29	52

Again these activities were of a practical nature but more related to the world of work. Therefore it was

hoped that children would find them useful as well as enjoyable.

There were fairly high levels of dislike 26.2% for making things from wood or metal and 36.6% for cooking or sewing. Here there was strong evidence of sexual difference as the 26.2% were all girls and the 36.6% all boys. This aside there were low levels of dislike for all activities. For example only one pupil (2.3%) disliked 'work experience' and only 4 (9.3%) disliked doing errands or odd jobs.

Positive enjoyment ranged from 39% for cooking or sewing (this would probably have been higher but there were only 20 girls out of 44 in the survey group) to 67.4% who enjoyed work experience. The Schools Council Working Paper 70 also regards this type of activity as absolutely vital:-

> "We believe schools ought to emphasize the
> development of skill".

CONCLUSION

Taking an overview of this questionnaire there is a strong case and this is supported by the following literature, for more pupil involvement, both practical and verbal, in classroom activities. The planned Certificate of Pre-Vocational Education (1984) (run by Business & Technician Education Council and City & Guilds) has recommended 10 core skills:-

1) Personal and career development
2) Communication
3) Numeracy
4) Science & Technology
5) Industrial, Social & Economic Studies
6) Information Technology
7) Skills for Learning, Decision making & Adaptability
8) Practical skills
9) Social skills
10) Creative development.

The strong case for vocational studies is based on the following reasons:-

'The Certificate of Pre-Vocational Education' p.10-16
1984
The Joint Board for Pre-Vocational Education.

a) relevance and motivation

b) the need to develop core skills and broad vocational skills

c) to aid progression into adult life, further education, training and employment.

The joint board was also invited in 1983 by the Department of Education and Science to:-

a) Improve pre-vocational education in the final two years at school.

b) Co-ordinate this programme with the Youth Training Scheme. This task became known as the Technical and Vocational Education Initiative. Although in its infancy, and very much at the experimental stage there is strong support for the initiative by (M. O'Connor) in 'The Guardian' 23.10.84.

"David Young's erstwhile Manpower Services empire which are apparently wowing the teenagers and motivating the previously turned off".

Further support comes from Newman (1984) who has this to say after considering reports from the 14 local authorities which launched the scheme:

"We are even more convinced that learning by doing and individual resource-based learning programmes are the answer to many of the serious problems facing educational establishments today".

Newman highlights these improvements in particular:-

1) Better pupil/teacher relationships.

2) Local industrialists are beginning to co-operate with the scheme.

3) There were less sex differences in choosing option modules.

4) Pupils learn effectively and rapidly.

5) Improved behaviour and attendance.

Therefore it seems reasonable to conclude that schools, including Dunview, would benefit along the lines suggested by Newman (1984), from a radical adjustment in classroom activities away from teacher dominance towards pupil involvement. The evidence presented from both the questionnaire and the literature suggests that not only would teachers and pupils establish better relationships but the pupils would learn more and what they learnt would be more relevant to life after school. In the opinion of D. Hofkins (1984)

M O'Connor 'Guardian' 23.10.84 p.13.
G. Newman Sept.1984 'T.V.E.I. Insight' p.7.

"It is clear that the concept of combining broad
technical and vocational education with the
academic fare is here to stay and will continue
to develop".

Section 6

Questionnaire Five   Achievement

To date this survey indicates poor attendance (Questionnaire 1) and poor motivation towards formal activities and lessons (Questionnaires 2,3, and 4) amongst the chosen group of students. Research by Galloway (1976) Douglas and Ross (1965) Fogelman and Richardson (1974) Fogelman (1982) clearly demonstrates that poor attendance is definitely detrimental towards measured achievement.   Turning to research on motivation Davies (1981, Maslow (1954) Herzberg (1966) Childs (1976) Hurlock (1925) Johannesson (1962) Skinner (1953) Sears (1940) McClelland (1953 Binney et al (1969) Woods (1975 argue that children need to be stimulated positively and that repeated failure and criticism, as experienced by our less able children, results in alienation and reduced achievement. When education becomes more varied and interesting children can be positively motivated and so achieve greater success as research from Flanders (1970) Rogers (1973) Rosenthal and Zimmerman (1972) McGregor (1960) Davies (1981) Munn (1983) and Morrison (1984) indicates. The overwhelming weight of this research indicates that children learn when they are interested and stimulated and when they become involved actively in the learning process.

Absenteeism   It would seem fairly logical that performance at school might be fairly closely linked with attendance. The evidence of the literature on this subject certainly supports this view. For instance Galloway (1976)[1] refers to the persistent absentee:-

> "His absences caused him to be educationally
> backward and socially poorly adjusted".

Thus, Galloway argues, not only did the child's academic standards fall but also his ability to become socially acceptable.

Douglas and Ross (1965)[2] and Fogelman and Richardson (1974)[3] found a direct relationship between poor attainment and poor attendance where parents were in manual occupations. This

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D. Galloway (1976) 'Persistent Unjustified Absence from School' 'Trends in Education' 4   p.22-7.
J.W.B. Douglas & J.Ross (1965) 'The effects of absence on Primary school performance' (British Journal of Ed.Psychology)
35. p.18-14.
K. Fogelman & K. Richardson (1974) 'School Attendance some results for the National Child Development Study'
Editor B. Turner   'Truancy.'

research was conducted upon primary school children but when Fogelman[1] (1982) followed up his earlier work with research into 16 year olds he found a difference of 25% in English and Maths scores between poor and good attenders. This difference was equal to one standard deviation.

Motivation   Turning next to motivation Davies[2] (1981) outlines three major features of the academic curriculum which alienate many of our children:-

1) Passive education.

2) Lack of reinforcement & feedback.

3) Lack of enjoyment.

The results of these features are boredom and fatigue causing:-

1) reduced concentration   ] reduced
2) reduced attention and interest] achievement.

The points raised by Davies can be measured against a motivational theory devised by Maslow (1954). Davies' criticism of school can be seen as a criticism of the absence of important personal and social needs. Below is a diagram of Maslow's Hierarchy of needs which progress from the base of the pyramid - personal and social needs having to be fulfilled before a person can progress to intellectual needs.

Table 19   Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

Intellectual

Understanding
&
Knowledge

Social

Self-esteem

Love & belonging

Personal

Safety

Physiological

K. Fogelman (1982) 'Growing Up in Great Britain'
National Childrens Bureau Series.
I.K. Davies (1981) 'Instructional Technique'
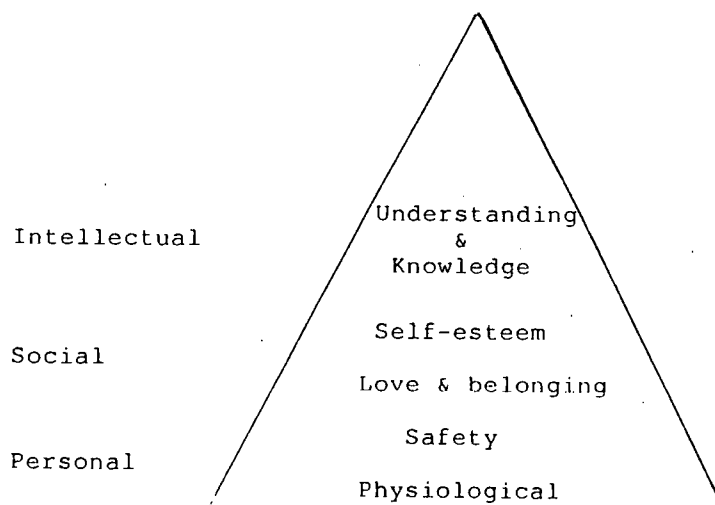
Maslow identifies people as animals who want and who have constantly changing needs. These needs are not catered for by the inflexible subject centred timetable at a modern comprehensive. Herzberg (1966) further qualified the intellectual motivational needs of an individual as:-

1) Accomplishment   2) Recognition   3) Responsibility
4) Personal growth 5) Satisfaction for the act of learning.

Again it can be seen at Dunview that there is an almost lack of opportunity to fulfill these needs amongst the less academic children who are more accustomed to failure and criticism. This is also true of the five motivational needs outlined by Child (1976).[1] Like Maslow's hierarchy these are progressional in the following order:-

1) Need   2) Drive   3) Activity   4) Satisfaction
5) Drive reduction.   During (4) and (5), according to child, learning occurs. Again it must be noted that there is too little activity and satisfaction amongst the 'B' band survey group. This leads us to consider the consequences of the lack of positive motivation or negative motivation as experienced by children who commonly meet failure and disappointment. Early work by Hurlock (1925)[2] tested positive and negative motivation and the resulting effects on achievement. He set tests of equal difficulty to groups of children. Then three equal groups were selected and singled out for either praise, criticism or being totally ignored. When the tests were repeated there were wide differences in the scores with the praised group coming out better than the other two. The reproved group did slightly better than the ignored. Our survey group was certainly not short on experiencing criticism and lack of attention during their school careers.

Johannesson (1962)[3] found similar differences between children singled out for praise or blame. Skinner (1953)[4] found that knowledge of failure was devastating and so attempted to eliminate it from his linear programmes. Praise was highly motivational especially when received quickly. However many of the survey children at Dunview

D. Child (1976) 'Psychology and the Teacher'

E.B. Hurlock (1925) 'An evaluation of certain incentives used in school work'. (J. Educational Psychology 16. p.145-159).
I. Johannesson (1962) 'Effects of praise & blame upon achievements and attitudes in school children'.
B.F. Skinner (1953) 'The Science of Human Behaviour'.

commented that their books, in several subjects, went unmarked for months at a time.

Other authors P.S. Sears (1940)[1], D.C. McClelland (1953)[2] and R.C.Binney et al (1969)[3] find that:

1. Not only is failure damaging but so is the fear of failure.

2. Fear of failure produces lower self esteem, effort and results.

3. Children used to failure set themselves unrealistic targets - they either grossly over estimate their potential or grossly under estimate their potential.

4. Rather than face failure children often don't try and as Child (1976) explains:-

"People subjected to prolonged inaction become extremely frustrated".

Finally, and this may only be a comment on the minority of teachers at Dunview, Woods (1975)[4] argues that teacher centred styles are counter-productive. They often result in sarcasm and "showing children up" causing alienation thereby turning children off school and learning. Whether or not one agrees with Wood, it is fairly safe to conclude that there is an absence of positive motivated activity to stimulate the survey children towards successful learning.

Findings   The findings of the questionnaire are almost fully in line with my expectations outlined. All four areas:-

a) Personal & Social

b) Practical

c) Literacy

d) Numerical

whether judged by themselves or by their subject teacher have very poor scores demonstrating the negative effects, previously outlined, of poor attendance and poor motivation.

P.S. Sears (1940)'Levels of Aspiration in Academically Successful and Unsuccessful Children'. T. Abnorn. Social Psychology 35. p.498-536.
D.C. McClelland (1953) 'The Achievement Motive'.

R.C.Binney H.Burdich & R.C.Teevan (1969) 'Fears of Failure'.

P. Woods (1975) 'Showing them up in Secondary School' in 'Frontiers of Classroom Research'. Ed. G. Chanon & S. Delamont.

Questionnaire Findings

This questionnaire was aimed at assessing the abilities of the survey group in four areas which can provide direct comparison with performance on the Youth Training Scheme. These are:

1) Personal & Social Skills   Q. 1,5,9,13,17.
2) Practical Skills   Q. 2,6,10,14,18.
3) Language skills   Q. 3,7,11,15,19.
4) Maths skills   Q. 4,8,12,16,20.

In constructing the questionnaire I was much indebted to J. Balogh (1982) as she provides a variety of pupil profiles and assessment techniques used by the City and Guilds, Manpower Services Commission and schools. I also consulted subject specialists at Dunview Comprehensive. In their opinion all the specific tasks or skills included were within the capabilities of an average or above average 14 year old pupil. As our survey group had two further years (to 16) before leaving school, they should, one could reasonably expect, have moved closer to the skill levels of their brighter peers.

Table 20   Findings Abilities Questionnaire

Pupils Above Average

	Their View	Teachers View
1. Popularity with friends	52.3%	25.0%
2. Hand Tools	45.5	34.1
3. Neatness	15.9	36.4
4. Arithmetic	29.5	29.5
5. Popular with teachers	22.7	34.9
6. Working machines	31.8	16.7
7. Read 'pop' paper	25.0	18.2
8. Money problems	29.5	20.5
9. Pride in work	36.4	1816
10. Iron	54.5	14.3
11. Letter to friends	29.5	15.9
12. Measure	29.5	22.7
13. Work on own	47.7	18.6
14. Mend fuse	61.4	10.0
15. Telephone	84.1	20.5
16. Use calculator	72.7	9.1
17. Work in group	43.2	16.7
18. Use plan	15.9	29.5
19. Use library	4.5	27.3
20 Decimals & Fractions	18.2	4.5

Personal & Social Skills

1, 5, 9, 13, 17.   40.46%   22.76%

Practical Skills

2, 6, 10, 14, 18.   41.82%   20.92%

Literary

3, 7, 11, 15, 19.   31.8 %   23.66%

Numerical/Maths

4, 8, 12, 16, 20.   35.88%   17.26%

Of all the questionnaires this proved to be the least conclusive. To begin with there are wide discrepancies between pupils' and teachers' scores. It would be easy to discount pupils' scores as unprofessional and just accept teachers' scores. Whilst accepting that teachers have greater expertise at marking and grading, and that their scores may be more accurate, they cannot be accepted as totally accurate. In a number of areas, eg. boys using washing machines or ironing and girls mending a fuse, teachers had no experience and so tended to score the child in the average column. Therefore the children might have been better in these areas than teachers gave them credit for.

As these children have spent their school life in the lower sets or streams they have not acquired an accurate perception of the full range of pupils abilities. Therefore 'good' to them probably means good by 'B' band standards. They also have a limited knowledge as to what is an adequate skill in the eyes of the adult world. For example 84.1% thought that they were good at answering the telephone but teachers thought that only 20.5% performed this task well. There were similar huge differences for using a calculator i.e. 72.7% to 9.1%

The fact that practical skills score no better than the other three runs contrary to the hypothesis that these children are better practically than academically. However the practical scores were deflated because of the following reasons:-

1. Poor attendance already discussed at length.
2. Poor knowledge of teachers with regard to practical skills not performed at school.
3. Despite 'equal opportunities' legislation boys showed a revulsion to using washing machines and ironing, whilst girls had a similar reaction to mending a fuse. Belatedly, I regret not foreseeing the significance of these problems in constructing the questionnaire. If these sexual differences are eliminated then the amended scores would be:

	Childrens' View	Teachers View
Washing Machine	55%	30%
Iron	100%	25%
Mend Fuse	100%	12.5%

This would give amended percentages for practical scores as:

	Childrens	Teachers
	63.28	26.22

being average or above average.

Although this produced a significant improvement in practical scores I still did not feel happy that these scores gave an accurate comparison. Therefore I decided to include examination results. (For copies of results see appendix 6 (II, & III)

Analysis of Examination Results

5 'B' C.S.E. Results

	1	2	3	4	5	U
Eng. Lang	–	1	5	7	8	1
Eng Oral						
Eng. Lit.						
French						
German						
History	–	–	3	2	3	1
Geography	–	–	1	3	8	5
Maths						
Arith	–	–	1	11	9	13
Computers						
Phys Science						
Physics	–	–	–	7	2	–
Chemistry						
Biology	–	–	1	5	7	–
Gen. Science						
Commerce						
Shorthand						
TOTALS	0	1	11	35	35	20

Entries 102   Average Grade 4.6.

PRACTICAL

	1	2	3	4	5	U
Woodwork	-	1	5	2	-	-
Metalwork	-	-	4	4	-	-
Eng.Drawing	-	-	2	2	1	-
Home Econ.	-	-	2	6	-	-
Art	2	3	7	3	2	-
N/Work		No entries - timetable problem				
Typing	1	3	2	2	1	2
TOTALS	3	7	22	19	4	2

Entries 57   Average Grade 3.35.

Examination Results Analysis

In Academic subjects there were 102 entries covering 6 subjects. The average C.S.E. grade on a scale of 1 to U came out as 4.6. This would be an average percentage of in the region of 34%

In Practical subjects there were 57 entries also covering 6 subjects. The average C.S.E. grade on a scale of 1 to U came out as 3.35. This would be an average percentage in the region of 57%

Thus the pupils' achievements in practical subjects were far higher than those in academic subjects. Above half the entries 32/57 (56%) achieved grade 3 or above with 7 (12%) grade 2's and 3 (.053%) grade 1's. In academic subjects only 12/102 (0.12%) achieved grade 3 or above with 1 grade 2 (.009%) and 0 grade 1's. At the other end of the scale only 6 pupils (.11%) got scores of 5 or unclassified in practical subjects. However in academic subjects this total was 55 (.54%).

Therefore the examination results clear up any doubts left by the questionnaire and confirm the hypothesis that these children are more gifted practically than academically.

Conclusion   The evidence of the literature also strongly suggests that children learn much more when lessons are varied and interesting and they become practically involved. For instance Flanders (1970) states that students

N.A. Flanders (1970) 'Analysing Teaching Behaviour.'

learn more when teachers provide flexible patterns of influence. Rogers (1973)[1] reports on great success in an open school amongst previously unmotivated children. The vast majority developed a sense of personal responsibility, self discipline and adaptability in response to more progressive teaching techniques.

T. L. Rosenthal & B. J. Zimmerman (1972)[2] found concepts acquired through demonstration were retained much longer than those acquired through narration.

D. McGregor (1960)[3] goes further and details the style a teacher should use:-

1. Explore the limits of human ability.
2. Vary style between autocratic, permissive, consultative and participative.
3. Vary methods - there is no single, best way.
4. Learners should be pushed to realise their potential.

Davies (1981)[4] lists the following teaching techniques as the best way of acquiring skills:-

1. Demonstration.
2. Imitation.
3. Practice.
4. Knowledge of results.
5. Guidance and personal assistance.

According to Dr. Munn (1983)[5] teachers can use the new technologies to allow the pupils the means of learning directly thereby freeing themselves to diagnose weaknesses and problems and allowing time to promote discussion, motivate and generally enrich the learning process.

Finally if even more conclusive evidence is needed it is provided by Morrison (1984)[6]:-

> "Young people learn better by experiencing than through abstract teaching. Time and again on my case-study visits, teachers and trainers stated that the most successful approach to use with trainees was experiential learning or 'learning by doing'".

T. Rogers (1973) 'School for the Community.'
T.L. Rosenthal & B.J. Zimmerman (1972) 'Modelling by exemplification and instruction in training conversation' 'Developmental psychology' 1972 6. p.392 - 401.
D. McGregor (1960) 'The Human Side of Enterprise!'
Davies (1981) 'Instructional Technique'.
Dr. J. Munn (1983) 'Information Technology in Education & Training, & the New Technologies. Ed.J. Tucker.
T. Morrison (1984) 'Youth Training Principles & Practice.'

Section 7

Evaluation of School Leavers

The findings of the questionnaires, the examination results and the literature give a clear indication as to why the survey children have failed during their stay at Dunview Comprehensive. They have been denied the opportunity to learn by experience. Instead they have taken copious notes, copied from text books and been inactive for long periods.

These children left school with Confidential School References filled with comments which were typical of many such as:-

"Very poor attendance"

"Poorly motivated"

"Limited potential"

"Inconsistent approach to studies"

"Inconsistent attitude"

"Lacks self confidence"

Favourable comments were:

"Quiet"

"Well mannered".

These comments tell us very little about the pupils but a great deal about the school which values conformity far more highly than initiative.

The fate of these 44 children and their classmates, having left Dunview Comprehensive, was as follows on 31st October 1984. Figures were supplied by Shipton Careers Office:

Table 22   School Leaving Analysis

	505	506	507
Further Education	0	1 (5%)	0
Permanent Employment	4 (15%)	5 (26%)	4 (19%)
Special Programmes	19 (70%)	12 (63%)	14 (67%)
Unemployment	2 (7.5%)	1 (5%)	2 (9.5%)
Others	2 (7.5%)	2 (10.5%)	1 (5%)

However the destiny of these children, as outlined, above is more of a comment on the economic climate of

the North East than the vocational preparation of the school. Out of the three classes 67% went onto Y.T.S. schemes, 20% secured permanent employment and 7.5% were unemployed.

CHAPTER THREE

Y.T.S.   QUESTIONNAIRES

Section 1

Transition from School to Y.T.S.

To assist students with their Y.T.S. placement a number of transitional activities took place during their final year at school. The purpose of the programme was very much along the lines advocated by Law & Watts (1977). [1]

> "Transition learning is, therefore concerned with helping the student gain a realistic understanding of what will come later in his career development".

Therefore fifth years followed the following programme aimed at providing a planned progression from school to Y.T.S. or work:-

1. During September all fifth year pupils did one weeks work experience. Placements were matched as closely as possible to students' wishes. Exercises and discussion helped the young people make the most of their experiences.

2. All pupils filled out an official Careers Office questionnaire and were given a half-hour interview with a Careers Officer and occupational interests were duly noted. The Careers Officer also had available form tutors' comments on personality and subject potential.

3. Pupils were also able to make use of the Job Ideas and Information Generator - Computer Assisted Learning (J11G CAL) which was first developed by Thomas and Closs (1975).[2] The system was adopted in Gateshead in 1982 and the author along with other guidance teachers trained to use it. By filling out a series of multiple choice questions clients finish up with 20 job suggestions with added references and descriptions.[3]

Clarke (1980) in reviewing computer assisted career placement, believes J11G CAL to be a useful aid in occupational choice and that it is superior to the other four British systems in operation:-

B. Law & A.G. Watts (1977) 'Schools, Careers and Community.'

A.I. Thomas and S.J. Closs (1975) 'Edinburgh Computer-aided project : a final report'.

L. Clarke (1980) 'The Practice of Vocational Guidance : a critical view of Research in the U.K.'

a) Careers Advisory Service Computer Aid (CASCAID).

b) Computer Assisted Career & Vocational Guidance System (CACVG).

c) Jobspy.

d) Interactive Careers Guidance System (ICGS).

Initial research given to both clients and guidance officers by Thomas and Closs (1975) found:

Table 23   J11G CAL Questionnaires

Clients' Questionnaires on J11G CAL	
1. Provide useful information on job.	81.3%
2. Helpful in suggesting job ideas.	93.8%
3. Increased awareness of factors involved in choosing a job.	46.9%
Guidance Officers Findings on J11G CAL	
1. Very useful in 12.9% of cases.	
2. Fairly useful in 51.3% of cases.	
3. Small use in 28.2% of cases.	
4. No use in 7.7% of cases.	

Certainly J11G CAL was available to assist our survey group with their Y.T.C. choice. They were quite free to use it or ignore it. The author's own limited experience of using the system is that in the vast majority of cases it tends to confirm the client's own job suggestions but also provides a number of sensible suitable alternatives.

4. A second Careers interview of 15 minutes was arranged in March to confirm the student's job interests or note changes and also find out which pupils would be willing to participate in Y.T.S.

5. Before leaving school all pupils were offered three Y.T.S. placements closely related to their final interview. They were then asked to choose their order of preference. According to M. Howard (Assistant Principal Careers Officer), 1984, the vast majority were placed in line with their first choice, a few in line with their second choice and none on their third choice suggestion.

These steps should have insured that most, if not all, of the survey group were placed on an appropriate Y.T.S.

scheme. Certainly 92% felt that they were, according to questionnaire 6. Whether or not this is true will be later demonstrated in questionnaires and records on attendance, "drop out" rates and the transferring to altern- ative schemes by trainees i.e. 'scheme hopping' as opposed to 'job hopping'.

Section 2   Summary of Argument

In this chapter, five questionnaires will be examined in detail.   They deal with the following aspects of the Youth Training Scheme and allow close   comparison with the previously administered School Questionnaires.

(Q.6.)   Attendance

(Q.2.)   Trainee   behaviour

(Q.8.)   Training styles

(Q.9.)   Training activities

(Q.10)   Trainee   achievement.

The general aim of this second group of questionnaires was to test the part of the hypothesis, which postulates that our less able children at school should respond to the practical/vocational nature of the Youth Training Scheme with improved attendance, better behaviour, good relationships with their trainers and improved ability.

If the hypothesis is correct one would expect questionnaire six dealing with attendance to show a marked improvement from school and low absenteeism, except in cases of serious illness, because of the trainees' interest in Y.T.S.

Again if the hypothesis is correct one would expect questionnaire seven dealing with trainees' behaviour in college practicals, college lectures and at work to be greatly improved from school, with the possible exception of the college lecture.   The trainees' views of their own behaviour will be supplemented by confidential reports made by the Careers Service.

Questionnaire eight deals with styles of instruction and here if the hypothesis is correct they should be less formal than school and consequently trainee/supervisor relationships should show an improvement on pupil/teacher relationships.

Questionnaire nine deals with Y.T.S. activities which have been sub-divided into formal, social, practical and vocational areas.   We might well expect trainees, if the original hypothesis is correct, to continue to show a preference for the practical and vocational areas over the formal type of instruction.   However, with the more progressive methods favoured and mixed ability groups

adopted by Y.T.S. the trainees resentment for the formal and academic should have waned.

Finally questionnaire ten investigates the achievements and progress made by trainees during their year on Y.T.S. With the whole emphasis on the practical and vocational made by Y.T.S. one would expect, if the hypothesis is again correct, to see a marked improvement in the four key areas of numeracy, communication, social skills and practical skills.

All questionnaires were left to resemble the original school questionnaires as closely as possible. Only in this way could progress or improvements be measured.

Questionnaire Pairings

1 - 6

2 - 7

3 - 8

4 - 9

5 - 10

Certain words or phrases had to be changed to take account of the changed situation eg. teacher became supervisor or lecturer and classmate became worker or trainee.

Instead of individual classroom lesson, as at school, questionnaire seven was broken into three areas; a) workplace, b) college practical, c) college lecture.

More radical changes had to be made to questionnaires nine and ten. Certain activities from questionnaire four were inappropriate for Y.T.S.

eg. a) Doing P.E. and Games.

b) revising for exams.

c) making pottery or toys.

Therefore questionnaire nine was reduced to 20 questions (Questionnaire 4 had 24)but the balance remained unaltered i.e. four areas of activity. On questionnaire five I found a sexual resistance to boys operating a washing machine or ironing and to girls mending a fuse. This served to depress the scores for practical work. Therefore in questionnaire ten 'male' and 'female' practical activities were paired eg. How do you rate yourself in the following areas?:

a) Can use a washing machine or lawnmower.

b) Iron or mend a fuse.

c) Ability to use power tools eg. food mixer or drill.

All other questions on this questionnaire were identical to questionnaire five. None of the changes made were intended to weight the findings towards the hypothesis. In balance and content comparisons between the two sets of questionnaires should be fair and meaningful.

Section 3   Questionnaire Six   Absenteeism

A number of researchers have investigated the connection between absence from work and lack of job satisfaction eg. Kornhauser & Sharp (1932) Metzner and Mann (1953) Fleishman, Harris & Burtt (1955) Harding & Bottenberg (1961) Vroom (1967) and Handy (1985). The overwhelming evidence is that there is a strong connection between poor attendance and lack of enjoyment of working life. With the questionnaire showing greatly improved attendance by our sample on the Y.T.S. it was necessary to consider whether this was because they were paid, gained genuine job satisfaction or were worried about unemployment. Research into the importance of wages as a reason for attending work has been studied by Brown (1954) Morse & Weiss (1955) and Handy (1985). The research indicates a very small connection between wages and absenteeism.

Research into other areas of job satisfaction has been conducted by Friedman & Rosenburg (1957) and Havighurst (1954), Morse & Weiss (1955) Turner & Michlette (1962) and Porter (1963). In this research work was found to fill many social and emotional needs, relieve boredom and provide improved status. The real value of working is often better understood when the opportunity is taken away and research into the psychological effects of unemployment has been conducted by Babbe (1940) Warr (1983) and Hawkins (1984). They provide evidence to show that unemployment is emotionally as well as economically damaging especially after long periods in work.

The original hypothesis was that the young people in the survey would enjoy the Y.T.S. more than school and therefore one would expect much better attendance figures provided that there is a link between high job satisfaction and good attendance.

The possibilities of such a connection was first investigated by Kornhauser & Sharp (1932) . They studied the absences of women factory workers and found:

> "Unfavourableness of job attitudes is slightly correlated with lost time because of sickness and with ratings of health by the foreladies".

A.W. Kornhauser & A.A. Sharp (1932) 'Employee Attitudes : Suggestions from a study in a factory'. 'Personnel' J. 1932.   10.   P. 393-404.

Similar findings were obtained by Fleishman, Harris & Burtt (1955)[1] who found a correlation of .25 between morale and absence rates amongst workers in a department store and by Harding and Bottenberg (1961)[2] who found a correlation of .38 between the same variables amongst a survey of 376 airmen.

Whilst Vroom (1967)[3] found a correlation of only .07 between absence and job satisfaction in a study of 489 oil refinery employees he does concede that where genuine illness is taken out of absentee figures there is a correlation in the region of .5. Also Metzner and Mann (1953)[4] found that whilst there is practically no relationship between absence and job satisfaction amongst highly skilled male workers there is a strong connection where workers have low levels of skill, ie. the non academics of yesteryear who may well compare to our survey group. So the evidence does point heavily to a connection between good attendance and high job satisfaction. Research into this area is summarised by Handy (1985)[5] who concludes that the more exciting and varied the job the less is the absent-eeism and turnover.

Before turning to the questionnaire on absenteeism it should be noted that only one of the survey group dropped out of the scheme, ie. 4%. This was because she objected to being transferred by the Managing Agency from a placement where she had settled in for six months to another. She could not face up to what she regarded as a traumatic move.

An exact comparison with questionnaire one, questionnaire six is structured as follows:

Slight illness   Q.   1, 4, 7, 10, 13, 16.
Social reason   Q.   2, 5, 8, 11, 14, 17.
Serious illness   Q.   3, 6, 9, 12, 15, 17.
Motivation   Q. 19 & 20.

E.A. Fleishman, A. Harris & F.E. Burtt (1955). 'Leadership & Supervision in Industry'. (Columbus: Ohio State University Bureau of Educational Research).
F.D. Harding & R.A. Bottenberg (1961). 'Effect of Personal Characteristics a Relationship between attitudes & job performance'. (Journal Applied Psychology 1961) 45, 428-430.
V.H. Vroom (1967) 'Work & Motivation.'
H. Metzner & F. Mann (1953) 'Employee Attitudes & Absences' (Personnel Psychology 1953). 6. 467-485.
C.B. Handy 1985. 'Understanding Organisations.'

Table 24   Y.T.S. Absence Questionnaire Findings

I have been absent during my time on the Y.T.S. for the following reasons:	Never	(1-2)	More than Twice
1. Headache	84%	8%	8%
2. Bullied or ridiculed by others	92%	8%	-
3. Fracture or dislocation	92%	8%	-
4. Cold	56%	40%	4%
5. Had somewhere interesting to go	88%	12%	-
6. Chicken pox, measles etc.	96%	4%	-
7. Too tired	88%	8%	4%
8. Didn't like work or college that day	84%	16%	-
9. Asthma, bronchitis, flu etc	88%	8%	4%
10. Felt off colour	80%	20%	-
11. Was behind in my work	96%	4%	-
12. Dental or hospital appointment	72%	28%	-
13. Running messages for parents	100%	-	-
14. Something good on T.V.	96%	4%	-
15. Relative was seriously ill	96%	4%	-
16. Bad back or stomach	72%	28%	-
17. Persuaded by friends	88%	12%	-
18. Funeral	92%	8%	-
19. Cheap labour	88%	12%	-
20. Interview or test.	52%	8%	40%

Whilst neither the Careers Service nor the Manpower Services Commission keep attendance registers, thus preventing a totally accurate comparison with school, there is little doubt that attendance rates have been greatly improved. Overleaf is a comparison of questionnaires one and six, ie. the final year at school and the Y.T.S. Average figures are taken.

Table 25   School/Y.T.S. Absence Comparison

	Never	(1 or 2)	More than Twice
1. Serious illness at school	52.2%	33.7%	9.1%
" " on Y.T.S.	89.33%	10.67%	-
2. Slight illness at school	58.25%	26.79%	14.96%
" " on Y.T.S.	80%	16.67%	3.33%
3. Social reasons at school	82.5%	12.15%	5.35%
" " on Y.T.S.	90.67%	9.33%	-
4. Uselessness of school.	88.6%	11.4%	-
" on Y.T.S.	88%	12%	-
5. Interview/test from school	67.4%	27.9%	4.7%
" " " Y.T.S.	52%	8%	40%

From these figures one can see that absence for social reasons, ie. truancy, is down by 50%, absence for slight illness down 50% and absence for serious illness down to 25% of the school level.

It could be argued that this improved attendance may be largely due to the fact that young people are paid on the Y.T.S. but not at school. Research into the importance of wages would suggest them to be a minor factor in attendance figures. For example Brown (1954) studied three men who won sufficient money on the 'pools' to have lived comfortably for the rest of their lives on the income. In all three cases these men returned to work. Two were in semi-skilled occupations and one employed as a craftsman. Morse and Weiss (1955) interviewed 401 employed men and asked them if they would continue working if they had enough money to live comfortably. 80% said they would continue working and if only the under 34's were considered, this figure became 90% suggesting that young people have a definite wish to work even if it is not financially necessary.

J.A.C. Brown (1954). 'The Social Psychology of Industry'.

N. Morse & R. Weiss (1955) 'The Function & Meaning of Work and the Job'. American Sociological Review. 1955. 20. 191-198.

Handy (1985) does comment that money can be and often is used as a strong motivator where such schemes involving piece-work, bonuses and commission are used. However such schemes are not applicable to the Y.T.S. trainees who receive a flat wage. Furthermore only 48% of the survey group had money deducted when they were absent and a mere 8% declared that they would have been absent more often had they not been paid. Therefore from the literature and group survey it would seem that money and attendance have a very low correlation as far as Y.T.S. trainees are concerned.

Therefore it is necessary to look for other reasons for this greatly improved attendance. In the Morse and Weiss survey (1954) people were asked what they would miss most about work and gave these answers:-

Table 26   Morse & Weiss Survey 1954

1. People at work	31%
2. Feeling of doing something	25%
3. The kind of work I do	12%
4. Feeling of doing something worthwhile	9%
5. Regular routine	6%
6. Feeling of interest	5%
7. Nothing	6%
8. Others	6%

In the same survey only 10% of working class people said they were dissatisfied with their job. However my thesis is mainly concerned with the reasons why young people prefer going to work (even Y.T.S. work) rather than attend school. Schools certainly fulfill a number of the needs listed in the questionnaire, for example they provide an opportunity for social interaction, ie. meeting friends, doing something and a regular routine; thus accounting for 62% of the positive answers in the survey. However there is a number of areas in which schools with an academic curriculum do not fulfill the social needs which work does. For example Friedman & Havighurst (1954)

E.A. Friedman & R.J. Havighurst(1954). 'The Meaning of Work & Retirement'.

found a large proportion of workers who just wanted to expend energy and be active. If they were not active they felt that they would not be able to fulfill their time in an interesting way. Researchers of whom Turner & Michlette (1962)[1] and Porter (1963)[2] are typical of job satisfaction eg. making something or helping others to be the major reason for people going to work. The desire to work is particularly strong amongst males as Rosenburg (1957)[3] found that the majority of men in his survey regarded their career or occupation as the most important part of their lives. Women put career second behind their family.

Other positive attributes of working can be identified by the unemployed, particularly those who had worked for a considerable time. Babbe (1940)[4] in a study of unemployed during the depression found a marked loss of status and self respect.

Warr (1983)[5] lists nine likely psychological effects of unemployment:-

1. Financial anxiety.
2. Loss of variety.
3. Loss of traction (goals in life).
4. Reduced scope for decisions.
5. Less skill development.
6. More rejections eg. interviews, credit applications.
7. More insecurity.
8. Less interpersonal contact.
9. Loss of status.

General support for these findings comes from Hawkins (1984)[6] who has found that lack of success in job finding reduces motivation and subsequently reduces even further the chances of finding work and:

"There are now signs that this 'discouraged-worker' syndrome has begun to affect entire communities".

In conclusion, questionnaire six indicates a much better attendance rate than during the survey group's final year at school. There can be little doubt from

A.N. Turner & A.L. Michlette (1962). 'Sources of Satisfaction and Repetitive Work'. (Occupational Psychology) 1962.36. 215-231).
L.W. Porter (1963) 'Job Attitudes in Management II' (Journal Applied Psychology 1963. 47. 141-148).
M. Rosenberg (1957). 'Values'.
E.W. Babbe (1940). 'Citizens Without Work'.
P. Warr (1983). 'Work, Jobs and Unemployment'. (Bulletin of the British Psychological Society 1983).
K. Hawkins 1984. 'Unemployment'.

The research and the evidence of the literature that this is not just because of the financial rewards but because the Y.T.S. is much more interesting than school. The reason trainees have for enjoying their own particular scheme are probably varied but there is little doubt that they enjoyed a status on Y.T.S. far above that held at school. Also if Warr (1983) and Hawkins (1984) are to be believed far above that of unemployment which regrettably is a real possibility for many of them at the end of their year's training.

Section 4 Questionnaire Seven Behaviour

A number of researchers, of whom Rotter (1955)[1] Atkinson (1958)[2] Tolman (1959)[3] Luce (1962)[4] Vroom (1967) are typical, have studied behaviour in industry and found it to be the product of a variety of forces. Not only is it seen as controllable but also as mathematically measurable. Unsuccessful attempts to modify behaviour in schools, as outlined in chapter 2 can be and are being bettered by industry as is indicated in the research of Rogers (1982) Skinner (1973) Handy (1985). Concentrating more specifically on Y.T.S. I looked at various schemes to see how they achieved good behaviour from the trainees, eg. Mode A Schemes I investigated, Rank Xerox Ltd., (1983) Vickers North East (1983) I.C.I. Wilton (1983) and John Menzies (1983) and the Road Transport Industry Training Board (1983). As F.E. College is an important part of the training I looked at Rupert Stanley College (1983) Further Education Unit (1982) Stannington College, Sheffield (1983) Blackpoool & Fylde College and the North Oxfordshire Technical College (1983).

Mode B Finally the Mode B schemes I considered were Project Fullemploy, Birmingham (1983) Community Industry (1980) Grampian Regional Council (1984) North West Centre for Learning & Development (1983) and the Neath Development Partnership (1981).

The way workers behave depends on the environment if research is to be believed. Almost identical finding on behaviour moodification have been produced from Rotter's behaviour potential (1955) Atkinson's aroused motivation (1958) Tolman's performance vector (1959) and Luce's subjective expected utility (1962) They found behaviour on the part of a person to be the result of a field of forces each of which has direction and magnitude. As Vroom (1967) indicates these forces can be measured mathematically:

J.B. Rotter (1955). 'The Role of the psychological situation in determining the direction of human behaviour' in Nebraska Symposium on Motivation. (M.R. Jones ED.)
J.W. Atkinson (1958). 'Motives in Fantasy, Action & Society'.

E.C. Tolman (1959). 'Principles of purposive Behaviour' in Psychology: A Study of Science Vol.2.(S.Koch.Ed)
R.D. Luce (1962). 'Psychological Studies of Risky Decision Making' in 'Social Science Approaches to Business Behaviour' G.B. Strotler Ed.)

"The force on a person to perform an act is a monotonically increasing function of the algebraic sum of the products of the valences of all outcomes and the strength of his expectancies that the act will be followed by the attainment of these outcomes".

With the hypothesis that children will respond more favourably to Y.T.S. than school then the forces generated by work must be greater than those by school. Rogers (1982) blames the school appraisal system which relies heavily on end of term examinations and reports for its rewards and punishment reinforcement system. This system is in direct conflict with the views of Skinner (1973) who believes that reinforcement must:

"Be immediate, give the bonus or the pat-on-the-back today, not at the annual appraisal".

This is certainly a strong argument against the once a year schools' speech day. Therefore a continuous review and appraisal of behaviour is necessary not merely a few comments on the annual report or at a prize presentation. Handy (1985) suggests a number of ways of improving behaviour at work eg. variety, open-plan offices, safe conditions, small groups, challengable but attainable targets, increased interaction and participation. Hopefully, the Y.T.S. has more commitment to creating these conditions than did Dunview school during the education period of the survey group from 1980-84. The questionnaire was administered to compare the responses of the trainees on the Y.T.S. so that an exact comparison could be made with school. Three situations were considered: (a) work (b) college practical (c) college lectures.

A few minor changes were made to turn classroom phraseology into work and training phraseology.

1. Foul language to teacher became cheek to supervisor or lecturer.

2. Foul and aggresive language to workmates. Replace workmates by classmates.

3. Leaving seat without permission became leaving job without permission.

C. Rogers (1982). 'A Social Psychology of Schooling'.

B.F. Skinner (1973). 'Beyond Freedom & Dignity'.

4. Disruptive silly noises became fooling around.

6. Not listening - turning head or body became not listening to instructions.

7. Blurting out not raising hand became talking when something is being explained.

9. Ignoring teachers commands became ignoring instructions.

Table 27   Y.T.S. Behaviour

Questionnaire 7   Findings

Indicate if you have done any of the following on Y.T.S.

	Workplace	College Practical	College Lecturers
1. Cheek to supervisor or lecturer.	12%	12%	8%
2. Foul or aggresive language to workmates.	28%	4%	-
3. Leaving job without permission.	12%	12%	4%
4. Fooling around.	28%	20%	-
5. Pestering others.	8%	12%	-
6. Not listening to instructions.	16%	12%	8%
7. Talking when something is being explained.	16%	20%	20%
8. Talking about unrelated topics.	24%	24%	12%
9. Ignoring instructions.	4%	8%	12%
10. Daydreaming.	8%	12%	24%
Totals	156	136	88
Average	15.6%	13.6%	8.8%

School Figures   14.3%   Practical Subjects

31.36%   Academic Subjects

It is difficult to get a completely accurate comparison between school and Y.T.S. because different practises are followed eg. calling the teacher "Sir" and having to raise a hand to speak. Also behaviour such as bad language regarded as a serious offence at school could

well be totally acceptable at work. With these reservations
in mind it does however seem that the group's behaviour
on Y.T.S. is comparable to that of practical subjects
and almost three times as good as in academic subjects
at school. Whilst behaviour in college lectures seems
excellent it should be noted that time in lectures accounts
for only 10% of the week so there was far more opportunity
to misbehave at the workplace or in the workshop. It
should also be remembered that whilst at school the students
were more critical of their behaviour than were the teachers.

Reports on Behaviour - from Supervisors

Behaviour reports on the trainees confirm that it
was much better than school. Twenty one of the survey
(84%) group received reports from "okay" to excellent.
Only four (16%) had problems which were:-

(a) One boy started badly but his behaviour improved
after a 'trouble maker' left.

(b) One boy started well but started 'skiving off'
and after nine months was transferred from a
hotel to a bakery by his managing agency.

(c) One girl placed in a supermarket was in constant
trouble because of the clothes she wore; she
upset other trainees and was surly to customers.
This girl had been 'okay' for six months but
changed when she became anti Y.T.S. Left for job.

(d) A boy was finished after one month because of
behaviour problems at technical college where he
was sent on block release as a Y.T.S. apprentice
builder.

Examples of how Y.T.S. improves behaviour are as follows:

Mode A Schemes

1. Rank Xerox Ltd., (1983)

   "Time spent in consulting staff throughout the
   organisation is always well spent".

2. Vickers P.L.C. Newcastle. (1983)

   "Trainees are treated as if they are apprentices
   or full employees of the company".

3. I.C.I. Wilton. (1983)

   "Guidance and support for trainees is the responsibility of a group tutor (one tutor per twelve trainees)".

4. John Menzies P.L.C. (1983)

   "There is an understanding to consider trainees for possible future employment with the company and this acts to increase motivation".

5. Road Transport Industry Training Board (1983)

   "The board is experimenting with a general profile aimed at recording more subjectively, behavioural qualities".

Further Education

1. Rupert Stanley College. Belfast (1983)

   "The staff of the Community Studies Department at Rupert Stanley College have developed a more learner centred approach than is found in most colleges in the United Kingdom".

2. Blackpool & Fylde College (1983)

   "The traditional classroom environment will be inappropriate for many N.T.I. courses".

3. Stannington College, Sheffield (1983)

   On the very successful Trades Education scheme which the college runs:-

   "Vocational education requires a three-way partnership of worker, employer and teacher".

4. North Oxfordshire Technical College & School of Art (1983)

   "All projects are activity based". Richard Lingard.

Mode B   Schemes

1. Project Fullemploy, Birmingham (1983)

   "The importance of treating trainees as responsible adults and showing them politeness".

2. Community Industry (1980)

   "CI's staff are chosen for their practical competence and their perceived ability to relate positively to young people".

3. Grampion Regional Council

    "Trainees are offered a range of 'add on' options -
    for example a special cheap rate has been agreed
    with driving schools for 17 yr old trainees wishing
    tuition".

4. North West Centre for Leaning & Development Ltd., (1983)

    "Our needs include the need to know more about ourselves,
    our relationships with others and with our environment".

5. Neath Town Study (1981)

    "There are few schemes in the United Kingdom where
    training and employment creation are as successfully
    integrated as in the work of Neath Development
    Partnership".

So whilst Mode A schemes improved behaviour by making
employees feel part of the company, Mode B schemes tended
to lean towards personal development and the F.E. colleges
concentrated on informal teaching methods there is little
doubt that Mode A schemes have an advantage over the majority
of Mode B schemes because they offer the prospect of
employment at the end of training at the Y.T.S. placement.
During periods of high unemployment workers try much
harder to keep their jobs. This is reflected in a marked
reduction in the rate of voluntary turnover. Behrend
(1953)[1] found evidence of this in a study of 55 large
factories. Similar findings were reported by Brissenden
and Frankel (1922)[2] Waytinsby (1942)[3] and Hawkins (1984)[4]
In my survey group there was only one voluntary 'drop
out' from Y.T.S. Others only left a scheme if there was
a job to go to. Despite all the good things done on Y.T.S.,
which is producing good behaviour the prospect of a job
at the end of a scheme is a wonderful incentive to behave.
So perhaps Y.T.S. could develop along these lines:-

1. Mode A schemes should offer a job to all trainees
    who have completed their training in a satisfactory
    manner. Their behaviour could be monitored regularly
    all trainees to review their own progress and
    make adjustments if necessary. Many Mode A trainees
    had not been given any indication as to the possibility
    of a job at the end of the scheme.

H. Behrend. (1953) 'Absence and Labour Turnover in a Changing
Economic Climate'.
Brissenden & Frankel (1922). 'Labour Turnover in Industry'.
Watinsby (1942). 'Three Aspects of Labor Dynamics'
Hawkins K. (1984) 'Unemployment'.

2. Mode B schemes should be phased out or be more heavily geared to vocational guidance as is the Neath Scheme. Speaking to Mode B trainees towards the end of their scheme I was alarmed to find that a number had received no careers guidance.

However leaving employment prospects aside the Y.T.S. comes out way ahead of Dunview school in getting young people to behave acceptably.

Section 5 Questionnaire Eight Leadership Styles

Research into leadership styles in a working environment was first undertaken by Katz et al (1950-51). This work has since been expanded by a number of researchers who include Holpin & Winer (1957) Tannenbaum & Schmidt (1958) Vroom & Yetton (1973) and Fielder (1958). These studies found supervisors to be one of two basic types ie. authoritarian or democratic. Further research by Hemphill and Coons (1961) Halpin (1957) Fleishman (1957 and Likert (1961) measured how employees regarded their supervisors on a caring/domineering scale.

From this research the author found it necessary to consider which style of instruction is favoured on the Y.T.S. The M.S.C. (1983) Further Education Unit (1981) NICEC (1981) and Morrison (1984) make it clear that supervisors and lecturers on the Y.T.S. are expected to adopt a very informal approach. This questionnaire will determine just how the Y.T.S. trainees regard those involved in their guidance. Finally research by Fleishman & Harris (1962) Hofstede (1980) Mant (1984) Adair (1983) and Maccoby (1981) shed light on which of the two styles of leadership is most effective.

The earliest research on supervising styles was carried out By Katz et al at University of Michigan Research Centre between 1950[1] and 51[2]. This identified:

(a) Employee orientated supervision: The supervisor takes personal interest in the workers and shows understanding when mistakes are made.

(b) Production orientated supervision: This supervisor views his subordinates as people to get work done and was primarily concerned with high production levels.

Halpin and Winer (1951[3] found this analysis to be a slight over simplification and found it possible for the roles to be combined ie. a concern about people and production. They redefined the supervisor as:

D. Katz, N. Maccoby & N.C. Morse (1950). 'Productivity, supervision & morale in an office situation.'

D. Katz, N. Maccoby, G. Gurin & L. Floor (1951) 'Productivity, supervision & morale among railroad workers'.
A.W. Halpin & B.J. Winer (1957). 'A Factorial Study of Leader Behaviour Descriptions' (Stogdill & Coons Eds).
'Leader Behaviour: Its Description & Measurement'.

a. <u>Considerating</u> This supervisor behaves towards his staff with friendship, mutual trust, respect and warmth.

b. <u>Initiating</u> This supervisor organises and defines group activities and his own relationship with the group.

Later research has merely changed the labels of the two types of supervisor rather than come up with anything remotely original. For example Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1958)[1] refer to leader control as opposed to group control; Vroom & Yetton (1973)[2] refer to leader decision as opposed to group decision whilst Fielder (1958)[3] speaks of the psychologically distant (P.D.) manager as opposed to psychologically closer (P.C.)manager. The descriptions of the two leadership styles correspond very closely with the authoritarian or democratic teaching styles contrasted in questionnaire three. This makes comparison of the two questionnaires even more meaningful.

Having employees assess their supervisors has been undertaken by Hemphill and Coons (1957)[4] Halpin (1957)[5] Fleishman (1957)[6] and Libert (1961).[7] Libert's questions drawing heavily on the predecessors were geared to the caring qualities of the supervisor e.g.

1. Recommends promotion, transfers, pay increases.

2. Informs men on what is happening in the company.

3. Keeps men posted on how well they are doing.

4. Hears complaints and grievances.

5. Thinks of employees as human beings rather than as persons to get work done.

6. Will go to bat or stand up for me.

7. Usually pulls for the men or for both the men and the company, rather than for himself or for the company only.

8. Takes an interest in me and understands my problems.

Tannenbaum & Schmidt (1958). 'How to Choose a Leadership Pattern'. ('Harvard Business Review'March-April).
V.H. Vroom & P. Yetton (1973). 'Leadership & Decision Making'

F.E. Fielder (1958). 'Leader Attitudes & Group Effectiveness'.

J.K. Hemphill & A.E. Coons (1957). 'Development of leader behaviour description questionnaire'.(R.M. Stogdill & A.E. Coons Eds.)
E.A. Fleishman (1957). 'The Leadership Opinion Questionnaire'. (R.M. Stogdill & A.E. Coons Eds.)
R. Libert (1961) 'New Patterns of Management.'

9. Is really part of the group; interests are the same as those of the people in the group.

10. Likes to get our ideas and tries to do something about them.

From this survey the average favourable score was 72.78% in favour of supervisors being caring, democratic individuals. The types of qualities outlined in the Libert questionnaire are very much in line with the philosophy behind the Y.T.S. e.g. Downs & Perry (1983).

"The role of the supervisor, as with teachers has to be a developer, facilitator and source of skills and knowledge as well as provider of feedback".

Also Morrison (1984) states that the trainer must adopt a facilitative and enabling style whilst the F.E.U. (1981) states that skillful questioning, group leadership and good listening remain the basic tutor requirements. These caring, understanding skills may be difficult at first but they should be developed with professional support from managing agenciesand the Careers service (NICEC/MSC 1981). How successful this philosophy and training has been I shall leave to our survey group to pass judgement.

In the following questionnaire authoritatian or domineering traits are indicated by questions 1, 3, 5, 7, 9, 12, 14, 16 and 20. Democratic or trainee centred traits are identified by questions 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 11, 13, 15, 17 and 19.

Sylvia Downs & Pat Perry (1983). 'Youth Training News'. Issue 5.

'Experience, Reflection, Learning' (1981). F.E.U.

Questionnaire Eight

Table 28   Y.T.S. Styles Findings

How many lecturers/supervisors do you feel treat you or act in the following ways:-

	None/Few	Approx ½	Most/All
1. Treat us like young children.	84	12	4
2. Chat about our problems.	28	52	20
3. Talk for too long.	48	36	16
4. Present things in an interesting way.	12	60	28
5. Make fun of us.	72	16	12
6. Demonstrate well.	4	60	36
7. Are too strict.	80	16	4
8. Know their jobs or subject very well.	4	40	56
9. Use difficult words.	60	36	4
10. Have good knowledge of outside world.	24	48	28
11. Are friendly.	8	32	60
12. Are "bossy".	72	24	4
13. Explain things carefully.	8	56	40
14. Talk above our heads.	68	28	4
15. Are happy and tell jokes.	8	80	12
16. Give too many notes.	56	16	28
17. Have time to help us.	24	40	36
18. Allow some workers/ students to go too far.	72	20	8
19. Are skilled at their jobs.	8	24	68
20. Moan or shout at us.	72	20	8

Findings

Trainees' views on just what proportion of the supervisors and lecturers can be regarded as authoritarian are listed in these average scores:

> 68.4%   None or a few
>
> 22.4%   Approximately half
>
> 9.2%   Most or all.

Therefore very few of the survey group recognise their trainers as authoritarian. Taking into account those who think approximately half to most of their guidance staff are authoritarian, there is a combined total ·of 31.6%. This compares with 75% who thought that half or more of their school teachers were subject centred and 52% who thought that half or more were system centred. On a combined authoritarian scale this would be an average score of 63.5%. Thus Y.T.S. trainers would appear to be far less formal and authoritarian than the group's former school teachers. In particular they score well against the teachers in these ways:

1. They don't treat trainees like young children.

2. Are not too strict.

3. They don't use difficult words.

4. They are not bossy.

5. They don't talk above the trainees heads.

Positive comments on the trainee centred approach of supervisors and lecturers are listed in these average scores:

> 12.8%   None or a few
>
> 49.2%   Approximately half
>
> 38%   Most or all.

Therefore 87.2% of the Dunview group regard half or more trainers as being caring and helpful. This compares with a score of 54% for the former school teachers. So overall the Y.T.S. trainers are regarded as being much more informal than the teachers although almost a majority of the group i.e. 49.2% think that in the region of half of the supervisors or lecturers are not progressive and have therefore not moved completely away from academic teaching or lecturing styles. Improvements could be made by: (1) chatting about problems, (2) demonstrating clearly, (3) explaining things, (4) being happy, and (5) having more time to help students.

In moving away from production oriented supervision towards employee oriented supervision the evidence of literature research is that Y.T.S. is proceeding in the correct direction. For example Fleishman & Harris (1962)[1] found low consideration and high structure to result in high grievances, absenteeism and turnover. Hofstede (1980)[2] states that research has shown that power styles of leadership are not successful in Britain along with the United States, Canada and the Netherlands, even though they may be successful in Italy, France and Mexico. Mant (1984)[3] states that system centred leaders whom he refers to as raiders or bipods eventually self-destruct. However he does concede that there are far too many raiders in British schools and businesses.

Handy (1984) states that supportive styles of leadership result in:-

1. Subordinate satisfaction.

2. Lower turnover and grievance rates.

3. Less inter-group conflict.

4. Are preffered by subordinates.

Also the maximum production differential between the extremes of styles is only 15% and this is a short term gain, as the structured style of leadership leads to lower morale and, eventually, to reduced productivity. Adair (1983)[4] regards the eight main qualities of leadership as:

1. Defining the task	2. Planning
3. Briefing	4. Controlling
5. Evaluating	6. Motivating
7. Organising	8. Setting an Example.

In developing and using the qualities Adair emphasizes the importance of distinguishing the individual from the group. In conclusion in support of the argument for continuing and developing trainee centred guidance I refer

A.E. Fleishman & E.F. Harris (1962) 'Patterns of Leadership Behaviour Related to Employee grievances & Turnover'.Personnel Psychology 1962. 15. 43-56.
G. Hofstede (1980) 'Managing Differences in the Multicultural Organisation.'
A. Mant (1984). 'Leaders We Deserve'.

J. Adair. 1983 'Effective Leadership.'

to Maccoby's views on the qualities of six good leaders:

> "They spend more time developing consensus than
> controlling things or dealing with mistakes.
> They defend basic values of human dignity, equity
> and liberty, including the right to be heard,
> even when the majority is opposed".

In concluding, our survey group has found Y.T.S. supervisors and college lecturers to be less formal than their former school teachers and the evidence of the literature is that this should produce better relationships and improved performance.

M. Maccoby (1981)   'The Leader'.

Section 6   Questionnaire Nine   Activities

Although the Y.T.S. was not created to merely entertain young people an important consideration is how much the young people enjoy the scheme.   This argument will be further developed in Questionnaire 10 dealing with motivation and its effects on learning.   From the aims and content of the scheme as expressed in "A New Training Initiative" (1981) "A New Training Initiative" (1984) "Youth Training Scheme Review" (1984)   and Morrison (1984) the author recognised three key areas on which there is research into job satisfaction.

    1. Variety

    2. Acquisition and use of skills and abilities

    3. Success and Failure

A fourth area of importance, affecting enjoyment of the scheme is, relationship with supervisors.   However this was fully covered in the previous questionnaire.

Research into variety at work and its beneficial effects on job enjoyment and production have been undertaken by Walker and Guest (1952)   Walker (1954)   Mann and Hoffman (1960)   Trist Murray and Pollock (1963)   and Bavelas and Strauss (1961).

Brophy (1959) Kornhauser (1966) Vroom (1962) and Veroff et al (1960)   have investigated the beneficial connection between the use of skills and abilities and job satisfaction whilst Gurin et al (1960) Libert (1961) and Kaufman (1962) have researched into the connection between success at work and job enjoyment and found a very high correlation.

Whilst most of the Y.T.S. is practical and vocational in content there is a potential danger of the further education colleges being too formal and academic. However, examples from Blackpool and Fylde (1983) Stannington College, Sheffield (1983) and Rupert Stanley College, Belfast (1983) show a strong determination to avoid the traditional methods in education.

'A New Training Initiative' 1984. A Positive Statement. M.S.C.

'Youth Training Scheme Review' 1984. M.S.C

After considering the evidence of the questionnaires, literature on how the Y.T.S. can be made even more enjoyable will be considered from Youth Training Scheme Review (1984) and National Youth Bureau (1983).

One of the key ingredients of the Y.T.S. is variety. Research has shown that variety is the "spice" of job enjoyment. For example Walker and Guest (1952)[1] found in a study of a car assembly plant:

 a. Only 33% performing a single operation found their jobs interesting.

 b. Only 44% performing 2-5 operations found their jobs interesting.

 c. Only 69% performing 5+ operations found their jobs interesting.

In a further study Walker (1954) found that where more varied tasks were introduced feelings of frustration and boredom (that word used so often at Dunview school by pupils)diminished or disappeared. Similar findings were recorded by Mann and Hoffman (1960)[2] where operators moved from an old power plant to a new one, with more varied working methods. 94% of the survey said they were more satisfied with their jobs after the change.

Bavelas and Strauss (1961)[3] found that when a group of girls were given control of their own conveyor belt there was a phenomenal production increase with no loss of quality. Finally Trist, Murray and Pollock (1963)[4] in a study of Durham miners found that those using the 'Longwall system' (repetitive) had far higher rates of absenteeism and accidents than those using the 'Composite system' (varied).

Turning to the connection between use of skills and abilities and job satisfaction Brophy (1959)[5] in a survey of nurses found that the less skills they used the lower their job satisfaction. Kornhauser (1964)[6] found a marked positive relationship between how much workers' jobs enabled them to use their abilities and their mental health.

C.R.Walker & R.H. Guest (1952). 'The Man on the Assembley Line'

C.R.Walker (1954). 'Work Methods, Working Conditions & Morale'
(Kornhauser, Dubin and Ross.Eds) 'Industrial Conflict.'
F.C. Mann & C.R. Hoffman (1960) 'Automation & the Worker'
A.L.Brophy (1959) 'Self, Role & Satisfaction'.
A.W. Kornhauser. 'Mental Health of the Industrial Worker.' 1964.

The more they used their skills and abilities the more stable they were. Vroom (1962) found a correlation of .59 between opportunity for self expression in the job and job satisfaction for 489 blue collar workers in an oil refinery. Finally Veroff et al (1960)[4] found that scores on need for achievement, as revealed in fantasy, are directly related to occupational level.

Our third key area is on the need for success, something which had largely eluded our survey youngsters, at Dunview. A very extensive national survey of employed men was undertaken by Gurin, Veroff and Feld (1960)[1] They found that job satisfaction was positively related to job adequacy Libert (1961)[2] also found a positive link between job satisfaction and performance whilst Kaufmann (1962)[3] found that job enjoyment fell alarmingly when workers believed they were doing badly.

Reading through the "Youth Training News" highlighting articles or trainee activities one can find many examples of these three areas of enjoyment e.g.

Variety

1. Kensington and Chelsea Youth Trainees spent a week in Northumberland doing a host of activities such as mountaineering, orienteering and canoeing. (Youth Training News December 1984).

2. Two Cornish teenagers reported how they picked up such a variety of skills in electronics, micro-computing and electronic office equipment at an ITEC centre in Truro that they were able to set up their own company. (Y.T. News May 1984).

Use of Skills

1. Trainees at a motor vehicle workshop at Stafford designed and built their own sports car. (Y.T. News September 1984).

2. Trainees in County Durham built ramps to enable handicapped trainees to have access to all parts of the workshops at Consett Technical College. (Y.T. News March 1985).

G. Gurin, J. Veroff, S. Feld, (1960) 'Americans View Their Mental Health'.
R. Libert (1961) 'New Patterns of Management'
H. Kaufmann (1962). 'Task Performance, expected performance and responses to failure as functions of unbalance in the self concept'.
J. Veroff, J. Atkinson, J.W. Feld & G. Givin. 'The Use of Thematic Apperception to Assess Motivation in a Nationwide Interview Study' Psychological Man, 1960. 74 No.12.

Success

Jane Anning a 17 year old trainee won a national competition for young playwrights. The play 'Unity' was performed at the Royal Court Theatre in London and gained favourable reviews. (Y. Training News May 1984).

2. Five Y.T.S. trainees won a trip to the U.S.A. visiting many places including Dallas, Los Vegas and Los Angeles. Highlight of the trip was a visit to Disneyland. (Y.T.News Jan/Feb 1985).

So the Y.T.S. offers great scope for variety, enjoyment and excitement. However, there is still the one day a week at further education college and a possible danger of falling into the old academic routine. However further education colleges are well aware of the danger if Blackpool and Fylde (1983) Stannington College, Sheffield (1983) and Stanley College Belfast (1983)are typical.

They offer:-

1. Ongoing and informal teaching.

2. A practical/vocational curriculum.

3. Strong links with local industry eg. work experience.

4. Social and life skills training.

5. Residential courses.

6. Clubs and leisure activities e.g. games, videos discos and swimming.

Such courses should be both relevant and enjoyable. At this stage the views of the Dunview students on these activities must be consulted. Again the questionnaire is almost identical to questionnaire 4. It can be sub-divided into 4 areas:

a. Academic   : Questions 1, 5, 9, 13 & 17.
b. Social   : Questions 2, 6,10, 14 & 18.
c. Practical   : Questions 3, 7,11, 15 & 19.
d. Vocational : Questions 4, 8,12, 16 & 20.

Questionnaire Nine

Table 29 Y.T.S. Activities Findings

State how much you enjoyed the following activities. If you have never done them on Y.T.S. leave the column blank.

	Dislike	Av	Like	No Exper.
1. Talk from supervisor/ lecturer.	4	84	4	8
2. Discussion in large groups.	12	52	24	12
3. Drawing plans.	16	28	28	28
4. Making things.	16	12	44	28
5. Writing up log book.	40	40	12	8
6. Discussion in small groups.	20	44	24	12
7. Doing physically demanding work.	16	36	24	24
8. Mending or repairing things.	16	60	24	-
9. Finding out things from books.	16	52	12	20
10. Watching videos, films etc.	20	64	16	-
11. Drawing or painting.	12	28	28	32
12. Running errands or odd jobs.	20	48	24	8
13. Reading aloud.	64	16	-	20
14. Talks from outside speakers.	40	20	16	24
15. Reading comics or magazines.	8	40	12	40
16. Working on typewriters or computers.	4	20	60	16
17. Learning technical language.	16	28	16	40
18. Finding out things from people.	4	44	36	20
19. Going on outside visits.	-	20	68	12
20. Getting work experience.	4	12	68	16

Totals (Average)

	Dislike	Av	Like	No Exper.
Academic	28	44	8.8	19.2
Social	19.2	44.8	23.2	12.8
Practical	10.4	30.4	32	27.2
Vocational	12	3014	44	13.6

The findings are almost identical to the group's responses whilst at Dunview school. The youngsters still place activities in this order: (1) Vocational (2) Practical (3) Social (4) Academic. They still show a marked preference for being involved in activities and a marked dislike for the lecture, study session or rote learning. The big difference from school is that the balance has now moved sharply away from the classroom situation so approximately only 10% of the week is spent behind a desk. However, it does seem that, despite the statements from further education colleges, there is still an element of the traditional teaching style left.

This, however, is obviously not the view of the M.S.C. (1984)[1] as the review suggests no changes in the role of the further education colleges. There must have been an improvement in recent years because staff methods and facilities at college were heavily criticised by Greaves et al (1982)[2]:-

"Other Y.O.P. Units had little or no provision for practical activities".

In line with the author's findings the M.S.C. does, however, see the need to strengthen and develop the vocational elements of the scheme:

"In addition to strengthening the links between Y.T.S. and vocational education, the relationship of Y.T.S. to occupational training needs to be considered".

(M.S.C. 1984).[3]

A further suggestion from the National Youth Bureau (1983) for greater participation in course content and design should further improve the enjoyment of Y.T.S. by trainees. Despite these reservations Y.T.S. appears to be an enjoyable experience. Even the Y.O.P. satisfied seven out of every ten participants (Y.T. News Sept 1983) and from the author's own survey group found:

a. 84% thought Y.T.S. more interesting than school.

b. 80% thought Y.T.S. more useful than school.

c. 88% enjoyed their year on the scheme.

K. Greaves, P. Gostyn & C. Bonsall. 'Off the Job Training on YOP". MSC. Research & Development Series No.121. 1982
'Trainee Participation' (1984).
'Youth Training News.' No.6. Sept 1983 (M.S.C.) p.8-10.

With figures like these it is difficult to be too critical of the popularity of Y.T.S. and the favourable impression it is making with so many of the trainees.

Section 7   Questionnaire Ten   Achievement

Just as questionnaire five dealt with motivation and success at school this questionnaire is concerned with the connection between motivation and success on the Y.T.S. The classical motivational models of Maslow (1954) and Herzberg (1966) form a starting pad to launch into the two key areas of Y.T.S. i.e. work and training. Theories concerning the connection between motivation and work are considered from McGregor (1960) McClelland (1961) Ardrey (1967) and Holland (1967). Theories concerning the connection between motivation and teaching are considered from Fitts (1962) Keele (1968) Holloway (1974) Miller et al (1960) Fitts and Posner (1967) Adams (1968) and Annett (1969). All theories on both work and training indicate a strong connection between motivation and successful learning. After studying the questionnaire on the trainees' achievements it will be compared with achievements at Dunview school and the evidence of research on motivation and success from Wyatt (1934) Maier (1955) Fleishman (1960) Balwin (1958) and Kolb, et al (1971).
In the process of analysing questionnaire five the author demonstrated how Dunview school was failing to meet with Maslow's (1954) hierarchy of needs i.e. intellectual, social or personal or Herzberg's (1966) list of five needs i.e. (1) accomplishment (2) recognition (3) responsibility (4) personal growth (5) satisfaction for the act of learning. Whilst these theories are most frequently discussed in education circles and establishments they do form a foundation for motivation theories on work and training.

McGregor (1960) was under no illusions that management had a duty to create the correct environment to motivate employees:

"People must be persuaded, rewarded, punished, controlled, their activities must be directed".

McClelland (1961) identified the worker as having three basic needs:

1. Need for affiliation.

D. McGregor (1960). 'The Human Side of Enterprise'.

D. McClelland (1961). 'The Achieving Society'.

2. Need for power.

3. Need for achievement.

Whilst it is doubtful if Y.T.S. trainees will have much chance of obtaining a great deal of power, at least whilst on the scheme, the other two needs should be well catered for.

Ardrey (1967)[1] identifies the three needs of the employee as:-

1. identity

2. security

3. stimulation

Again the second in the list may represent a weakness of the Y.T.S. because of high unemployment. These needs do not necessarily contradict each other and indeed could be extended to thirty (Handy 1985). It is sufficient for the purpose of this thesis to demonstrate that there are many positive aspects of work to actively motivate especially if personalities are matched to careers, Holland (1973).[2] At least our survey group did have the help of computer assisted learning (J11G CAL) to help them with their career choice.

The acquisition of skill can also be a positive motivational force. Fitts (1962) stated that skill acquisition passes through three stages:

(a) The cognitive

(b) The associative

(c) The autonomous

Other research e.g. Keele (1968) [3] Holloway (1974)[4] Miller et al (1960)[5] and Fitts & Posner (1967)[6] all emphasise the need for learning one stage at a time and mastering that stage fully before moving on to the next. This theory should be in full harmony with the unit approach, as recorded on profiles, on Y.T.S.

The word profiles leads to the other very important theory on skill acquisition which is feedback. Leavitt and

R. Ardrey (1967). 'The Territorial Imperative'.
G. Holland (1973). 'Making Vocational Choices'.
S.W. Keele (1968). 'Movement Control in Skilled Motor Performance'. Psychological Bulletin 70. 387-403.
C. Holloway (1974). 'Organisation Feedback & Goal-directed Behaviour' in Human Information Processing (Part 1)
G.A. Miller, E. Galanter, K.H. Pribram (1960). 'Plans & the Structure of Behaviour.'
P.M. Fitts and M.I. Posner (1967). 'Human Performance'.

and Mueller (1951)[1] Adams (1968)[2] and Annett (1969) [3]have all found that performance improves in realition to the quantity of feedback or knowledge of results. Again this is hopefully a strong feature of the Y.T.S. The following questionnaire should provide an indication.

The questions were organised as follows:-

Personal & Social Skills	1,	5,	9,	13,	17.
Practical Skills	2,	6,	10,	14,	18.
Literacy Skills	3,	7,	11,	15,	19.
Numerical/Maths skills	4,	8,	12,	16,	20.

H.J. Leavitt and R.A.H. Mueller (1951). 'Some Effects of Feedback and Communication'.
J.A. Adams (1968). 'Response feedback and learning'. Psychological Bulletin 70. 486-504.
J.Annett (1969). 'Feedback and Human Behaviour'.

Table 30 Y.T.S. Questionnaire on Abilities

How do you rate yourself in the following areas:-

	Poor	Aver	Good
1. Popularity with other young workers.	-	40	60
2. Ability to use hand tools.	8	36	56
3. Neatness of writing.	16	52	32
4. Work Maths quickly.	32	44	24
5. Popularity with supervisors /lecturers.	8	44	48
6. Can use washing machine or lawnmower.	16	28	56
7. Read and understand popular paper.	12	28	60
8. Calculate money problems.	12	52	36
9. Take pride in your work.	24	72	4
10. Iron or mend a fuse.	32	64	4
11. Write a personal letter.	8	48	44
12. Measure accurately.	8	36	56
13. Work well without supervision.	-	32	58
14. Ability to use power tools.	4	32	64
15. Use a telephone.	8	8	82
16. Use a calculator.	4	36	60
17. Work as a member of a group.	4	32	64
18. Make something from simple plan or instructions.	16	36	48
19. Borrow books regularly from the library.	52	32	16
20. Calculate decimals & fractions.	44	36	20

Results   -   Averages

	Poor	Aver	Good
Personal & Social Skills	7.2	44	48.8
Practical Skills	15.2	39.2	45.6
Literacy	18.4	33.6	48
Numerical/Maths	20	40.8	39.2

Comparison with School and Results which are average or good are as follows:

Table 31   School/Y.T.S. Comparison of Abilities

	School	Y.T.S.
Personal & Social Skills	40.46	92.8
Practical Skills	41.82*	84.8
Literacy	31.8	81.6
Numerical/Maths	35.88	80

*Figure lower because sexual preference not catered for. Ammended to 63.28 when these were removed.

Allowing for reservations over practical skills, the all round abilities of trainees have greatly improved. These young people are either much more capable or much more self confident in their own ability or, where the truth probably lies, a combination of both. It seems that increased motivation; (80% were pro Y.T.S. whilst 20% anti Y.T.S. who regarded it as cheap labour) had resulted in improved ability. This is very much in line with research. For example Wyatt (1934)[1] stated that there was a mathematical link between ability, motivation and performance. These findings have been echoed by Maier (1955)[2] Baldwin (1958)[3] Fleishman (1960)[4] and Kolb, et al (1971).[5] In each case, where motivation has been increased, abilities have been improved and the overall performance has benefited. This is a logical and perfectly credible explanation of the apparent remarkable progress of the Dunview Trainees which in their own opinions is as follows:-

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S. Wyatt (1934) 'Incentives in Repetitive Work: A Practical Experiment in a Factory'.
N.R.F. Maier (1955) 'Psychology in Industry'.

E.A. Fleishman (1960). 'Manual for Leadership Opinion Questionnaire'.   Associates).
A.L. Baldwin (1958). 'The role of an "ability" constuct in a Theory of Behaviour'. In (McClelland, Baldwin, Brafenbrenner and Strodtbeck) Eds) 'Talent & Society'
P.A. Kolb. I.M. Rubin J.M. McIntyre (1971). 'Organisational Psychology'

Table 32   Y.T.S. Progress

How much progress do you feel you have made on Y.T.S. in these areas:

	None	Some	Great Deal
Calculating & Measuring	12%	68%	20%
Writing & Speaking	20%	48%	32%
Co-operating with others	-	24%	76%
Practical skills	-	32%	68%

This seemingly spectacular progress, for those of us blinkered by the school system, is echoed in the Careers Service reports which give glowing reports of progress to all but a few of our group.

Section 8   Evaluation

All who completed the year gained certificates, their reward for mastering a whole host of new skills. In the final analysis Y.T.S. has achieved results, with our survey group, far in excess of anything they achieved whilst at Dunview Comprehensive School. Although accurate comparisons are difficult it is the author's belief that our sample progressed more in one year on Y.T.S. than they did in their previous two years at school.

CHAPTER FOUR

Conclusion

The immediate fate of these young trainees on completing the scheme was as follows:-

Table 33   After Y.T.S.   October 1985

Boys	Girls	Group Total	
67%	20%	48%	Unemployed
33%	70%	48%	Employed
-	10%	4%	Further Education

From the original sample of 44, 25 (57%) are employed, 15 (34%) are unemployed and there are 4 (9%) others. These others are made up of two attending college, one pregnancy and one who has left the area.

These figures are very much in line with M.S.C. official figures for the Northern region i.e. 46% of Y.T.S. trainees in employment (see appendix 7). Our table indicates that 48% of these trainees found employment but had there been equal number of boys and girls the Dunview figure would have been 52%. Also it should be remembered that the M.S.C. figures represent children of all abilities whilst our survey group was representative of the bottom 40% of the ability range at school. Therefore the Dunview trainees have gained enough attention from employers to be regarded as average or even slightly better in terms of employability.

However, it is still disturbing that so many young people, having responded so well to the Y.T.S. find themselves unemployed. Indeed the major criticism of the scheme is that it has not made any impact on youth employment.

"Work experience schemes have done little to offset increasing levels of youth unemployment".

(Fiddy 1985).

Terence Beckett Director General of the C.B.I. stated that nothing could be worse for a youngster than additional training with no job at the end of it. (Guardian 5.3.82).

R. Fiddy (1985) 'Youth Unemployment and Training'

T. Beckett (1982). 'Guardian' 5.3.82.

A further major criticism of the Youth Training scheme is that it can be used to provide cheap labour for firms and substitute trainees for employees. Moos (1982) states that it undercuts youth and adult wages and apprenticeships which leads to a weakening of trade union power. Certainly on the vacancy board, at Shipton Careers office, on 22.7.85, of the eleven jobs advertised only one offered a wage of over £40 per week.

Perhaps the most serious criticism of all is that it gives the government, through the M.S.C. and managing agencies, an unprecedented opportunity to regulate and control the lives of young people. This is certainly the view of Croft and Beresford (1983) and support for this view can be found in the ("Times Educational Supplement" 9.9.83.) which reported that colleges of further education had been forced by the M.S.C. to omit political education from their syllabuses.

Whilst the author is well aware of the less attractive aspects of the M.S.C. and it's Y.T.S. scheme, he cannot, in the scope of this study, weigh them against the benefits to young people indicated in the previous pages. Only time, as the scheme is still in its infancy, detailed further study, and hopefully a more buoyant economy, will provide us with an accurate evaluation of the scheme.

At the outset of this thesis I set out to explore the hypothesis that these unmotivated, low achievers at school would be motivated and gain quite high skill levels on the Y.T.S. My questionnaires covered five areas of comparison which could be used as an indicator of and influences on motivation.

1. Attendance
2. Behaviour
3. Teaching/Training Styles
4. Activities
5. Achievement

The main findings of these comparisons can be summarised as follows:-

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M. Moos (1982). 'M.S.C. a Wolf in Sheep's Clothing'.
(NATFE Journal. No.6. p.27).
S. Croft & P. Beresford (1983). 'Power politics and the Youth Training scheme'. (Youth and Policy. Vol2.No.1 Blayden pp 1-4).

1. Attendance

    Attendance at school was deplorable. Pupils
    stayed off for the most trivial of reasons and
    truancy was exceptionally high. On the other
    hand, even on schemes where money was not "docked"
    for absence, (e.g. Community Service), attendance
    was greatly improved on Y.T.S. Although getting
    attendance figures from the M.S.C. proved to
    be impossible, my findings were confirmed by
    supervisors who assured me that attendance was
    very high amongst the vast majority of trainees.
    Studying confidential attendance registers I
    found hardly any evidence of the broken weeks
    prevalent at schools as shown in appendix 6.

2. Behaviour

    From the questionnaire it appears that much of
    the disruptive behaviour which is prevalent in
    schools is a negative response to the academic
    boredom that stems from inappropriate curricula.
    Whilst behaviour on the Y.T.S. was found to be
    very good, it should also be noted that it was
    also very good in school practical lessons.

3. Teacher/Training Styles

    The questionnaires indicate that in both school
    and further education college there is a conflict
    between the authoritarian and the democratic
    style of leadership. In general the questionnaire
    showed that the balance in schools veered towards
    authoritarianism whilst in general Y.T.S. supervisors
    and college lecturers favoured and worked with
    more democratic styles. This resulted in improved
    relationships between trainers and trainees in
    comparison to those between teachers and pupils.

4. Activities

    At school, activities were roughly in the prop-
    ortion of 40% practical or vocational and 60%
    academic. On Y.T.S. this changed to 90% practical

or vocational and only 10% academic. Not surprising-
ly 84% of the sample enjoyed Y.T.S. more than
school despite working twelve hours per week
more and having nine weeks per year holiday less.

5. Achievements

Apart from reasonable C.S.E. passes in practical
subjects these young people had little to show
after five years secondary education. Averaging
out the school survey scores on a wide range
of fairly simple skills only 37% regarded them
selves as average or above. After one year of
Y.T.S. this figure rose to 84.5% Significant
progress was made in the following skill areas:

Table 34   Y.T.S. Progress

Figures are based on the sample's own questionnaire
responses on abilities where they are average or above.

	Approx Gain	Approx Imp
1. Communications	40%	166%
2. Social	52%	125%
3. Numerical	44%	133%
4. Practical	21%	50%

The author's overall impression of most of these
young people was that they were polite, self confident
and proud of the progress they had made.

Although the author recognises the smallness of the
sample involved in his own research he nevertheless feels
justified in the light of his findings and eighteen years
of teaching experience in presenting these personal thoughts
on the Youth Training Scheme:-

1. The Youth Training Scheme should as far as possible,
   be evaluated on it's own merits as a training/
   educational exercise. It's many qualities are
   frequently overlooked in political and economic
   debates which quite naturally focus on high unemployment.

The scheme presents to this type of young person a unique opportunity to experience success with all the consequences for self esteem that has. This is an intrinsic validation for the Y.T.S. which must not be lost in the wider (and of course important) political debate.

2. The author welcomes the frequent monitoring of the scheme by the M.S.C. and looks forward to the establishment of a quality control inspectorate. Together with the extension of the scheme to two years this should result in even greater skill levels being achieved.

3. Many of the successful training techniques used on the Y.T.S. because of their informal, practical nature could be used successfully in schools. Therefore the author welcomes T.V.E.I. as a move in this direction.

4. Following on from the previous recommendation the author would welcome greater co-operation between schools, the City and Guilds, The Examination Boards and the M.S.C. This might lead to a programme covering the final two years at school and two years on Y.T.S. leading to a qualification of craft apprenticeship level, albeit, more broadly based than traditional one-skill apprenticeships. Therefore the author welcomes the M.S.C.'s re-commendation (1985) to produce better qualified young entrants onto the labour market which hopefully will have sufficient vacancies to accommodate them.

5. The final year on Y.T.S. should be on a Mode A scheme i.e. "be primarily employer - based" (M.S.C.1985) This proposal and an improved employment situation should mean that successful trainees would have a much enhanced possibility of permenant employment at the end of their training.

M.S.C. Commisioners (1985)

'Expansion and Development of the Youth Training Scheme' (M.S.C.).

6. The government should continue to be economically generous towards M.S.C. but must resist any temptation towards political interference.   Political bias could possibly endanger the very future of Y.T.S. or at the very least weaken it's credibility amongst non government supporters.

Finally returning to the Y.T.S. as it functioned for the 1984 school leavers, the author believes that it performed a useful educational and social role during a time of serious economic depression. As the evidence of the questionnaires displays, it has succeeded in motivating, educating and training those children who failed at school. The overwhelming evidence of this thesis is that it is not the children who failed school but rather the school which failed the children.

Eighty eight per cent of these same survey children went on to say that they enjoyed their year on Y.T.S. so I rest my argument with those rather than the more learned critics. After all as Fiddy (1985) states:-

> "The acid test of the Y.T.S. however is to be found in the experience of the trainee. The most telling evaluation of policy will be theirs".

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Appendix 1

YOUTH UNEMPLOYMENT AND VACANCIES DURING THE FIRST WEEK OF JUNE 1949 - 1981.

KEY

TOTAL (M + F) UNEMPLOYMENT. ———————

TOTAL (M + F) VACANCIES. —·—··—··—

Appendix 2
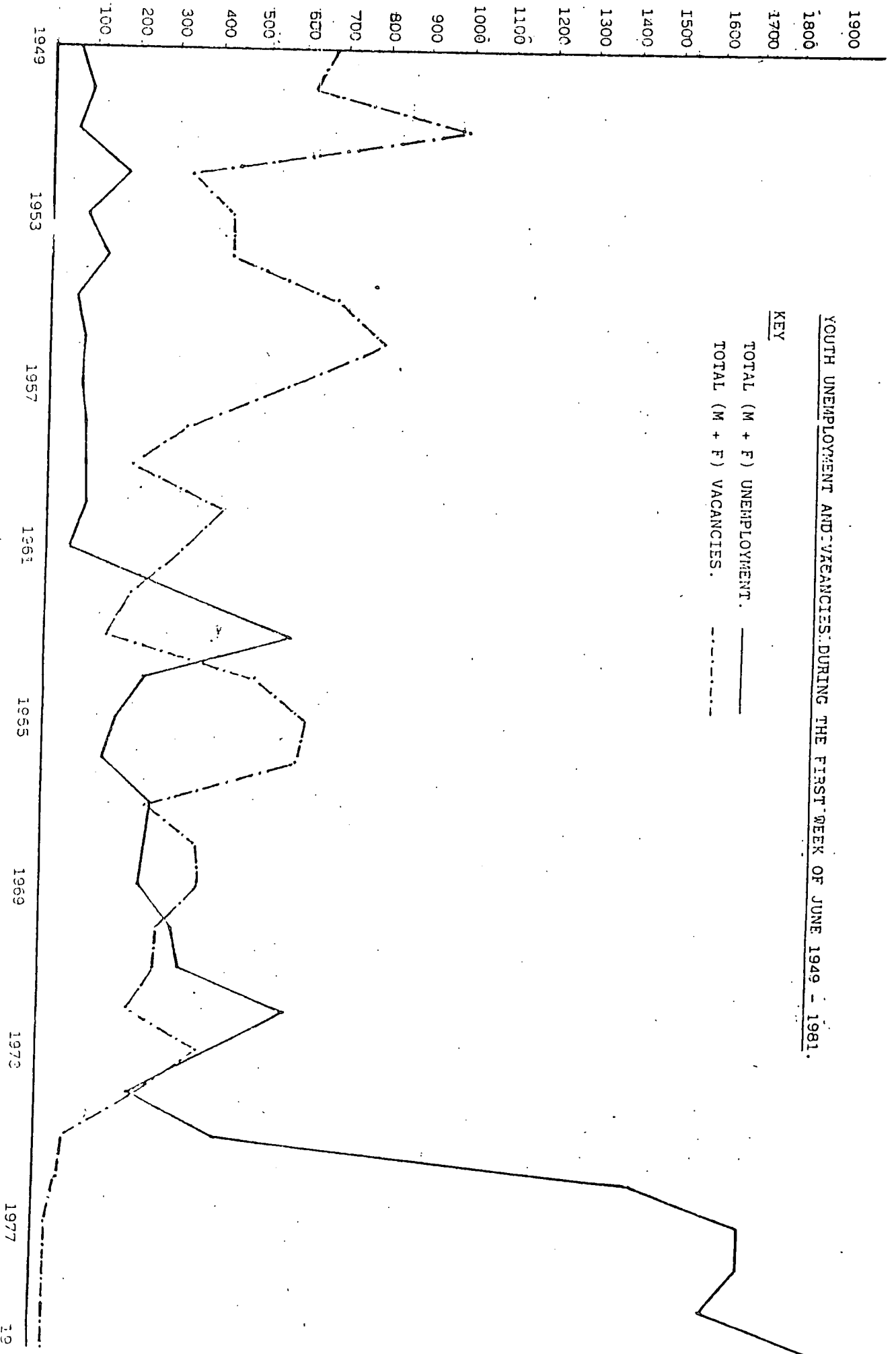
SHIPTON CAREERS SERVICE

Youth Unemployment in Shipton Metropolitan Borough
between April 1974 and April 1980.

Young Unemployed (inc.Y.O.P.trainees,etc.)
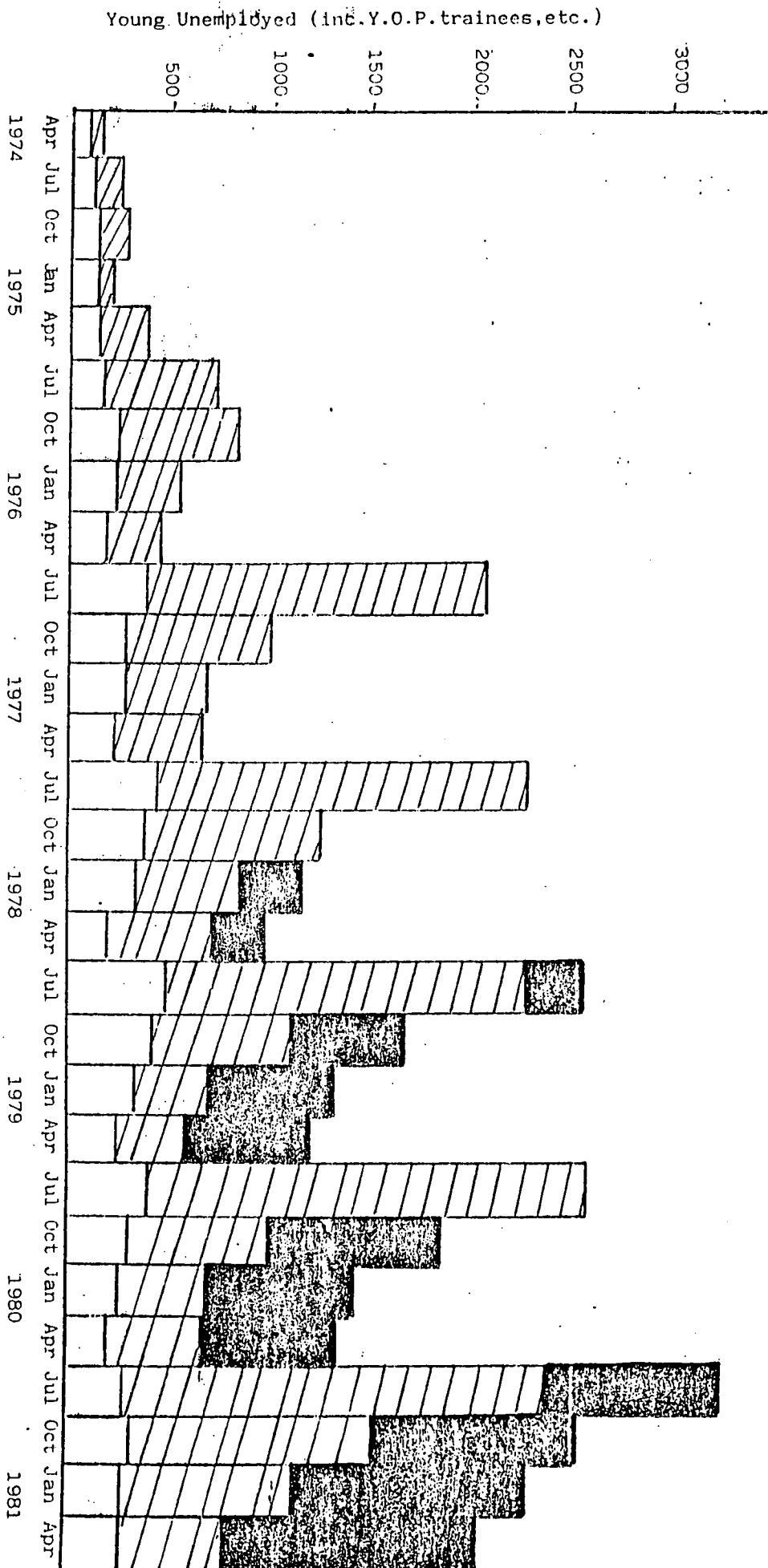
KEY

Y.O.P trainee etc
Unemp.sch.leaver.
Unemp.Job Changer.
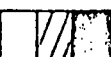
1 FINANCE	MIN	MAX
MONEY ALLOCATED TO CAREERS	0	£780

This money is spent in these ways:

	MIN	MAX
a) Text Books	0	£500
b) Exercise Books	0	£170
c) Library Books	0	£200
d) General Stationary	0	£150
e) A.V. Materials	0	£200

2 FACILITIES	YES	NO
Careers Departments with:		
a) Careers classroom	8	3
b) Careers Library	9	2
c) Careers Office	4	7
d) Telephone	5	6
e) Adequate storage and filling	8	3
f) Blackouts and Blinds	7	4
g) Adequate A.V. equipment	7	4
h) Reprographic equipment	8	3

3 HEAD OF CAREERS TIMETABLE

Number with:

a) No Careers lesson	2
b) Between 4-12 lessons of Careers	7
c) Full timetable of Careers lessons	2
d) Other subject lessons	2
e) Approximately 24 subject lessons	7
f) Approximately 36 subject lessons	2
g) No non-contact time	1
h) Between 1-9 non-contact lessons	8
i) Over ten non-contact lessons	2

4 CAREERS DEPARTMENTS TIMETABLE.

The Head of Careers has:

		YES	NO
a)	Control of staff selection	7	4
b)	Control of syllabus	4	7
c)	Staff with a genuine Careers interest	6	5
d)	Careers lessons for third years	3	8
e)	" " " fourth years	9	2
f)	" " " fifth years	9	2
g)	" " " sixth years	3	8
h)	" " " seventh years	2	9
i)	Tutorial time allocated for Careers work	2	9
j)	Single sex classes	3	8
k)	Streamed classes	4	7
l)	Classes with no regular Careers lessons	1	10
m)	Classes with a single (30 mins approx) Careers lesson	6	5
n)	Classes with a double (60 mins approx) Careers lesson	4	7
o)	Meetings with other Departments	0	11
p)	Favourable co-operation with other Departments	9	2

5 POSSIBLE FUTURE UNIFORM CAREERS PROVISION AND DEVELOPMENT

The desire to have ½ day per week with Careers/
Social Studies groups to develop:

		YES	NOT SURE	NO
a)	Visits from outside speakers	9	2	
b)	Outside visits	9	2	
c)	Work study observation	7	4	
d)	Student research	7	4	
e)	Community work	7	4	
f)	Life and social skills	7	4	
g)	Aptitude/pyschological testing	11	0	
h)	Practical skill development	7	4	
i)	Profiling	6	5	

The desire to have ½ day per week for the Careers
teacher to develop

a)	Links with Careers office	8	3	
b)	" " Industry	9	2	
c)	Work experience Contact	9	2	
d)	Interviewing	9	2	
e)	Research into technological change	7	4	
f)	Organising pupil profile	4	6	1
g)	Collecting new materials	8	3	
h)	Organising pre-option Careers Convention	5	6	

The desire for a uniform $\frac{1}{2}$ day per week throughout Gateshead for Careers teachers to develop:	YES	NOT SURE	NO
a) Inter-school links	6	5	
b) In service training programmes	8	3	
c) Advisers association activities	5	6	
d) Meetings to improve Careers Education	7	4	
e) Teachers Work Experience	6	5	
f) Survey of local industries	10	1	

SUMMARY

(i) FINANCE - In view of the high cost of materials and the rapidity
with which Careers material becomes dated, we suggest an increase
in money allocated to Careers Department. It should be noted that
seven out of eleven schools in the survey receive less than £ 300
per year.

(ii) FACILITIES - Most schools feel that their facilities were inad-
equate in a number of areas there was a particular need for an
office with a telephone (found in less than 50% of the surveyed
schools)

(iii) HEAD OF CAREERS TIMETABLE - The survey showed that more time is
spent teaching other subjects rather than Careers. There was also
a shortage of time to develop Careers programme to its full poten-
tial.

(iv) CAREERS DEPARTMENTS TIMETABLE - Many schools had staff teaching
Careers. Insufficient time was allocated to Careers in many
schools, particularly in third and sixth forms.

(v) POSSIBLE FUTURE UNIFORM CAREERS PROVISIONS AND DEVELOPMENT -
Provided the time and resources was given over to Careers, a great
desire was expressed to bring in programmes which are almost impos-
sible at the moment.

Chart A
Attendance of Forms 505, 506, 507 during the Christmas Term 1983 and Easter Term 1984.

505 Boys	X	E	506 Boys	X	E	507 Boys	X	E
	Absences			Absences			Absences	
1	79	105	1	30	12	1	19	3
2	68	59	2	27	21	2	60	93
3	6	10	3	42	40	3	31	108
4	23	34	4	41	45	4	61	39*
5	5	47	5	14	26	5	13	12
6	53	21	6	29	16	6	31	55
7	38	90	7	26	9	7	0	1
8	34	31	8	12	3	8	37	83
9	33	72	9	0	24	9	43	74
10	17	12	10	0	3	10	28	39
11	10	18	11	30	28	11	45	71
12	38	78	12	26	41	12	88	129
13	54	59				13	8	35
14	26	40				14	9	15
15	4	12						

Girls	X	E	Girls	X	E	Girls	X	E
1	98	129	1	11	3	1	39	80
2	24	19	2	22	17	2	54	54
3	31	23	3	17	17	3	2	4
4	2	4	4	41	38	4	0	0
5	10	30	5	10	17	5	7	0
6	11	14	6	44	39	6	13	21
7	11	3	7	21	74	7	49	70
8	10	15	8	42	49			
9	19	10	9	44	53			
10	38	62						
11	0	15						

Appendix 5 (i)

NO.	NAME IN FULL
1	
2	CLARK MARK
3	COLE DAVID
4	CROSSLEY PAUL
5	GRAHAM KENNETH S
6	HANSON MARTIN B
7	HEALEY SEAN
8	LUCAS MARK
9	MARSHALL MARK
10	RICHARDSON DAVID
11	WEALLEANS GARY
12	WEAVER GARY
13	WHITE JOHN
14	WILSON ROBERT C
15	WILSON SIMON
16	
17	
18	
19	
20	
21	ROBSON PATRICIA
22	CANNELL SUSAN
23	CORBETT IRENE
24	CURZENVEN JILL
25	FARRIMOND MICHELLE
26	FEVER JULIE
27	HENDERSON LISA
28	HEWITSON SUZANNE
29	HEWITSON JULIE A
30	HOLLAND CHRISTINE
31	SAVERY JILLIAN
32	SCURFIELD DEBORAH
33	
34	
35	
36	
37	
38	
39	
40	

Appendix 5 (ii)

Appendix 5 (iii)

1984

565

SUBJECT / PUPIL grade record

Subjects (top block): Shorthand · Typing · Commerce · Art · Needlework · Home Eco. · Engin. Draw. · Metalwork · Woodwork · Gen. Scie. · Biology · Chemistry · Physics · Phy. Scie. · Computers · Arithmetic · Maths. · Geography · R.E. · History · German · French · Eng. Lit. · Eng. Oral · Eng. Lang.

Subjects (bottom block, blank): Economics · Geology · Ceramics · Art · Needlework · Home Eco. · Engin. Draw. · Engineering · Gen. Scie. · Biology · Chemistry · Physics · Computers · Maths. · Geography · R.E. · History · German · French · Eng. Lit. · Eng. Lang.

PUPIL	Eng. Lang.	History	R.E.	Geography	Arithmetic	Physics	Biology	Woodwork	Metalwork	Engin. Draw.	Home Eco.	Art	Typing
Mark CLARK	5		4	U	4		4		3	4		3	
David COLE			4	4	4		4						
Paul GEORGESON		5	4	4	3								
Kevin CALLAGHAN		3			5		5						
Martyn HANNON					4	4			4				
Sean HEDLEY													
Mark LUCAS	3			5	4			3				3	
Neil MARSHALL	5	5	U	U	4								
David RICHARDSON	4	3	U	U	4	4	5		3	5			
Greg WEALLEANS	U	5	U		5		3	▲	3	5		①	
John WHITE		3	U		5		5		4	3			
Robert WILSON			U		U								U
Simon WILSON			U		U								①
Susan CANNELL	4	5	5		4		4				4	5	3
Irene CORBETT	4		4		U		5				4		4
Jill CULGENVEN	3		4		U						3	3	5
Michelle PALLIMOND	4	4	4		4		4	3			3	4	4
Julie FRYER	2		4		4		5				4		2
Suzanne HENISON	3		5	U	U			3				3	
CHristine HOLLAND	3		5	U	5								2
Jillian SAVERY			U	U	U								
Deborah SCULLION													

YTS LEAVERS FOLLOW-UP SURVEY RESULTS - QUARTER JULY - SEPTEMBER 1984

The following table shows the percentage response to the question 'What are you doing now?' Details of each sample are given at the foot of the table.

	Great Britain	Northern Region	Washing -ton Area
In full time employment with same employer	31	20	18
In full time employment with different employer	28	24	22
In part-time work	1	2	1
On full time course at college/training centre	4	4	4
Back at school	1	-	1
On another YTS scheme	5	7	7
Doing Something else	2	2	3
Unemployed	28	40	45

Sample Details:

Size	28670	2213	575
Usable response (%)	66	69	67
Questionnaires returned	December 1984/March 1985		
% respondents who were early leavers	37	36	41

SCHOOL QUESTIONNAIRE

NAME   .... FORM ....

ADDRESS   .... D.O.B. ....

          ....

          ....

          ....

TELEPHONE ....

It now seems certain that a high percentage of you will participate in a Y.T.S. scheme in the near future. I am interested in making sure you find a suitable scheme which may á lead to a permanent job.

So I'll need to find out many things about you. You can be absolutely certain that none of the information I collect will be passed on to anyone else. Therefore I am relying on you to answer all questions thoughtfully and honestly. If you don't know what a question means please ask.

Not only will I be able to help you with the information I collect but also younger children who will need to know about the Y.T.S. in the future. What you say about it will be more valuable than all the glossy pamphlets.

Please fill in the questionnaires in pencil so that you can erase mistakes. Place a ✓ in the column which you feel is closest to your view.

Thanks for your co-operation,

B.D. Coulthard.

<u>SCHOOL</u>   <u>QUESTIONNAIRE</u> 1

I have been absent during my time at secondary school for the following reasons:

		(1) Never	(2) 1-2	(3) More than Twice	
	NO				1-3
	SEX				4
	RECORD .1..				5
1.	Headache	.....	....	....	6
2.	Bullied by others	.....	....	....	7
3.	Fractured bone, dislocation etc.	.....	....	....	8
4.	Cold	.....	....	....	9
5.	Had somewhere interesting to go	.....	....	....	10
6.	Chicken pox, measles etc.	.....	....	....	11
7.	Was too tired	.....	....	....	12
8.	Didn't like lessons or teachers that day.	.....	....	....	13
9.	Asthma, bronchitis, flu etc.	.....	....	....	14
10.	Felt off colour	.....	....	....	15
11.	Owed work which I hadn't done	.....	....	....	16
12.	Dental or hospital appointment	.....	....	....	17
13.	Running messages for parents	.....	....	....	18
14.	Something good on T.V.	.....	....	....	19
15.	Relative was seriously ill	.....	....	....	20
16.	Bad back	.....	....	....	21
17.	Persuaded by friends	.....	....	....	22
18.	Funeral	.....	....	....	23
19.	Feel its useless & won't help me get a job	.....	....	....	24
20.	Job interview or test	.....	....	....	25

SCHOOL QUESTIONNAIRE 2

	Eng.	Mat								

1. Foul or aggressive language to teachers

2. "   "   "   "   " classmates

3. Leaving seat without permission

4. Disruptive/silly noises

5. Pestering others

6. Not listening-turning head or body

7. Blurting out - not raising hand

8. Talking about unrelated subjects

9. Ignoring teachers commands

10. Daydreaming - lacking concentration

F Frequently   O Occasionally   Blank Never

SCHOOL QUESTIONNAIRE   3

NO ....
SEX ....
RECORD....2..

How many teachers do you feel treat you or act in the following ways:-

	(1) Non/Few	(2) Approx. Half	(3) Most/All	
1. Treat us like young children	....	....	....	6
2. Chat about our problems	....	....	....	7
3. Talk for too long	....	....	....	8
4. Present things in an interesting way	....	....	....	9
5. Make fun of us	....	....	....	10
6. Give films, videos etc.	....	....	....	11
7. Are too strict	....	....	....	12
8. Know their subject very well	....	....	....	13
9. Use words which are difficult to understand	....	....	....	14
10. Have good knowledge of outside world	....	....	....	15
11. Are friendly	....	....	....	16.
12. Are bossy	....	....	....	17
13. Explain things carefully	....	....	....	18
14. Talk above our heads	....	....	....	19
15. Are happy and tell jokes	....	....	....	20
16. Give too many notes	....	....	....	21
17. Have time to help us	....	....	....	22
18. Allow some children to go too far	....	....	....	23
19. Have good knowledge of their subject	....	....	....	24
20. Moan or shout at us	....	....	....	25

SCHOOL QUESTIONNAIRE 4

ID ....

SEX ....

State how much you enjoy the following activities.

RECORD ...5....

At the end of the column state roughly how long it is before you become bored.

	1 Dislike	2 Av.	3 Like	4 Time	
1. Talk from teacher.	....	....	.....	.....	6
2. Discussion in class	....	....	.....	.....	7
3. Drawing maps	....	....	.....	.....	8
4. Making things from wood or metal	....	....	.....	.....	9
5. Taking notes	....	....	.....	.....	10
6. Discussion in small groups	....	....	.....	.....	11
7. Doing P.E. / Games	....	....	.....	.....	12
8. Cooking or sewing	....	....	.....	.....	13
9. Finding things out from books	....	....	.....	.....	14
10. Drawing or painting	....	....	.....	.....	15
11. Watching videos, films etc.	....	....	.....	.....	16
12. Running errands or doing odd jobs	....	....	.....	.....	17
13. Revising for exams	....	....	.....	.....	18
14. Talks from outside speakers	....	....	.....	.....	19
15. Making models	....	....	.....	.....	20
16. Making pottery or toys	....	....	.....	.....	21
17. Reading aloud	....	....	.....	.....	22
18. Finding out things from people	....	....	.....	.....	23
19. Reading comics or magazines	....	....	.....	.....	24
20. Working on typewriters or computers	....	....	.....	....	25
21. Learning foreign words or phrases	....	....	.....	.....	26
22. Going on outside visits	....	....	.....	.....	27
23. Acting or miming	....	....	.....	.....	28
24. Getting work experience	....	....	......	.....	29

SCHOOL QUESTIONNAIRE 5

How do you rate yourself in the following areas:
Tick the column you feel is closest to you.

	(1) Poor	(2) Average	(3) Good	
1. Popularity with classmates	.....	....	.....	6
2. Ability to use hand tools	.....	....	.....	7
3. Neatness of writing	.....	....	.....	8
4. Work + and - quickly	.....	....	.....	9
5. Popularity with teachers	.....	....	.....	10
6. Can use a domestic washing machine	.....	....	.....	11
7. Read and understand a popular paper	.....	....	.....	12
8. Calculate money problems	.....	....	.....	13
9. Take pride in your work	.....	....	.....	14
10. Iron a piece of clothing	.....	....	.....	15
11. Write a personal letter	.....	....	.....	16
12. Measure accurately	.....	....	.....	17
13. Work well on your own without supervision	.....	....	.....	18
14. Mend a fuse	.....	....	.....	19
15. Use a telephone	.....	....	.....	20
16. Use a calculator	.....	....	.....	21
17. Work as a member of a group	.....	....	.....	22
18. Make something from simple plan or instructions	.....	....	.....	23
19. Borrow books regularly from library	.....	....	.....	24
20. Calculate decimals and fractions	.....	....	.....	25

SCHOOL QUESTIONNAIRE   6

NO   1-3

SEX   4

RECORD 5   5

How would you like to be rated in the following areas:-

		(1) Poor	(2) Average	(3) Good	
1.	Popularity with classmates	.....	....	......	6
2.	Ability to use hand tools	.....	....,...	.....	7
3.	Neatness of writing	.....	....	.....	8
4.	Work + and - quickly	.....	....	.....	9
5.	Popularity with teachers	.....	....	.....	10
6.	Can use a domestic washing machine	.....	....	.....	11
7.	Read and understand a popular paper	.....	....	.....	12
8.	Calculate money problems	.....	....	.....	13
9.	Take pride in your work	.....	....	......	14
10.	Iron a piece of clothing	.....	....	.....	15
11.	Write a personal letter	.....	....	.....	16
12.	Measure accurately	.....	....	.....	17
13.	Work well on your own without supervision	.....	....	.....	18
14.	Mend a fuse	.....	....	.....	19
15.	Use a telephone	.....	....	.....	20
16.	Use a calculator	.....	....	.....	21
17.	Work as a member of a group	.....	....	.....	22
18.	Make something from simple plan or instructions	.....	....	.....	23
19.	Borrow books regularly from library	.....	....	.....	24
20.	Calculate decimals and fractions	.....	....	.....	25

Y.T.S. QUESTIONNAIRE

Please note that all the information given will be treated
in the strictest of confidence.

NAME ....   FORMER
                                      SCHOOL ....

      ....

                                      D.O.B. ....
ADDRESS ....

....

....

....

TELEPHONE

....

Y.T.S. PLACEMENT

....   STARTED ....

ADDRESS

....   FINISHED ....

....

....

TELEPHONE   SUPERVISOR ....
                                         MODE A OR B ....

....

QUALIFICATIONS (SCHOOL EXAMS (WITH GRADES), DIPLOMAS ETC.

....

....

....

....

....

....

Y.T.S. QUESTIONNAIRE 1

No. ... .

Sex.,..............

Record 1 ....

I have been absent during my time on Y.T.S. for the following reasons

	1.	2.	3.
	Never	(1-2)	(More than twice)

1. Headache

2. Bullied or ridiculed by others

3. Fracture or dislocation

4. Cold

5. Had somewhere interesting to go

6. Chicken pox, measles, etc.

7. Was too tired.

8. Didn't like work or college that day.

9. Asthma, bronchitis, flu, etc.

10. Felt off colour.

11. Was behind in my work.

12. Dental or hospital appointment.

13. Running messages for parents.

14. Something good on T.V.

15. Relative was seriously ill.

16. Bad back or stomach.

17. Persuaded by friends.

18. Funeral.

19. Felt its cheap labour and won't help me get full time job.

20. Job interview or test.

	YES	NO
A. Do you lose money when absent?		
B. Would you have been off more frequently had you not been paid?		
C. Were you placed on an appropriate scheme?		

Y.T.S. QUESTIONNAIRE 2

No. ....

Sex ....

Record 5 ....

1-3

4

5

Put a tick if you have done any of the following on Y.T.S.

	(1) Workplace	(2) College Practical	(3) College Lectures	
1. Cheek to supervisor or lecturer.				6
2. Foul and aggressive language to workmates.				7
3. Leaving job without permission.				8
4. Fooling around.				9
5. Pestering others.				10
6. Not listening to instructions.				11
7. Talking when something is being explained.				12
8. Talking about unrelated topics.				13
9. Ignoring instructions.				14
10. Daydreaming.				15

COMMENTS ON Y.T.S.

Please state your views on the scheme as you have experienced it.

....

....

....

....

....

What are your prospects when the scheme is finished.

....

....

....

Many thanks for your help in completing this questionnaire. Good luck for the future.

B.O. Coulthard.

<u>Y.T.S. QUESTIONNAIRE</u> 3

No.   1-3

<u>Sex</u>   4

<u>Record 2</u>   5

Now many lecturers/supervisors do you feel treat you or act in the
following ways:-

	(1) <u>None/Few</u>	(2) <u>Approx ½</u>	(3) <u>Most/all</u>

1. Treat us like young children.   6

2. Chat about our problems.   7

3. Talk for too long.   8

4. Present things in an interesting
       way.   9

5. Make fun of us.   10

6. Demonstrate well.   11

7. Are too strict.   12

8. Know their jobs or subject very
       well.   13

9. Use difficult words.   14

10. Have good knowledge of outside
       world.   15

11. Are friendly.   16

12. Are bossy.   17

13. Explain things carefully.   18

14. Talk above our heads.   19

15. Are happy and tell jokes.   20

16. Give too many notes.   21

17. Have time to help us.   22

18. Allow some workers/students to go
       too far.   23

19. Are well skilled at their jobs.   24

20. Moan or shout at us.   25

Y.T.S. QUESTIONNAIRE 4

No.   1-3

Sex   4

Record 3   5

State how much you enjoy the following activities. If you have never done them on Y.T.S., leave the column blank. (1) (2) (3)

	Dislike	Av.	Like	
1. Talk from supervisor/lecturer.				6
2. Discussion in large group.				7
3. Drawing plans.				8
4. Making things.				9
5. Writing up notes or log book.				10
6. Discussion in small groups.				11
7. Doing physically demanding work.				12
8. Mending or repairing things.				13
9. Finding out things from books.				14
10. Watching videos, films, etc.				15
11. Drawing or painting.				16
12. Running errands or doing odd jobs.				17
13. Reading aloud.				18
14. Talks from outside speakers.				19
15. Reading comics or magazines.				20
16. Working on typewriters or computers.				21
17. Learning technical language.				22
18. Finding out things from people.				23
19. Going on outside visits.				24
20. Getting work experience.				25

YES   NO

A. In general do you find Y.T.S. more interesting than school?

B. In general do you find Y.T.S. more useful than school?

C. Have you enjoyed your year on the scheme?

Y.T.S. QUESTIONNAIRE 5

No. .... | 1-3

Sex .... | 4

Record 4 .... | 5

How do you rate yourself in the following areas:-

	(1) Poor	(2) Average	(3) Good

1. Popularity with fellow Y.T.S. members and young workers. | 6
2. Ability to use hand tools. | 7
3. Neatness of writing. | 8
4. Work Maths quickly. | 9
5. Popularity with supervisors/lecturers. | 10
6. Can use washing machine or lawnmower. | 11
7. Read and understand a popular paper. | 12
8. Calculate money problems. | 13
9. Take pride in your work. | 14
10. Iron or mend a fuse. | 15
11. Write a personal letter. | 16
12. Measure accurately. | 17
13. Work well without supervision. | 18
14. Ability to use power tools, e.g. food mixer or drill. | 19
15. Use a telephone. | 20
16. Use a calculator. | 21
17. Work as a member of a group. | 22
18. Make something from a simple plan or instruction. | 23
19. Borrow books regularly from library. | 24
20. Calculate decimals and fractions. | 25

How much progress do you feel you have made in these areas since you started the Y.T.S.

	None	Some	Great Deal

1. Calculating & Measuring.
2. Writing and speaking.
3. Co-operating with others.
4. Practical skills.