

THE UNIVERSITY OF HULL

A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF PRE-SCHOOL PROVISION

WITH REFERENCE TO EGYPT AND ENGLAND

being

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Hoda Saad El-Sayed

B.A (Ed) (Ain Shams), M.Ed (Tanta)

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INTRODUCTION

In the contemporary world pre-school education has become a subject of genuine concern from educators, psychologists, sociologists, parents, administrators and politicians. There is no doubt that children with pre-school experience are, in general, better able to learn in primary school, than are those starting school for the first time.

This study examines pre-school provision in England and Egypt in comparative perspective, the aims, developments and curricula. It employs both documentary research into the history of pre-school education in both countries and also a wider international perspective with reference to the USA, USSR and France. It then proceeds to report on the formulation, delivery and analysis of empirical research conducted by the writer among a sample of pre-school teachers in England and Egypt.

The thesis comprises eight chapters, a number of appendices and a bibliography:

Chapter One states the problem, the scope of the study, the aims of the study, the format of the thesis and definition of selected terms in connection with pre-school;

Chapter Two traces the historical development of pre-school provision in an international perspective, and with special reference to USA, USSR and France;

Chapter Three describes in some detail the development of pre-school education in England;

- Chapter Four is concerned with the pre-school curriculum in England, contemporary programmes in that country and methods of instruction;
- Chapter Five concentrates on the staff of pre-schools in England, their roles, their training and their qualifications;
- Chapter Six turns to the Egyptian context; having described the educational system in Egypt, with special references to early childhood education, it examines the development of this sector and identifies the main factors responsible for its growth and characteristics;
- Chapter Seven deals with the empirical dimension of the research, presenting first the methodology, then the results of a questionnaire survey delivered to selected pre-school teachers in Hull, England and Cairo, Egypt. Two questionnaires were delivered, one for the headteachers, the other for assistant teachers; the Egyptian questionnaires were slightly modified from the School Council form used in England and were, for obvious reasons, presented and responded to in Arabic;
- Chapter Eight comprises a resume of the thesis, the drawing of certain conclusions and the presentation of recommendations for utilising some aspects of English pre-school practice in the Egyptian context.

CHAPTER ONE

RATIONALE

1.1 The Problem

The single most important aspect of human cultural behaviour is arguably the way we bring up our children. Thus, the pre-school stage is coming to be regarded as not only the first but perhaps the most important stage in the whole process of education. It is the foundation on which all the later stages of learning must be built because the infrastructure in the pre-school is considered a part of the formal education system; a system which is deliberately organised by agencies outside the family for educational process. Though taking place in a special setting, the curriculum and teaching methods can, in many ways resemble the informal education of the family. This stage of schooling can share with parents the responsibility for promoting sound growth and learning in a period when child growth is rapid and significant. Respect for the needs of the individual child is the basis for a good pre-school programme. So the importance of pre-school provision is self-evident because it is concerned with early childhood which is a vital stage of life.

Piaget carried out several long term studies on children,¹ and stressed the importance of the pre-school years to the subsequent intellectual development. The importance of the pre-school years in intelligence development and in the prevention of deprivation has been emphasised by many researchers. Murton has stated:

"Certain facts and considerations are universally accepted. The vital quality of these early years when growth is so rapid and the impressions for future development are so important, what it means to think of children as a whole, physically, emotionally and mentally, and yet remember they are individuals." 2

In recent years much knowledge has been gained of the development of pre-school education, and a great deal of research into nursery school has been written. Some of this research is sceptical about the effectiveness of nursery education, in particular, the long term benefits as children move through primary and secondary schools.

The link between pre-school and primary education was recognised early as an important theme in the work of The Council of Europe:

"Pre-school education is only a brief phase in the continuous process of learning. Although something of a truism, it is all too easy to forget this nonetheless fundamental fact. Paradoxically, this is a particular danger for those most involved in pre-school education. For the professionals, the early years may be a life long source of interest and inspiration, but the interest of children and families they serve is far from life long. For them pre-school education consists of a relatively fleeting series of experiences, a place to play and learn for at most a few years prior to compulsory schooling." 3

Early childhood education is especially important for later development. Modern psychology is showing the tremendous importance of early social adjustments where the small proportion of the population who have attended a nursery school are more controlled, independent and better adjusted socially

than the majority of children who have not attended such schools.

An opposing view is that a good home, with love and affection, is in itself a good pre-school environment. This may be, but nursery education can give something more than even the most loving home, with time spent with the child, space to experiment and suitable materials. In any case, there are also many broken homes and millions of families having to live in situations which are far from ideal for young children, where there is little appeal to a child's imagination or educational stimulation.⁴

In the twentieth century alone there have been tremendous technological changes affecting life-styles and creating new problems. Of particular importance to the pre-school period are changing attitudes of women to their own role in society and the complexity of modern social conditions as an environment for the social and intellectual needs of young children. Obviously women who decide to work outside the home need adequate care for their young children while they are at work. In such a context, good child care centres assume new importance. An increasing proportion of families want not only good primary education, but nursery education as well, plus continuity between the two.

So this study is concerned to examine pre-school provision in England and Egypt, with a view to indentifying the features of England's pre-school programme that can be practically and usefully built into, or adapted to, the pre-school sector in Egypt. In addition, the study will be concerned to widen the perspective by observing this sector in other selected countries.

1.2 The Scope of the Study

This study is concerned with the development of pre-school education in Egypt and England and to set this issue in an international perspective. This is necessary not only for the value of comparative study, but also to lead to a better understanding of the factors which determine both provision and demand; also because most of the literature and experience emanates from outside Egypt. Given that the study is being partially carried out in England, and also that England has been in the forefront of early childhood education, the focus of the study will be comparative in respect of Egypt and England. However, it will be necessary to preface this comparison with a more general overview of early childhood education in a wider international perspective. Consequently literature and procedures will be reviewed in respect of a number of other countries, but especially the U.S.A., the U.S.S.R. and France. These countries were chosen so as to provide a basis for generalisations about the present structure and the likely future of pre-school provision, its nature and its extent. These countries include examples of an early and late start to compulsory education (five, six, seven ...), of very extensive pre-school provision and of very limited provision.

When making the survey of pre-school education in England, study visits to selected pre-school institutions and units are evaluated in order to identify principles and concepts of pre-school programmes in some detail. Thus the first hand dimension can be place alongside and in comparison with documentary evidence such as statistics and reports.

1.3 The Aims of the Study

The study comprises two main parts, the first international, the second concentrating on Egypt. Within the international section, special reference will be made to pre-school practice in England. In addition to documentary research, first hand field studies have been carried out in a variety of pre-school contexts. Existing facilities and practices in Egypt have also been researched in the field, and it is therefore possible to proceed to evaluate the potential of both indigenous and outside patterns for a proposal of pre-school reform in Egypt.

A comparative study of pre-school education across different cultures may contribute to a better understanding of how specific historical, social or religious factors affect the development of pre-school education. It also may illustrate that, irrespective of differences in the cultural environment and social needs, teachers striving to achieve broad aims in education for humanity have similar purposes and objectives for young children.

1.4 The Methods and Procedures

a) In this study comparative methodology is used. The methodology of comparative education, as Kandel maintains is perhaps:

"determined by the purpose that the study is to fulfil. It is for this reason that history was not sought for its own sake. so far as methodology is concerned, comparative education may be considered a continuation of the study of the history of education into the present." 5

However, the comparative work is used here:

i) To describe the present situation of pre-school education in Egypt and its aims and the curriculum content;

ii) To study the development of pre-school education in England, its aims and the curriculum content;

iii) To review relevant literature from other countries (U.S.A., U.S.S.R. and France) - to widen the perspective and to identify the principles and concepts of pre-school provision and observe this sector in some other countries.

b) In addition to this, the empirical method was also necessary to gain the first hand knowledge of the situation in England and Egypt. So that the author developed a questionnaire for teachers and head teachers. The aim of the questionnaire is to discover what practising pre-school teachers and head teachers think about the present status of pre-school provision, including its aims, curricula, buildings and other facilities, together with comments as to trends and ideas in early childhood education.

i) The Teacher Questionnaire consisted of five sections covering the following area of enquiry:

Section A: dealing with information about the number of children in the class; background of teachers in pre-school; their qualifications; their motives for teaching in pre-school institutions; their experience in pre-school teaching; the conditions of pre-school buildings; courses for nursery teachers and their needs for in-service training courses in pre-school education.

Section B: dealing with information about the importance of pre-school provision for children and its aims at the present time.

Section C: seeks information about the role of the nursery teacher.

Section D: is concerned with information about the acquisition of skills in early childhood that a nursery teacher could help to promote.

Section E: deals with the attitudes of teachers towards the present educational programme in the nursery school; the subjects and the activities in the educational programme which the children like best and which the children find least interesting; also with methods of teaching and the attitudes of teachers towards the use of formal methods in nursery teaching; the relevancy of the content of the present curriculum in nursery school in meeting the children's requirements; how should learning be achieved in the nursery school and the best way to evaluate most aspects of the child's development.

The major questions in the teacher questionnaire were marked in a five-point scale running from very important to not important at all. Furthermore, the questionnaire contained open-ended and closed questions.

ii) The Head Teacher's Questionnaire consists of various questions about the number of children in the nursery school, the number of staff, the head teacher's qualifications, experience in pre-school management, attendance at in-service training, relationship with the staff and share in class teaching, and attitudes towards the teachers who introduce innovation in the education process.

iii) The Model for the questionnaire is that used by the Schools Council Aims of Nursery Education Project.⁶ It was modified for use in Egypt and in the light of comments made by

the writer's supervisor Mr. Colin Brock (Senior Lecturer and Chairman of the International Education Unit). The validity and reliability of the questionnaire were established by Mr. Colin Brock and Mrs. Jean Williams (consultant to the University of Hull School of Education in respect of primary and pre-school education), and Mr. Allan Reese of the Computer Centre of the University of Hull.

The modified questionnaire was the main instrument for obtaining comparative data about the present situation of pre-school education in England and Egypt. The questionnaire in England was distributed partly by personal contact but mainly by mail. In Egypt the questionnaire was distributed by the researcher visiting the schools in person.

The details of conducting and administering the questionnaire will be discussed below in the questionnaire design chapter.

1.5 The Format of Thesis

As a result of the above mentioned rationale, the study has been structured as follows. Chapter One considers the problems, the scope of the study, the aims, the methods and procedures of the study. Chapter Two describes the development and history of pre-school education in some selected countries (U.S.A., U.S.S.R. and France). It attempts to identify the factors which have stimulated growth and development of pre-school education as well as its aims and curricula. In Chapter Three, pre-school provision in England is analysed, concerning the history of pre-school education in this country from the nineteenth century up to the present day and the factors which affected it on the development of pre-school provision, its

nature and the extent to which it can reveal evidence of assistance in understanding and improving the provision of pre-school education in Egypt. Also this chapter describes the administration and organisation of pre-school provision.

Still with respect to England, Chapter Four turns to the pre-school curriculum; the origin of the traditional curriculum, the definition of the curriculum, methods of instruction and a foundation of a good curriculum and the content of the present pre-school curriculum, the importance of environment in early years and the role of play in the educational programme. Chapter Five is concerned with the staff and their roles in nursery school, their qualification and training and the characteristics and qualities of a good teacher in England.

Chapter Six turns to the Egyptian context. It describes the educational system in Egypt, with special reference to early childhood education, its history and the cultural background which affected the development of pre-school education from the Islamic dynasty until the present time. This is a necessary survey from which to elaborate on the nature and extent of pre-school provision in Egypt. It is followed by a description of the survey methodology in Chapter Seven, giving the design of the teachers and head teachers questionnaire. In addition it provides the findings of the teachers and head teachers surveys both in England and in Egypt together, and makes comparative comment. Finally, Chapter Eight gives the conclusions and recommendations.

1.6 Definition of Terms for 'Pre-School'

The desirability of educational opportunities for the

under fives is now so widely recognised that different types of organisation are attempting to meet the need. Some confusion exists in the popular image about the kind of provision linked with different names, such as nursery school, playgroup, nursery class and day nursery. It is hoped that the brief statements given below may help to clarify the picture. All the organisations defined below have as their main object the expansion of educational opportunities for the under fives; to supplement what is provided at home.

'Pre-school Education' is not normally regarded as a formal teaching sector, but it is a vital stage which promotes the growth of the child, in respect of abilities, skills and attitudes, so as to grow by understanding individual needs, and providing opportunities to play with full enjoyment, explore, experiment, and mix with other children. Such opportunities can best be provided in nursery school, or nursery class, with teachers who have been trained to appreciate the importance of language development and the subtle purposes and meanings of play. The definitions below are with respect to the context of England and Wales, (unless otherwise indicated).

a) Nursery Schools

Nursery schools are provided for children between the ages of three and five years. They are the responsibility of the Department of Education and Science, and are staffed, equipped and run by a Local Education Authority. No charge is made, except for meals where these are provided. Such a school is a place where young children learn as they play and share experiences with other children under the guidance of adults, where children are supervised by trained staff, and are given

an educationally stimulating environment.

"The head of a school is always a qualified nursery teacher, and she may have one or more qualified assistants. The rest of the staff is made up of nursery nurses who may be young girls who have the training for two years." 7

Teachers receive either a three or four year's college training, or a one-year post-graduate course. In general, nursery schools are open for the ordinary school hours and are closed during school holidays. About two thirds of the children attend part-time for a morning or afternoon session, the rest staying for the whole school day, including lunch.

In general, nursery school is a place for activity, creativity and fosters the growth of genuine happiness and self-reliance. As Bloom maintains:

"It would seem to me that in these critical years of childhood, a system of nursery schools dedicated to the social and emotional development of the child could help each child get a good start towards mental health, such an approach could do much to provide each child with the environment and adult support needed at these critical years." 8

b) Nursery Class

Nursery classes are especially equipped and staffed classes for children under five in schools. They are attached to primary schools but have their own play area separate from the rest of the school. These classes, like nursery schools, are the responsibility of the Department of Education and Science and are staffed, equipped and run by Local Education Authorities. The hours of attendance are often the same as those of the infant school which the class is a part. The only charge for

nursery class is for school meals, where these are required. They offer the same education as a nursery school, and they are also staffed by trained teachers and nursery assistants. They generally provide for half day attendance. We should note especially the fact that nursery classes are an integral part of primary schools and this is of particular advantage in ensuring smooth transition into the reception class of school.

c) Day Nurseries

Day nurseries are established by the Health Departments of Local Authorities under Section 22 of the National Health Service Act 1976. They operate for the full working day and also during most school holidays (for example, to care for the child of a single parent who has to work). This shows that day nurseries are generally even more committed to compensate for social and other disadvantages than the nursery schools and classes. LEAs have the legal power, not a duty, to offer nursery places, whereas both District Health Authorities and the Social Services Departments of local authorities which operate the day nurseries have a legal responsibility for children from birth.⁹ Day nurseries are designed for the care and nurture of young children (age 0-4 years), and might have different criteria in planning for these young children's needs. Some believe that the day nurseries which are designed to meet the special needs of children of working mothers, children from unsatisfactory homes or the children of ineffectual mothers, and should concentrate on the care and protection of such children rather than their education.¹⁰ Day nurseries have been decreasing since the Second World War. Nevertheless, it

is true that day nurseries are health and social orientated.

d) Playgroups

Lack of adequate nursery education was the motivating factor behind some women joining together in 1961 to form the Playgroup Association.

The first playgroups in England were established as a pioneer venture by the Save the Children Fund in the early 1950s. Their aim was to provide safe play facilities, supervised by trained staff, for children living in poor social environments and to afford the mothers an opportunity for a short break from their manifold pressures and anxieties. These or similar groups have continued throughout the last 20 years, still run by trained staff in socially-deprived areas, though there is now a greater attempt to encourage mothers to visit and to share in their children's playgroup experience.¹¹

The age of children in playgroups is mostly 3 to 4 years. Some groups take more mature 2 year olds, usually over 2½. They operate mostly for two to three hours in the morning, though some also run separate afternoon sessions.

The playgroup is an important development because it is the only type of organisation which is providing play facilities on a large scale. They became the responsibility of the Department of Health and Social Security following the Social Services Act of 1970. In addition, a number of playgroups are now registered with local authorities under the nurseries and child-minders Regulations Act 1949. Also,

"some playgroups are affiliated to the Pre-school Playgroup Association who provide Basic, foundation and tutor courses for playground personnel. 12

A small charge has to be made to cover overhead expenses, depending on the number of sessions per week that the children attend. Most playgroups combine paid staff with parents helping as shown in the PPA Survey.¹³ According to the survey, four-fifths of parents run playgroups and two-fifths of other playgroups had a parent rota. The emphasis is on parental involvement and 'do it yourself', to provide a stimulating environment for their own child. The preparation for the child through the medium of improved relationships with the parent is for living; it is a situation in which children grow within themselves.

"In so far as we may view the playgroup as having objectives other than preparation for school, it is to be questioned that we should retain the thought of playgroups as pre-school groups." 14

Playgroups are more common in Britain than in other European countries, though this may have to do with the provision of nursery schools in such countries.

e) The Kindergarten

The kindergarten came into being through the labours of Froebel and the earliest were founded more than a hundred years ago.¹⁵ It was intended as a place which embodied Froebel's mystic philosophy that childhood is not simply a preparation for adulthood but an essential aspect of the 'Divine Unity'. The title is now commonly used as a generic term for any school taking pre-school children and giving them a child-oriented learning environment.¹⁶ The kindergarten is generally for the education of late four-five and early six-year-old children, and often a half day programme.

f) Child Minder

This is a person who looks after children, usually in her own home, for children whose parents can meet their fees, and who are out to work. Child minders now have to be registered under the Nurseries and Child Minders Regulations Act 1948. Three quarters of the places with registered minders are for all day care and most of these minders take children from 8 a.m. to 6 p.m. Most all-day minders are available all year round, except perhaps for a short summer holiday.

g) Primary School Class

'Reception Classes' provide educational experiences for the oldest pre-school children by admitting them to primary school before the age of compulsory entry. In England, such children are sometimes referred to as the 'rising fives'.¹⁷

h) Private Nurseries

Private nurseries include nursery schools not registered as educational establishments by the Department of Education and Science. These are fee-paying establishments, with staffing regulations according to the rules of the State education system. Nonetheless, the staffing, management, hours of opening and costs to parents do vary widely in England.

.....

It should be noted that the above list is only a selection of the main 'pre-school' terms and types as encountered in England. In Egypt pre-school education is given a variety of names such as: 'pre-primary' or 'kindergarten' or 'pre-school', the most common term being 'kindergarten', or 'nursery school'.

For the purpose of this study, the researcher has concentrated on 'pre-school education', 'nursery school', 'kindergarten', and 'nursery class'. This is because the prime aim of the study is to concentrate on those institutions which aim to educate the child under the responsibility of the State and free of charge. The other services, whose prime aim is the care and protection of the children rather than education, are excluded (such as 'day care-child minder'), except where brief mention is necessary for illustration.

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CHAPTER TWO

HISTORY OF PRE-SCHOOL PROVISION IN INTERNATIONAL PERSPECTIVE

2.1 Introduction

Despite the many changes in educational theory and practice that have taken place in recent years, there is still little doubt that early learning and early experience remain crucial to later development. During the past twenty years a great deal has been written about pre-school education and the needs of young children. Various research projects have investigated the pre-school setting in some depth.

However, early childhood education is not new. It has been part of human history for thousands of years. Successive generations have been concerned with the socialization of its children and with their enculturation into the norms, values and attitudes of the group.

"Philosophers such as Plato, Aristotle, Comenius, Locke and Rousseau, and educators like Pestalozzi and Froebel addressed central questions of early education long before there was a separate discipline of psychology." ¹

Pre-school education plays an important role as the initial stage in the system of public education. The pre-school stage is the period of the most intensive physical and intellectual development of a child.

"Pre-school education has often been acclaimed as an important influence on educational achievement capable of offsetting or even compensating for social, economic and educational disadvantages." ²

Certain facts are now universally accepted. Children at three years of age entering a nursery have learnt much before they come, and the task of the nursery school is to take up this learning development and channel it into a transition to learning in the formal context.³ This is also the time when the principle moral traits, character and abilities are formed on the basis of the child's instincts. The child's environment and mode of upbringing have a decisive effect on this process.

Powerful social and political pressures have contributed to a reawakening of interest in the expansion of educational facilities for children before entry to formal schooling.

As Chazan has mentioned, these pressures have included:

"The desire to use early childhood education as a means of reducing inequalities in educational opportunity and of giving socially-disadvantaged children a better start in life. The increasing numbers of mothers of young children taking up employment outside the home, the changing attitudes of women to their own role in society and the difficulties experienced in modern conditions of providing adequately for the social and intellectual needs of young children within the home." 4

In considering the provision of pre-school care for the children from different parts of the world, we shall take a backward glance into history to discover the origins from which the modern movement has sprung, with respect to the origin of pre-school education in certain selected countries; France, U.S.A. and U.S.S.R. First we will consider aspects of the aims and philosophy of early childhood education.

2.2 The Aims of Pre-School

The pre-school is not a place for formal education, but neither is it a place for the mere supervision of young children. It is a controlled environment, suitable for the period of infancy, so that young children may exercise their growing powers of mind and body in free play and in the exploration of the properties of plants, animals and other interesting objects.⁵ Through these means children increase their muscular skill, co-ordination and control. For example, by using simple climbing apparatus, children discover their own powers of movement and experience a sense of achievement, especially if it is available, in outdoor space.⁶

Social behaviour, and the moral basis on which it rests, is largely learned. In ideal circumstances, such learning comes about quite spontaneously under the influence of parents and kin. Where these opportunities are lacking or diminished, the nursery school and the pre-school play group can play an important substitute role. In any case:

"The mere contact of a child with age-mates
affords numerous occasions for social
learning." 7

Pre-school education should have, as its foundation, an understanding of the growth of intellect in the first few years of life. As has already been noted, a major contributor to this field has been Piaget, but in practice he seems to have had little impact on nursery schooling. Piagetian theory is at times used as a rationale for learning through play, but, as Tizard points out, it was probably Dewey rather than Piaget who has been the main methodological influence on pre-school education.⁸ That children learn through play is also a basic

tenet of Froebelian philosophy and one which has been embraced by many early childhood educators. However, Froebel did not believe that the play of young children should be unstructured as was the approach of many of his later followers. The educator must guide the play, hence the rationale for pre-school education. It may be said that pre-school education in most countries is characterised by its informality, but the term 'informal education' in fact brings a multitude of misconceptions. Some of them have been listed by McKenzie and Kernig as follows:

- "- let the child play, and he will discover.
- learning is nothing more than experience and discovery.
- never tell a child anything: let him discover for himself.
- as long as a child is happy in an activity, he is learning.
- they love doing this, so they must be learning!
- do not teach reading, writing or maths: give children freedom and their skills will grow." 9

In the pre-school/nursery school, informal learning and teaching are activities which take place in a planned environment so arranged that each child is free to use time, space, materials and skilled adult help in order to advance in learning along the path indicated by their own interests and inquiries.¹⁰

One of the first large-scale attempts to research into the aims of nursery education was carried out in 1972 by Taylor, Exon and Holley¹¹ who asked 578 teachers to complete a questionnaire on the aims and objectives of pre-school education. With regard to aims, the following were identified:

- a) to promote the social emotional development of the child by helping him to form stable relationships, encouraging his sense of responsibility, encouraging his sense of self-confidence, independence and self-control;
- b) to promote the intellectual development of the child by encouraging him to use language, helping him to learn how to learn, and encouraging the development of his ability to use concepts;
- c) to promote the aesthetic development of the child by giving him opportunities to experiment with a variety of materials in art, and music, encouraging him to be creative and expressive;
- d) to promote the physical development of the child, by helping him to use his body effectively by providing fresh air, space to play and sleep, good food, training in personal hygiene and regular medical attention;
- e) to promote the development of an effective transition from home to school, by providing initially supportive conditions for the child's development in both the home and the school.

This list of aims was the result of a great deal of discussion with nursery teachers. Their findings indicated that nursery teachers placed greater emphasis on the social and emotional development of children than on intellectual development, though no significant gulf separated any one of the objectives from another. All were found to be considered important, but would be differentially emphasised in respect of the treatment of individual children.

One of the important results of this study under the auspices of the Schools Council was that it has made valuable

contributions to our thinking on nursery education, but in considering the findings from the Schools Council questionnaire, we must remember the warning given by Peters when he pointed out that:

"by placing curricular aims in wide categories such as physical, social, moral, emotional, and intellectual development, it seems as if social and moral development were devoid of intellect, as if morality and the use of the intellect were free from passion, and as if emotional development were separable from thought and awareness." 12

In reality, for any groups concerned with the care of children between three and five years, the aims of the nursery school must cover all aspects of the child's development, including the promotion of positive home and school relationships.

2.3 Tenets in a Philosophy of Early Childhood Education.

Through education, mankind aims to give direction to each successive generation starting out on the road of life. It is not enough that we should devise the means of such education, we must try to determine the ends of education, so as to give purpose and direction to our efforts to discover the best means of achieving the optimum rationale and environment for pre-school work.

"The goals of pre-school teachers are (or should be) explicit, have some kind of "child development" rationale, and are linked with educational materials and methods that form a curriculum focussing largely on the child's verbal abilities and knowledge and on his social emotional needs." 13

The goals for pre-school are founded on ideological or

philosophical conceptions of the child, the family, society and the role of pre-school education in any given society. Those responsible for selecting and articulating the goals are the parents, teachers, administrators, and politicians. In planning for the child to reach full potential, we must plan for the totality of experience for the whole child. Establishing goals must come before attempting to make plans for a programme. As Hildebrand Verna states:

"Suggested goals for the young child have been stated in terms of the developmental tasks of early childhood. Goals are achieved through careful planning, and through arranging centres in which the child can learn as he uses the materials and equipment on a self-selected basis. Routine activities are organised in a way that leaves room for individual differences." 14

The way we undertake to educate children will depend on what we believe to be most essential or important for an effectively functioning human being in a particular society. It will also depend on what is known about growth and development of young children. So a philosophy is based on a combination of belief and understanding.

The problems of education comprise of four basic issues: the goals toward which we are educating; the means with which we are educating; the human material to which education is applied; and the values with which education is operating. The goals for education in general must obviously inform those for pre-schooling in particular. For Plato, the goal was "to develop in the body and in the soul all the beauty and all the perfection of which human beings are capable". Neither beauty nor perfection is here defined.

According to John Stuart Mill, education is "everything

which helps to shape the human being". Since "everything" is all-embracing, the goal of education again is clouded. In reality the goal of education has alternative possibilities: either it is to work on the individual for the sake of the individual, or it is to work on the individual for the sake of society at large.

The means of education are either the transmission of factual knowledge, accumulated by others and laid down in books, or the development of individuality and originality.¹⁵ Values in education are the most complicated problem. There is, for instance, the view that the most important thing to stress in education is mental training and discipline. The assumption is that the strength which one faculty acquires in a particular material would lead to the ability to deal with any other kind of material. That is to say: the 'transfer of training'. Another value considered as basic in education is that of usefulness. However, this attribute depends on the individual's personality and on the demands of a given society at a particular time. Classical education, emphasising the concepts of past cultures, had just the opposite approach, namely, that only 'useless' knowledge is valuable.¹⁶ This approach is taken by Bertrand Russell who believed education should be directed only towards the intellect:

"Education should have two objectives: first to give definite knowledge, reading and writing, language and mathematics and so on; secondly, to create those mental habits which will enable people to acquire knowledge and form sound judgement for themselves. The first of these we may call information, the second, intelligence." 17

In general, it might be said that the pre-school goals

must not be based only on the needs of society or the needs of the child, but must take into account both the further development of the pupil and the characteristics and future development of the given society because the child develops or changes progressively as a consequence of interactions with the environment.

According to Bijon:

"The development of a child must be considered in terms of its interaction with the specific events that constitute his environment. A child's organization of behaviour (personality) on entrance to nursery school is the result of the interactions between his unique biological make-up (including biological maturation) and the specific events he has encountered in family living since birth. By the end of nursery school his behaviour is a function of his unique biological make-up in interaction with specific events in his home, nursery school, and immediate community." 18

So, the curriculum in pre-school should be planned in keeping with the principles of the child's development and growth, and within the context of the culture and social era in which the child is living and learning.

2.4 An Historical Perspective on Pre-School in Selected Countries

The purposes of education in any country are shaped by the nature of the particular society, by its cultural heritage, its political, economic and social institutions and by the "world outlook" upon which the society is based.

"Western nations, and particularly the United States, have traditionally followed a much broader approach in education. In the United States, the aims and philosophy of education have been that education is good only if it is primarily for the sake of the individual." 19

So, in considering the pre-school provision in different parts of the world, and provide a wider perspective on England and Egypt, we will deal with the history of pre-school in some selected countries, namely France, U.S.A. and U.S.S.R. We will compare between these two countries so as to know how these countries organise their educational provision in pre-school education and to have general information about the history of pre-school education in each country, the curriculum, and teacher training.

2.4.1 Pre-School Education in France:

a) Historical Development

Surprisingly, perhaps, the French educational system and its structure cannot truly be called 'rational'. For example, the introduction of a bill designed in 1957 to reform the organisation of schools expounded its unsatisfactory nature in these terms:

"The present organization of the French public education system is not a result of a unified concept rigorously implemented, it is only explicable by its history in the course of which the diverse elements of one school system were successively put in their place without any link between them." 20

Two major distinguishing characteristics of the French educational system are, at first, a high degree of centralization and second, an emphasis upon the intellectual dimension. In addition to centralization and a humanistic education, the third

major factor in the French educational system is the influence of the Roman Catholic Church. Successive laws over the past 150 years have lessened the influence of the church upon education, so that from control of education by the church a few centuries ago, over 80 per cent of French school children today attend neither a church-affiliated school nor a private secular school, but rather the public school which has gained strength from compulsory education laws.²¹

The French kindergarten is undoubtedly a factor in social assimilation because it brings together children of different backgrounds. According to Halls:

"The genuine pride that the French show in their nursery schools is matched by the keen interest they have manifested in the ideas behind British primary schools, with the result that "open plan" structures, and concepts such as "family grouping" and the "integrated day" are filtering into French primary schools. In the field of nursery education, however, the British have much to learn from the French." 22

Early childhood education in France, in the formal sense, begins with nursery-kindergarten schools for children from the ages of two to six. Pre-school institutions in France have a long history.

In the last part of the eighteenth century, the influence of Rousseau was keenly felt in France. The educating of young children can be traced to the writings of Jean-Jacques Rousseau, whose books (Emile, 1762, La Nouvelle Heloise, 1764, and The Social Contract, 1767, called attention to the importance of the concept of childhood.

"Emile has often been called the charter of childhood, for it laid down a plan for education to make an ordinary child morally responsible and intellectually capable. Rousseau felt that childhood was a unique time and that a child during this period of time should not be considered just a small adult. He was one of the first philosophers to point out the relationship between society, the home and the problems of education." 23

It is said that the eighteenth century might be called 'the children's century' since it witnessed the publications of Rousseau and the births of Pestalozzi, Owen, Seguin and Froebel.

In 1771, Pasteur Oberlin opened the first of the Ecoles a Tricoter (Knitting schools), in the Vosges, so-called because the children who came together there were always taught some kind of manual work, as well as to sing, read, cipher, and say prayers. These 'schools' were really refuge centres for poor and neglected children, protecting them from cold, hunger and bad examples in the streets. The method pursued in these schools was described as follows by M. Greard in his Report of 1875.

"In the morning the lessons were held in the schoolroom. In the afternoon, when the time of year allowed, they were given in the fields. The Mistresses were called 'conductrices' and as they went along they taught the children the names and virtues of the plants they found on their way, they made them observe, reflect and reason concerning the simplest phenomena of nature, they opened their minds to some idea of the great loves of universal life, their hearts to love of their neighbour and respect towards God. The walk, wisely regulated, strengthened the body, the good order which reigned trained the character in habits of obedience and discipline." 24

The idea of the creche began in France, the first being opened in 1801 which in turn led to the establishment of numerous infant schools all over France. These soon received State recognition and inspection. The creche was designed wholly for the children of working mothers.

The first salle d'assile, or infant school was opened in the Rue du Bac under the name of Salle d'Essan. The State absorbed these schools in 1837, and their numbers rapidly increased from 24 in 1836 to 262 in 1937, and 5,830 (with 679,085 children) in 1883:

"The Royal order of 1837 under which the Salles d'assile were assimilated to "Infant schools" is proof of the positive results of a noble fight for these institutions which, in the minds of the pioneers, represented "the first stage of child upbringing" and should be regarded as "the basis of primary education".

25

In 1848 came establishments of public instruction under the name 'Ecole Maternelle' which may be said to have developed from the Salles d'Assiles which were themselves renamed Ecoles Maternelles in 1881. According to Hans:

"Historically, there were two kinds of pre-school institutions. The Ecoles Maternelles proper were independent institutions under the supervision of special inspectors. The Classes Infantines were kindergartens attached to primary schools or preparatory classes of Lycees and College. Kindergartens attached to secondary schools were closed, together with preparatory classes, even before the War and the kindergartens of the primary schools are giving way to Ecoles Maternelles proper."

26

In 1887 the Ecole Maternelles was defined as a place where children can receive the care necessary for their physical, moral and intellectual development, and this

definition has been retained to the present day.

"At the turn of the century a large number of ecoles maternelles were maintained by religious orders, but in 1904 a law was passed prohibiting religious orders from teaching. The development of an established position for nursery schools within the State educational system was furthered by the decree of 1921 which presented a plan for the education of children aged two to six, including standards of staffing, curricula and buildings. The early development of pre-school education is an important determinant of the nature and extent of the present provision." 27

From 1908, nursery school functions of providing care and protection were reaffirmed in accordance with the Circular of 1905, on the grounds that it had gradually departed from its objectives and allowed itself to be dominated by the primary school. The curriculum drawn up in 1882, and later incorporated in circulars of 1887 and 1921, form part of a single pattern dating back to the outline of 1835, with the educational and social functions always in association with each other.

From 1920 until after the Second World War, the Ecoles Maternelles did not change significantly; they continued to meet important social needs especially for poor children. Much development at the turn of the century was largely due to a remarkable woman, Pauline Kergomard, who was inspectress general from 1879 - 1917. According to her, the most important things for the nursery school child were freedom and activity, especially through play. To her the Ecoles maternelles aimed to provide a real life situation for the child. Considerable attention was given to maturational problems and physical development. The teacher was expected to foster the child's

natural curiosity by supplying many different things for him to play. Such were the objectives that lasted until the end of the Second World War, after which pre-schools became much more popular with middle-class families newly aware of the importance of early childhood years. The demand for pre-schools went up dramatically and they became overcrowded, but at the same time the higher expectations of middle-class families brought about changes for the better.

Ecoles Maternelles are basically 'educational' (three hours of classes in the morning, plus two hours in the afternoon). Classes are quite large, with average enrolments of approximately 40 children per teacher. In contrast, regular elementary school classes, average approximately 25 per teacher. With such large groups, the discipline tends to be rather rigid and the children receive little individual attention.²⁸ For the children not yet eligible for Ecoles Maternelles, creches are provided to serve a small fraction of infants' working mothers. Whereas the creche takes children from the age of 15 days to three years, the Ecole Maternelle takes them from the age of two to six, thus the two systems overlap by one year. Both are optional, but while at the creche there is the nominal charge, the Ecole Maternelle is free. Both are open from 7 a.m. to 7 p.m. though the regular hours of the Ecoles Maternelles are from 9 a.m. to 4 p.m.

The Ecole Maternelle, faithful to its original vocation, is first and foremost a social organisation protecting the young child. It is available for all little children whose mothers cannot look after them for part of the whole of the day, and other groups of children who, without requiring the

social services it offers, may benefit from its educational activities. More and more children recruited from the so-called middle-classes use this school. The very name Ecole Maternelle is a definition of its function; it replaces the mother in every way.

To meet the dual function of child minding and education, and to ensure service lasting ten, sometimes twelve, hours a day, the Ecoles Maternelles have a large staff, part of which is paid by the State and the remainder by the local authorities. They are, however, only established in towns of a certain size, within communes of less than two thousand inhabitants. They may be replaced by a 'class enfantine' attached to an elementary school.

In addition to these schools which are free and municipal, a private nursery school may be opened by philanthropic organisations, industrial firms or individuals. They are called 'jardins d'enfants' and they come within the law of 31st December, 1959 which settled the relations between the State and private education. Their organization and their financing is in the charge of the people who founded them, but the State still exercises control over health through inspections similar to those exercised in public schools, so the private schools tend to be very similar.

By 1970 already the average enrolment rate for children aged between 3 and 6 years was 84 per cent, (in the same year only 11 per cent of British 2-4 year old children were in nursery schools), with the percentage for 2 year olds 18 per cent; 3 year olds 61 per cent; and 4 year olds 87 per cent. By the age of five practically every French child is already

in school. Thus, today children of all social classes attend nursery school. This is true for the age 5 years, but probably less so for children aged from 2 to 4 years.

In 1975 the target for nursery education was set at three million pupils and it was proposed to provide 30,000 new nursery school teachers.

"The renewed drive for nursery education dates from 1973, because it is looked upon as a vital factor in the equalization of opportunity." 29

By the early 1980s the position had enjoyed the type of expansion illustrated in Table 1.

TABLE 1

ENROLMENTS IN NURSERY SCHOOL IN FRANCE FROM 1960 - 1983³⁰

YEARS	1960-1	1970-1	1980-1	% 1982-3
2 year olds	9.9	14.9	35.7	32.3
3 year olds	36.0	15.3	89.0	90.4
4 year olds	62.6	74.4	100.0	100.0
5 year olds	91.4	86.3	100.0	100.0
TOTAL 2-5 year olds	50.0	67.4	81.5	80.4

Thus, according to Lewis:

"School attendance in France really begins at four and not six, the official starting age. The French have come to make use of a nursery school because it is there, but in addition to this social impetus, economic and educational factors play their part in the promotion of the nursery school." 31

Generally, the nursery school in France provides the child with all the care that a young child needs and often does not receive at home and provides a comprehensive training covering many different aspects organised in a somewhat structured way. It prepares them to be more receptive to the years of compulsory education from six on, and keeps the children away from the many dangers to be found on the streets. There obviously still survives officially the idea of the French State supervising its future citizens from a very early age.

b) Staff and their Training

The Ecoles Maternelles are staffed entirely by women. Nursery school teachers have the same pay and training as elementary school teachers. The training can take two forms. After obtaining the Baccalaureat, the student may enter an Ecole Normale or College of Education to do a practical training under the direction of the local inspector, which involves working in a nursery school and attending classes. Both methods take two years. Due to the shortage of places in the Colleges of Education, most nursery school teachers are trained by the second method. Many head teachers appear to favour this method as they believe the new teacher is better prepared for the exacting practical problems involved in handling and teaching young children.³²

During training, the nursery school teacher studies psychology, pedagogy, social anthropology, cultural aesthetics, history, regional geography, mathematics, chemistry, biology with practical experience, language, music, gymnastics and drawing. The first years are mainly devoted to studying problems of development and pedagogy as it concerns young

children. During the second year, there are practical experiences in nursery schools, under the supervision of a teacher. The emphasis in the training of teachers is placed on active teaching methods with particular attention given to small group instruction. The areas of emphasis are: teaching language, reading preparation, writing and early number work; approximately 75 per cent of the teacher training is devoted to theoretical subjects and 25 per cent to practical experience in a nursery school.³³

The domestic staff in the nursery school do not assist the teacher in the classroom. They only help the young children at meal times, rest times and when dressing to go home. Responsibility for what goes on in the classroom is primarily that of the teacher and the directrice in charge of the school. The large number of the children is a very real problem. The Headmistress of a nursery school must have taught in a nursery school for at least five years and furnished evidence of her competence. In conjunction with the function of area inspectress, she helps to provide in-service specialist training for the staff in her school.

c) The Curriculum

In the French Ecole Maternelle, the curriculum from the earliest stages is more thoroughly thought out than in the English infant school, where only comparatively few children are admitted before the age of five.

It is natural that the influence of Montessori who did so much work in developing a method for these earliest years, should be strong, but teachers in France, while understanding her principles, develop them in their own way and to meet

their own needs. They find the Montessori apparatus too expensive and at the same time too restricted.³⁴

Clause 3 of the decree of 18th January, 1887, prescribes the educational activities and methods which still apply to nursery schools:

"In every nursery school and in every infant class the children shall be divided into two sections according to age and to mental development.

The timetable shall comprise:

- (1) Physical exercises, breathing exercises, games, graded movements performed to the accompaniment of songs.
- (2) Exercises for the senses, exercises for the hands, practice in drawing.
- (3) Language work together with recitation, narratives and tales.
- (4) Practice in observing things and persons familiar to the child.
- (5) Work aimed to forming early habits of ethical conduct.
- (6) For the children in the first section, initial work in reading, writing and arithmetic." 35

This programme leaves much freedom and indicates only the main types of the children's activities.

Today the activities of the école maternelle are divided into three sections:

Section 1 (2 to 4 years)

i) Sensory motor activities: water and sand games, construction, filling receptacles, games of skill or balance, playing with dolls, manual and housekeeping activities;

ii) development of sensitivity: songs and stories, rhythm, dance;

iii) first intellectual education: exercises in order, sorting, speech.

Section II (4 to 5 years)

i) sensory education: imitation games, housekeeping activities, more advanced sensory education in free or suggested creative activities, methodical exercises in memory or attention;

ii) education in sensitivity: broader and more numerous means of expression by means of rhythm, dance, drawing, but also words and poetry;

iii) intellectual education: first exercises in observation and speech.

Section III (5 to 6 years)

i) use of themes taken from the environment from accounts of trips and from stories. The children already possess numerous means of expression which they use freely: songs and dance, modelling and drawing, dramatic games and games with marionettes;

ii) manual activities illustrating themes of activities.

iii) sensitivity training is done primarily through music and poetry, to which children of this age are already quite sensitive: also through drawing, through observation of works of art, painting, sculpture, etc.

iv) intellectual education: precision in observation and in written and oral expression. First exercises in calculation.

v) first initiation into fundamental techniques: reading, writing and arithmetic are offered to those children who are interested and capable.³⁶

The methods of Ecole Maternelle are individual and the children are allowed a free choice of selected occupations and may work in their own time. The French method is one of freedom for the children as well as for the teachers, though the methods of teaching and the occupations of the Ecoles Maternelles are in a transitional state in France, as they are in the English infants schools.

d) Organisation and Financing in respect of Pre-School in France

The public nursery schools are organised and financed by both the State and the communes.

"Since the ecole maternelle is an established part of the State educational system, no charges are made to parents. Nursery education is financed in the same way as elementary education: the teachers are paid by the central government but other current costs are borne by the local authorities. The Ministry contributes to the capital costs, the extent of this varying from 50 to 95 per cent depending on the resources of the local authority. The private schools may receive subsidies in the form of the payment of salaries by the State." 37

The central government pays between 65 per cent and 80 per cent of the total cost of educating children at this stage. This covers both capital and current expenditure. The percentage of aid is dependent on the regional zones within which the school is located. The State pays 100% of the teachers' salaries from the current expenditures budget. The commune contributes approximately 20 per cent of the cost of operating the school and buying supplies and equipment. Providing maintenance is totally the responsibility of the local authorities. The commune must also supply domestic

help to care for the children before and after the formal school day, as well as taking care of the children during meal times.

There is an administrative difference between ecoles maternelles (under their own inspectrices) and classes enfantines which are attached to primary schools. Since the latter often consist of a single class, they have traditionally not encouraged the attendance of the under fours. The institutrice is here under the primary head teacher's authority, and her premises are liable to be less well equipped than those of the average ecole maternelle. About one-fifth of pre-school enrolment is in classes enfantines which are usually found in the many villages, with less than 100 pupils. In one teacher schools (or classes uniques) there may be a handful of pre-schoolers in a section enfantine, but whenever the population of a commune is 2,000 or more, there must be an ecole maternelle.³⁸

The supervision effected in private pre-primary establishments by the public authorities is of two kinds:

- a) the private nursery schools are supervised by the departmental nursery school inspectors (women), while the many private infant classes are inspected by the primary school inspectors;
- b) health inspection is carried out by officers of the Ministry of Public Health and Population.

Generally, the nursery school in France is not the same as in other European countries, because it has an extensive provision from an early age without extending the private nursery and day nursery alongside the educational institutions,

and it undertakes more formal instructions. However, there are criticisms for the nursery school system. For example, of the insufficient number of trained staff, and the failure of the nursery school to attract a representative percentage of the lower social classes.

2.4.2 Pre-School Education in the USSR

a) Historical Development

The purposes of education in any country are shaped by the nature of the society, by its cultural heritage and by the political, social and economic circumstances for any particular country. The basic aims of Soviet education is to serve not the individual but the collectivist State.

The struggle for knowledge, science and for the school in the USSR is of primary importance for all those concerned with the government of the State.

"Soviet education policy proceeds from the belief that development of all sectors of education must be an integral future of the socialist transformation of the country." 39

The nursery school is the first element in the general system of education in the Soviet Union. It has become a powerful factor in the children's well-rounded development and in improving their preparation for school instruction. Pre-school education in the USSR is neither compulsory nor available to all, nor is it free of charge. Understandably, the institutional structure and the content of pre-school education in the USSR is different from most Western countries such as France. For example, the age range of pre-school clients is greater as compulsory schooling does not begin until the age of seven. So many children who, in other countries, would be

enrolled in full-time schooling are still at nursery school in the Soviet Union. The need for the nursery school for young children has developed as a result of a number of practical and ideological factors, for as Susan Jacoby states:

"Nearly 80 per cent of Russian women between the ages of twenty and fifty-five hold jobs outside their homes, in a society in which most women work, it is obvious that a share of the responsibility for raising children must be shifted from the traditional family structure to public institutions. Ideologically, the Soviet government has always favoured communal child-rearing, for it encourages personality formation in conformity with the collectivist ideals the State wishes to instill in all its citizens." 40

Because the USSR has become a nation of working mothers, and the State therefore requires a large number of women in factory and farm work, pre-school programmes have become an integral part of the national economy, and in consequence considerable attention is focussed on this component of the system.

The creation of a nationwide system of social education for pre-school age is in fact one of the major achievements of the Soviet people. The situation pre-revolution was unimpressive as Medynsky indicates:

"Pre-revolutionary Russia had only 285 kindergartens, almost all of them run privately for commercial purposes. Fees were high, and only the wealthy could afford to place their children in them. Of the free kindergartens, the so-called "peoples" kindergartens, there were no more than fifteen for the entire country." 41

In the last year before the Bolshevik revolution in 1917, there were still only 177 pre-school institutions of any kind in the entire country. In total they catered for 4,550 children. So the real history of pre-school education in the various

republics began after the October Revolution of 1917, since when there has been a special department for the 'protection of motherhood and infancy'.

According to the 1930s writings of Fediaevsky et al⁴² and Lillian de Lissa⁴³, Soviet Russia had been engaged since 1917 in an epic struggle against the mortality and morbidity of her children; an episode in the socialization of all her vast population. The succession of the first world war, followed by the civil war, and the blockade, left an enormous number of orphans. Therefore in the first post-revolutionary years, institutions of a boarding type had to be organised immediately to provide full care. In addition to these boarding institutions, others offering part day care began to grow rapidly. By means of creches and kindergartens, the care of the child from eight weeks to seven years was achieved, but the contrasts between different nursery schools are stronger than anywhere else in the world.

Some schools work in eight-hour shifts, others provide twenty-four hour care on an every day basis, except the workers day off. Apart from all this, there may be a nursery school working under the most primitive conditions. On the other hand, there are in Moscow experimental nursery schools which with their staff of psychologists, artists, music teachers, managers of food and housekeeping, that are comparable only to the nursery schools attached to some of the leading American universities.

Modern Soviet society believes strongly that the education of young children is the business of the State. In 1918 an Institute of Pre-school Education was established to supervise

the training of teachers in this field, and during the next few years several nationwide conferences were held:

"The decades since the Revolution of 1917 have brought about changes in the organisation and methodology of pre-school education in the Soviet Union. The level has now been subdivided into two distinct phases, the nurseries or creches, ... for children from 6 weeks to 3 years of age and the kindergarten for children from 3 to 7 years of age. Each phase includes part-time, summer and seasonal programmes at playgrounds, resorts and camps, in addition to programmes in the permanent year-round 44 institutions."

The major function for nurseries in the Soviet Union is to render child care service, while the kindergartens also carry out educational services. One of the prime aims of pre-school education is still the liberation of women to join the working force, and another is early exposure to a communist ideology.

The first official approval of a programme for pre-school education was issued by the VIII Congress of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union in 1919. In the same year, the 'First Plan Russian Congress on Pre-School Education' was convened. It formulated several basic principles which became guidelines for the kindergartens:

- a) the problems of pre-school education are one with the problems of later schooling, and aim at educating the future citizens of the Soviet Republic;
- b) each age has its own mental and physical characteristics which must be taken into account in pre-school education;
- c) educational work in the kindergarten must be carried out in the mother tongue of the child, which will be used to introduce the socialistic content permeating our society;
- d) the teachers working in the kindergartens must not only

be specially trained and know children, but they must also understand the new tasks of education and be able to work with the people.⁴⁵

As a consequence, the second Pan-Russian Congress on pre-school education held in 1921 strongly criticized the Froebel and Montessori systems, and other theories of free education, and adopted a resolution for the preparation of trained educators from the worker's class. In 1920, a Declaration on pre-school education was signed. The pre-school establishments were to become an integral part of the educational system. Their social and pedagogical functions were clearly defined. In the period which followed, there was further shaping of a frame of reference for Soviet education, and a clear objective to have nursery care for 75 per cent of her children by 1939 and eventually 100 per cent.

In 1931 certain defects in pre-school education were identified such as trying to impart to children social and political knowledge which was unintelligible to them; also the under-estimation of the significance of play. So in 1934, new programmes of education in the kindergarten were published for physical training, artistic development, drawing, and the development of initial mathematical concepts. The number of kindergartens grew steadily:

"In 1941 some 1,200 children attended the country's 24,000 kindergartens and nurseries. Pre-school educational institutions helped to save the lives and health of children in the difficult years of World War II. In those years far from decreasing, the number of kinder-gartens rose sharply in a number of regions in the rear."

46

In 1949 and again in 1959 the Soviet Government passed several

decrees to expand pre-school institutions, and to improve education and medical services for pre-school children. These decrees dealt with the major problems of organisation and content in the work of kindergartens. In the year 1955, it was reported that more than 5 million children under the age 7 years participated in some type of pre-school programme. Table 2 indicates how enrolment of pre-school age in Soviet nursery schools and kindergartens had grown from 1928 to 1955.

TABLE 2
ENROLMENT OF PRE-SCHOOL CHILDREN IN SOVIET NURSERY
SCHOOLS AND KINDERGARTENS, BY SPECIFIED YEARS

	Enrolment in nursery schools			Enrolment in kindergartens		
	Total	Urban	Rural	Total	Urban	Rural
1928	62	54	8	130	119	11
1940	859	559	300	1,172	906	266
1950	777	512	265	1,169	958	211
1954	862	589	273	1,577	1,305	272
1955	906	623	283	1,713	1,410	303

Source: Division of International Education, Education in the USSR Bulletin 1957, No. 14, p. 42.

The basic functions of pre-school education had been expressed in the "Rules for Kindergartens" adopted in December 1944. These rules declared that "the kindergarten is a State institution for the Soviet civic education of children between the ages of three and seven, pursuing the aim of ensuring their all-round development and education." According to Leavitt:

"Among the aims listed for the kindergarten itself are the installation of the proper attitudes toward adults and other children, and respect for elders and love for parents. Along with this is stated the cultivation of love for the Soviet motherland, its people and its leaders, its Soviet army, its wealth of natural resources, and the creative genius of its people." 47

In addition to general training of character and mental abilities, the Soviet kindergarten teaches the child clean and orderly habits in their work and handling of their toys and tools, teaches independence and self-reliance, and taking care of belongings. It teaches organisation of work and prepares for successful study in compulsory schooling. Great importance is attached to painting, drawing, singing, musical exercises and plenty of physical exercise indoors and out.

From long lists of applicants in Soviet kindergartens, directors give first priority to children whose parents both work and who have no grandparents at home to take care of them. Transport is provided where necessary. Demand has grown not only as facilities have been produced, but also in response to economic necessities on the part of parents and the record of the pre-school sector as it developed. The following statistics

are indicative of the number of enrolments in kindergartens during the period 1938 - 1960:

TABLE 3

ENROLMENTS IN NURSERY SCHOOLS IN THE USSR FROM 1938 - 1960

	1938-1939	1949-1950	1959-1960
Children	721,865	748,403	1,868,771
Establishments	14,903	16,196	27,716
Teaching Staff	47,356	61,174	152,875

Source: International Conference on Public Education: Organisation of Pre-Primary Education, (Geneva: International Bureau of Education, 1961), p. 250.

The enhancement of pre-school provision has been achieved in urban and rural areas alike. For example, during 1966 - 1970 alone, pre-school institutions with a total of 600,000 places were built from the (budgetary) resources of collective and State farms. By the early 1970s, there were more than 7,414 year-round and seasonal pre-school institutions operating on the nation's collective and State farms, with an enrolment of more than 2,500,000 children.⁴⁸ During the period 1966 - 1970 the departments of public education and the industrial ministries expanded the network of pre-school institutions further and endeavoured to locate them where they were most needed. Many cities and districts throughout the nation adopted the policy of unconditional admission to pre-school institutions.

"In 1975, over 11 million children were attending nursery schools and kindergartens in the Soviet Union under the supervision of 700,000 upbringers. The problem of providing sufficient vacancies for all applicants has been solved in many cities." 49

All pre-school establishments are still of a completely voluntary nature. The State does not see its task to be the establishment of any particular kind of pre-school, but rather to make it possible for all working people who so desire to have an opportunity to place their child in a nursery school or kindergarten.

b) Teachers and their Training

Public pre-school education was given little or no thought in pre-revolutionary Russia. In any case there were no qualified teachers or educators for this type of work.

Under the various Soviet governments a great deal of attention has been devoted to the training of efficient specialists for pre-school institutions.

"Today heavy demands are made on the teachers and educators in kindergartens and nurseries. These institutions are staffed with graduates from specialised secondary schools or teacher training institutes. In the Soviet Union, cadres for the system of pre-school education are trained at 30 teaching institutes and 202 specialised secondary schools. In the 1968-69 academic year, there were more than 75,000 students enrolled. Over 57,000 pre-school educators and other specialists are raising their qualification in the evening and correspondence courses at these schools and institutes." 50

The Soviet pre-school upbringer or teacher, however, is well prepared by explicitly instructive teacher-training courses in pedagogical institutes and is well-equipped with methodological

prescriptions. The uniform set of purposes of Soviet pre-school pedagogy and the requisite set of didactic practices are contained in the 'Programme of Instruction' and the 'Teacher's Commentary', prepared by the Academy of Pedagogical Sciences and published by the Ministry of Education.⁵¹

In general, the staff are almost always female, having received training at special teacher-training schools which are open to girls who, besides sitting for an entrance examination, must have completed the secondary course of the ten year school and furnish proof of possessing a good ear for music. The training course takes two years. Subsequently and in accordance with the clauses governing the further professional training of kindergarten teachers and managers, the teacher can systematically improve their qualifications by their individual work and by attending further (INSET) courses. Kindergarten teachers are also able to take courses held by the pre-primary education faculties of the teacher-training institutes. At these faculties training is provided for teacher training school professors of pre-primary education (who are specialized for the teaching of each subject) as well as for pre-primary education methods specialists. Those who wish to take the course offered by these faculties must have received secondary schooling and have been engaged in appropriate teaching for three years. They must also sit for an entrance examination. The course is of four years duration (five years if by correspondence and evening classes).⁵² The kindergarten staff includes a director, teachers, their assistants, a pediatrician and medical nurse, plus a domestic contingent of cooks and cleaners. In most instances, heads of pre-school institutions

are women.

Kindergarten teachers are supposed to meet with the child's parents once a month, and in a general meeting three or four times a year. In addition, there are informal contacts between teachers and parents at the school whenever needed. The teachers are responsible for the psychological and child-bearing aspects of the programme. They visit the parents to observe the living conditions of the child and to discuss with parents their educational policies. This requires special social skills, partly acquired in formal training, usually a two year programme for graduates of the complete (10 year) secondary school. More advanced training is given in special pre-school education sections attached to pedagogical institutions in the Russian Federation (R.S.F.S.R.) and certain other Republics.

A normal syllabus of a two-year course includes the following:

- i) Pedagogics: history of pedagogical theory, psychology, anatomy and physiology, school hygiene and pioneer subjects;
- ii) Russian Language and method, arithmetic and method;
- iii) History: history of USSR and method;
- iv) Geography and method;
- v) Natural history and method;
- vi) Singing and method: (All students are required to show skill in reading, musical notation and must be able to conduct a school choir. Students must also show proficiency in playing one instrument, and special credit being given for skill on the piano and violin);
- vii) Physical education and method;

viii) The history of the Communist Party of the USSR;

ix) In addition to this formal curriculum (which includes no foreign language), there is an extended programme of 'club activities', including languages.⁵³

Clearly the timetable is very crowded, and the students have insufficient time for independent reading and study.

c) Pre-School Curriculum in the USSR

Education in nursery and kindergarten institutions must, in the USSR, be based on an all-round concept of education; the education of the whole child. Nonetheless, special attention is given to physical, mental and social development in early life, including the formation of desirable habits and behaviour patterns. Education is in a large measure accomplished through play. Play and daily routine are the most important though not the whole content of the life of young children.⁵⁴ This is understood in the USSR and the experience of pre-school institutions there shows that children attending kindergarten develop their cognitive and creative abilities more fully and acquire stronger habits of collective study than those who do not.

Kindergartens usually have 3 or 4 groups of 20-25 children each, and the group is divided by age: the youngest children (of 3 or 4 years of age) in the junior, children of 4 or 5 years of age in the middle group, and those of 5 to 6 in the senior group. Each group of up to 25 children has one teacher and one assistant.

Day children usually start between 7 a.m. and 10 a.m., depending on when their parents go to work. As a rule, the children start their day by play for an hour before breakfast.

After breakfast they take part in supervised intellectual and physical activities ranging from 12 to 20 minutes each for the younger groups, from 25 to 30 minutes for the middle groups, and from 30 to 40 minutes for the older groups, after the morning time they have lunch and rest periods of 1½ to 2 hours, followed by afternoon tea, more recreation and supervised activity, then dinner scheduled between 6 p.m. and 7 p.m. in the evening, then more play until parents arrive, perhaps as late as 9 p.m.⁵⁵

In Soviet kindergartens, the native language is used⁵⁶ and children learn chiefly through planned forms of play. Formal education begins in the kindergarten, and the programme of education is prepared by the Institutes of the Academy of Pedagogical Sciences. Soviet teaching practice has developed its own system of pre-school training. The aims content and method of pre-school education work are defined in a special programme which takes account of the children's age, characteristics, and psychology of the child, and treating him as something real and not abstract. Much attention is given to physical hardening of the child and teaching hygienic habits and correct behaviour. Older children begin the transition to the regime they will follow in the first grade of compulsory school. They are given instruction on how to listen attentively to directions and explanations and to observe and initiate a demonstration. During study lessons, children are taught the rudiments of grammar and mathematics, drawing, building, singing and dancing, and are acquainted with social and natural phenomena.

"The first draft curriculum for the Soviet kindergarten was issued by the Department of Education in 1932. Despite its defects, it played a great role in creating a single system of Soviet pre-school education, defining its aim and basic content, and solving the problems of the comprehensive development and communist training of children attending kindergarten." 57

The 1934 kindergarten curriculum represented a further step forward in developing a system of Soviet pre-school education, but this curriculum also reproduced in part the errors of the 1932 curriculum. The range of skills and knowledge taught to the child was extremely broad. The kindergarten education curriculum was approved and issued by the Ministry of Education in 1962 (Reissued in 1964), and has survived. The curriculum material is arranged by types of child activity, taking into account the children's age characteristics. Considerably more attention is given to play.

"A special section called "Labor" was introduced into the curriculum for children in the senior and preparatory groups after it had been incorrectly dropped from the preceding two curriculums. In order to improve the preparation of children for school, the curriculum provided for teaching elementary grammar and arithmetic to the preparatory group (six year olds). At the same time, broad educational work was planned to teach the children diligence, discipline, habits of cultural behaviour, the ability to follow the teacher's directions and to work independently." 58

Games are a chief method of education in Soviet kindergartens, and a great deal of attention is also paid to music, singing, playing musical games (Soviet students preparing in their study to receive musical training, and are required to learn to play the piano or a national instrument).

Numerous pleasant sensations are experienced in the course of such music and games.⁵⁹

In recent decades many new didactic games have been created for the junior, middle and senior children of pre-school age. Great emphasis is given to patriotic education, particularly in the older and the school preparatory group. In preparatory groups, primary importance is given to continuing and improving the general education work that is consistently done at all stages of pre-school education. At the same time, particular attention is devoted to intensifying the children's direct preparation for the study of subjects to be taught in the primary grades to follow.

So the whole educational programme at pre-school level in the USSR has been advanced to a high plane. In recent years, the main concerns in the kindergarten have been physical development, care for health, the development of mental education for the child, especially in respect of empirical knowledge and elementary skills:

"The experience of foreign countries, where school instruction starts at six or even at five as well as the findings of special studies, shows that six-year-olds are capable of mastering the 1st grade programme of learning to read, write ... and basic arithmetical operations. Can all this be done in kindergarten? It can, apparently, although at present it is not advisable .. Because in the first place, pre-school institutions throughout the country reach only 25% of the children in that age group. If instruction in the 3R's starts in kindergarten, the children who are reared at home will find themselves at a disadvantage and their handicap in 1st grade will be serious, that this will cause difficulties for the school and for the teacher."

The above quotation from Zaporazheto in 1969, could well have been spoken in 1987.

d) The Organisation and Financing of Kindergartens

In the USSR the cost of education is borne by the State, with responsibility for expenditure distributed to local outposts. The State assumes the major part of all expenses in the maintenance of pre-school establishments, including food and medical care for the children.

According to Fediavsky,⁶¹ the main sources for the financial maintenance of nursery institutions are:

- i) State budget;
- ii) The funds of State social insurance;
- iii) Local budget;
- iv) A miscellaneous group of sources.

These miscellaneous sources include the funds from industrial or agricultural enterprises, from co-operative societies of consumers (Co-operatsia), Trade Unions, and from different organisations and societies such as "the lodging association", the society called "children's friend" and many others. The parents have also to pay for the maintenance of their children according to a definite scale.

Although the Russian stereotype loves and even spoils children, the kindergarten fulfils a vital social role in Soviet life and economy. The cost of sending a child to the kindergarten is the equivalent of about £400 a year, but the parents pay only £90, and only half that if they have more than three children at the school. The balance is paid by the Union.⁶² The minimum age of admission is 3 years for kindergarten. The State assumes responsibility for 78 to 80% of

all kindergarten maintenance expenses, which means that parents can and do give material support. Indeed the tuition for kindergarten is charged to the parents of enrolled children based on their ability to pay.

"Under a decree promulgated in the mid-1930s, and still in effect, parents are required to contribute 25 to 35 percent, depending upon their income, of the actual cost of maintaining a child in nursery school." 63

Other discounts, ranging from 25 to 50 per cent of the fees, are available to parents, depending upon marital status, number of children in the family, income, number of hours the child is at school, and the location of the institution. For children from large families and children from unmarried mothers, children of parents on disability pension and war invalids, no tuition fees are charged. Certainly, the cost per child varies significantly from school to school and from rural to urban contexts because of difference in facilities, staff and equipment. In general:

"The Ministry of Education (U.S.S.R.) and the Ministries of the Union and Autonomous Republics as well as their local organs handle pedagogic affairs and the supply of teaching personnel for pre-school facilities regardless of their institutional affiliation. Health care and hygiene work with children and the providing of personnel in this area are the concern of the appropriate governmental health departments." 64

2.4.3 Pre-School Education in the USA

a) Historical Development

Most Americans have a deep faith in the value of education for personal and social advancement. It is assumed that

education would be available easily, free, and equally to all people.

"Educational institutes are influenced by the other institutions, ideas, and beliefs of a society, and education in turn helps to shape the social and intellectual character of people. American education is no exception. It reflects the way of life of the American people, their customs and traditions, their aspirations and beliefs, and their common values and differences." 65

Of the three countries which are discussed in this part only the USA is an essentially new country, as France and USSR can trace their roots to more than a thousand years back. But in spite of changes in these countries which were introduced by revolution and radical reforms, their national characters and historical traditions remained the basic influence in their development. The USA, on the contrary, is still in the making, as her past is so short. America looks forward and, it is popularly said, 'believes that tomorrow is always better than today'. The American philosophy of life and educational system inevitably reflected the conditions of American growth and tend towards pragmatism and relativism. John Dewey is normally taken to be the representative American educational philosopher and pioneer. However, it must be remembered that the USA is closely bound up with European history and culture.⁶⁶

Education in the USA, one of the most complex of all nations, varies from state to state, but in most of them commences formally at the age of seven.

"Even today, compulsory attendance in school is not required in many states until the age of seven when kindergarten began to be included in public education, it was regarded as an appendage grafted onto the existing system. It was accepted only grudgingly, and nursery school or day care centre attendance was considered a frill, and was sometimes even considered harmful to young children. Only recently has the schooling of younger and younger children begun to be accepted." 67

Pre-school education, as defined in this chapter, takes place in 'nursery school' and 'kindergarten'. In the USA the kindergarten includes those children who are one year away from entering the first grade. Nursery school is designed, and designates 'pre-kindergarten children' from age three to five. In historical terms, the kindergarten was organised first, and the nursery school is of more recent origin than the kindergarten.

In the United States today, many communities choose to maintain voluntary pre-school classes or kindergartens.⁶⁸ The first kindergarten in the USA was established in 1855 in Wisconsin as a private institution, but they are now for the most part under public control. In fact seventeen years later, St. Louis was the first city to establish a public kindergarten. Since then, kindergartens have experienced considerable and consistent growth.

"These institutions have caught on both as positive educational and social experiences for young children and as vehicles for the Americanization of immigrant children. Normally attached to the existing public school system, kindergartens provided have day classes for four and five year old children." 69

According to the English Consultative Committee Report in 1908, in respect of the USA:

"In 1898 the number of kindergartens reported to the Bureau of Education was 2,884 and the number of pupils was 143,720 - of these 1,365 were public, with 95,867 pupils, 1,519 were private kindergartens with 47,853 pupils. The number of cities reporting public kindergartens was 189. In 1902, there were 3,244 kindergartens, with 205,432 pupils. The number of cities of over 4,000 inhabitants supporting public kindergartens had increased to 289." 70

In early 1900, John Dewey made the most important contributions to the early childhood education movement. He proposed the revolutionary concept that the aim of education is to teach children to think - not what to think? The influence of Maria Montessori was also felt at this time. She believed that children learn concepts through sensory perceptions and experiences. Montessori-based schools are still in vogue in various parts of the USA, and are usually operated on a private basis.

In contrast to the kindergartens, the nursery school movement developed strongly since about 1920, is more often private than public.

"Private schools are so named because they do not depend on public funding for support. They are often half-day programmes that tend to offer traditional nursery school curriculum based on the individual needs of the children. The programme is likely to stress creativity and social and emotional adjustment. Such schools usually serve middle-class families and they meet a real need for early childhood education in this portion of the community." 71

Such nursery schools are often attached to other institutions such as universities or teachers colleges, churches, private homes, shopping centres, and civic buildings. Some are commercial, others are non-profit making. Some accommodate children age

three-four and five year olds, others accept four year olds only. These nursery schools are traditionally supported by tuition fees, private funds, institutional budgets, public charitable funds, or educational foundations, though totally private nursery schools have also opened. Occasionally, public school systems provided nursery schools. All the kinds of pre-school aimed to provide children with a structured environment supervised by adults outside the child's immediate family.

In 1922, the Bureau of Educational Experiments published a volume (Bulletin No. 11) entitled 'A Nursery School Experiment'.⁷² The subsequent White House Conference on Child Health and Protection in 1929 deemed the future of kindergartens assured. It recognised that the primary purpose was education rather than social relief and acknowledged its value as part of the public school system. It is interesting that the White House Conference Survey showed:

"The kindergarten to be less well staffed, on the average, than the nursery school, to be about twice as crowded, and to be less concerned for the mental and physical health of the children. The kindergarten had typically, for instance, three staff members for 34 children, whereas the nursery school had four for 19 children." 73

The Great Depression of the 1930s prompted a federal programme of financial support for nursery schools as a means of enriching the lives of young children from destitute families. In October 1933, the Director of the Federal Emergency Relief Agency, announced that nursery schools would be established to provide work for unemployed teachers and educational and health programmes for children of the unemployed.

Within a year 3,000 schools were operating, enrolling 65,000 children and employing 7,500 teachers and other workers.

The Second World War stimulated further growth of nursery schools, as an increasing number of mothers went to work in war industries. This momentum continued after 1945:

"An interesting feature now, when the regular nursery school idea is firmly established, was the development of specialised pre-school institutions for handicapped children ... and also some special school for cross-cultural and international links. At the same time many states and some larger cities had created mixed advisory councils in order to test and approve the most successful methods, according to the new discoveries of the real needs of children." 74

A comparison between 1939/40 and 1959/60 is included in Table 4.

TABLE 4

NUMBER OF CHILDREN ENROLLED IN KINDERGARTENS (1939-1960)

	1939-40		1949-50		1959-60	
	Public	Private	Public	Private	Public	Private
Boys	301,129	28,140	531,964	68,411	869,000	166,000
Girls	293,518	29,201	502,239	64,589	809,000	188,000
	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>
	594,647	57,341	1,034,203	133,000	1,678,000	354,000
	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>
TOTAL	651,988		1,167,203		2,032,000	

Source: International Conference on Public Education, op. cit., pp. 275 - 276.

Thus, since World War II, and particularly since 1960, early childhood education has received increasing attention. The number of middle class nursery schools has grown remarkably. However, it is difficult to know exactly how many children attend nursery school and kindergartens before starting primary school.

During the early 1960s, an increasing number of psychologists and educators published books concerned with the effects of early experience for the child on human development, and research on cognitive development greatly expanded expectations about what the young child can learn. More significantly, the climate of social reform included a new focus on early childhood education:

"With the "war on poverty" came Head Start, with its stress on giving children of the poor an opportunity to "catch up" with middle-class children. Based on the notion of compensation for cultural deprivation, Head Start and other similar programmes draw upon many themes already well established in the history of early childhood education." 75

The 'Head Start' project was a programme for poor pre-school children and their families. It aimed to provide enriched pre-school experiences for culturally disadvantaged children to give them experiences lacking in their home environment, to help them learn to work and play independently and to be able to accept help and direction from adults. It was designed to improve children's intellectual skills, to foster their emotional and social development and to help meet their health and nutritional needs:

"Several types of programme are included in the scheme. Some programmes concentrate on home visits to teach mothers how to be more effective teachers of their children and others involve the child's attendance at a centre where group teaching sessions are held. Other programmes combine the two approaches. However, early evaluation studies of the Head Start project were disappointing." 76

The Head Start programme was funded through the Economic Opportunity Act of 1965. This Act provided funds for public schools and other community agencies for use in pre-elementary education programmes for children of low income families. Follow through programmes focussed at first upon children in kindergarten or elementary school who were enrolled in Head Start. Follow through was to be a continued programme designed to provide comprehensive services and parent participation activities, to aid the continued development of children to their full potential. The findings of the evaluation of 'follow through' suggested that Head Start was advantageous, and its effects sustained at least through kindergarten and first grade.

By 1976, about one-third of all 3 to 4 year olds in the USA were enrolled in pre-primary education. Thus, the majority of five year olds in the United States today already are accustomed to being away from home much of the day. Changing family patterns have affected the full kindergarten; influences such as the increase in the number of working parents; the increase in the influence of television; the increase in family mobility. All of these factors have produced 5 year olds who are more knowledgeable about their world and who are apparently more ready for a full day's school experience than the children of previous generations.⁷⁷

b) Teachers and Training

The teacher in any educational level is undoubtedly the most important individual in the education process. This is as true of the pre-school teachers in the USA as anywhere else. Examination of first grade reading in that country found greater variability among teachers than among methods used in terms of successful reading achievement. In addition, the teacher's role may be more crucial in determining what happens in a classroom than is the educational model being used.⁷⁸ Teachers, including nursery teachers, are able to choose instructional material and equipment according to the needs of young children. Above all, they have the personal qualities important especially for teachers of young children, such as warmth, friendliness, honesty and respect for the children and their parents. In the USA it is assumed that the nursery teacher will follow the role model of the first grade classroom teacher, and so in this respect the integration with the formal system is a strong factor in influencing the style of pre-school learning. Nonetheless, because of the responsibilities placed upon them, nursery school teachers require a highly specialized type of preparation. Even by the late 1930s the seriousness with which nursery education was studied can be illustrated by the following statement by Davis:

"The extent of this training is indicated by the fact that a much larger proportion of the nursery school teachers hold master's degrees and the degree of doctor of philosophy than do teachers in the elementary and secondary school throughout the public schools of the country." ⁷⁹

In fact teacher training courses for pre-school work are offered in higher education institutions (college and universities)

as mentioned above. Students who have completed twelve years of elementary and secondary schooling are eligible to enter a university or teacher training college in order to prepare for teaching children of 3 to 8 years of age. It is a four year course. Many colleges and universities now offer advanced courses in early childhood education which lead to masters and doctoral degrees by full or part-time study. It is clear that in academic terms the status of the pre-school teacher in the USA is at least as high as any other teacher.

The number and type of the staff members in the school will vary and depend on the size, purpose and type of the particular school. In a small nursery school, the director may also teach. In a large school there will be a variety of staff members: a principal or director, teachers, assistant teachers, aides, perhaps students in training, and volunteers. There may be people from other professions, such as a secretary, a cook, a nurse or a doctor. Thus the responsibility in the large school may be divided among many such as, the head of the school who is responsible for the general conduct of the school, the medical adviser who is responsible for the health of the children, and the headteacher who is responsible over all.

Pre-primary education teachers in the United States employed in public schools receive salaries comparable to those of primary teachers with similar training. The hours of work for the nursery school and kindergarten teacher are comparable to those of the primary teacher. In addition, there is no difficulty for teachers who wish to transfer from nursery school and kindergarten to primary grades and vice versa.

c) The Curriculum

There are many sources of the pre-school curriculum as

Spodek suggests:

"One of the earliest identified sources of an early childhood curriculum was children themselves ... If you read the works of Fredrick Froebel or Maria Montessori, you will quickly note that both of these pioneers of early childhood education used their observation of children as the main source of their curriculum ... Besides this source there are other sources for the curriculum, such as child development theory, learning theory and school content ... But the proper source of a curriculum in early childhood is the set of goals which are the aims of education for children ... From these goals, curriculum experiences can be derived and using these goals the effectiveness 80 of a curriculum can be judged."

The kindergarten curriculum in the United States is broad in scope. It offers opportunity to provide a broad base of experience drawn from many samplings of knowledge, skills and appreciations, and is extremely flexible. The key principle is learning by doing. In planning the curriculum, attention is given primarily to promoting physical, mental, social and emotional growth.

"The kindergarten programme which respects readiness factors in five year olds is always and significantly more individual than group oriented. It alternates periods of activity and rest ... accepts imperfect socialization efforts, encourages use and sharing of 81 many forms of communication."

"Play is how a child learns what no-one else can teach him".⁸² Children learn many activities through play. It provides occasions for intense practice of sensorimotor skills. The natural imaginative play fosters development of the intellect and generates increased understanding of events. Furthermore, play facilitates role-play and develops social skills. It provides many occasions for the child to be

creative by using the imagination to think in divergent ways.⁸³

The daily programme for the American pre-school group is planned in terms of the needs of the children, especially their need for a rhythm of rest and activity. Children need to experience such a rhythm in order to establish it within their pattern of living. By resting after activity, they learn to recognise their need for such a sequence. "They live it and learn it."⁸⁴ The generality of the nursery school concept is perhaps best illustrated by the following schedule of activities typical of the American programme in Table 5.

The role of the educational television in the United States is the most effective, inexpensive and interesting way to help most children get a "head start" at home. Indeed, TV programmes such as "Sesame Street" have developed a popular tradition for television series for pre-school children. Such programmes aim to combine entertainment with education to help prepare pre-school children for formal education.

d) Finance and Control of Pre-School in the USA

Most American nursery schools developed under private auspices and served middle and upper income families. However, since 1965, Head Start and other federal programmes have brought nursery school services to increasing numbers of poor children. From the very beginning, the emphasis in American nursery schools has been on education. This contrasts sharply with the "day nursery", the predecessor of day care centres, which provided protective custody for infants and young children of poor working mothers. Sponsors included social agencies and philanthropic organisations and were located mostly in large urban areas.

TABLE 5A TYPICAL AMERICAN ALL DAY PRE-PRIMARY SCHEDULE

Arrival and health inspection	
Activity time	(60-80 mins.)
Snack	(15 mins.)
Story	(15 mins.)
Outside Play	(60 mins.)
Lunch	(30 mins.)
Quiet time with quiet activities, such as (table games, puzzles or art (30-120 mins. for those who do not sleep)).	
Music and movement	(15-20 mins.)
Snack	(15 mins.)
Physical Play	(outdoor or indoor 20-30 mins.)
Story-records, film strips, movies, story reading, puppet shows, flannel stories, quality TV programmes, such as Sesame Street, etc.	

Source: Schickedang, J.A. et al: Strategies for Teaching Young Children, (New Jersey: Prentice Hall, Inc., Englewood, 1977), p. 25.

When the nursery school and kindergarten form part of a public school system, it does not necessarily follow that they are entirely financed with tax funds. It is thought that about 80 per cent of the urban public kindergartens are financed with tax funds, 6 per cent with private funds and 3 per cent from a combination of public and private money. By contrast, nursery schools are more often private than public. Comparison with the figures for kindergartens above show that about 45 per cent of nurseries are financed with a combination of public and private funds, 34 per cent with private funds only and 17 per cent with public tax funds only.

Nursery school may be operated by individuals or by co-operatives established by parents. Where they are intended for children whose parents are employed or who are unable to care for them at home, such establishments are frequently administered by health and social welfare agencies.⁹³ Support comes mainly from philanthropic or governmental agencies, although there are also centres run privately for profit. In practice, nursery schools in the USA are administered by many different and varied agencies. Some are publicly funded through various government agencies (Department of Health Education and Welfare). Some nursery schools are run by the public school system.

"A few States have responded to public pressure and are planning free public education for 4 year olds. These States include California, New York, 86 and Massachusetts."

Some of the nursery school support is derived from tuition and other fees from the institutions maintaining the school from gifts, grants and funds. The whole system is individual in the extreme. The majority of parents

favoured public school administration because they feel that pre-school education is so important that it should be available free to all children, not only the rich and the poor children, and they feel that public schools are better equipped to provide a higher quality of education than in many private schools.

.....

This chapter has attempted to provide an international and historical context for the core of the thesis which is concerned with England and Egypt. We now turn to a documentary analysis of the development of pre-school provision in England.

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CHAPTER THREE

PRE-SCHOOL PROVISION IN ENGLAND

3.1 Introduction

Serious interest in early childhood learning has a long history, though until modern times the context was assumed to be the home and family as Comenius stated in the seventeenth century:

"In all ages, and all civilised communities until quite recent times, the proper, and indeed the only place for young children was assumed to be the home, and the natural educators were assumed to be the parents, especially of course the mother¹ for whom a nurse might deputise."

Clearly nursery schools and all similar forms of pre-school education should function only as a complement and a support to family life.² However, the home is not always a conducive environment in this respect; despite the view of Owen that:

"The nourishment of mind and feelings as well as of body is naturally supplied by the mother during the first years of childhood, whether she be inadequate or not, no-one can take her place, for the intimacy between mother and child is perfect. Should the fullness of this first relationship fail, the child must be for ever poorer. Therefore, if the nursery school is merely a substitute³ for home, it is at best a lame thing."

Many working-class mothers are, in modern societies, over-worked and we have come to see that the needs of children under five rarely are being fully met. Even children whose home circumstances are more supportive, still need the social and socialising experience of a group of age mates, and this is

not usually widely available without some sort of public provision. Even so, Wall is still uncertain:

"We need to ask whether the concentration on social need and upon the child more or less alone should be as exclusive as it is. We should ask, too, whether the premise is correct that because the mother is perhaps inadequate, because she is the breadwinner or because the home environment cannot provide all that is seen to be necessary, a specially staffed formal institution should step in to take over some or all of the maternal 4
educative functions."

From whatever source, the child under five needs safety protection, love and a healthy environment, sufficient sunlight, a suitable diet, play materials and the companionship of his equals. Can these needs, especially the last named be met entirely by the home? It not then, as Dukes asserts:

"The Nursery School is the answer to many of the modern problems of early childhood. The victims of ignorance, poverty, overcrowding and slum conditions, the child is in danger from traffic, the little flat dweller with no outlook but bricks and mortar, the only child, the child whose mother is at work all day, may each find in the Nursery School all that is needed 5
to encourage normal development."

and:

"In England, the nursery school has been thought of as an excellent means of ameliorating the conditions of young children living in overcrowded, inadequate homes in the congested areas 6
of large cities."

In England the nursery school movement has derived its main impetus from a determination to provide healthy conditions and good care for children. As a second aim, it promises an opportunity for early childhood learning. The roots of the idea run deep in England, and can be traced in the form of pioneers and institutions.

3.2 Elements of Pre-School Provision in England in the Nineteenth Century

The two original organisations to found day schools for working-class children in Britain were the British and Foreign Schools Society and the National Society for Promoting the Education of the Poor in the Principles of the Established Church throughout England and Wales. The 'Dame School' can be viewed as a product of mutual self-help arising within working-class culture in the early industrial era. The growth of a more humanitarian attitude towards the child and its physical development and more recently, its psychological and social development are important, these and other factors as we mentioned has been influential in stressing the need for the young child to spend time in nursery schools with others. This was part of an international development:

"Pre-schools of the USA, the UK and Europe, and their associates in many countries throughout the world are heirs of Rousseau (1712-1778), Pestalozzi (1746-1827), Froebel (1782-1852) and Montessori (1870-1952) In addition, each country has had its own pioneers who have been concerned to provide ideas (or institutions) which facilitated early child development and socialisation and more truly reflected the world of the child as they saw it." 7

An interesting and important example of the movement in the early nineteenth century was the innovation of Robert Owen, an industrialist:

"Through his life, this manufacturer worked unremittingly (foundation of co-operatives, trade unions, day-nurseries, school, etc.) to better the living conditions of the workers in his textile firm. In 1813, he published his first essay, in which he described the main principles of his new system of education and social reform, based on the idea of man as the victim of his circumstances and the importance of first influences." 8

In his famous infant school at New Lanark, begun in 1816, he realised much of his hope and did a great deal for the physical and mental improvement of the children of factory labourers. Children were admitted from the ages of one to six, and cared for while their parents were at work in the cotton mills. They were not formally instructed, for Owen believed in informality; that the children must learn through discovery, by exploration of the common things in the everyday environment as stimulated by natural curiosity. In his school there was no formal regular timetable, but activities including singing, dancing, and physical exercise, which were initiated in response to the children's need for a change of activity from time to time. In Owen's own words:

"The children were trained and educated without punishment or any fear for it. The infants and young children besides being instructed by sensible songs, the things themselves or models or paintings, and by familiar conversation were from two years upwards taught dancing and singing. The children were not to be annoyed by books but were to be taught uses and nature or qualities of things around them by familiar conversation." 9

The ideas, and the example set in Owen's school were far ahead of their time, so his educational philosophy was unlikely to have any immediate influence. In spite of this, some of his views about young children are still held by experts today:

"His work stood out from the typical educational philosophy of his day ... He wished with the aid of informal teaching and physical activity to create an individual who would be a useful citizen later ... In a world hostile to the extension of education, either in its role of socialization or training, the experiment at New Lanark failed to spread." 10

Owen's school attracted many visitors, and soon his example led to found a number of infant schools in England. Henry Brougham and James Mill and others established the first infant school as such in 1818 at Westminster, along Owenite lines, with James Buchanan as master. In fact Owen was approached with a request for the services of Buchanan who was a gifted teacher employed at New Lanark.

The second infant school was opened in 1820 by Samuel Wilderspin at Spitalfields. He developed a great system of infant education which left its mark for many years on the curriculum of infant and elementary schools. Wilderspin, like Owen, made a central focus of the playground for physical exercises and also for mental and moral training.

David Stow was another pioneer in the field of infant education in Great Britain. He established a number of infant schools in 1824. Stow was firmly convinced that:

"The correct training of the infant forms the basis of all future development of the child, and that from the first days of schooling, boys and girls should both learn and play together." 11

and he believed in simultaneous answering, but he stressed understanding rather than memorizing.

"Picturing out" was to be a substitute of meaningless repetition: never commit words to memory until the meaning is previously analysed and understood." 12

Under Owen's influence especially, other infant schools were opened in various parts of England, but although the best of them matched those of Wilderspin, Stow and Owen himself, the majority were too formal and rigid to be suited to the needs and capacities of very young children. Moreover, the motives which led to their establishment were not so much consideration for the welfare of the children as the necessity to release their mothers and elder brothers and sisters for work in the factories, mills and workshops, and the desire to accustom the children themselves to habits of industry so that they in turn might be able to take their place in the new industrial society of the expanding cities.¹³

By the middle of the nineteenth century the expanding middle classes and particularly the professional and business upper middle class, were beginning to seek new ways of educating their own children. The Industrial Revolution had brought consequent commercial expansion. In upper class families, the mother had traditionally taught her children to read and write from about three or four years of age.

The social conditions were right but the demand for middle-class infant schools went largely unrealised until the kindergarten movement of the 1850s.¹⁴

"Between 1840 and 1870 a series of Factory Acts initiated by these philanthropists gradually extended protection for children from the textile factories to all manufacturing industries. The working hours were shortened so that the 9-13 year olds could work and also learn in half-day shifts." 15

By the end of the nineteenth century efforts were made to establish an Institute or College for the training of young women who wished to work as teachers in nursery schools,

so the institutions for training teachers and nursery governesses in Froebelian methods were established by voluntary effort in several towns, for example in Bedford, Birmingham and Manchester.

The Froebel Society was founded in 1874 and began its examination in 1876. In 1884 the same society founded a training college for infant teachers on kindergarten lines. Through the 1870s and 1880s a number of kindergartens were established. The 1870s in England and Wales was a period during which many social reforms came into force. This was a period when many children were condemned to live in overcrowded workhouses because their parents could not support them.

"With the movement from rural areas to towns, many children were abandoned by their parents, or orphaned by epidemics or diseases. They supported themselves by begging and stealing. Societies were established to care for these children in large institutions etc." 16

The Elementary Education Act of 1870 was an important event in respect of the education of young children in England. One of the results of the expansion of infant school and classes after 1870 was the closure of most of the Dame schools. Instead, during the last three decades of the nineteenth century, the nursery school was gradually evolved from the free kindergartens for poor children established by philanthropic effort in London, Manchester and other large towns.

3.3 The Development of the English Nursery School from 1900 to 1960

The free kindergarten movement provided a base for the development of a nursery sector. According to the Hadow Report of 1933:

"Several existing nursery schools have been developed without a break from these free kindergartens, having changed their name from kindergarten to nursery school when state grants for such schools became available in 1919." 17

However, in practice, provision to meet the growing need was slow, still depending heavily on voluntary effort. For the first quarter of the twentieth century, 'social rescue' and health considerations were the prime motives, until advances in child psychology began to show the educational significance and advantages of nursery schools.

The woman inspectors of the Board of Education 1905 produced a report¹⁸ which stated that pre-school children were not being given a desirable educational and social environment. The report recommended that there should be no formal instruction, but more play, sleep, free activities, free conversation and observation. The report also recommended that parents should be discouraged from sending their children to school before the age of five. Two years later in 1907 a Consultative Committee was set up by the Board of Education, and came to similar conclusions but with the important proviso that 'home conditions' be satisfactory in respect of early childhood development. They proposed that some other kind of school should be established where children under five from poor families might attend. It was decided to call these institutions 'nursery schools', so it may be said that this report was the first to use that title officially.

"The Committee recommended that children under five should not continue to attend elementary schools, and that nursery schools should be set up where they were needed. The government acted on the first recommendation, but not on the second." 19

However, the policy of the Board of Education in 1907 encouraged many of the newly founded Local Education Authorities to exclude children under five from schools. The large numbers involved could not be counter-balanced by the provision of nursery school. In spite of this, the report did mark a fundamental change in attitude towards the needs of the young child:

"Since 1908, Local Education Authorities have been able to exclude children under five from school. It is true that there are still over 150,000 children under five in infant schools but 30 years ago there were over 350,000." 20

So the rise of the nursery school in England emerged from an initial decline in the early twentieth century, though much of the earlier larger figures represented poorer provision. In other words, a qualitative improvement in pre-school provision had to come before the quantitative expansion.

Two of the greatest pioneers of the English nursery school were Margaret Macmillan and her sister Rachel:

"We are proud of the nursery school movement and of its inception in England due to those gallant pioneers, Miss Rachel and Miss Margaret McMillan." 21

The Rachel McMillan Nursery School was opened in Deptford in S.E. London in 1911. The premises were lent rent free to form a night camp for children over eight years of age, while little children were received in the day time. This school took children from ages two to eight or nine.

While there was some general acceptance for the need of nursery and infant education, there were those educationists who particularly saw the desperate need for improvement in the environmental conditions of many young children. As Morrish

states:

"In particular, the sisters Rachel and Margaret McMillan, engaged in a campaign not merely to establish nursery schools, but also to make adequate provision for the physical care and development of young children ... The sisters were not merely pressing for the provision of school meals, regular medical inspections for poor children, they were acting upon their convictions." 22

Margaret McMillan came to this work through socialism and socio-medical welfare. She and her sister opened an experimental clinic at Bow in 1908. After two years, this was transferred to Deptford as the Deptford Schools Treatment Centre, serving 6,000 children a year. From this they developed their night campus, and gradually the idea came to them that the conditions of the open-air nursery school provided what they were seeking. With the aid of voluntary subscriptions they started their first Nursery School in 1911 at Deptford. The London County Council was interested in the experiment, and provided them with a site for a larger school in the early months of 1914.

"The MacMillan Nursery School was therefore a shelter looking out on to an open space of ground, and the results achieved were at once remarkable. The children who came with rickets, anaemia, sores and weakness improved ... The school was free from epidemics, and the petty ills that keep school clinics full of children simply did not occur. But it was not fresh air only that was responsible but constant cleanliness, sensible food and suitable clothing. The Nursery School to be effective must take full charge of the child's physical life and keep him at school something like nine hours a day." 23

Children arrived at the Nursery School at 8 a.m. and were given three meals a day. They remained until 5.30 p.m. After lunch came a rest period to sleep on a stretcher bed, or if the weather was good, this period was passed in the open air.

The McMillans avoided using the term "classroom", great attention was attached to the garden for children whenever the weather was fine, while in winter they were in shelters, open to the air, but closed when the weather made it absolutely necessary. The sisters did not agree that nursery school should be for children from poorer homes only, as the Consultative Committee's Report recommended in 1908, but that it was necessary for all children because of what they called "nurture". Hence, Rachel McMillan wrote:

"The open-air Nursery school is here for rich and poor. It is here, the thing, lacking which, our whole educational system was like a house built on the sand." 24

The MacMillan Nursery School was therefore a shelter looking out onto an open space of ground, and the results achieved were remarkable. Clearly the McMillans had inherited the principles and ideas of Rousseau and Froebel, but they were also influenced by Montessori. For although Rachel McMillan disapproved of Montessori's insistence on a correct methodology, she saw value in some of her materials and designed some of her own for developing colour perception. So we can say each of them in varying degrees promoted a number of approaches to both individual development and the curriculum at this early learning stage. Thus:

"Montessori was motivated to develop the child's intellect to the full by recreating normal learning situations by the use of structured material, of course, at the same time seeing to their physical care. McMillan's great concern was the physical well-being of the children which she realised was essential to the creation of favourable terrain for the growth of the intellect. Development of social behaviour, contact with a friendly adult,

thus resulting in an enrichment of language, were the indirect consequences of her nursery school." 25

Despite the contributions of the McMillans, it was not until Susan Isaacs, a psychologist, became prominent in the field of early childhood education in England that the development of the intellect in young children was promoted.

"She helped to establish the concept of early childhood education outside the realms of sentiment and evangelism. She studied individual differences in intellect, social and emotional growth. The list of equipment for the Malting House schools, started in 1924, which Susan Isaacs ran, remains an interesting model for equipping a present-day nursery school" 26

The Education Act of 1918 had given Local Education Authorities power to supply or aid Nursery Schools or classes for children over two and under five years of age. Provision was made in the Act for the LEAs to attend to the health, nourishment and physical welfare of children attending nursery school. However, in spite of these efforts the progress made in the provision of nursery schools was slow. The Act failed to make statutory provision because the contributions for voluntary nursery schools were not easily raised and the cost of building was high:

"Local Education Authorities were given discretionary permission to provide or aid nursery schools, for which grants might be made available by the Board of Education, but no real pressure was put on them. Twelve voluntary nursery schools already in existence were given grants, but only eight new maintained nursery schools were opened in the next three years. Two circulars in 1921 and 1922 severely restricted expenditure and effectively prevented further action until they were withdrawn by the Labour government in 1924. Even then there was little positive encouragement, and two years later the grant for children under five in infant schools was reduced." 27

Nonetheless, through 1919 - 1929, Maintained and Aided nursery schools increased as illustrated in Table 6.

TABLE 6
MAINTAINED AND AIDED NURSERY SCHOOLS

Year	Aided	Maintained	Total	Children
1919	12	1	13	288
1921	12	8	20	744
1927	15	12	27	1,160
1929	16	12	28	1,233

Source: Board of Education, Annual Reports and Statistics.

By 1925-6, there were thirteen LEA schools and fifteen voluntary schools, but by 1929 there were still only twenty-eight schools. In this year (1929) the new Labour Government sent out a circular to Local Authorities encouraging them to develop pre-school education, but the great economic depression intervened, and again there was little expansion as a direct result of this circular, though other factions were at work:

"The first expansion of any size was the result of demographic change in the mid-thirties. The decline in the birth rate meant there were empty classrooms in the primary schools and therefore made it easier for local education authorities to expand." 28

In 1930, nine new nursery schools were opened, plans for twelve were approved, and for many more they were put forward for

consideration. In spite of this, only 13 per cent of three and four years were in schools in 1930. Nannies continued to provide their services for the middle and upper classes until the Second World War. For the working class, the tendency was to use child-minders. By the time of the important Hadow Report of 1933, the situation was described as follows:

"There were on 31 March, 1932 approximately 7,189,000 children in England and Wales between the ages of 3 and 5, and 1,891,000 children between the ages of 5 and 8. 1,57,551 children out of the total number of 1,189,000 or approximately 13.2 per cent, between the ages of 3 and 5 were attending elementary schools ... On 31 March 1932 there were 55 nursery schools recognised by local education authorities 29 and 25 by voluntary bodies."

In fact, an enormous importance was given to the development of nursery education by the Report of the Consultative Committee on Infant and Nursery Schools under the chairmanship of Sir W.H. Hadow. This report provided a compelling rationale for the extension of nursery provision, and stress on the role of nursery schools in promoting the health of the children. The report concluded that the ideal place for the under fives was at home where the home conditions were satisfactory, but that as nearly all homes fell short of this, most children would therefore benefit from nursery education in separate nursery schools or classes for reasons of both health and education. Emphasis was laid on physical well-being and development, though 'early experience' was also considered important. On the educational side, the Hadow Report was a landmark in the theory of nursery education which it placed firmly in the developmental tradition. The major recommendations of the report were that nursery education should not be compulsory, and that the

compulsory starting age should remain at five. The aim was to supplement the natural growth of the normal child with the opportunity for individual attention and informal work with small groups. The Committee reported:

"Meanwhile, however, much has been done during the last decade to better the conditions in baby classes for children below the age of five in public elementary schools. The methods of training employed in these classes have been greatly improved by the zealous efforts of the teachers under influences deriving from the kindergarten, Professor Dewey, Madame Montessori, and the nursery school movement." 30

The great boost for nursery schools given by the 1933 Report was modelled on the experience of the McMillans, Froebel, Montessori and Isaacs, but did take some account of Dewey too:

"The child is the starting point, the centre, and the end. His development, his growth, is the ideal ... To growth of the child all studies are subservient, they are instruments valued as they serve the needs of growth, personality, character, is more than subject matter ... Moreover, subject-matter never can be got into the child from without. Learning is active ... It is he and not the subject matter which determines both quality and quantity of learning." 31

However, for three years after the Hadow Report nothing was done, until 1936 when LEAs began to plan their expansion in nursery education. By 1938 there were 118 nursery schools and 104 day nurseries, and the need for pre-school facilities was beginning to be officially acknowledged. Then came the outbreak of the Second World War. New strategies had to be adopted to deal with the situation, and by the end of the war a great variety of systems and services existed. The demand for women in the labour force resulted in a change in attitude about the desirability of pre-school education. Residential war nurseries

providing for children separated from their parents, catered for social, emotional and physical needs of such children, so by 1945 there were approximately fifteen times as many children in nurseries as in 1939. It had become necessary for mothers of pre-school age children to work as wage earners, and in any case, women were needed in industry and other 'war activities'. Approximately 322 war-time nurseries were functioning in Britain.

There were great variations in standards of accommodation and facilities as between LEAs at that time, but three types of provision were prevalent as the National Union of Teachers noted:

a) admission to nursery classes in infant schools, which could be extended to two-year olds;

b) attendance of two-to-five year olds at part-time day nurseries during normal school hours - these nurseries were usually in the charge of a qualified teacher;

c) attendance at full-time nurseries which took children from a few months to five years of age and in which children over 2½ were in charge of a trained nursery teacher.³²

The evacuation of large numbers of children from their homes was obviously both a problem and a stimulus for the development of nursery schools. In most of the evacuation areas, all nursery schools, nursery classes, and day nurseries were closed. Thus for the children remaining in the evacuation area no provision was made. In 1940, the Ministry of Health and Board of Education issued a joint circular urging Local Authorities to set up nursery centres in the reception areas:

"To be established by joint action by the Local Education, Welfare and Reception Authority.

To be financed by the Local Reception Authority in conjunction with the Ministry of Health.

To be run as economically as possible, employing voluntary workers where possible." 33

At this time, employment problems were developing in some areas such as London, but in 1941 a general need was urgent for women to work in industry, and also in order to supplement their husband's meagre service pay, and the Ministry of Labour was to be responsible for the existing provision of the care of pre-school children. So, expansion was rapid from 194 nurseries in 1941 in England and Wales to 1,450 whole-time nurseries taking 68,181 children in 1944, plus another 109 part-time nurseries catering for a further 3,625 children. Table 7 indicates the war-time growth of nursery facilities and the rate of expansion.

TABLE 7

WAR-TIME GROWTH OF NURSERY EDUCATION PROVISION IN ENGLAND

AND WALES : 1941 - 1945

Date	Number of Nurseries			Accommodation		
	Part-time	Full-time	Total	Part-time	Full-time	Total
July 1941	82	36	118	-	-	-
July 1942	144	500	644	-	-	-
December 1942	154	975	1,129	5,117	42,468	47,585
July 1943	127	1,218	1,345	4,103	54,613	58,716
July 1944	112	1,446	1,558	3,710	67,546	71,276
September 1944	109	1,450	1,559	3,625	68,181	71,806
January 1945	104	1,431	1,535	3,501	67,749	71,240

Sources: Ministry of Health Annual Reports.

According to Dent:

"These good war-time nurseries are doing much to popularise the idea of a nursery stage in education and are opening the eyes of numerous parents to the high quality of the nursery school." 34

Clearly the global conflict of 1939-45 had proved to be an educational catalyst, no more so than in the emergence of a major piece of educational reform; the Education Act of 1944.

The 1944 Education Act reaffirmed the minimum compulsory school age as five years and laid upon LEAs the duty of providing full-time education from that age. In addition it gave LEAs the power to secure provision for pupils who have not attained the age of five years by maintaining or establishing nursery schools or classes.

"The 1944 Education Act encouraged LEAs to set up nursery schools and classes, which some authorities proceeded to do. Many failed to take this opportunity and the provision for nursery education has progressed only slowly." 35

Nonetheless, there was little increase in the number of nursery schools or classes, mainly due to a shortage of teachers and buildings. Furthermore, in 1946 the grant to LEAs for nursery provision was halved and progress severely delayed. So the envisaged expansion did not take place and in some parts of the country even existing provision worsened when nursery classes were closed in order to accommodate the increasing numbers of five year olds in primary schools. Thus, most war nurseries were closed down in the early 1950s, a trend foreseen as early as 1945 as the Times Educational Supplement showed:

"Without comment: Anxiety is being expressed in many quarters at the apparent determination of the Ministry of Health to close down the war-time nurseries as soon as their existence was no longer necessary to the war effort without regard to any plans of Local Education Authorities." 36

By 1947, and reorganisation of pre-school facilities, there were 363 maintained nursery schools which by 1955 had increased to 464. This amounted to provision for a mere 7.7% of three to five year olds in nursery education; the lowest proportion since the turn of the century.

In 1948 the Ministry of Education sent out the first post-war circular which was dealing with the problem of teacher supply. It pointed out that, it is difficult to provide an adequate number of trained teachers for nursery schools and nursery classes, as a result for demand of them in the infant schools. Although there had been a modest growth of provision from 1946, 1952 marked the end of a brief and rare period of expansion in the provision of nursery schools:

"In 1946 there were 374 maintained schools, by 1952 there were 480, in 1965 there were only 477. However, from 1948-52, the number of nursery classes declined from 2,457 to 1,965. This was due to the need for extra accommodation in the infant schools for children of compulsory school age." 37

One development in 1950 which was insignificant in terms of numbers, but it involved a very important change in nursery education practice, was the introduction of part-time nursery education. In the late 1950s and 1960s many nurseries opened during schools hours only were effectively part-time provision for mothers in full-time employment. This merely increased the mothers' problems because their children attended to nursery schools for only half the day. A prime motivation for

part-time provision for pre-school children was economic, since LEAs could consider the possibility of a half-day system to allow greater numbers of children which could receive nursery education for the same cost. As the economy strengthened in the 1950s and 1960s, the number of children whose mothers worked was increased. Predictably, the majority of mothers expressed a desire for pre-school facilities as revealed by a survey in the mid 1960s:

"The women were critical of existing provision on the grounds that it was too expensive, too far away, the hours did not suit working parents and the facilities were over-subscribed." 38

In consequence, the numbers of nursery classes in primary schools began to fall. Reports on the progress in nursery education even disappeared from the pages of the Ministry of Education until 1964 when the topic reappeared with the explanation that:

"Since the War it has not been possible to allow local education authorities to extend their provision for children below compulsory school age in nursery schools and classes, mainly because it was felt that worthwhile provision was bound to absorb teachers badly needed in the primary schools." 39

The Department of Education and Science in 1964 concluded that 9.9 per cent of two to five year olds are at schools of some kind, but this figure includes the 'rising fives' and excludes all those in the Ministry of Health provision as Elspeth Howe wrote:

"In total, therefore, about 163,000 children between the ages of two and five were receiving in 1964 some forms of registered pre-school or nursery provision. In all, there was pre-school provision for about 7½ per cent of the two to five age group. About 5 per cent were under the supervision of the DES while the remainder were under the Ministry of Health. The State financed about two thirds of this, while the remaining one third was in the private sector." 40

In 1964 and 1965 the policy was relaxed slightly when permission was given to establish new nursery classes as long as they released a specified number of mothers to return to teaching.

3.4 The Growth of Pre-School Provision in England since in the mid 1960s

Three movements injected a new strength into the nursery movement in the period 1966 to 1968. Firstly, the Advisory Centre for Education have played a part in the growth of the pre-school movement. ACE's own nursery school was set up in Cambridge in the Spring of 1966.

"In many ways the ACE nursery school was a breakthrough for it showed that between the State nursery school proper with its own professional staff and official backing, and the wholly parent-run play-group, there was a need for a nursery school which incorporated the best features of both a full-time qualified staff providing a rich educational environment and programme of learning together." 41

Then nursery education was given powerful support by the Plowden Report of 1967 which included recommendations that there should be a large expansion of nursery education. Additional moves to expand nursery education came in 1968 when the government established the Urban Aid Programme, a scheme to

supply extra resources in areas of greatest social need.

TABLE 8

THE TOTAL NUMBER OF PLACES IN PRE-SCHOOL EDUCATION
IN 1965 IN MAINTAINED AND INDEPENDENT PROVISION

Maintained	Number of Places	% of all Maintained Places	% of all Places
Nursery School	28,504	33	19
Nursery Classes	58,784	67	39
TOTAL	87,288	100	58
Independent			
Nursery Schools	6,311	10	4
Registered premises	41,130	65	27
Registered persons	16,082	25	11
TOTAL	63,523	100	42
TOTAL (Maintained and Independent)	150,811		100

Source: Blackstone, T., The Provision of Pre-School Education: A study of the influences on the development of nursery education in Britain from 1900 - 1965, Unpublished Ph D Thesis, University of London, 1969, p. 143.

TABLE 9PROVISION FOR UNDER FIVES IN MAINTAINED ANDPRIVATE SECTOR IN 1969

MAINTAINED:		
in infant schools and departments	243,151	
in nursery schools	31,946	
in day nursery	22,030	(includes under 2 years)
	<hr/>	
TOTAL	297,127	
PRIVATE:		
in preparatory departments	11,468	
in nursery schools (listed by DES)	1,788	
in nursery schools, nurseries and playgroups registered as 'premises'	196,100	(includes under 5 years)
	<hr/>	
TOTAL	209,356	
<hr/>		
with child minders as registered 'persons'	69,055	(includes under 5 years)
Children aged 2 to 5 years	2,524,000	

Source: DES Statistics of Education for 1969,
 Department of Health and Social Security Annual
 Report for 1969.

3.4.1 The Plowden Report

Nursery education was given powerful support by the publication of the Plowden Report in 1967, which stated:

"The under fives are the only age group for whom no extra educational provision of any kind has been made since 1944. Since then successive governments have raised the minimum school leaving age and decided to raise it again in 1971. They have abolished all-age schools, expanded further education, increased the number of university places and done much for the Youth Service, Nursery education on a large scale remains an unfulfilled promise. Whether a mother has even a bare chance of securing a nursery place for her child depends on the accident of where she lives. The distribution of nursery schools and classes bears no relation to present day needs or wishes." 42

The main recommendation of the report was that there should be a large expansion of nursery education and a start should be made as soon as possible. Nursery education, it was proposed, should be available for all children from the age of three until they reach the age of compulsory school, though mainly on a part-time basis, the idea being that the full-time places could be concentrated in areas where there was a particular need.

The Report also recommended special emphasis on provision in newly identified educational priority areas which were usually in the inner cities, where poor housing, old school buildings, and a shortage of teachers have since attracted special resources. It was pointed out that nursery education should be provided in nursery groups (up to 20 places), and ideally all the services relating to the care and education of young children should be grouped near homes and primary schools in view of the importance of home environment. According to a

study by Shipman:

"The major finding was that the dominant factor behind attainment was parental attitudes. Home circumstances and the schooling received were relatively less important than the parental attitude, the most important were ambitions for the children, the level of literacy in the home and interest in the children's work in school." 43

3.4.2 The Urban Aid Programme

The first sign of the expansion of nursery education after the Plowden Report was in 1969 when the central government established the Urban Aid programme to provide extra resources in areas of greatest social need. It provided over 10,000 extra places in nursery schools and classes. LEAs were asked to submit bids for projects for nursery schools and classes and the policy represented a return to the idea of using nursery education to alleviate the results of poverty, with the difference that fifty or sixty years before the emphasis was more on health than education as such.

3.4.3 The 'White Paper' of 1972

Despite the Plowden Report, very little pre-school provision was made until 1975. The White Paper followed the guidelines recommended by the Plowden Report in 1967 as the following passage illustrates:

"The Plowden Council estimated that provision for 90 per cent of four-year olds and 50 per cent of three-year olds would be adequate to meet demand. The action the government now propose will give effect to these recommendations. Their aim is that within the next ten years, nursery education should become available without charge, within the limits of demand estimated by Plowden, to those children of three and four whose parents wish them to benefit from it." 44

The government of the day believed it right for most of the extra provision to be in nursery classes in primary schools, both in order to avoid a change of school at age five, and in view of costs. It was envisaged that the extension of nursery education would provide an opportunity for the earlier identification of children with special difficulties (social, psychological, or medical), which if neglected, might have inhibited their educational progress. It was contended that the majority of educationists regard part-time attendance at school as sufficient for most children until the age of five, and estimated that only 15 per cent of places for three and four-year olds were needed on a full-time basis. The Department of Education and Science issued Circular 2/73, which put the Plowden Report recommendations into effect. It was made clear that there would be no central government resources for nursery provision for two-year olds.

"Quite specifically, paragraph 22 of the document, stated that 'the government are not laying down a uniform detailed pattern' and elsewhere, in paragraph 18, it referred to 'imaginative implementation'. In paragraph 23, it emphasised: 'The government attach importance to a full assessment of local resources and needs, and will welcome diversity in provision! Although it was the case that the circular following the White Paper did not repeat 45 this call for flexibility.'"

Perhaps the most striking omission from the White Paper in its discussion on the under-fives was its lack of reference to the work of the research conducted into Educational Priority Areas by A.H. Halsey and the team which were sponsored by the D.E.S. and the Social Science Research Council, all of whom had pioneered novel approaches to the care and stimulus of the pre-school child.

3.4.5 The Halsey Report (1972)

The Halsey Report was in fact published in October 1972, a full month before the White Paper appeared, but its findings had been available to the D.E.S. for many months before that. It describes government responses to the Plowden recommendations. For example, it claims that the welcome accorded Plowden by the D.E.S. was tempered by extreme caution and refusal to commit the government to the increased spending recommended. It was not surprising that the pace of development envisaged in the 1972 White Paper was such that the national provision envisaged by Plowden would not be attained.⁴⁶

3.4.6 Educational Priority Areas

A significant recommendation of the Plowden Report that did find its way into the system was that of compensation for deprived inner city schools through designation of Educational Priority Areas.⁴⁷ An example of the influence of this initiative in the pre-school sector was a compensatory education experiment launched in Birmingham, with extension to other locations namely: Liverpool, London and the West Riding of Yorkshire.

"One of the major aims of this was to compare the effectiveness of the traditional nursery school regime in promoting language development of three and four year olds from deprived families, with that of a regime incorporating a structured oral language scheme. Another major aim was to increase adult-child interaction. The scheme selected was the Peabody Language Development Kit (P.L.D.K). This was used in nursery schools and play-groups in four educational priority areas for a year." 48

When the E.P.A. project began, no British pre-school language programme was available, although a good deal of work has been done since then. The American origin of the kit included

stories, songs, games, and rhymes as well as question and answer and repetition. The aim of the project was to increase command of grammar and vocabulary, to encourage verbal fluency and comprehension, and to develop powers of auditory and visual discrimination. The materials included puppets, pictures, cards, geometrical shapes, records of songs, stories and various noises. It was introduced on an experimental one-year basis into seven nursery classes and playgroups in three of the four project areas. The teaching groups were of 12 to 15 children, and the work conducted both by qualified nursery teachers and nursery assistants with N.N.E.B. training. In the interviews at the end of the year, the P.L.D.K. teachers felt the children had enjoyed the programme and they had progressed as a result of it during the year. According to the Halsey Report:

"Our evaluation of the American Peabody Language Development Kit suggested that language programmes have considerable potential in the pre-school. However, Americanisms in the vocabulary and culturally unfamiliar items in the visual materials, together with methods alien to the traditional British approach to nursery school education, made the P.L.D.K. not entirely suitable for children in this country. Hence, in all four projects work was undertaken to develop more appropriate programmes, three projects being interested in the development of language, and one in number concepts."

49

Thus, we may say that, provided the structured materials of the P.L.D.K. it is the kind of initiative that could prove beneficial to children coming from EPA type backgrounds.

3.4.7 Further Studies and Developments in the 1970s and 1980s

Other selected studies concerned with the evaluation of pre-school in Britain are reviewed by Chazan,⁵⁰ Tizard,⁵¹ and

Kay.⁵² By 1974 the National Children's Bureau, London, had been commissioned by the D.E.S. and the D.H.S.S. to evaluate the combined nursery centres of LEAs. The National Children's Bureau team carried out an in-depth evaluation of three of these centres. Some centres comprised nursery school and day nursery provision side by side in the same building with varying degrees of integration.⁵³ A study by Bruner⁵⁴ illustrated that by 1977 the quantitative development of pre-school provision had reached the position illustrated in Table 10.

TABLE 10

ACTUAL PROVISION OF NURSERY SCHOOL AND CLASS PLACES: 1977

Time		Nursery schools	Nursery classes	Total
Threes	Full	6,023	12,398	18,421
	Part	20,398	47,629	68,027
Fours	Full	8,062	137,096	145,158
	Part	12,808	61,181	73,989
Rising fives	Full	588	171,188	171,776
	Part	622	7,193	7,815
TOTAL CHILDREN		48,501	436,685	485,186
TOTAL FULL PLACES		31,587	378,683	410,270

Source: Bruner Jerome, Under Fives in Britain: Oxford Pre-School Research Project, (London: Grant McIntyre Ltd., 1980, p. 3)

This situation was in effect that half the under fives in Britain were still without a place in maintained pre-schools, and among the under-fours, the figure was more like one in ten of those envisaged by Plowden as receiving such support. To some extent the shortfall was made up by playgroups. The

shifting pattern in the 1960s and 1970s in respect of various forms of provision is illustrated by Figure 1. These illustrations are derived from Colin Richards et al.⁵⁵

In order to monitor the development of post-Plowden pre-school provision, the D.E.S. proposed to set up a Nursery Education Research Programme (NERP). According to Woodhead:

"As a reference against which to examine development in pre-school services, it may be useful to describe the provision which was available at the time when implementation of the government's proposals began. Nursery Education (in the form of nursery schools and classes) was only available to nine per cent of three and four-year olds, plus a very small percentage of two-year olds in England and Wales in January 1974. ... The remaining 19 per cent in schools are all early admissions to the reception classes of primary schools (which have a lower ratio of staff to children than true nursery establishments). Accordingly this group is made up almost exclusively of four-year olds, and 60 per cent are rising fives." 56

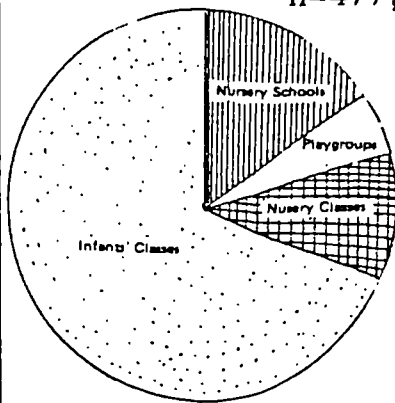
The practice of the admission of children under five in reception class continued to increase to such an extent that there were twice the number of under fives in the reception classes of infant schools as there were in true nursery classes or schools. In spite of the statutory starting age for compulsory schooling being five, many children start school before that. Certain geographical and traditional factors seem to influence the actual age of starting school. Many areas of Wales, for example, have long had a tradition of accepting the 'rising fives' into school. The system, therefore, is unfair in so far as it is disparate.

In 1978, according to Elvin:

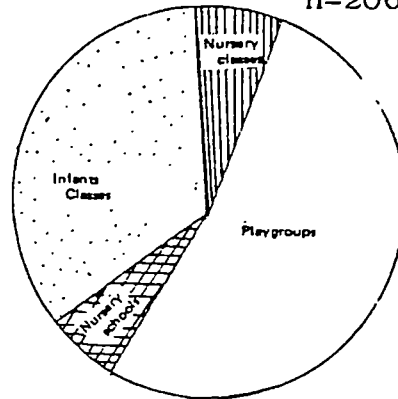
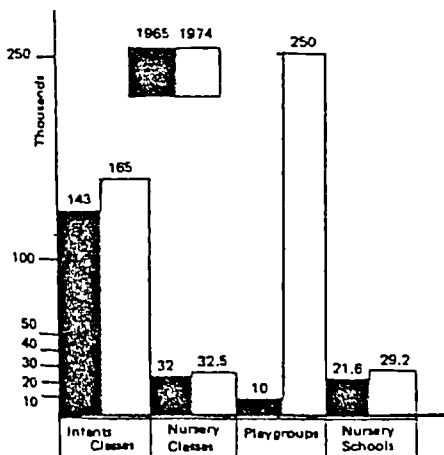
FIGURE 1

Comparative provision of
pre-school places 1974

n=477,200

Comparative provision
of pre-school places 1965

n=206,600

Number of three and four
year old children in pre-
school places 1965 and
1974Source: Education 3 - 13,
1978

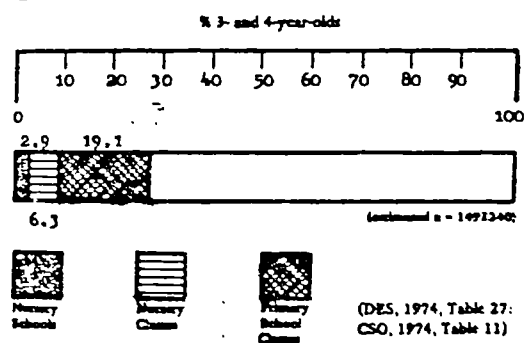
The First Priority: Nursery Provision for Disadvantaged Children

Table 1. Maintained educational provision for the under-fives - January, 1974
(England and Wales)

	Nursery schools	Nursery classes	Primary school classes
Number	384	2,410	-
Children			
Full-time	15,431	32,527	268,693
Part-time	30,481	61,762	16,210
Total	45,912	94,289	284,903

(DES, 1974, Table 27)

Figure 5: Three- and four-year-olds attending maintained educational provision - January, 1974 (England and Wales)



"... there were 593 publicly maintained nursery schools in England and 70 in Wales together with approximately 11,500 privately-run playgroups affiliated to the Pre-school Playgroup Association (PPA), a voluntary organisation ... In 1978 some 34,000 children were attending a nursery school in the morning or the afternoon only in England, compared with 14,000 who were attending full-time ... In addition to the provision in nursery schools there were some 3,614 nursery classes attached to primary schools in 1978 in England providing for 29,000 full-time pupils and 123,000 part-time pupils. In Wales, there were 756 nursery classes attached to primary schools providing full-time pupils and about 9,200 part-time pupils." 57

The following year, the Council of Europe organised a conference to mark the International Year of the Child which recommended that:

"Educational provision should be available for all children whose parents wish them to have it during at least two years preceeding the start of primary school." 58

However, provisional figures for January 1979 showed a mere 18.4 per cent of three and four-year olds attending maintained nursery schools and classes, although the addition of 'rising fives' in infant reception classes improved the figure to 54 per cent of all four-year olds.

By January 1984 the Department of Education and Science estimated that there had been 575 such schools in England a year previously which was in fact a decrease of 7 on the 1982 figure. Furthermore, the number of nursery schools has fallen slowly each year since the peak of 596 reached in 1980. The number of part-time pupils within nursery schools continued to increase in 1983 reaching nearly 37,000 while the number of full-time pupils in these schools has continued its gradual decline from a peak reached in 1979. Table 11 illustrates these trends.

TABLE 11

SUMMARY OF THE EDUCATION OF UNDER FIVES IN MAINTAINED NURSERY AND PRIMARY

SCHOOLS IN ENGLAND AND IN THE REGIONS

	Nursery schools			Nursery classes in primary schools			All full time and part time pupils in nursery schools and nursery classes				
	Number of schools	Number of pupils		Number of schools	Number of pupils		Age of pupils				
		Full-time	Part-time ¹		Full-time	Part-time ¹	2	3	4	Total	
England	<i>i</i>	<i>ii</i>	<i>iii</i>	<i>iv</i>	<i>v</i>	<i>vi</i>	<i>vii</i>	<i>viii</i>	<i>ix</i>	<i>x</i>	
1974	523	13,696	27,614	1,727	23,300	58,829	1,947	62,384	73,587	123,439	
1975	548	13,740	29,777	1,943	23,925	70,476	2,214	74,005	81,331	137,918	
1976	564	13,497	32,062	2,274	24,517	87,474	2,845	88,787	95,181	157,550	
1977	579	13,657	34,043	2,737	27,269	111,844	3,144	96,956	101,237	201,337	
1978	593	14,138	34,359	2,998	29,550	123,290	3,645	104,269	102,334	210,248	
1979	593	14,219	34,258	3,200	31,748	130,023	24,635	142,193	48,623	215,451	
1980	596	14,079	34,377	3,361	32,464	134,531	26,994	146,172	48,424	221,590	
1981	588	13,717	34,437	3,517	32,588	140,848	29,307	157,798	48,296	235,401	
1982	582	13,295	35,694	3,662	32,975	153,437	26,188	171,328	50,309	247,825	
1983	575	12,611	36,940	3,764	31,843	166,431					
England regions in 1983											
North	74	1,207	4,949	400	1,638	18,939	3,728	20,823	2,182	26,733	
Yorkshire and Humberside	51	1,101	3,697	576	3,959	27,816	3,212	25,933	7,428	36,573	
North West	114	1,951	7,370	657	8,182	23,600	6,656	30,873	3,574	41,103	
East Midlands	34	515	2,013	260	2,896	15,975	1,897	12,909	6,593	21,399	
West Midlands	94	2,769	4,631	472	4,910	19,745	3,536	22,986	5,533	32,055	
East Anglia	13	190	966	64	150	2,939	224	3,083	938	4,245	
Greater London	89	2,622	5,881	838	8,307	33,044	4,918	33,570	11,366	49,854	
Other South East	84	1,120	6,819	384	1,026	20,254	1,435	16,449	11,335	29,219	
South West	22	1,136	614	113	775	4,119	582	4,702	1,360	6,644	

Source: Department of Education and Science, Statistical Bulletin
No. 1/84 January 1984.

Having reached the mid 1980s, it is still clear that pre-school care and education in Britain is still inadequate. To some extent this is due to increased demand, and it is necessary to examine the reasons for it.

3.4.8 The Factors which increased demand for pre-school provision in England

Among the factors that have combined to cause an increased demand for pre-school education are: the changes in values about the family; the influence of war; demographic change; the number of women working, the increase in single-parent families, other pressures on the nuclear family, especially the urban family; increased knowledge about early childhood learning; indeed a whole reappraisal of the influence of infancy and childhood.

Take first the issue of mothers at work. This is not, of course, a twentieth century phenomenon in England. For example, the Woman's Cotton Workers' Union campaigned from 1884 for a woman's right to work using a co-operative system of child care rather than a family-based one, equal pay for women, and family allowances. But in recent times the largest single influence has been the two world wars.

Changes in the post 1945 economy combined with changing attitudes to the role of women and men in the family and economy led to an increase in the number and proportion of women with children under five taking employment outside the family, with obvious implications for the upbringing of their young children.⁵⁹ If we consider the period 1951 to 1976, it saw the number of men employed in Britain rise from 15.6 to 15.9 million. During the same period female employment increased from 7.0 to 10.0

million. As a result of earlier age of marriage in association with the development of the economy, the number of unmarried women at work fell from 4.3 million in 1951 to 3.2 million in 1976, while the number of married women at work increased from 2.7 million in 1951 to 6.7 million. Since about 1960 smaller families, an earlier age of marriage and longer life have freed many women for outside employment. Despite the obvious contribution made to the economy by working mothers, the facilities for care of the children of married women workers remained inadequate:

"In Great Britain there are some 900,000 children under five whose mothers have a job, the government provides as controls full and part-time day care for about 120,000 children in day nurseries and with childminders."... There are over three quarters of a million children under five whose mothers work and who have at present no access to local authority day nurseries or childminders." 60

Various changes in the role of married women have occurred as a result of the demand for them in the labour market, so that by 1978 the pattern and attitudes, of mothers in respect of paid employment when their children were of school or pre-school age was as follows:

<u>Pattern/Attitude</u>	<u>Mothers with children</u>	
	Under 5	5-16
Working full-time	6%	15%
Working part-time	18%	37%
Don't work but would like to	27%	20%
Aren't sure	8%	7%
Don't work, don't want to	41%	21%

In 1980 there followed a General Household Survey⁶¹ which, inter alia, identified the main reasons for mothers to take up

paid employment. They included:

- a) economic necessity: the father's work is low paid, and/or the parents are divorced or separated - some mothers are also widowed;
- b) the desire for some economic independence;
- c) for companionship and to escape loneliness;
- d) work can be enjoyable and interesting in its own right;
- e) concern about giving up work in a time of high unemployment.⁶²

In respect of the city, especially inner city, environment in Britain, it appears that mothers feel less capable of coping with their children and their problems than they do in a rural setting. The urban life, specially in crowded areas and/or in places denuded of social relationships means that mothers need opportunities for significant contact with other people. According to Hughes and et al:

"The evaluation of nuclear family living means that mothers today are increasingly on their own, cut off from friends and relatives, with husbands working long, and demanding hours, they are likely to spend more and more of their days cooped up with only their children for company. Nurseries can help not only by giving mothers a break and an opportunity to rejoin the adult world, but also by bringing mothers together to meet and get to know each other at the nursery itself." 63

Another factor worth considering further is the increased knowledge about the importance of the early years of childhood. According to the Council of Europe:

"People have become more and more convinced of the formative nature of early age, of the truth of the old saying that (the child is father of the man)." 64

Among the reasons for increasing emphasis on the importance of

an early start for the child in the pre-school, are its significance for the growth of language as well as for social, emotional, and intellectual development. This belief is nourished both by new research and old historical movements.

Another straight indication of pressure for pre-school places is the length of waiting lists. As long ago as 1962 the National Union of Teachers carried out a survey which showed:

"There are long waiting lists for entrance to nursery schools and classes all over the country. In some areas, it is common practice for parents to put their child's name on the waiting list at birth. This acute shortage of places in nursery schools and classes coupled with the realisation that nursery education has great educational value, has led to a very rapid expansion in the number of private establishments ... some of this unofficial provision is undoubtedly of good quality, but it is disquieting to hear that far too often this casual provision is in the hands of completely unqualified persons running little more than child-minding establishments." 65

Furthermore, the survey dealt only with maintained nursery schools and classes, no detailed information was available on the private sector, but it is known to have been increasing then and of course since.

A quite separate reason for increased services for the under-fives as Tizard stated in her research review is:

"The widespread belief in the government and administrative circles that the failure of many children within the school system is due to the shortcoming of their parents as pre-school educators ... so the expansion of pre-school facilities in the public sector is thus seen as a way of compensating for indifferent education in the private family." 66

Thus, a modern society must accept that the care and education

of young children is a community as well as a family responsibility and that to fail this trust will have serious implications for a national society as a whole.

3.4.9 The Provision of Pre-School Education in England in Comparison with France, USA and USSR

Responsibility for institutions for children under five is divided between the Department of Education and Science (DES), and the Department of Health and Social Security (DHSS). The Department of Education and Science, through the local education authorities, is responsible for:

a) - All maintained nursery schools and classes wholly provided out of public funds. All nursery places in maintained schools are provided free of charge to the parents of children from two to five years, but in practice two years old are rarely admitted. They are one of the most expensive forms of educational provision;

b) - A small group of grant-aided nursery schools, i.e. private nursery schools that happen to be getting some financial help from local education authorities at the time of the 1944 Education Act;

c) - Any private and independent nursery schools. Any other forms of provision are ultimately the responsibility of the DHSS such as: day nurseries, child-minders, and play-groups.

The nursery school receives children between two and five years and is staffed with a three-year trained teacher, who would ideally be qualified to teach nursery and infant children, and a nursery nurse who has two years training leading to the NNEB Certificate. It is considered a separate school in its

own right. A nursery class receives children between the ages of three and five, and it is staffed by similarly trained teachers and nursery nurses. It is attached to an infant or all-age primary school. However, nursery classes, in fact, account for nearly three times the number in separate nursery schools, though the overall provision is small.

The Department of Education and Science is responsible for controlling educational building and the supply, training and pensions of teachers. The money dispersed by the Department is only a small proportion of the total public spending on education, but it displays an important part in determining the block grant of money given by central government to local government. Local government administers education through the Local Education Authorities, of which there are about 100 in England and Wales. They have complete freedom to organise nursery schools and nursery classes so that children may be offered either full-time or part-time. It is considered that the self-contained nursery school which forms a transition from home to school is the most suitable type of provision for children under five. Unfortunately, there is a serious shortage of nursery staff and some local education authorities are compelled to employ unqualified personnel. According to McKeown:

"Nursery schools tend to be small (in Bristol between 33 and 120 children) and this reduces career prospects, as scale posts are few and far between. It is hoped that if nursery classes are attached to schools in units of two or more that more nursery-trained teachers will be able to look for promotion within the pre-school age range." 67

The DES and DHSS attempt to encourage co-operation among

those who have the responsibility for under-fives.

"Some authorities have appointed teachers to work with the under-fives as a way of extending the benefits of their professional skills to children for whom there is no nursery school or class in the area. The teachers, sometimes based on a nursery or infant school, work with children in their homes, with children in day nurseries or other forms of day care, with playgroups and in play buses or caravans. Authorities with areas eligible for grant under the Urban Programme will wish to consider the advantages of such arrangements." 68

Despite all these efforts, there is still a shortage of pre-school provision. The enormous growth in the private sector is clear proof of this.

The problems of adequate pre-school provision are not uniquely present in Britain, for it is the same in all industrial societies:

"The United States and most countries in Western Europe neither meet demand nor need in providing for pre-school children." 69

If we compare the system of administration as between UK, France and the United States, we will find that the English system of administration is neither a centralisation on the French model nor a decentralisation as practised in the USA. It is a 'partnership' between central and local authorities. For comparison with other countries, a major problem is that the age of the start of compulsory schooling varies from country to country. Thus, it is impossible to define a precise age range for pre-school education. At its widest it can range from 0 to 7 years, and at its narrowest from three to five or four to six. Britain was until recently almost unique in the policy of compulsory schooling starting from the age of five. From a British standpoint, it might seem that the

rest of Europe and indeed much of the rest of the world are out of step, it is only British children who are required to receive full-time education from the age of five. Most of the countries require their children to be in school from the age of six, while children in the Scandinavian countries and USSR start school at seven, so the very different levels of pre-school education are available in these countries.

Woodhead explained the situation when he wrote:

"The feature which unites all pre-school education is its non-compulsory nature. It is an educational service provided for young children before the age at which they are required to attend school by law, and the objective of most countries is to provide sufficient places for all who seek them." 70

The original reasons for choosing age five to start school in England appear to have been to remove children from unhealthy conditions on the street or exploitation in the home, or, on the other hand, to make possible an early entry into the labour market. Furthermore, when attempting to compare the UK with other countries, the distinction between "private" and "public" sectors is often unclear.

In socialist states the control is in the hands of the central government, but it would appear that there is a general trend towards establishing a new balance between local participation and centralisation. In France also, which has central services, there is movement towards provincial organisation. By contrast, in the USA, services which until recently were the responsibility of the States are increasingly coming under the influence of the Federal Government. The global position is very fluid:

"In highly centralised countries, in particular, the authorities are too remote and their procedures too inflexible to adapt to individual problems, which are often difficult to solve. In order to stimulate local action, some decentralisation is necessary and local authorities must act to co-ordinate the procedures of the various administrative departments (e.g. England)." 71

In France, the instruction given in nursery schools is more formal than in most other countries and certainly more formal than in Britain. The wide variations in provision throughout the world are paralleled by similarly wide variations in staff training and in child-caretaker ratios. In England one can expect approximately 13/14 children per qualified adult. In France one would normally expect up to 35 or 40 children to one teacher, but such a teacher would always be supported by para-professional assistance. There are not nursery assistants, and the only support for teachers is from domestic workers, whose job is to clean the nursery schools, to help the teacher during lunch-time and to dress children to go to playground.

"France which has a remarkable quantitative achievement to its credit is not so happy about the qualitative aspect, with staff/children ratios of about 1:40 in its e'coles maternelles for the 2-5 age group." 72

Britain compares badly in quantitative terms with France but by the same token, Britain is better than the USA. In most countries, the teacher is a graduate of the public schools (in general, equivalent to the US high school) with approximately one year (occasionally two) of formal training including practical experience. In France, pre-school teachers are trained after graduation from high school, in a teachers'

college or university alongside primary school teachers in general. In England, qualified nursery teachers can (technically) apply to teach at any age level in the state system. In some pre-school systems (e.g. USSR) specialised personnel teach the children in physical education and music. Few men are involved in this kind of work anywhere.

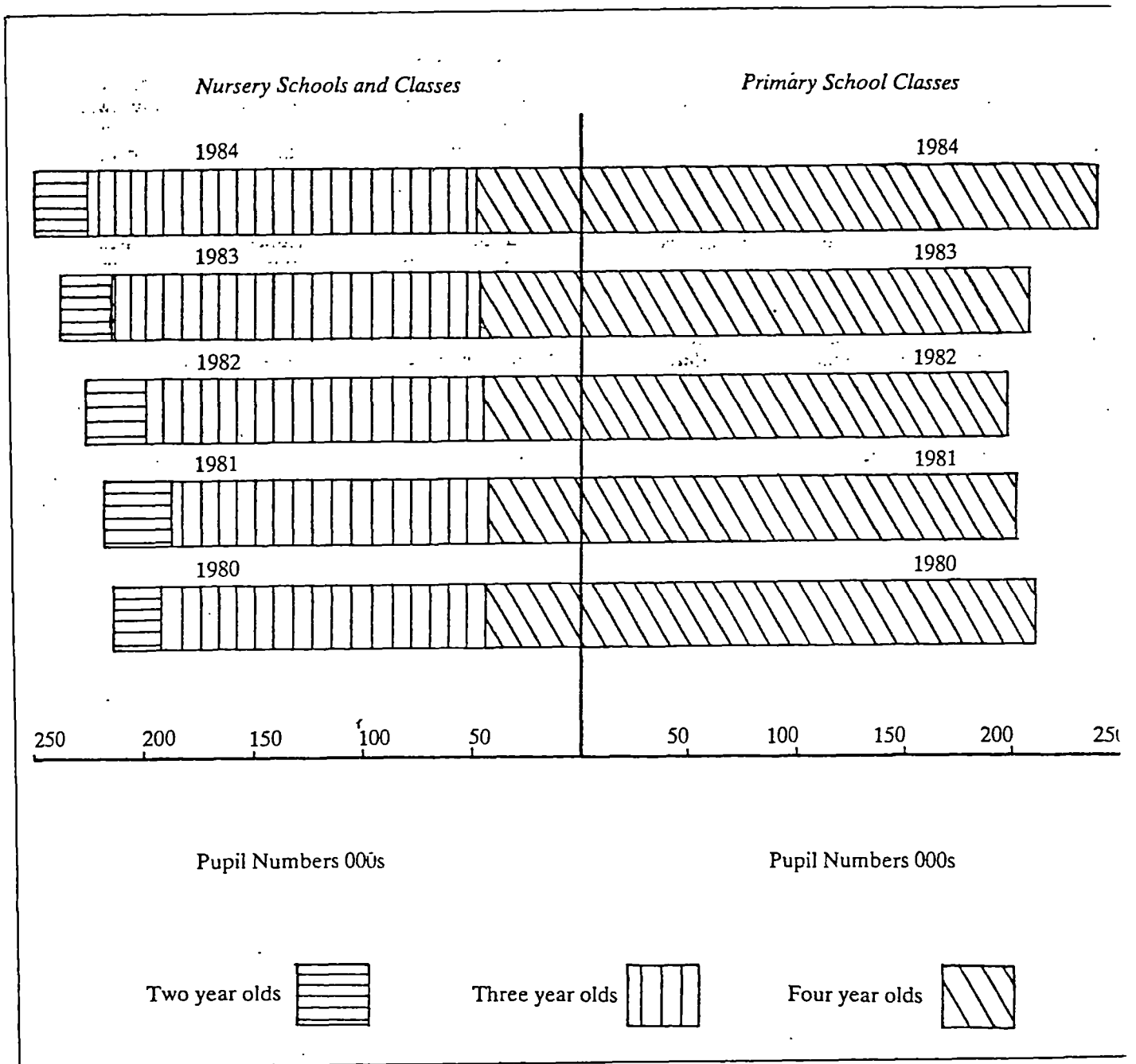
Gamage summarised the contemporary nursery school teacher in advanced societies as follows:

"(1) They will have been trained for at least three years after graduation from high school or secondary school. (2) They will usually have been trained alongside elementary teachers or with the same institutions. (3) They will all have served terms of practice or internship alongside experienced personnel. (4) The vast majority, almost without exception, will be women (though paradoxically their senior supervisors, administrators and inspectors may be men). (5) Their status will generally be inferior to that of other school teachers and their opportunities for relatively high income limited." 73

The international scene enables us to put Britain's record in perspective, because certain recent trends, if they continue, could have the effect of putting Britain even further out of step with the rest of Europe:

"Britain is rapidly moving to a situation where the majority of four-year olds will be in school. If this is to be seen as an extension of educational opportunities to pre-school children then it brings us closer into line with Europe. But if on the other hand it is to be seen as a reeducation of the normal primary school starting age to four, then it sets us even further apart from our European partners." 74

Figure 2 neatly summarises the trends of the 1980s.

FIGURE 2**WHERE DO YOUNG CHILDREN GO TO SCHOOL**

Source: Based on DES Statistical Bulletin 6/85, 1985
 Figures are for January each year

Having followed the development of pre-school provision in England it is now necessary to examine particular aspects of it. The next chapter therefore deals with the question of the pre-school curriculum.

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CHAPTER 4THE PRE-SCHOOL CURRICULUM IN ENGLAND4.1 Introduction

Recent decades have seen an increased awareness of the young child's potential for learning.

"There has been a concomitant proliferation of ideas about types of educational programming that might be developed to support such learning because childhood is regarded as one stage, a very important one in the development and life of man. It is a stage which demands special consideration and special conditions of care. The realisation that this is true of the pre-school child, particularly in relation to his emotional and intellectual needs is of most recent origin." 1

However, for much of its formation, the pre-school sector has been developed along traditional lines. If one goes back in history far enough, one finds that the curriculum, whether formal or informal, took its origin in the daily activities of the people. The civilisation whose culture, handed down through the curricula of succeeding centuries, has continued to function most persistently in the Western world is that of the Classical Greeks.²

4.2 Definitions of Curriculum

By curriculum is meant what is deliberately taught under professional supervision, and with societal and individual parental approval. According to Bloom it

"Consists of the goals and objectives of a course, programme or school and the learning materials and planned learning experiences which appear to be related to those goals and objectives." 3

The tasks of a curriculum specialist therefore are:

a) to identify those goals, objectives, learning materials and planned learning experiences, and

b) to define the interrelationship among those goals and objectives. While the identification of goals, objectives, materials and experience is difficult enough, the inter-relationships among the goals and objectives are even more difficult to describe.

The word curriculum in fact has a variety of usages, such as listed by Reid and Weer:

a) it may be used to describe the totality of a school's activity and includes that which is voluntary as well as that which is compulsory and that which is hidden as well as that which is overt;

b) it may refer to the allocation of time to specific content areas, i.e. the curriculum is basically the timetable. In this usage, a distinction exists between curricular activities and extra-curricular activities. Although extra-curricular activities may, in some schools be timetabled, and therefore strictly curricular, the extra-curricular is essentially that which is outside the timetable, and voluntary;

c) it may describe the content of teaching within specific areas, e.g. the science curriculum, the humanities curriculum.⁴

With respect to 'pre-school', the ideals of educational thinkers, though sometimes very slow to be translated into practice, have nevertheless been reflected in methods, approaches

curriculum content and organisation. Infant and nursery schools have shown themselves ready to experiment, and to take into account new research finding and current thinking in their planning. There has been a great advance in our understanding of the ways in which children develop and learn, and the good school bases of its work firmly upon this knowledge of children and their educational needs.⁵ The curriculum for early learning is, in consequence, free and wide with areas of interest helping to give it structure and direction.

4.3 The Importance of the Environment in Early Years

Despite the many changes in educational theory and practice

"That have taken place in recent years, there is little doubt that early learning and early experience remain crucial to later development. During the first seven years of life, the child masters an extraordinary range of skills unparalleled in complexity and scope by anything that follows during a comparable period of time." 6

The influence of the environment is complex, involving physical, chemical, social, human and other factors.⁷ According to Al Bahrani: "the environment of the kindergarten should be centred on the child."⁸ The ideal educational environment in these early years offers:

"Opportunities for the child to develop his physical, intellectual, social and emotional capacities. Basic pre-requisites, if he is to respond fully to these educational opportunities, will be adequate physical care and emotional security. Lacking either of these, his response to both social situations and intellectual stimulation will be, to some degree, adversely affected. The interdependence of the different aspects of a child's growth requires that all aspects should be regarded as of equal

importance. Modern theories of child development stress the importance of the child's early experience in determining future intellectual growth."

As the child grows older, the learning process depends more and more on

"His interaction with his environment, to combine the experiences of his different sensory organs into one experience which allows him to recognise the qualities of objects in a three dimensional world. If the materials are available, the child's desire to come to terms with his world will be expressed in a variety of ways in his play, building with blocks and boxes, digging and modelling in earth, sand or dough, painting pictures and fitting objects into one another. Most children acquire the ability to represent one thing by another during their first two or three years and as soon as the child begins to make use of symbols in his play, he begins to make rapid progress in the acquisition of language." 10

Bloom (1964) maintains:

"The early environment is of crucial importance for three reasons: the first is based on the very rapid growth of selected characteristics in the early years and conceives of the variations in the early environment as so important because they shape these characteristics in their most rapid periods of formation. We have already referred in brief detail to the evidence for this. However, another way of viewing the importance of the early environment has to do with the sequential nature of much of human development. Each characteristic is built on a base of that some characteristic at an earlier time or one the base of other characteristics which precede it in development. A third reason for the crucial importance of the early environment and early experiences stems from learning theory. It is much easier to learn something new than it is to stamp out one set of learned behaviours and replace them by a new set. The effect of earlier learning on later learning is considered in most learning theories under such terms as habit, inhibition and restructuring." 11

Piaget's point is that:

"Conversation is facilitated by the child's own active manipulations and experiences with his environment whereby he lays down the basis for the subsequent formulation of the principles of weight, volume, equality, numbers, orders and so on. The ability to conserve thus marks an important transition in the intellectual development of the child." 12

Greater knowledge about how the natural endowment of a child is affected by environment, and of the importance of both social and intellectual stimuli in development, had led many educationists and parents to seek an extension of the environmental opportunities of the home. Obviously, the Nursery School can offer opportunities to extend the environment both in physical terms, and through play and other activities, both teacher selected and child selected.

4.4 The Foundation of a Good Curriculum

Planning the development of experiences for young children is a complex and presumptuous task. Indeed there are still those who consider that a 'curriculum', whether written or 'hidden', is inappropriate during these early stages. The priority should always be a long period of undirected activity. This should not be less than one and a quarter to one and a half hours, and is essential, whether the children attend half or full-time. The emphasis is on the provision of freedom for the child to choose the activity and to continue with it as long as is desired.¹³

Isaacs, one of the pioneers of Britain's pre-school sector, has stated the aims of the nursery school, and decades later her views would be generally accepted among nursery school and

nursery class teachers:

"The school is, in my view, simply a point of vantage for the child in his efforts to understand the real world, and to adapt himself to it. It should be a place or shelter for him, but not in the sense that it shuts the larger world away from him. Its task is to bring the world to him, in ways and at a pace fixed by his needs and interests. The school, the teacher and the teaching alike are simply a clarifying medium, through which the facts of human life and the physical world are brought within the measure of the child's mind at successive stages of growth and understanding The school has two main sorts of function:

(a) to provide for the development of the child's own bodily and social skills and means of expression, and (b) to open the facts of the external world (the real external world, that is, not the school 'subjects') to him in such a way that he can seize and understand them." 14

These rather general aims of nursery education are given concrete expression through the physical and social environment of the school, and its curriculum. The educator chooses content for the curriculum - content that leads the child to label experiences, to facilitate problem-solving to create opportunities for learning and to encourage social opportunities.¹⁵

In order to achieve what Fleming et al call 'good curriculum planning' it is necessary to:

a) begin with a basic knowledge of how young children grow, develop and learn;

b) recognise that children learn best:

i) when they have a good self-image and are accepted as they are by both adults and other children.

ii) if given repeated opportunities to discover, explore, be challenged and problem-solve through direct experience.

iii) when given diverse choices that can lead to independence,

self-confidence, self control, and a sense of responsibility.

iv) through a rich environment that considers their total development and each one's individual needs and interests ...;

c) provide and allow for a balance of activities;

d) capitalise on the individual strengths of the staff and the assets offered by parents and community;

e) recognise weaknesses of each member of the staff and plan for individual personal growth. Constantly search for new ideas and for ways of improving teaching skills by encouraging the staff to:

i) read - refer to core library for suggested resources.

ii) share ideas and problems with other early childhood educators.

iii) attend workshops.

iv) invite resource people from the community.

v) involve parents as teachers and planners. ¹⁶

There are many factors which are important in this planning, including:

a) ways in which the content and approach feed physical, social, emotional, aesthetic and moral, as well as intellectual development;

b) the need to cater for individual differences, which ought to include a thorough examination of the varying needs and development rates of boys and girls;

c) the need to develop language skills and mathematical concepts;

d) the development of the ability to solve problems and concentrate upon wide-ranging tasks and experiences;

e) the desirability of including structured programmes for

certain aspects of the curriculum: the sequential content of these programmes may help children with special needs;

f) the need for flexibility and manoeuvrability within the planning structure, to allow a teacher to expand child-initiated discovery;

g)i)the children's need for continuous feedback and reinforcement

ii)the teacher's need for feedback as evidenced by the children's responses and the teacher's records of their progress;

h) time for reflections and recall by the child;

i) the essential development of a positive self concept, with its implications for the provision of opportunities for role and dramatic play and other forms of self-expression;

j) the relevance of the subject area to different aspects of development.¹⁷

Clearly the child, with skilled adult help, must be enabled to enjoy active and varied group play and to experience pleasure in using materials; to develop physical, linguistic, artistic and social skills and gradually to increase the degree of independence and confidence that is both desirable and manageable. The 'good curriculum' should be comprehensive in scope.

4.5 Methods of Instruction

Although 'free play' is basic and central to the pre-school curriculum, there remains the aim of transforming ignorance into understanding. This aim takes the form of identifying the most effective things the teacher can do in order to get a child to modify ways of behaving, and comprehend the change of approach at the same time. It is a question of devising

ways to motivate learning so that it will occur more easily and be 'permanent'. In facing up to this challenge instructional methods have been sensitive to change in psychological theory as to how learning takes place. The philosophical conception of the 'nature of man' has also been a forceful determinant of educational method.¹⁸

The general philosophy underlying instructional methods in the nursery schools in England is a direct outgrowth of the teaching of the pioneer Froebel, whose work has been mentioned above. It was summarised by Cusden as follows:

"The nursery school is first and foremost an educational institution which takes the whole child for its provision It is equally concerned with the physical, mental and emotional phase of the child's development and is specifically designed to provide conditions which will contribute to the natural and progressive growth of the child's faculties, the development of robust physique, the formation of desirable habits, the stimulation of healthy mental and spiritual reactions to social environment." 19

Not surprisingly nursery school methods in England tend to be child-centred, and no formal lessons are given. It is accepted that the young child should be free to create the educational and learning environment and that the teacher's main function is to assist in that task. Education has to be adapted to the individual. This is one of the basic principles of the methodology of pre-school education. The child develops in a group and through a group; while opportunities for individual activity must be provided, there is also the need to learn how to live in a community. Children learn most willingly through what is of most interest to them and this is the reason for our adopting their interests and developing these

into 'activity learning' situations.²⁰ In so doing, the child can come into contact with the environment and its natural objects. The first 'teaching' materials should be the objects of this environment, for example plants, animals, toys. The good teacher must be able to turn every new 'discovery' to profitable use as a basis for learning and skills development. Ideally every situation is used to stimulate the child's attention, the use of the senses, powers of perception, observation and reasoning, and of language and aesthetic potential.

The growing body of evidence in the last twenty years that supports the belief that the early years of a child's life are crucial to future development has stimulated a renewed interest in this stage of education in official circles, as The Plowden Report and the White Paper, (Education: A Framework for Expansion) have shown.²¹ Comments on pre-school curricula by contemporary British researchers are obviously rooted in the European tradition of Rousseau and Froebel. For example:

"Traditional nursery schools emphasise the development of the 'whole child'. They count on experience, exploration, and creative play, under the guidance of competent teachers to advance the children's emotional and social, as well as intellectual development."²²

and:

"The education provided at the pre-school stage is usually informal, teaching reading, writing or arithmetic is rarely undertaken. There is an emphasis on education through play, which is mainly free and unorganised, although some time may be devoted to more formalised games. The child is given various materials which it learns to manipulate, and is encouraged to express himself through new media by way of play."²³

Nonetheless, the value and importance of routine, in respect of daily programmes, in nursery life so as to create the atmosphere of peace and discipline during the early years of life is also clear. So the nursery curriculum cannot be merely based on 'play', and has to be based on comprehension and detailed identification of objectives that are then genuinely attempted:

"Perhaps all those of us who are concerned with the education of young children would endorse general objectives for the curriculum: that the child should gain physical skills, acquire a wide vocabulary, achieve control of the temporal and spatial relationship, develop the concepts of number, acquire a range of general knowledge about the physical, biological and social world, become familiar with some stories, rhymes and music, be able to solve problems, express ideas in words, in pictures and through a variety of other materials, and develop an understanding of other people's needs and views." 24

When primary teachers speak about the 'routine times of the day' or the 'daily programme', they mean that parts of the programme that vary little from day to day are considered routine and become a framework for the daily programme. Such a framework gives the children the security that comes with knowing what will happen next. It is such things as health inspection, snack time, toileting, meal times, nap-time, group movement, and dismissal times that are considered the routine times of the school day. If these are not planned as an integral part of the total programme of the day, these aspects can become boring and demotivating.²⁵

It is important that nursery curricula should include experiences both indoors and outdoors. In particular, children attending an all-day programme will have a greater need for

these types of activities as they have less chance in the remaining portion of the day to enjoy them in their home environment, Days of bad weather, especially rainy days, highlight the need for contingency activities indoors that relate or approximate to what may be done in the open air.²⁶

A typical framework for a nursery school day in England is shown to have its roots in the enthusiastic interwar period and the immediate post second war period as Tables 12 and 13 illustrate.

Although this degree of structure and organisation has not necessarily been maintained, the principle of the maintenance of an orderly environment within which to encourage free activity is seen to have survived. This in no way means that the central factor of 'play' is overlooked, but rather the opposite in that play has to be provided for through security.

4.6 The Place of Play in the Curriculum of the English Pre-School

Play is the highest level of child development. It is the spontaneous expression of thoughts and feelings - an expression that 'inner life' requires.

Every young child wants to play, and not only for mere enjoyment. There is an inherent interest and curiosity. The child explores, touches, handles, and is curious about the things around. Whatever is discovered is used in play. In giving ample opportunities for play, the nursery staff are doing much to educate the children, but if they deprive the children of play, expecting them to sit still they are doing definite harm.²⁷ Despite a long history of informal approaches,

TABLE 12EXAMPLES OF NURSERY SCHOOL DAYS

8.30 - 9.30 a.m.	Children arrive. Greetings and inspection. Cloakroom, Lavatories, Toilet.
9.00 - 9.30 a.m.	Preparations for the day. Lay tables for breakfast or lunch.
9.30 - 10.00 a.m.	Lunch. Clear away.
10.00 - 11.30 a.m.	Morning run, free play, individual occupations.
11.30 - 12.00	Toilet and preparation for dinner.
12.00 - 12.30	Dinner.

1.00 - 2.30	Sleep.
2.30 - 3.30	Toilet - Free play and group activities.
3.30 - 3.45	Afternoon meal.
3.45 - 4.00	Preparation for departure.
4.00 - onwards	Free play until mothers arrive. ³³

Source: Gusden, P.E., The English Nursery School, Kegan Paul, Trench, Trubner & Co. Ltd., 1938, p. 90.

TABLE 13A DAILY NURSERY PROGRAMME WITH 12 FIXED PERIODS

8.35 to 8.55 a.m.	Cloakroom. Children come into classroom. Free play with large toys, bricks, tricycles, dolls, etc.
8.55 to 9.25 a.m.	Registration. Hymns and Songs.
9.25 to 10.25 a.m.	Lavatory Supervision. Games in playground with large toys. Chat and story indoors. Preparation for Lunch. Washing, laying tables.
10.15 to 10.35 a.m.	Lunch. Clearing Tables.
<hr/>	
10.35 to 10.50 a.m.	Free play.
10.50 to 11.50 a.m.	Singing or story. Free activities or Sense Training Apparatus.
11.50 to 12 noon.	Dressing for Home.
AFTERNOON	
1.40 to 2.00 p.m.	Free play with toys.
2.00 to 3.00 p.m.	Sleep.
3.00 to 3.10 p.m.	Free play.
3.10 to 3.50 p.m.	Large toys (outdoors) or Free play (indoors) with constructive toys or handwork. Poetry or Story or Music.
3.50 to 4.00 p.m.	Dressing for home.

Source: The Nursery Class and Infant School, Schemes of work and organization, Revised Edition, (London: Evans Brothers Limited, 1951).

the place of play in the curriculum of English nursery schools is somewhat paradoxical. On the other hand, there is no doubt that play is valued as a major aspect of pre-school provision. It occupies a large part of the nursery school day and a great deal of thought is given to the provision of materials that encourage it. On the other hand, there is no doubt that there is evidence to suggest that the role adopted by many nursery teachers in relation to children's play is a restricted one. Interventions are more often concerned with resolving social conflicts and with giving comfort when things go wrong rather than with intellectual aspects of development.²⁸ This is despite the very clear advice of the Plowden Report, as illustrated by Tizard:

"At the heart of the educational process lies the child ... Play is the central activity in all nursery schools and in many infant schools ... We know that play is vital to children's learning and therefore vital in school ... Adults who criticise teachers for allowing children to play are unaware that play is the principal means of learning in early childhood." ²⁹

Of particular importance is the fact that when children are playing they have mastery of the situation. They can follow or discard the rules as they please, and they can determine the outcome. The constraints, if any, are of their own imposition, and introduce a kind of discipline.³⁰ Play is not an educational experience until it moves towards learning, developing at least partly the activities and interests of the primary school at the pre-school level. Stimulating language through manipulative play enables the child to acquire knowledge of language as a tool for describing and affecting the environment. Such activity is inevitably small scale and

immediate, normally involving small objects which maximise attention. Wider social play care routines, visits take the opportunity for play learning into a different environment and scale. Range of scale and flexibility of action available to the nursery school child helps the rules of language stand out more clearly. Language is in any case not bound to set rituals, and can accommodate variety.³¹

Through play children learn about their world, they learn skills and practise them, hand skills are rapidly improving through play with small toys like blocks, jigsaw puzzles, miniature cars, dolls, houses etc. Children learn to use eyes and hands together and both hands at the same time. Hand control develops slowly from clumsy grasping with the whole hand to fine movements of fingers and thumbs. Imaginative play with dolls houses, and domestic toys and creative play using paints, crayons, dough, clay and craft sets, help children to express their feelings and ideas through initiation.

The White Paper (A Framework for Expansion) provides official support for the significance of language development in the early years:

"The value of nursery education in promoting the social development of young children has long been acknowledged. In addition, we know that, given sympathetic and skilled supervision, children may also make great educational progress before the age of five. They are capable of developing further in the use of language, in thought and in practical skills than was previously supposed. Progress of this kind gives any child a sound basis for his subsequent education."³²

and the material provision for pre-school work in England normally reflects this too.

4.6.1 Stages and Varieties of Play

In the English nursery school children are able to choose their favourite activities, either individually or in small groups, in the various "corners" of the classroom. Through free games or by playing certain parts, or during story time, they are introduced to social life. Play with water, sand, clay, blocks serves to develop touch and the appreciation of differences of hardness, texture, temperature, etc. In addition, this approach enables the child to talk about his or her experience in terms of warm or cold, wet or dry, heavy or light, rough or smooth, bigger or smaller, and so on.

It will be useful here to examine the different types of play in order to see how learning situations might arise.

a) Drawing and Painting Play

Drawing and painting as a creative activity play an important part in the programme of young children because they provide opportunities to explore and experiment, to express ideas and feelings about what is, seen, felt, thought and spoken about. Working with a variety of materials, the child has to be responsible for choosing material, judging and controlling actions, discussing what is being done, explaining and enquiring. In this way many important concepts related to line, colour, texture and space are developed using appropriate vocabulary. This contributes to intellectual growth, but the most valuable contribution that drawing and painting have for a child is in fostering creativity, building self-esteem and providing safe experiences, and developing certain cognitive skills.³³ The language of number is developed

through the experience of painting and there is an obvious development of English through extending vocabulary. Not only are there mathematical contrasts such as "full" and "empty" but others such as "wet" and "dry", "dirty" and "clean".

b) Play with Sand

Sand is one of the basic materials which can provide the opportunity to foster the child's development of concepts. In play with sand and materials, there will be opportunities to recognise similarities and differences in shape, colour and texture, and at the same time improve muscular co-ordination. The tactile experiences of handling sand and natural objects are enjoyable and in addition to giving pleasure, play with sand will provide experiences which lead to the beginning of mathematical and scientific discovery.

"Children at the sand tray may be learning something as they play, but unless we realise the importance of talking with them and following up their comments and discoveries, play could become aimless. Following a suitable period of free play and discovery, most children are ready to explore ways of estimating and then measuring, shape and size in many of its aspects." 34

There are two kinds of sand play, one is wet and the other is dry, the two types behaving quite differently so that children should have the opportunity to experiment with both:

"You can provide with dry sand much of the equipment you might put beside the water tray: containers for filling, jugs for tipping, collanders, sink-tidies and plant-pots with holes, for dividing the sand into separate streams, tubes, and tunnels of varying widths and sizes to direct the flow of sand, plastic bottles punctured with a skewer for making fountains, a sand wheel." 35

Furthermore, sand play provides opportunities for the child's

mathematical development, discovering what is meant by:

i) Action Space - that is the area in which each child moves;

ii) Body Space - distance and direction in relation to himself;

iii) Object Space - distance as related to an object.

The elementary principles of motion and weight come into it, together with estimating space and distance, size, weight, speed and height. It has been shown that even at this early stage, the mathematical language likely to be achieved from playing with sand and the appropriate tools and materials, is likely to include the following words:

many	few	big	small	
more	less	heavy	light	
back	front	near	far	
side		here	there	
inside	outside	forwards	backwards	
under	over	high	low	
round	flat	up	down	
another	one	fast	slow	36

c) Water Play

Water is probably the most important raw material to provide for children in nursery school. It has sensory and aesthetic qualities and many possibilities for discovering mathematical concepts. It is also difficult for many mothers to make adequate provision at home for her child to enjoy and experience water in different ways. Water play can be carried on at many levels and for many reasons:

"These activities involve pouring, filling, emptying and measuring. Children will actively discover the number of pints in a gallon, half pints in a pint and quarter pints in a pint. We can develop aspects of capacity in this way. We might whiten the water with paint or chalk so that the children can have a milk bar ... Children have experiences in estimation and in conservation in water play activities." 37

Water play can be varied occasionally not just by the addition of different tools, but by changing the colour or temperature of the water itself, or by adding bubbles. Water offers many learning opportunities: objects which float and those which sink, materials which absorb water and graduated containers for measuring it, all add to children's understanding. The development of concepts such as 'nearly empty' and 'half full' may be offered during water play. Water play also provides endless situations for developing basic skills.

"An old tub or baby bath for water play plus a variety of containers for measuring and pouring, a jug, funnel and clear plastic tubing can assist your child in understanding the concept of volume." 38

d) Imaginative Play

Play is a spontaneous activity carried out by young children for its own sake. Imaginative development may be encouraged by house play which provides the child with:

"An opportunity for social and emotional development. Children enjoy recreating familiar situations and playing different roles in these situations, being mother or father or the policeman on points duty. Some children may find relief in acting out their emotional problems and they may learn about other people's reactions through the play situations. Where a group of children combine in initiative or imaginative play, they have opportunities for social developments,

for emotional growth and for the development of communication skills." 39

The dramatic play in the home corner provides continuity in the child's mental life by linking home and school experiences. They identify themselves with home or self problems, playing out happy and sad experiences. Children in the group situation of home or domestic play soon discover the need to introduce rules. Such play is necessary for the child in order to clarify concepts of who he is, what other people are like, including some understanding of adults, responsibilities and work.⁴⁰

For example, through cookery children have the opportunities to develop certain skills such as counting, adding, dividing, assessing, quantities, measuring, reading and writing, number symbols and they can discuss the different processes, so developing their language and it can lead into early science activities. With guidance and encouragement, the children begin to learn about the units of weights and measures. It is necessary for children to become aware of time. How long the task will take. They will need to look at a clock, or timer, and develop their understanding of such concepts as now, tomorrow after lunch, slowly and quickly. These will be more reasonably understood if connected with a real cooking process, or at least a dramatised one.⁴¹

There are three major steps in building a cognitive curriculum from home play:

- i) firstly, much depends on the spontaneous happenings from day to day in the home corner;
- ii) secondly, these play activities should be linked together and expanded by increasing the children's experiences

with pictures and visits and by using appropriate language to describe these situations;

iii) thirdly, there is the need to develop and generalise important concepts that underline the children's thinking. In home play the child has the opportunities to perceive, communicate, make decisions, organise and evaluate.

e) Play with Clay and Dough

Clay is one of the most important natural raw materials in the world.

"For thousands of years clay has been used by man to make religious objects. Toys, games, jewellery and other artefacts for his home. It was one of the earliest surfaces for writing on and clay and clay tablets and cones were used for financial accounts. Casseroles and cooking pots are made of clay and it is also used to line furnaces because its melting point is very high. Artists have always valued clay for use both in its own right and as a mould for metal." 42

Handling clay can do much to help a child to develop self-confidence, as it can be "destroyed" without doing damage or feeling guilty. Also, working with clay helps to develop muscle control.

Dough is basically made with flour and water. The addition of oil makes it smoother and glossier. It is used as modelling material or for pastry. Dough sometimes attracts children who dislike clay or mud because they think it is dirty.⁴³ For every child, dough is easier to handle than clay and it is a soft, squeezy texture, is soothing and pleasant to many of them, and of course links with the use of simple cooking as a theme for play, as mentioned above.

4.7 Physical Activities

The activities which may first make an impression on the casual visitor to a nursery school may well be the physical activities. Since before entering the building one may see children climbing and scrambling on various natural or prepared objects. It is usual to associate outdoor play with physical development in which children learn such skills as running, jumping, climbing and swinging, and generally develop bodily co-ordination. Whilst this is true, it is also the case that the outdoors is just as vital for all other aspects of development, social, emotional, intellectual and spiritual, and that it offers as much potential for learning and discovery as the indoor environment.⁴⁴ For obvious reasons, much depends on the climate of the location of the school, also the immediate physical environment.

Most nursery schools in England have a garden or outdoor play area in which the activities of the playroom can be carried on in fine weather. Here one will find most of the large items of equipment for physical play where the children are having fun and also they are learning to play together, co-operate, share, talk to each other and enjoy success, and they can move freely from one play activity to another.⁴⁵ Block building is particularly effective. For example, nursery school children frequently:

"build make-believe cars from large blocks. They are apt to sit in these too and make engine-like noises and steering motions. But they also build other structures out of large blocks. In other words, blocks can be used in a variety of ways that allow a child to sever the meaning from the object."

4.8 Children's Need for Story

Much has been claimed for the value of literature to children particularly when this general terms is interpreted widely enough to include the stories and poetry told or read to them from their earliest years onwards. However stories might be said to enrich a child's imaginative life, through the variety of material they offer for his use, and by providing him with events that he may in imagination shape and control.⁴⁷

Mackay and Sims described the advantages of children's story-time. When Diane, a pre-school child, hears stories:

"The story becomes part of her experience,
the language of the story part of her
language, its meanings part of the
accumulating knowledge of people and of
their attitudes and beliefs, their
behaviour and their feelings, their
characters and their actions." 48

It seems here that the most advantage mentioned from story time is the direct contribution to the growth of language for the child.

Children enjoy listening to stories and saying or singing nursery rhymes. The first reason is enjoyment, but the child is also learning to listen with concentration. The choice of stories should be carefully made, they should be simple and short. The telling of stories is one of the most difficult arts as was recognised by Froebel:

"One of the most difficult arts of the kindergarten is the telling of stories, and it is, perhaps, equally difficult to give detailed directions concerning the practice of this art, yet there are a few plain requirements which it may be well to mention here. In the first place, the story should be simple in plot and form, the events and words should be few and marked, and within the child's comprehension. Involved constructions,

long words, unmeaning sentimentalities,
and confusing moralising should be
omitted." 49

It is a good idea for children sometimes to hear music played by an adult. It is good if someone can bring an instrument into the group to play for them, but if this is not possible, a tape or record can be used because every child likes to hear music and to sing.

4.9 Using School Radio and Television Programmes with Pre-School Children

The influence of the mass media is increasing, especially as a means of pre-school socialization in England. The value of television as a resource for the pre-school child lies in its potential for linking experience to language, helping a child to formulate ideas and to stimulate thinking. Television viewing can present a valuable dimension in helping the young child to expand knowledge of the wider world. However, the pictures on the screen are only symbols, which although they play a part in rousing interest, need the positive support of first-hand experience if the language which accompanies the pictures is to have real meaning.⁵⁰

On the other hand, pre-school radio can be an active experience for children because:

"it means that the imagination of the child has to be stimulated and used, he has to translate words and sounds into visual images for himself ... Pre-school radio provides a valuable source of fun, entertainment and ideas for all pre-school children." 51

Since the programme Sesame Street from the USA, people have woken up to the possibility that television and radio can

stimulate the intellectual development of very young pre-school children. They might possibly open windows for the deprived, particularly in language development. On the other hand, many parents and teachers fear that very young children under five can be made passive by too much television, but this need not happen if the programme is well designed.

Thus, it may be said that the influence of the mass media is very important for the pre-school child and for child-rearing in contemporary cultures to enlarge his knowledge of the world in which he lives and provide him with a set of models for behaviour which he can emulate, and also to stimulate the intellectual development.

4.10 Conclusion

To sum up, it may be said that the first few years of a child's life are being increasingly recognised in England as a period of high growth. Therefore, the content of pre-school education is "informal" and "instructive" with no laid down curricula and little attempt to teach children the formal skills of reading, writing or arithmetic. The emphasis is on learning through play, or creativity, and on waiting until the child is ready to learn through play, or creativity, and on waiting until the child is ready to learn rather than on devising methods of forcing learning into a prescribed schedule or time-scale. The child is given various materials which it learns to manipulate and expression is encouraged through new media by way of play. All these materials help to reveal children, their thoughts, concepts, interests and emotional concerns.

It is clear that in England the belief is that the pre-

school programme should be flexible and open-ended with the teacher, having freedom to capitalise upon the spontaneous interests and opportunities for further learning which occur at any time.

Learning in various content areas can be integrated in such a way to permit a continuous flow in the activity and involvement of the child. The term 'integration' relates to the linking of various learning objectives with one another and the pursuit of those objectives throughout all activities offered through the programme. Thus, for example, in an integrated approach, language goals may be pursued not only through stories or other selected language arts activities, but also through art, music and movement, during outdoor play and, indeed, every activity undertaken by the child.

Far from being a mere observer of free activity, the teacher in the English nursery school has to be vitally involved. The warmth of the climate created by the teacher and the other adults is the foundation upon which the English pre-school rests. It is therefore necessary to consider the crucial issue of the staffing of English nursery schools and classes and it is with this that the following chapter is concerned.

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CHAPTER FIVESTAFFING AND THE NURSERY SCHOOL IN ENGLAND5.1 Introduction

In the previous chapter, I have described the pre-school curriculum, the daily programme, a foundation of a good curriculum and the teaching methods in nursery school. It was seen that the child may learn better through activity methods and free play; education at this level needs to be adapted to the individual. This is now one of the basic principles of the methodology of modern pre-school education, but it is not easy to achieve. It is perhaps the case that the more the curriculum and methods are child centred, the greater the quality of teaching staff needed to make that approach work to good effect. Knowledge in itself is of little value; it is valuable only in so far as it becomes a stimulant to intellectual activity, but without the right person to inspire and oversee the work, that activity could become too diffused.

The teacher as a person in the nursery is the most important single factor in determining what nursery school experience will be like for children. There is an important role to play in providing for the comfort and security of the children; a role that is fundamentally different from that of teachers of older children in that there is a real need to be mother/father, nurse, teacher and social worker. This is particularly true for the new children who are just starting nursery school, because:

"it may even be his first real contact with adults outside his home circle. Such a child will need a great deal of help which must be given by both parents and teacher, it may also be found that the mother need help too." 1

Every child who comes to nursery school is an individual with a spontaneous personality based on a particular set of experiences. This individuality throws a great responsibility upon nursery school teachers, for:

"Several studies suggest that children's development and learning are influenced more by the teacher than by the curriculum content or educational methodology. The first Grade Reading studies found greater variability among teachers than among methods used in terms of successful reading achievement. In addition, the teacher's role may be more crucial in determining what happens in the classroom rather than in the educational model being used." 2

So, let us first look at the teacher as a person, in respect of personality, quality of mind, respect for the individuality of children and the understanding of their needs.

5.2 The Characteristics and Qualities of the Good Teacher

The first essential for a good nursery school teacher is to have the appropriate temperament. There are of course certain qualities which should probably be found in all members of the teaching profession:

"These qualities, together with those that characterise the 'good human being' in any sphere, will be required to make the teacher effective, whether in the nursery school or the university. It may be safely assumed that both these kinds of teacher, together with all the others, need to develop an intuitive understanding of those whom they teach. To be truly effective, all teachers must be fully capable of feeling with their pupils and

of presenting their material, whether it is nuclear physics or the multiplication table, in such a way that it fully meets the needs of the learner, unless teachers make some conscious effort to do this, the teacher-pupil relationship may in fact be negative." 3

The first demand on the staff is for complete sincerity of character. In particular:

"A teacher of young children should not only have a real love and respect for children, but should be a person of imagination, understanding, sympathy and balance!" 4

It may be necessary to leave the child to their own devices when it is desirable to do so, but the teacher must be prepared to give help and reassurance immediately, as required. The atmosphere established by the teacher, if reaching the optimum condition, assists children to recognise the rights of others, and to be a friendly member of a group. At the same time the teacher must assist the development of powers of concentration, responsibility and initiative, imparting some standards of 'right' and 'wrong'. On the other hand, the good teacher must be interested in understanding people, experiences and events rather than passing judgement on them.

"A good teacher will be able to use the interest expressed by the children, their explicit or implicit needs and any opportunities and situations that arise as a starting point for the type of activity which is likely to satisfy and enrich the child. It should be noted that he must be satisfied and enriched, the two must never be separated at the level of pre-school education." 5

The teacher must know the child and the subject and something of the nature of the society of which the child, the subject, the child's parents and the teacher all form a part. One quality required of all teachers, then, is to understand

human beings in the situation in which they are living. They must be alive to everything significant that is going on around them. Similarly, there are many other qualities which are essential to the teacher at any level, the teacher must have a mastery of subject that goes beyond the level and amount to be imparted.

"In teaching, even more than in most other occupations, it is necessary to develop and maintain a sense of vocation. This is mainly because the materials of the teacher's craft are the minds and lives of men. It is also of special importance in teaching because the teacher works alone. Apart from his training period, he is never watched for long, either by his colleagues or his superiors."

A good 'nursery teacher' is flexible, independent of thought yet realistic and capable of sustained effort; liking and respecting young children; recognising those who are excessively shy and timid, those whose nutrition is poor, those who have serious defects, and those whose cultural background is limited or different; seeking professional assistance and making suitable provision accordingly. Therefore, the personality of the teacher with whom young children spend a significant part of their day, particularly nursery and infant school stage when they are so dependent on the adult for support and understanding, will be of crucial importance.

5.2.1 Teacher Attitudes

Children normally consider the teacher as a model. They are influenced in respect of imitating both actions and attitudes:

"The teacher's attitudes are important to the young child, not only because they influence the way she deals with him, but also because they become part of him. There are changes taking place today in some of our attitudes. We are becoming more aware of the effect of discrimination on people. The old inequalities of sex, of class, of race, and of economic condition are no longer accepted. It is important that we help children to look at the world around them as free from bias and prejudice as possible - When the values in the classroom are different from those in the home, the child can be expected to adjust easily. It is the obligation of the teacher to understand as much as possible about a child's cultural-social background and to accept him in this context. Children are very sensitive to the 'climate' of feeling around them."

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This throws a great responsibility upon nursery school teachers. The teacher must obviously be unfailingly just and fair in all dealings, must never break a promise nor betray a trust. Falling below this standard not only forfeits any influence for good that might otherwise obtain but, and more seriously, undermines the child's 'faith' in general, possibly even destroying the possibilities of a religious insight. Children are very quick to read facial expressions and to sense the presence of emotions that adults often think are hidden.

The teacher who is quietly confident, consistent in behaviour, calm and dispassionate, inevitably creates an atmosphere in the nursery that brings out the best in children. They become spontaneous, natural, fearless and friendly. The good teacher - like the good parent - will be a sustaining influence, but relatively passive. The child should experience a feeling of security, of being wanted, and this feeling is strengthened by a well-ordered day in which the child feels at home and knows what to expect.⁸

The relationship between the child and the teacher should be made pleasurable because the children at this age, are prone to identify themselves with the adults they love and to copy them both consciously and uncounsciously. Every gesture, word and facial expression, the movement of the hands, the mode of interaction with colleagues - each and all these things are noted by the child and make their mark.

5.2.2 The Role of the Teacher

It is indeed, important to realise that the teacher's role as a specialist is the most influential person in the nursery school. The term "role" refers to:

"that aspect of the teacher's behaviour that concerns the duties, responsibilities, and functions expected of the teacher by her clients and herself ... For example, the role of the teacher - her functions, duties, and responsibilities - might be to instruct, but her life style of instructing might be humorous, warm, authoritarian, or cold." 9

According to Katz, teachers of young children have followed three basic role models:

a) the maternal model, putting major emphasis on keeping children safe, comfortable, busy, and happy. This model represents the teacher as a kind of mother substitute who is expected to fulfil the mother's responsibilities, duties, and functions, while the child is away from home;

b) the therapeutic model which puts major emphasis on helping children express inner feelings, work out tensions, and resolve whatever inner conflicts may be impeding their early development. This model has had a strong and productive place in the development of pre-school education. The teacher focusses attention on the children's mental health;

c) the instructional model, putting emphasis on the deliberate transmission of information and knowledge and the conscious training of children to develop skills - that is, on direct instruction or structured programmes.¹⁰

Each of these three role models - maternal, therapeutic, and instructional, has its own particular strengths and weaknesses. The teacher's role as a specialist - the one who always knows best and most about children, their development and methods of upbringing, is thus changed:

"The specialist role gives way to that of co-actor. The teacher must actively 'tune-in' to the children's and the families' situations in order to create a context of shared responsibility for the social development of the child. The guidelines include the principle that the pre-school staff work as a team with a constant overlap on each other's role, and with a continual exchange of working functions." 11

At the classroom level, teachers are significant because the educational change and improvement depend on what teachers think and do:

"If the teacher plays a central role in educational change and school improvement, then it is important to consider the working conditions as a main determinant of the change process." 12

Furthermore, teacher stability is an "important factor in the creation of a secure environment and continuity of care for children in any type of nursery."¹³ The teacher must enable the child to "develop intellectually, aesthetically, physically, emotionally and socially."¹⁴ In order to achieve this end, the teacher must achieve a high level performance in many areas of activity:

"Not only must he possess professional expertise, competence and intuition, but he also needed a thorough knowledge of child psychology and a certain deftness of touch, informing him when and how to intervene in a child's actions and thoughts, particularly in regard to language." 15

It is easy to recognise the importance of the teacher at times when children are gathered for some specific activity, to tell them a story, to provide music to sing or move to, to serve the mid-day meal and preside at the lunch table. The play period, however, is often less easily recognised as a time when the role of the teacher is of the utmost importance and when all available skills are needed in guiding, enriching and providing for the all-round growth needs, and experiences of the children.¹⁶

In addition to the role of the class teacher, we can say that the most influential person in a school is the head teacher who in addition to class teaching, has management tasks to cope with. Such a person is responsible for planning daily activities so that the children can derive the greatest possible educational benefit from their work.

Besides the head teacher or teacher in charge, there are nursery assistants who always are nursery nurses possessing the Certificate of the National Nursery Examination Board.

"The teacher and her assistants meet regularly when the children are not at school to map out the days, weeks and months ahead, plans are flexible, but a good programme for children does not develop haphazardly. The teacher keeps a goal for the children firmly in mind. She thinks of goals in terms of individual children." 17

The fundamental necessity is an overall policy for teaching. This is the headteacher's most important responsibility. It

must be ensured that the school has a written policy for the daily programme, available to all members of staff and to other interested persons. The formulation of such a policy is something in which the whole staff should be involved.

5.2.3 Teacher as a Participator

We had identified a role when teachers participate and we believe:

"this role is important if they wish to understand what is happening in the play and to show children that teacher's value and enjoy playing. Many teachers find the role of participator the most difficult to undertake in children's play. Some maintain that children do not want them to join in their play." 18

However, the role of the teacher here is very important, she can play alongside the children making her own model or sandcastle but not actually joining in their play, and the teacher's interest and assistance is needed just as much when the children are playing outside as it is when they are indoors. At this time the teachers are available to help with the provision of materials, to give guidance and direction when necessary, and to give the children generally the companionship which is essential if they are to feel at ease in a group of other young children away from their mothers and usual home surroundings.

"The teacher supports the children in the development of their play by giving her confident authority, which is essential to the children's security, to their play activities. At times she may need to exert this authority to control the children's behaviour, at other times she may unobtrusively redirect their activities through her knowledge of their emotional

needs. This indirect guidance is an educative experience for the children which creates a feeling of confidence in the teacher's ability to understand and help them." 19

The teacher must be able to use the interest expressed by the children, their explicit or implicit needs and any opportunities and situations that arise as a starting point for the type of activity which is likely to satisfy and enrich the child.

"Every teacher knows how much more effectively children will learn if they can participate in their learning. To achieve these objects, the picture story approach has been devised. As its name implies, it is an approach through stories and every teacher knows too, how children love stories, so far of course there is nothing particularly novel in the method. Stories have been used in infant schools for many years. But these are stories especially chosen for the high and simple pictorial content - in other words, there are stories that can be used immediately and easily to evoke clear and simple pictures in the child's mind. This approach requires the teacher to do much more than merely tell the story, and the child to do much more than merely listen to them." 20

The teacher is the creator of a dynamic learning environment and though non-directive in her approach, participates in all activities, extending vocabulary, encouraging self-expression, presenting problems, situations, arising out of the child's chosen pursuits, and utilising spontaneous opportunities to foster various aspects of development.²¹

5.2.4 The Teacher as Facilitator

A facilitator of learning is one who is responsible for setting the mood or climate of the learning experience, and who is able to permit learners a sense of freedom to work as they wish, which means accepting that some will be dependent

and need direction while others will want much less guidance. The facilitator should now only make as wide a range of learning resources available as is possible in any given circumstances, but should also be actively involved with the children as they learn. Offering oneself as a resource in this way is a demanding and difficult role, for the teacher who:

"facilitates learning shows respect for a child's worth and competence. This kind of teacher provides a wide variety of experiences and materials to give children ample opportunity to interact with their environment and further encourages children to work together on projects they find interesting. Such teachers comment about ongoing activities, thus helping to raise to awareness and verbalisation that which children are learning." 22

The teacher must be able to use the interest expressed by the children, and any opportunities and situations that arise, as a starting point for the type of activity which is likely to satisfy and enrich. The situations of everyday life are themselves material for training the young child to reflect upon, developing the imagination and learning how to cope.

5.3 The Teacher and the Learning Process

It is clear the teacher plays a very important role in the young child's learning.

"The teacher plans learning experiences that permit the child to educate himself. As he makes discoveries through his senses: sight, touch, taste, smell and learning, he will communicate learning, also he will concentrate because he is doing something that interests him. He will investigate, manipulate and create, thereby contributing to his intelligence and storehouse of knowledge." 23

The teacher's skill lies in the ability to stimulate interest at each stage, giving new experiences with the same material, or similar experiences with different material. For example, many activities enjoyed with water can be paralleled with dry sand or alternatively, an activity with water in shallow opaque containers can be excitingly different in deep transparent vessels.²⁴ A poorer teacher, can push a young child into an activity for which it is unready merely because it appears that there is nothing happening. In fact there is a need to 'stand and stare', to make something one's own, into an inner 'fantasy world', in order to internalise it. This is a very necessary part of mental growth.²⁵ In this way, as many different activities may be going on in any one classroom at any one time, as there are children in that class, though some may involve children playing together in groups. This being so, there are times when it is appropriate for children to be united as a class to listen to a story or to sing.

In most countries the milieu of plants and animals is given a prominent place in pre-school education. This traditional emphasis on learning about plant and animal life is almost certainly derived from Froebel and the 'nature school' before him, but is appropriate because of the proximity of young children to such elements of the environment.

The degree to which music and the development of rhythm and melody is given an important place seems to vary according to the individual school or teacher but it forms a part of the content in all countries.

"Painting, modelling, drawing and the use of other materials to make various objects or to portray images are universally a central part of the day, and possibly take up more time than anything else. This is seen as a fundamental method of getting the child to express himself and to perceive his environment."²⁶

The role of the teacher is known to be very important in developing language facility in young children, especially in view of the disparity in parental support in terms of language level in the home. Nursery school teachers have always spent some time in helping children to develop their speech, both in the sense of enabling the children to enunciate clearly and express themselves in a grammatically correct fashion, and in respect of developing new vocabulary. However, this has not usually been systematised nor has the role of language in cognitive development been much recognised in the sense that it has been translated into practical schemes within the classroom.²⁷

The nursery teacher is, then, a facilitator, a highly skilled observer capable of determining when and under what circumstances a child is ready successfully to encounter formal learning experiences that will build on the ongoing informal intake. The teacher in effect, collaborates with the child in the construction of individual learning activities, towards achieving what Montessorians term 'functional independence'.²⁸

5.3.1 The Role of the Teacher in Creating a Relaxed Environment

Since the nursery school teacher's emotional relation with the child is not as direct and personal as that of the parents, and since the nursery school teacher is free from

most of the educational concerns of the primary school teacher, it is easier to create for the children a relaxed environment centred on them and in which their young personalities can blossom fully.²⁹

To this end, the teacher in nursery schools and classes are:

"expected to prepare planned environment for their children to incorporate the social, physical and emotional needs of the child, as well as the necessity for language development and the fulfilment of educational and intellectual needs. Such a statement implies that the aim of education is to bring about growth and the development of "valuable experiences" and the role of the teacher is to realise at what stage of the individual child's development she must manipulate the environment to extend his knowledge." 30

Without such environmental experience many children may live in a somewhat narrow world of personal contacts. According to Dewey:

"Things hardly come within his experience unless they touch intimately and obviously, his own well-being, or that of his family and friends. His world is a world of persons with their personal interests, rather than a realm of facts and laws. Not truth, in the sense of conformity to external fact, but affection and sympathy is its keynote. As against this, the course of study met in the school presents material stretching back indefinitely in time, and extending outward indefinitely into space. The child is taken out of his familiar physical environment, hardly more than a square mile or so in area, into the wide world." 31

The belief that a child can be left to learn from the environment rather than have learning imposed was strengthened by the writings of Piaget who defined intelligence as 'biological adaptation' and sees children constructing a

changing image of the world through the interaction of organism and environment. The ability to do certain things depends upon a preceding cognitive structure which in turn had depended upon its preceding action and experience. There is thus a constant interaction between organism and environment.³²

Having considered various aspects of the role of the nursery teacher as 'educator', let us now turn to the question of staffing in this sector.

5.4 The Staffing of the Nursery School: Number and Type of Staff

Nursery schools and classes in England are staffed by qualified teachers, temporary teachers, nursery assistants and nursery students. The number and type of staff members in a school depends on the size of the school and on its purposes. In a large school, there will be a variety of staff members - a head teacher, assistant teachers, students in training, and volunteers who may or may not be parents. Also there will be a cook and housekeeper, there may be people from other professions such as a doctor or nurse who visits the nursery regularly, and a social worker. Most of the staff members are women, but it is desirable to have male teachers also whenever possible. At present in England this is rare.

The head of a nursery school requires qualities and capacities different from and additional to those of an assistant member of staff. Here the advanced post-experience course has a big part to play, both as a preparation for the headship of a school and as a means of selection and guidance within the profession. A highly trained teacher is necessary for the overall responsibility of the children and the

organisation of the school in both practical and curricular terms.

The nursery assistants are usually young women over 18 who have taken a course of instruction in the care of young children and have obtained the Certificate of the National Nursery Examination Board. The majority of nursery assistants are nursery nurses possessing the Certificate of the N.N.E.B. This is awarded on successful completion of a two-year training course, entry to which is open to anyone beyond school leaving age, with the minimum entry requirements and appropriate personal qualities and aptitudes. Method of selection is at the discretion of the College offering the course, and is usually based on interview, school report, GCE or CSE examination results and/or one of the generally recognised tests of basic ability. Shorter courses are available for suitable older students aged 23 years or over. The training incorporates the care of children from birth to seven.³³ Assistants and other helpers may be used in a variety of ways and may work on a full or part-time basis. For example they may tidy up after play, or prepare the paints or repair equipment. They may supervise to make sure children are safe and may assist teachers by reading or telling stories, by singing or playing an instrument in a music period, and above all, by spending time with individual children who need extra attention.³⁴

Volunteers may also be very useful in enriching the programme of the school. They may come regularly, carrying out duties similar to those of an aide, or they may come for special purposes. Volunteers can contribute in needed services, too, helping with transportation on excursions, or

coming into the school to prepare snacks or to work with special children. Parents often welcome the opportunity to participate in such ways.

Students are also found as members of staff in nursery schools or nursery classes , normally girls from 15 to 18, and will usually be following a two-year course of training. Students working for the N.N.E.B. certificate spend two days a week or the equivalent attending a course of further education in professional subjects (health and education) and general subjects (biology, English, household arts, music, etc.) and the remainder of their time in practical work at the nursery.

5.4.1 Pupil:Teacher Ratio

In a good nursery school, there will be more than one adult with each group of children regardless of the size of the group. If there is only one teacher to 25 children, then there is a need to give very careful consideration to organisation, guidance and leadership of the children in the more formal group work so as to reduce tension to a minimum. Where there are more generous ratios of teachers to children, then the situation is obviously eased. The smaller group can be handed more informally. There could be one teacher to every eight or ten children. The ratio will normally be more generous if there are children with special needs or if there are very young children. Small groups are obviously better for social experience, and times when each teacher can sit down with a few children and take part in their conversation and assist their social relationships. This is not possible when one teacher supervises the whole group and all children

have to wait for directions. The following quotation, though from Australian experience, would nonetheless be typical in England:

"After the period of freely-chosen play activities, if it has been long enough to enable the children to have a variety of satisfying experiences, they are usually ready to take part in small groups in teacher-directed activities, in music and literature, for example, though not all the children will be sufficiently mature for this, and not all the children will be ready to take part in these groups every day." 35

The issue of staffing ratios at this level varies greatly as between countries, but in England classes tend to be 'small', that is to say 10 - 15 children or fewer, staffed by more than one adult. This is because children need individual attention and this is accepted in England as a matter of pedagogy, tradition and policy. Children's language develops better in the company of more than one adult, and the 'official' teacher needs to be free to respond to each child whenever needed in order to capture the 'teachable moment'. However, there are plausible arguments on both sides, for example the following points from Robinson:³⁶

a) Does an increase in the number of adults lead to a proportional increase in the actual amount of adult contact given to each child? The answer is not so simple as may be supposed. There are several possibilities: first, the adults can arrange the classroom activities and their own duties so that there will indeed be an increase in the amount of adult attention available. In a structured, teacher-led classroom, this may be accomplished by breaking the class into smaller groups, each with an adult teacher. The smaller groups should

make it easier to match the interests and developmental levels of the child. Second, the proportion of time in which a child may find an adult available for one-to-one interaction may be a great deal higher in a two-adult situation. The questioning child may have to wait a long time to obtain answers from a single teacher.

b) What are the effects of various teacher-child ratios on the development of children? Do they learn faster when more adults are present? Are there more or fewer conflicts between children? What is the effect on their work habits, their performance of classroom duties, their self-help and independence? An especially sensitive index should be the children's verbal development, since it is this area which is universally judged to be of prime importance as a goal of pre-school education.

c) What are the possibilities for career training introduced by various personnel arrangements? The secondary position in a classroom can be utilised for various forms of training. Personnel without formal training can be given practical help in this way, and mothers can in some circumstances also receive training. In most countries, the student teacher is required to serve an apprenticeship before she undertakes a classroom of her own.

5.5 Teachers and their Training

The value and quality of nursery work will depend in large part upon the understanding and insight of those who care for the children and the appropriate training of the nursery staff becomes in consequence of prime importance.

The first systematic attempts to train teachers were made at the beginning of the nineteenth century. One of the earliest teacher-training institutions was the Home and Colonial Infant School Society founded in 1838 by Rev. Charles Mayo and his sister, Elizabeth Mayo, to establish infant schools and to train teachers for them. Its aims were to provide a place where children could be cared for while their mothers were working and to teach the elements of reading, writing and arithmetic.³⁷ Two training colleges were started by the National Society in the early 1840s, and the training movement gathered momentum. In the early stages, the length of training varied from three years to three months, the average being two years. The first college provided by a Local Education Authority was opened in 1904.

The Norland Nursery Training College, opened in 1892, was one of the early independent residential colleges founded to train girls to take complete charge of young babies and toddlers. They received a certificate after successfully passing examinations, which entitled them to wear the uniform of the establishment.

In 1906 the National Association of Day Nurseries offered training for nursery nurses in the voluntary day nurseries which were then opening in some areas. In the years between the two wars, residential children's homes offered training and awarded their own post-examination certificates. The large numbers of day and residential nurseries which were opened during the war needed many nursery nurses to staff them and there were always shortages.³⁸

After the Second World War an emergency teacher training

scheme was put into operation, training large numbers of men and women who had much to offer the profession in terms of experience which, in many cases, replaced school leaving qualifications. By the time the first emergency was passing, it was realised that the numbers required to staff the schools were steadily rising: expansion had begun in the colleges and has gone steadily until this year. In the 1950s the emergency colleges were considered to have completed the job for which they were created and they were either closed or absorbed into the main stream of training, fitting the needs of the area in which they were situated.

The University Institutes of Education, where training colleges were grouped after the McNair Report, came into existence from 1946 as a direct result of that report.³⁹ Since 1974, however, University Institutes have ceased to be the focus of initial teacher training, with local area committees operating instead and some colleges validated by the CNAA instead of by universities.

5.5.1 Different Types of Training

Teacher training must be based on a sufficiently high level of general knowledge and must also be based on a variety of skills of a suitable standard because all children under five have basically the same needs. However, the training of people to work with them varies enormously. The differences between one sort of training and another are governed largely by the type of setting in which the teachers are working or preparing to work. A major difference in training arises from the separation of 'care' and 'education'. This reflects the division of responsibility between Government Departments,

DHSS and DES, and is expressed particularly in the very different trainings of nursery nurses and nursery school teachers. It gives rise to an apparently arbitrary division of young children into 'social cases' (needing care) and 'normal children' (receiving education).

"The training of nursery nurses (care) and nursery school teachers (education) is geared to these two different approaches. Yet, from the point of view of the child and the family, the division between 'care' and 'education' does not exist, they are not and should not be separated. If this is accepted it has considerable implications for the underlying viewpoint in any training programme ... some courses of training for work with under-fives prepare students to work wholly within that age group and covers the whole age range 0 - 5, while others, like teachers, are trained only to work with 3 - 5 year olds and upwards, but does not cover children under three at all." 40

Sometimes the difference between one course and another is a reflection of their initial standpoint. Those broadly concerned with education tend to focus on the developmental needs of the small child, primarily from 3 - 5, others emphasise the needs of the child within his family. Training may be full-time or part-time, length varying from a single workshop to a week or thirty days or one year or three years of study and practice ... similarly, the content of courses varies a great deal, so does the proportion of time given to practical as compared with academic work.⁴¹ In general the training of nursery teachers in England is the same as that of other teachers, and the qualifications which admit a student to college are nowadays on the same minimum requirements.

Local authority nursery schools and those independent schools which the Department of Education recognises under

the official term 'efficient' have qualified teachers. Their assistants hold the aforementioned NNEB certificates.⁴²

Nursery staff are, at present, recruited from two sources.

Fully qualified nursery teachers come, just like other teachers, either with a university degree and a one-year post-graduate Certificate of Education course behind them, or with a four year BEd degree from university, college or polytechnics, though few specialise in this age group. Courses for nursery-infant teacher training follow a fairly standard form.

It would be valuable to know to what extent the various courses offer a common philosophy, to what degree they prepare their students for the change of role required of a nursery teacher of, say, a 'community school' and how much they instil a traditional formula of nursery practice.⁴³

5.5.2 Nursery Nurse Training

The student nursery nurses leave high school at 16 to become college students entering a two-year training programme, generally under the auspices of public sector colleges or, in fewer instances, in private colleges, which follow the NNEB syllabus designed to balance technical and liberal arts components. The two-year programme involves the students in studying five days a week from 9 a.m. to 3 p.m. from mid-September to the end of June. They spend at least 70 days in placements and 105 days in college work. During their training, the nursery nurses are supervised by qualified teachers, nurses who are health visitors, and qualified social workers. The student nursery nurses work in a variety of settings similar to those in which they will later be employed. These include infant

schools, day nurseries for children from birth to 5 years, nursery schools for threes and fours, social work agencies and pediatric wards. They are much in demand at setting for children with special needs, and there is a growing demand for their services as nannies, who work with not for families, as more mothers return to paid employment. A favourite placement is on maternity wards and baby clinics.

"A clear career ladder is available for those wishing to advance. Nursing nurses with three years full-time experience with children are qualified to train to work with children with special needs. They take an advanced certificate involving full-time study for one academic year, on nursery nurses can become qualified teachers with further study." 44

The NNEB consists of 20 nominees of organisations with a majority interest in either training or services to young children. It is a self-financing educational trust, drawing income from examination fees. It is responsible for the syllabus of courses leading up to the NNEB examination. Training is the joint responsibility of the training institution and the establishment in which the student is employed. NNEB regulations have been changed to include the care of children from birth to seven years instead of from birth to five years. In consequence, infant schools have been added to establishments which may be used as centres for practical training. Under these arrangements, each student's practical training is related to the age group of the establishment or establishments to which he or she is attached. Practical training may take place in either one or two institutions so that students can gain experience with children, either in a day or residential nursery, or in a nursery school and in either nursery class or

infant schools.⁴⁵ This picture given in the Plowden Report is broadly in the same twenty years on in the 1980s, though the numbers in training have been drastically reduced.

At College the student's time is divided between vocational work and liberal/general studies to which reference is made in the NNEB syllabus under the heading 'English and the Creative Arts', 'Man and his Environment', and 'Home and Society'. As these student nursery nurses learn about facilitating learning for children, their own personal-professional growth is being fostered. They are given opportunities to identify and develop their own strengths in the creative arts, so that they are helped to recognise the value of art and dramatic play for children through having experienced its power themselves.

"The vocational syllabus, based upon the importance of the observation of children, includes the study of the growth, needs, health, care and education of the child up to seven years of age ... Much importance is attached to the student's detailed records of their special observations of young children, these being discussed with members of staff both in the nursery or school, and in the college. There are lectures and discussions, tutorials, films and some practical work, with visits to nurseries, schools, hospitals, clinics and health centres.

Liberal studies include English, Social Studies, Home Economics, Environmental Studies, Art, Crafts, Music, Movement, Drama, Speech Training." 46

Further details of the NNEB course comprise Appendix

5.5.3 Student Nurses

Where the teacher of a nursery class has to care for more than thirty children, three or four year olds, she needs a helper who - under her direction - can share the supervision.

To supply this need for its nursery classes, the Manchester Education Committee in 1926 drew up a scheme whereby girls could become student nurses. However, over the years this particular route into nursery school work has not survived.

5.5.4 Essential Elements for a Programme to prepare Teachers of Young Children

The foundations of such a programme need to extend beyond the content of early childhood education.

All that can be suggested here are certain principles within which methods and syllabuses might be framed to ensure two basic objectives: securing the maximum personal development of the student during training, and that of equipping the student with knowledge and professional skills which will enable a real contribution to the healthy all-round development of nursery pupils.

The student is adolescent and is therefore facing developmental problems of some magnitude anyway. The whole experience in the training college, contacts with fellow students and with members of the staff, will be formative. Consequently, methods by which training is conducted will most likely profoundly affect the educational ideas of the trainee. This is not always realised, especially by the subject specialists, who also tend to underestimate the influence of the psychological atmosphere of the training establishment.⁴⁷

"The comparative study of methods of education can also assist in giving the student psychological understanding of her future task. Also, it was agreed generally that certain skills common to all types of work with under-fives and their families, should be developed in all trainings and self-perception was

seen as an important element in all courses as a means of helping staff to understand what their own relation to children have and how relationships are affected by self-images. Self-assessment and development for staff, communication skills for work with parents and other agencies in the community, community work skills to build support for families and promote support networks ... It was considered important that training should concern itself with the child seen as a whole and that approaches which saw care of the young child and his education as two separate needs and should be avoided." 48

5.5.5 In-Service Training Courses

Many educationists, both trainers and teachers, stress the importance of in-service training as a vital supplement to initial training in the light of on-going experience in the classroom because it must be recognised that training is not completed for any student teacher by the end of the training course.

"The experience of the young teacher during the first two or three years of work is of particular importance and really forms part of training. Often, during the third or fourth year of teaching, the teacher begins to tire of doing the same things. She starts to ask more questions about new developments in the field: 'Who is doing what? Where? What are some of the new materials, techniques, approaches and ideas?'" 49

It is valuable for teachers to be able to continue their training, to some extent, throughout their career. No college can prepare its students to face up to all the problems which they will meet in their career. Methods of overcoming difficulties will be worked out in the course of actual teaching, but there can be few teachers who would not benefit from opportunities of discussing these questions with persons of similar or greater experience. The possibility of further

training of this kind exists in the form of short courses during the term, or longer periods in vacations, also evening class seminars or discussion groups.

In England, such in-service training now comes within the Grant-Related In-Service Training scheme (GRIST), whereby it is up to employers of nursery teachers and training institutions to negotiate particular programmes suitable to the needs of the sector. This may help to improve on the situation uncovered by the BBC in the 1970s which showed some considerable apathy in respect of in-service training on the part of nursery teachers.

For example, the BBC had planned a series of Radio and Television programmes entitled "Early Years at School" they were to run throughout the Autumn of 1973 and of the Spring of 1974. It was part of the stated aims of "Early Years of School" that the series intended to try to bridge the gulf which so often exists between the theoretical work of academic experts and the day to day work of the teachers in the classroom.

In 1976 the BBC also launched a new In-Service Education Project for nursery teachers. This was called "State of Play". Again, groups of teachers met at Teachers Centres to view video-taped recordings and to engage in follow-up discussion. This was aimed primarily at the teacher of the nursery-aged child. The main focus was on the nurturing of children's verbal and intellectual development. There was also an investigation of the nature of the nursery school curriculum in so far as elements of this helped such areas of development.⁵⁰ Staff were also asked (by questionnaire) how they felt about

in-service training, its relationship to initial training and the form in-service training should take.

Generally, there was little enthusiasm among nursery nurses for in-service work. Only one felt strongly about its importance. Without exception, the nursery nurses interviewed felt that courses should take place in school time if possible:

"I've never really been on any in-service courses. I'm not really interested in any sorts of courses, but I would like to be able to have the occasional day off to visit other nurseries to see how they work."

"Initial training should cover the basics of the course but refresher courses would be helpful if they were in school time. I can manage an occasional evening."

"I've done several evening courses. They were useful but they are tiring. I haven't done any recently. I've had enough for the moment."

Although several nursery nurses complained that there were no in-service courses available to them, the questionnaire indicated that a few had attended numerous courses in the previous two years. Only one of the nursery nurses interviewed showed a real enthusiasm for in-service training. This was in sharp contrast to the attitudes expressed by other teachers in schools:

"I find in-service courses enormously helpful - it's all things to talk about afterwards."

"This is the only way we hear about new research and ideas. I think we should have more in-service days - possibly one a term."

"If we have in-service days they must be appropriate to the nursery level. We should have more on related services and how they can help us."

Both professions indicated that the courses needed to be

relevant. For the few nursery nurses who advocated in-service training, relevance seemed to be related more to 'creative activities' e.g. music, art, craft and displays. For the teachers relevance seemed to be related to nursery age method and nursery issues rather than broader topics in which the nursery issues were not considered.⁵¹

In general, most of the pre-school teachers in Britain have access to a reasonable degree of support from educational institutions and a fair opportunity for in-service training education.

5.6 Hull College of Further Education: Case Study

The writer will conclude this chapter with reference to an actual institutional case located in the city in which she resides while researching.

In Hull, at the Hull College of Further Education, the minimum entry qualification for nursery nurse training is 2 'O' levels. The theory part of the course is the same as anywhere else, but the practical part is very different in respect of local needs and expectations. For example, the local teacher expects nursery nurses to provide more than child care, they are expected to contribute the education of the child. At present, the majority of students have on average 5 'O' levels and a number have 'A' levels. In fact the course is now attracting many who would, in the past, have become teachers. Nursery Nurses all seem to find jobs as they qualify, - whereas teachers find it more difficult. This higher quality student means that the academic work now has greater depth.

According to the information provided by the College the opportunities for employment on the basis of this training are numerous and widely spread, for example:

- a) teachers aides in infant school or department;
- b) work in school (following the Warnock Report and subsequent Education Act), with responsibility for a 5 year old child with special needs;

Such responsibility may continue until a child is 16. There has been a shift recently from a caring, mothering role to recognition that the child's prior need is for help with the academic side of school life (e.g. the visually-handicapped child in the secondary school, especially needing a one-to-one helper). In Humberside, all have to be NNEB;

- c) teachers aides to special schools. These have to be either Nursery Nurses (that is NNEB) or State Registered Nurses who, of course, are trained to cope with the medical needs of the children but cannot cope with the educational needs because they are trained to do so. Here the Nursery Nurses will work with groups not just individuals;
- d) LEA Nursery Schools or Units;
- e) Hospitals to work in children's wards as play therapists;
- f) Maternity Hospitals in special care units. In charge, there will be a Nursing Sister but the people looking after the babies will be NNEBs;
- g) house-parents in residential children's homes;
- i) house-parents in hospital residential homes for handicapped children;
- j) social services day nurseries.

At the time of writing 32 students are accepted each year in Hull and the average drop out is 2 or 3, but in some years none at all. The pattern throughout the course is of alternate weeks in college and placements whereby each student spends some time with every age range. They also spend two terms in an infant school, two or three terms in a nursery school or unit, one term in a special school and one term split between a Maternity Hospital/Children's Ward/ and a Day Nursery.

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Having reviewed the historical and contemporary situation of pre-school education, and teaching, in England, and before moving on to the empirical research in both countries, it is necessary to provide some contextual information about the Egyptian educational system within which the pre-school sector resides. This is undertaken in the following chapter.

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CHAPTER SIXTHE EGYPTIAN EDUCATION SYSTEM WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE
TO THE PRE-SCHOOL DIMENSION

Before examining the results of the writer's survey-questionnaire in the following chapter it is important in respect of Egypt, as has already been done for England, to place the pre-school sector within the perspective and context of the country itself and especially the formal education system.

It is necessary first to provide some background on Egypt in general - the land and people - before turning to the education system in brief.

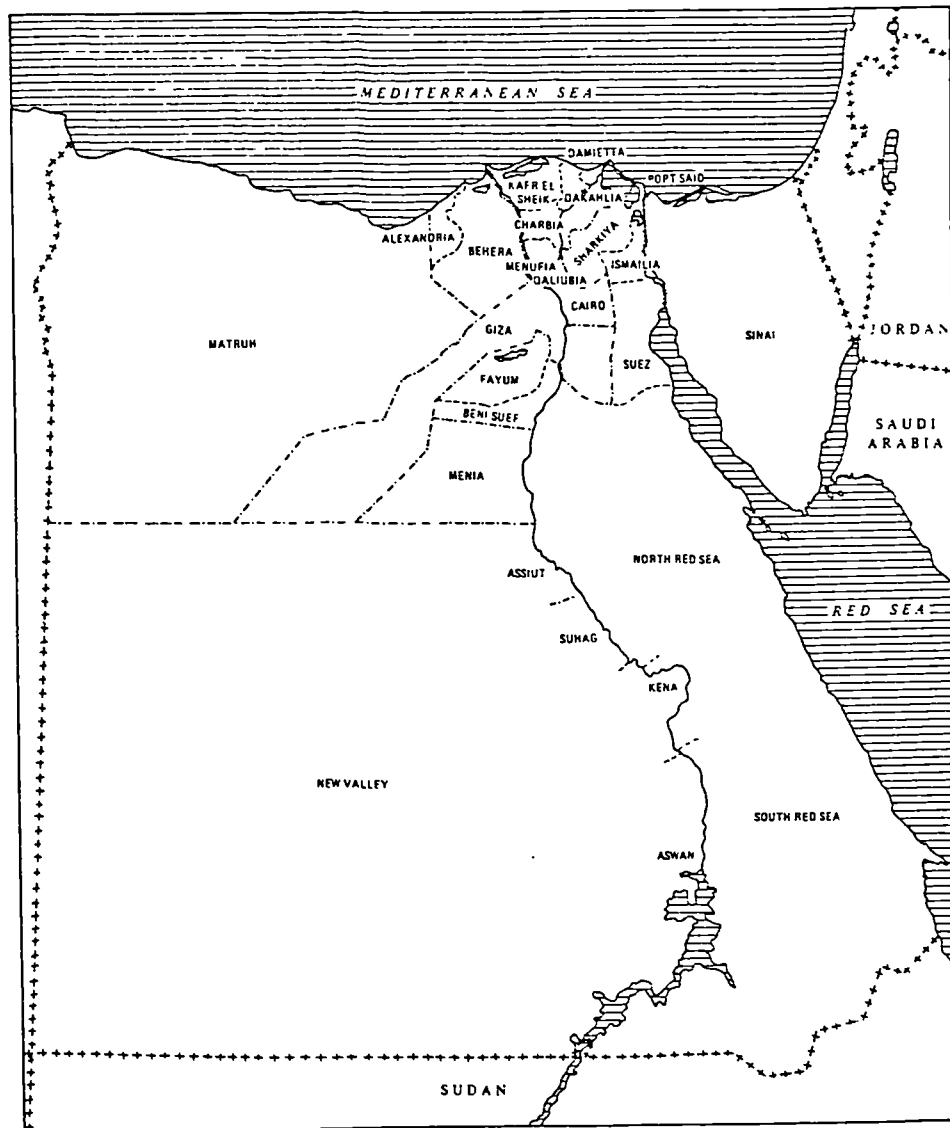
6.1 The Egyptian Geographical Context

It is necessary to give, however, briefly, the general background because the fact that, as the population is concentrated in its location within a very small proportion of the land area of a large country, this affects the density of the population and within which provision is being recommended here.

Egypt is situated in the north-eastern corner of the African continent, with a small section actually in Asia!. The western boundaries are looking over Libya; the southern boundaries look over Sudan, while in the east/north-east there is Israel. The total area of Egypt is 1,001,400 sq.km., only one thirtieth of which is at present inhabited and/or cultivated. Most of the population is concentrated in the

FIGURE 2

ARAB REPUBLIC OF EGYPT - ECONOMIC REGIONS
AND GOVERNORATES



Source: Central Agency for Public Mobilisation and Statistics.

strip of fertile land on both sides of the River Nile and its delta approaching the Mediterranean Sea. It could be said that it is true that the River Nile gave Egypt fertility and water, but it is the Egyptians who exploited the natural resources for the economic and social development of the country. So modern historians emphasise the idea that Egypt is the gift of the Egyptians, rather than the gift of the River Nile as suggested by Herodotus. In fact, such early developments, achievements, and exploitation of the natural resources to the level of a great civilisation could not have been entirely deterministic, but depended on sophisticated social organisation and planning.

In recent times, the population in Egypt has increased from 26.1 million in 1960 to 35 million in 1966, and from 38.2 million in 1976 to 50 million in 1987, nearly all of whom are concentrated in about 3.5 per cent of the total area; the regions inhabited being the Nile valley and Delta and some coastal cities.

During the last two decades, Egypt has been able to transform its economic structure from a primarily agricultural economy to a more diversified mixed structure with the industrial sector giving an increasing contribution to the gross domestic product. The economically active population by sector includes agriculture (at about 48 per cent and declining in proportion); manufacturing and mining, about 13 per cent; and construction, 5 per cent.¹

6.2 A Brief History of Education in Egypt

Ancient Egyptian history, back to about 7,000 years ago, shows even then that Egyptian civilisation revolved around the River Nile. Survival required educated Egyptians, and acquired knowledge passed from one generation to the next and also through other social linkages according to an informal instruction of the young. Given the depth, both chronologically and technically, of the early Egyptian civilisation, there is an enormous legacy of tradition that is bound to affect thinking about education in the present day.

In fact, Egypt's modern education came to the fore during the rule of Mohammad Ali (1805 - 1848), who set up the first modern medical, veterinary, engineering and accounting schools. However, during the British rule of Egypt (1882 - 1922), state-controlled education was structured to serve British interests while Egyptians and non-English foreigners worked to expand private and religious education. Following Britain's declaration in 1922 of Egypt's independence, a great advance took place in public education at all levels. In 1952 and on the basis of Egypt's own leadership, education expanded, and even more so during the presidency of Gamal Abdel Nasser.² The major educational reforms of 1952 and 1953, included a free six-year primary education programme which was made compulsory. The Ministry of Education began exerting greater control over public schools and in 1958, law 158 brought private foreign schools under the authority of the Ministry of Education.³

In reality there are two parallel systems of education in Egypt; a modern secular system and the Al-Azhar Islamic

system. The former begins for some at the pre-primary level with private, fee-based schools. Free education now includes not only the six years of primary education but also three years of preparatory and three years of secondary, and four years or more of University education though the system is not compulsory after the age of 12. The private schools exist at all levels, numbering well over 100 and in 1975 enrolling 5 per cent of primary school children, and 18 per cent of students at the preparatory and secondary levels. An important change adopted in 1981-82 in the pre-University sectors was the extension of the basic education period from six compulsory years to nine. So the basic education of 9 years should for some, be followed by 3 years secondary education before the university sector begins.

The decentralization of educational authority in Egypt has become an important aspect of the administrative control of provision during the last two decades. Whereas each of Egypt's twenty-six governorates comprises an educational zone:

- a) the local education council supervises general secondary, vocational, technical, and teacher-training schools;
- b) town education councils are responsible for supervising local preparatory and primary schools;
- c) village education councils supervise primary schools at the village level;
- d) the Ministry of Education (or the Ministry of Higher Education) assumes responsibilities for Egypt's colleges and 12 universities.

6.2.1 The Development of Primary Education

The beginnings of present-day primary education could be traced back as far as the year 1836, when Mohammad Ali conceived the idea of putting Egypt on the same footing as the Western countries, whereas:

"The main type of education that existed until that time was that of Al-Azhar University and the Kuttabs ... Mohammad Ali wanted to introduce a form of education which would ensure to Egypt a place amongst world powers. He concentrated on creating a strong army, for which he needed officers, engineers, doctors, and other experts. He therefore established colleges to train these specialists, sent outstanding people on educational missions abroad, and brought specialists to Egypt from other countries to help him carry out his ideas. He thus developed higher education, a numerous army, industry, and a strong administration. Later he found it necessary to establish secondary education to provide students for the colleges, and later still, primary education to 'feed' the secondary schools." ⁴

Educationalists portray Mohammad Ali's educational policy as developing higher education first, then the pre-higher education stages, thus reversing the normal pyramid.

In 1843, Al-Tahtawee,⁵ began to implement the idea of popular education of the Western type, but Abbas (1849 - 54) and Said (1854 - 63), both of whom were rulers of Egypt during the periods specified, opposed the educational policy followed by Mohammad Ali. Accordingly, they closed educational institutions with the exception of Kuttabs. However, Al-Azhar as an autonomous institution continued to play a most important role in educating Egyptian society.

In November, 1867, Rajab regulations were issued by Ali Mubark for the purpose of education reform, and aimed to

improve education in Kuttabs by placing them under the Ministry's inspection, by prescribing higher standards of work and by requiring minimum qualifications of teachers.⁶ The objective of these regulations was identified by Saynal et al (1982) as follows:

- a) increasing the number of modern primary schools; which had been reopened in part after Said's rule ended;
- b) improving the existing Kuttabs by putting them under educational and medical supervision, by prescribing the necessary criteria for educational performance and equipment, as well as the minimum qualifications required for teachers;
- c) combining the two sets of schools into a unified system;
- d) securing the participation of the wealthy to finance the programme of national education.⁷

In fact these Kuttabs, where the majority of the children were receiving their education, were deteriorating. Ali Mubark felt that the main reason was because the pupils were under the supervision of unqualified teachers. Consequently there were no prescribed curricula to be followed or methods of instruction to be used in teaching those children.⁸ So the improvement of Kuttabs was dependent on the establishment of special classes in which intending teachers would receive training in the methods of instructing children, in addition to the particular subjects they were going to teach.

In 1880, the Council of Ministers charged a special commission to make a comprehensive study of education in order to proceed towards an overall reform.⁹ Two years later the British occupation took place and a new educational policy made its appearance, creating duality in Egyptian education, whereas

the philosophy of education aimed at two objectives:

a) to give modern education to a small number of privileged children in primary and secondary schools run on European models with the object of training officials for governmental administrative posts and a number of practitioners in the various professions;

b) to keep a number of elementary schools (upgraded Kuttabs) to give instruction in the "three R's" to some of the children of the masses. However, within the routine of this policy, the total educational enrolment in 1882 was 162,237 and by 1920 had reached 298,027. The educational budget in 1920/21 accounted for 2.5 per cent of the total budget.¹⁰

Parallel to the governmental educational trend there appeared, under the persistent pressure of the people, a national educational trend, within which were established a large number of free (private) schools but enabling the pupils to obtain the same government certificates. Furthermore, the Provincial Councils, established in 1909, were granted the authority to collect local taxes, some of which might be spent on education. These councils, despite limited resources, were able to establish more elementary and primary schools between 1909 and 1920 than were established by the Ministry of Education during the same period.¹¹

In 1923, Egypt became nominally independent and achieved her first written Egyptian constitution. According to Article 19 of the constitution, education was made compulsory for every child from ages 6 to 12. Education was seen as the road to democracy and socio-economic reforms, but in fact this was not implemented until 1956, that is to say, after the revolution.

The growth of the budget for state education in Egypt from 1885 to 1952 is shown in Table 15.

To conclude this brief resume of the development of primary education, it could be said that:

a) Primary education before the adoption of basic education policy in 1981 comprised of grades one through six and is provided for children aged six through twelve. Although compulsory by law, Ministry of Education figures indicate that only 83 per cent of the relevant age group is actually enrolled. The target date for 100 per cent primary enrolment was 1986.

b) Since 1965, efforts have been made to unify primary education in private, public, and religious schools. The primary programme is designed to develop basic literacy skills, and subjects taught at this level include: religion, Arabic, arithmetic and geometry, science and hygiene, social studies, technical education, physical education and music. A final examination, developed at the governorate level, is administered to students completing the sixth grade, and those who pass receive the Primary School Certificate.¹²

c) The Egyptian government decided to extend the compulsory education period to nine years to cover both the primary and preparatory cycles under the new 'Basic Education System' by Law 139 of 1981.

6.2.2 The Preparatory Stage

This is a three-year course of study following the primary stage. It has a unified syllabus for all pupils with segregated schools for boys and girls. The curricula at this stage combine cultural and technical subjects so as to detect and develop the pupils' abilities. A final general examination

TABLE 14EGYPTIAN ELEMENTARY AND PRIMARY SCHOOLS: 1920

ELEMENTARY			
	A	B	C
Number of Schools	139	617	2,940
Number of Pupils	10,303	56,793	213,949
BOYS PRIMARY SCHOOLS			
Number of Schools	34	53	61
Number of Pupils	10,749	6,434	77,770
GIRLS PRIMARY SCHOOLS			
Number of Schools	5	12	25
Number of Pupils	843	1,317	2,868
where:	A	Schools run by the Ministry of Education	
	B	Schools run by the Provincial Councils	
	C	Private Schools under inspection of the Ministry	

Source: Sanyal et al, University Education and the Labour Market in the Arab Republic of Egypt, (Oxford: Pergamon Press, 1982), p. 81.

TABLE 15

SHOWING THE DEVELOPMENT OF BUDGET FOR STATE
EDUCATION, AND ITS PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL BUDGET

YEAR	BUDGET IN STATE EDUCATION IN EGYPTIAN POUNDS	PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL BUDGET
1885	81,131	0.58
1905-1906	119,981	0.93
1925-1926	2,336,447	6.83
1945-1946	11,635,657	12.21
1946-1947	12,416,018	12.11
1947-1948	12,576,619	13.30
1948-1949	18,656,817	10.17
1949-1950	22,145,727	11.81
1950-1951	26,738,440	12.98
1951-1952	over 30 million	over 13

Source: The Year Book of Education 1952, p. 447.

the educational directorates level is held.

6.2.3 General Secondary Education

The schools of this stage are segregated as between the sexes. Only those pupils who have received the General Preparatory Education Certificates are admitted to it. This stage splits two ways after the first year of study: those who will receive training in the liberal arts and humanities (the literary section); those who will receive training in chemistry, physics, biology, and mathematics (scientific section). The period of study is 3 years, concluding with a general nationwide examination, the General Secondary Education Certificate.

6.2.4 Technical Secondary Education

The technical secondary education stage is divided into three different branches; commercial, industrial and agricultural, and the period of study 3 years. There are some technical secondary schools, especially for girls. In addition to the three-year technical secondary schools whose job is to train skilled workers, there are also five year technical secondary schools. These are still experimental and their aim is to provide the country with technicians with higher professional expertise.

6.2.5 Teacher Training

a) Primary School Teachers

These are trained in the teacher training colleges for 5 years after obtaining the General Preparatory Education Certificate. The course in these colleges is divided into two stages: the first 3 years study in subjects such as: Arabic, social subjects (history and geography), mathematics,

science, religious education, national education, foreign language, drawing, practical work, environmental work (for boys) and home-economics (for girls), physical education, music. The 4th and 5th years of study are divided into the following branches:

- i) religious education, Arabic and social studies;
- ii) mathematics, science, agricultural work (for boys) or home economics (for girls);
- iii) physical education;
- iv) art education;
- v) music education;
- vi) pre-school.

b) Preparatory and Secondary Schools Teachers

The 20 or so Faculties of Education in the universities provide teacher-training in different subjects. The study duration is either 4 years after obtaining the General Secondary Education Certificate or one year after obtaining BA or BSc degrees.

The developing teaching profession in Egypt according to the number and distribution of its members is illustrated in Table 16.

6.2.6 Higher Education

The history of higher education in Egypt goes back to the age of Mohammad Ali who realised that the basis for modernisation of the country depended on its acquiring a modern system of higher education. At first, he relied on foreign teachers to run his schools in Egypt then later sent educational missions abroad:

TABLE 16
GROWTH OF NUMBERS AND DISTRIBUTION OF TEACHERS
ACCORDING TO SEX AND LEVEL

Level of Education	School Year	Qualified			Unqualified			Total			Percentage Qualified		
		Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total
Primary	1966/67	39,140	31,555	70,695	9,396	6,004	15,400	48,542	37,559	86,101	80.6	84.0	82.1
	1976/77	-	-	-	-	-	-	67,246	59,151	126,397	-	-	-
Preparatory	1966/67	12,833	3,826	16,709	5,950	1,344	7,294	18,833	5,170	24,003	68.4	74.0	69.6
	1976/77	12,269	8,138	20,407	10,048	4,459	14,507	22,317	12,597	34,914	55.0	65.6	56.4
Secondary	1966/67	7,087	2,320	9,407	1,988	539	2,527	9,075	2,859	11,934	78.1	81.1	78.8
	1976/77	8,333	3,419	11,752	4,527	2,544	6,071	12,860	4,963	17,823	64.8	68.9	65.9

Source: Sanyal, B. C. op.cit, p.217.

a) the first mission, to Italy in 1813, included the fields of military sciences, shipbuilding, printing and engineering.

b) the second mission, to France 1818, was for army and naval training.

c) the third mission in 1826, again to France, was in the areas of military, medicine, surgery, horticulture, natural history, metallurgy, chemistry, hydraulics, metal casting and armoury, printing, languages and naval architecture.

d) the fourth mission, in 1830, comprised 34 students to France, 4 to Austria and 20 to England to specialise in subjects such as: printing, watchmaking, the manufacture of surgical instruments, silk weaving and printing, and china and porcelain manufacture. An extension, in November 1832, also to France, comprised 12 graduates in medicine and pharmacy from the medical school of Abu Zaabal.

e) the fifth mission, to France in 1844, again comprised to read military subjects, and in January 1845, two graduates of the Medical School in Cairo were sent to Austria to specialise in ophthalmology. At about the same time, five students from Al-Azhar were sent to France to study the French legal system with a view to enable them to reorganise the legal profession in Egypt.

f) the sixth mission, to England in 1847, its twenty-five members were among the best of the graduates of the Engineering School in Bulak and were sent in three consecutive groups, having sat a series of public examinations and interviews. They studied railways, telegraph systems, power stations, mining and sugar-cane milling.

g) the seventh mission, to England in 1848, was the last sent by Mohammad Ali, and brought the total during his rule of 339 students sent to Europe at considerable expense, in fact corresponding to approximately £E 7,000 for each student.¹⁴

Between 970 AD and 1908 there was only one university in Egypt, namely Al-Azhar. At the beginning of this century, there was a growing demand for a national university with a more practical bias, so funds were raised and the small Egyptian University was officially inaugurated in 1908. In 1925 it became a government university.¹⁵

The establishment of Cairo University (Giza Governorate) was followed by the openings of new universities:

a) a branch of Cairo University was established in Alexandria in 1938 and in 1942, became independent;

b) in 1950, Ain Shams University opened under the name Ibrahim Pasha Al-Kaber University, and was renamed in 1954;

c) in 1957, Assiut University was established.¹⁶

Subsequently, higher education in Egypt has increased very rapidly and new regional universities have been established to meet the demands of an open admission policy and the requirements in the various regions of Egypt. In 1972, Tanta University was established and it now also has a branch in Kafr-El-Sheikh City. This was followed by Mansoura University in 1973, Zagazig University in 1974, Minia University in 1976, Menoufiah University in 1976, Suez Canal University in 1976, and Helwan University (in Cairo and Alexandria) also in 1976.¹⁷

6.3 The Historical Development of Pre-School Education in Egypt

6.3.1 Ancient Egypt

The ancient Egyptians realised the importance of play in the early life for the children. Parents were very keen to introduce different toys for their children. As Raymont mentioned:

"The children of ancient Egypt played with toys. Examples of which may be seen in our museums. Toys which would have brought joy to the children of any era - well made wooden animals and dolls for the children of the well to do and mud ones for the children of the poor. Few of the boys and hardly any of the girls, learned to read and write. Those who did so had the terrible task of learning a multitude of hieroglyphs.- little pictures which had to be drawn as paprys 18 and memorised."

6.3.2 Child Upbringings during the Formative Islamic Period

a). Historical Background

In contrast to ancient Egypt, the Islamic civilisation has maintained continuity with the present, but like the ancient civilisation, it is a strong source of inspiration. It still provides working rules in many aspects of Egyptian life. Therefore, as we turn to a consideration of the Islamic heritage, we do not regard it simply as a cultural complex. Rather, it is a way of life which claims the right to be preserved while adjusting itself to modern conditions.¹⁹ As Faure Edgar states for UNESCO in the great work Learning to Be:

"The Muslim world was among the first to recommend the idea of life long Education, exhorting Muslims to educate themselves (from the Cradle to the Grave). Islam enjoyed all men, women and children to educate themselves, in order to educate others in turn. Muslim Education paid special attention to learning in the Sciences, medicine, philosophy, mathematics and astronomy." 20

Egypt is an Islamic state, and Islam is the predominant religion. The Muslim people have found in Islam not only religious faith, but also a set of social and ethical values and a legal code which lie at the very roots of Islamic culture. Islamic education is an education which trains the sensibility of pupils in such a manner that in their attitude to life, their actions, decisions and approach to all kinds of knowledge are governed by the spiritual and deeply felt ethical values of Islam.

Muslim education began with prophet Muhammad's, he was commanded by the angel "Read":

"Read in the name of thy Lord who created.
Created man out of a (mere) clot. Read and thy
Lord is most bountiful. He who taught
(the use of) the pen, taught man that
which he knew not." 21

Thus, the Quran was the first book put into the hands of Muslim pupils. From this, as might be expected, they blazed new paths into other fields, and the need for other branches of knowledge pressed upon them. The Holy Quran and the sayings of the prophet sought persistently and methodically to impress the value of knowledge and the rewards of learning upon the hearts and minds of the believers.²²

With respect to child education in Islam, we find that the Quran and the prophet Mohammed both of them emphasised the importance of the parent's role in upbringing their children.

The Quran said:

"My Lord! bestow on them Thy Mercy
even as they cherished me in
childhood." 23

The prophet emphasised on the importance of understanding the children's needs as children, so he said "Whoever has a child must be like a child." 24

He was very kind and friendly with the children, and he liked to play with them. For example, he personally had two grandsons (Hassan and Hosain) on whom he lavished much attention, not only to play with them, but also he liked them to ride on his back and treated him as being their camel. He also realised the importance of play for children and he believed that play is very essential for the physical and mental development of the child. So he said: "Sand is the children's spring."²⁵ He considered sand as an important media for children's play to express their feeling, imagination and to develop and co-ordinate his muscles through different activities such as digging, building and drawing with sand. This tradition continues to the present day.

It may also be of some interest and significance here to consider the ideas of certain parents and public figures of Islam on what the course of study should be for children. For example, in respect of the second Caliph (Umar Ibnal-Khattab, 644 A.D.), we find that he is quoted as having said: "Teach your children swimming, the use of bow, riding and poetry."²⁶ This course of study recommended by such an eminent man is interesting in its balance between such practical subjects as shooting and the creative dimension as represented by poetry. Another example, the famous Al-Hajjaj (714 A.D.) who was himself a teacher before he became a politician, gave the

following orders to the tutor of his boy.

"Teach my boy swimming before writing, because he will be able to hire someone to write for him, whereas he will be unable to hire anyone who will swim for him." 27

Thus, it might be said that the QURan, the sayings and practices of the prophet Mohammed (Al - Hadith), laid the solid foundations for the reverence of Muslims for learning and teaching. The Holy Quran is the final guide for the Muslim in matters of basic beliefs, forms of worship and rules of conduct. In the first mosque, built by the prophet himself, the first Muslims received both their religious instruction and their wordly education. So the Mosque has assumed a dual role, as a place of worship and a seat of education for young children and adults.

The education of the Muslim child began with the Holy book (Quran) which he learnt to read, recite and memorise.

"The association of the mosque with education remained one of its characteristics throughout history. In the early days, it was the focus of all communal activities. From its pulpit religious edification and state policy were proclaimed, with its walls justice was dispensed on its floor sat preachers and teachers surrounded by adults and children seeking learning or instruction." 28

The first stage in Islamic formal education was the Maktab or Kuttab, both derived from the Arabic root "to write". The second term (Kuttab) was more used in modern times. The Kuttab supplied the foundations upon which all further education was based. It remained for the first four centuries of Islâm, the only universal institution where the different skills could be acquired. The Kuttab was the equivalent of the primary school, the madrassah was the intermediate stage and the mosque was the

apex of the system. It was and still is, the 'University of Muslim Education'. The most famous of these Mosque universities is Al-Azhar of Cairo.²⁹ However, while the young children had to be made to attend the kuttāb by his parents, it was not the function of the state to enforce every child into such attendance.

b) The Views of Some Muslim Philosophers in Child Education

There are some of the great philosophers and educators who had developed an educational philosophy for children's education during the tenth and eleventh centuries and which were later taken on by European philosophers. The most influential of these philosophers were Ibn Sina, Ibn Miskawih, Al-Gazali and Ibn Khaldun.

i) Ibn Sina (980-1036 A.D.) realised the importance of the early years of the child's life on his future development, so he dealt in his book (The Law) with early childhood education. He emphasised the importance in upbringing of play in early childhood as a means of physical and mental development. He suggested the following programme for the pre-school child:

"When the child wakes up in the morning, he should have a wash, then a short time of play is given to him. Afterwards he should be given enough food, and then allowed to have a long period of play. Afterwards, he should be given a bath and should be fed and allowed to rest or sleep. When he arrives at the age of six years, he should receive formal instruction by a tutor or a teacher. Formal teaching should be introduced gradually, otherwise the child would hate it."

30

ii) Ibn Miskawih (938-1030 A.D.) also emphasised the importance of play for the early childhood education in the development

of body and mind. He wrote about the child in his book "Moral Disciplinary":

"The child should be allowed to play beautiful games and exercises, because the body needs movements and exercise. This is very essential for the development of body and mind, to keep the body healthy and to protect it from being lazy, otherwise the child will grow to be weak and narrow-minded." 31

iii) Al-Gazali (1059-1111 A.D.) was a great teacher, in addition to being a great thinker (well-known to medieval Europe as Algazel). He received his elementary education from a mystic and then sat at the feet of famous men of learning until he himself became renowned for his learning. He naturally wrote as a theologian and mystic, but within a religious framework. He begins with the infant child before the age of conventional education. He stressed the importance of the parents' role in the development and upbringing of the child in his first years. He considered this to be their prime responsibility, so he wrote:

"The child is a turst in the hands of his parents and his innocent heart is a precious element capable of taking impressions. If the parents and later on the teachers brought him up in righteousness, he would live happily in this world and the next and they would be rewarded by God for their good deed. If they neglected the child's upbringing and education, he would lead a life of unhappiness in both worlds and they would bear the burden of the sin of neglect." 32

He who undertakes the instruction of the young insists Al Ghazali "undertakes a great responsibility". He must therefore be as tender to his pupils as if they were his own children. Furthermore, he himself must set an example so that

his actions accord with his precepts. He does not neglect the needs of the body. While he warns against luxuries that lead to laziness, he recommended that the primary school children should be allowed physical exercise, including walking after school. So he writes:

"Children should be allowed to play after they leave their maktab for recreation, but not to the degree of exhaustion. To prevent play and to insist on continuous study leads to dullness in the heart diminution in intelligence and unhappiness."

He also continued:

"when the child is grown up, he should be handed over to an excellent instructor to teach him useful and necessary learning and to lead him by the right way 33 to the right end."

Al -Gazali's idea dominated Islamic educational thought for centuries after his death. It noted that all educational literature down to the beginning of modernisation in the nineteenth century is either inspired by his writings or directly derived from them. He as we saw from his writings, emphasised on the development of "the whole child, physically, morally, intellectually and socially".

iv) Ibn Khaldun (1332 - 1406 AD) was an historian and philosophical man. Ibn Khaldun is much the same as Al-Gazali. As a part of his philosophy, he devoted important sections to education. He is very close to Al-Gazali in setting limits to the capacity of human reason in the process of learning. He advocates gradual imparting of knowledge according to the capacity of the learner. He recommended, like his predecessor, that:

"The teacher should consider his pupils as his children, to treat them with compassion, and to admonish them by gentle hinting, not violent rebuke, not only because harshness dulls the child's capacity to learn, but also because it depraves his humanity." 34

So, it might be said, that the idea of those Muslim philosophers and educators were of great value in the upbringing of the child. All of them recognised the importance of the early years in the age of the child in his later development where as the mind of the child before receiving instruction is like a white blank sheet, once anything is written on it, right or wrong it will be difficult to erase it or to superimpose new writing upon it. The most important of the child's personality traits were formed and would be difficult to change later. So a happy childhood is regarded as a factor that is most important in a child's development. Their ideas also showed us to what extent the Islam was concerned with early childhood education.

6.4 The Development of Pre-School Education from 1917 to the Present

It was mentioned above that the early childhood stage was perceived as one of the most important stages in the life of children during the periods of both Ancient and in Islamic Egypt. With the development of the modern nation, even more concern is shown about childhood and the level of child care. This can be illustrated with reference to the efforts of different agencies.

6.4.1 The Efforts of Public Associations and The Ministry of Social Affairs

If we trace the efforts made to establish nurseries and kindergartens in Egypt, we may well identify the first efforts as being those of the national social institutions in Alexandria in 1917. The Greek working women had established nurseries called (Dar Mana) for the welfare and accommodation of the poor children of working Greek mothers, whose private conditions forced them going to work to support their families. In 1938, the first nursery was established in Cairo, called 'Creches Internationales' by the groups of women from different nationalities and religions for the care and welfare of the children of working poor women. These were followed by other social institutions, an example being the institutions of the "Al Maadi Child Society", "The Egyptian Famine Association" and the "Mostafa Kamel Charity". In all these, special nurseries were established for the care and welfare of the children of working women in governmental and non-governmental jobs. They were under the supervision of many additional organisations, such as "The New Women Society", and "The Tahrir Charitable Society of Social Service at Helipolis".³⁵ All such establishments and societies were financed by the contributions and donations of individuals. This indicates a sophisticated degree of co-operation between individuals, establishments, societies and the state, in the concerted effort to care for the child.

Since the establishment of the Ministry of Social Affairs in 1939, all such nurseries have been supervised by the Ministry, both financially and technically. The prime aim in

all cases has been the welfare and accommodation of the poor children of working mothers.

With respect to the children of the wealthy classes of Egyptian society joining such nurseries and kindergartens under the auspices of the Ministry of Education, there was a problem of different conditions and aims. For the already privileged, nurseries were considered a kind of luxury for children aimed to prepare them for primary education in a suitable environment. By contrast, the priority of the state nurseries was the health conditions and social care needed to achieve a healthy society in general. Consequently, the nurseries which belonged to the national social institutions were considered primarily as a place for the child's accommodation during the period when their mothers were working. This situation remained until the Revolution of 1952 which officially abolished the differences between social classes.

In 1959, the Ministry of Education contributed to the widespread nurseries. The Labour Law No. 91 was issued, and Chapter Four was specifically for working women. In Article 139 of the law, the owner of a business enterprise was obliged to provide a nursery with facilities to receive the working woman's children if he employed one hundred women at least in one place, the employer must establish a nursery on the premises of the factory out of his private money.

This law was followed by another, No. 68 in April 1961, which stated that the nurseries should be ready to accept children between three months and six years, situated close to the mother's place of work, and in a healthy area far away from the noise or any other pollution source.

"Each woman's wish to benefit from these arrangements must pay 5% of her monthly salary for the first child enrolled, 4% for the second child and 3% for the third child. These nurseries are administered by a Board of 6 members, three appointed by the employer, and three delegated by the woman workers. The Board is responsible for deciding on the programme which must be acceptable to inspectors from the Ministry of Labour, the responsible authority, and must include the following elements: admissions, the educational programme, nutrition, the daily schedule, general administrative provisions, medical care, clothes and provision for supervision of the institutions as a whole."

36

The Ministry of Social Affairs until September 1962 was known as the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs. It was responsible for the area of work and workers, and also for the interests of working women. From 1962, therefore, the nurseries were affiliated to the Ministry, amounting in 1975, nearly to 1197 in total. The Ministry of Social Affairs, since its establishment, has given valued support to the field of the family and the children. For example, field research was undertaken by the Ministry in collaboration with the International Organisation for Child Care (UNICEF) in 1962. The main aim for such research was to survey all the child services in the nurseries which were affiliated to the Ministry and to put together a long future plan which would aim to evaluate the care programmes of families and children in Egypt.³⁷

In the light of the field survey, Ministerial Resolution No. 198 was issued by the Ministry of Social Affairs on 10th November 1964, concerned with the objectives of nursery admission procedures, their administration, and the determining of programmes to be offered. The following aspects were stressed:

- a) the freedom to move because the child does not like to stay in one place for a long time;
- b) within the programme, there must be some games in the open air;
- c) the programme should not include teaching reading and writing until the age of five;
- d) games should be derived from the local environment, as much as possible;
- e) a woman supervisor should not be considered a school teacher as such.

In due course the Ministry of Social Affairs established a department for caring for the children and their problems, which was followed in 1966 by The General Department for the Children and the Family. The prime aim for this department was the caring of the children of working mothers, and for the children who had lost one, or both of their parents.

The nurseries which were affiliated to the Ministry of Social Affairs charged a nominal monthly fee, according to the family's ability to pay. Most of the supervisors who are working in these nurseries are not specially trained for working with the children, but they work according to their abilities and the facilities of the nursery. Hence, for the improvement of the level of these teachers the Ministry provided in-service training for the period of two months to guide them towards modern educational methods which would help them to face the needs of nursery children.

6.4.2 The Efforts of the Ministry of Education up to 1952

The first kindergarten in Egypt was established in Alexandria in 1918 for boys only, followed by a second in

Cairo in 1919. The main aim of those kindergartens was to prepare the children for transition to the primary school; that is to say the importance was perceived as educational rather than social. It is clear that those kindergarten schools were only for the rich people. The same sort of provision was extended to girls in 1922 when the Ministry of Education decided to separate preparatory classes for transition to primary schools for girls and changed them into kindergartens. The programme was of two years duration from the age of six to eight.

"Study in these kindergartens extended over a period of three years for boys and two only for girls, with the aim of preparing a child to join a primary school. It was decided that children joining primary schools were required to sit for an admission exam in Arabic and arithmetic, whereas leavers of kindergartens should be exempted." 38

It is worthwhile to mention that education in these kindergartens was based on putting each of the two sexes in a separate school. This continued until 1924, but as a result of the increasing demand for educating girls, the Ministry of Education decided that girls should be admitted into vacant places in kindergartens intended for boys in Cairo and Alexandria in order to cope with the increasing demand for educating girls.

Since then, kindergarten education has become co-educational, with a study period of three years including the following subjects: Arabic, arithmetic, good manners, health, observation of nature, drawing, handicrafts, sports and games.

"The teachers who taught in those schools were specialised women teachers graduated at the Higher School for Women Teachers, whereas the kindergartens affiliated to the lyce schools recruited specialised women teachers from private French institutes." 39

In April 1928, a Law No. 22 was issued concerning kindergarten schools, fixing fees and also the age of entry, which was five years. No child, it was determined, should stay in the kindergarten beyond the age of eight. As the curriculum developed, the children of governmental kindergartens who succeeded in the third year should have joined the first grade of the primary school without having to pass through an admission examination.

During the following years, the kindergarten programme in Egypt was developed further:

"In 1927, music was entered in the kindergarten programme and was associated with rhythmic movements and songs. In addition, for using the project method besides using the sentence method in teaching Arabic, as well as teaching through guided play." 40

In the year 1944, the Ministry of Education became aware of the increasing number of working mothers who wanted to place their children in kindergarten schools before the age of five. Hence, the Ministry of Education established sections for nurseries in kindergarten schools. These nursery sections were introduced to provide day-time supervision for boys and girls, of two and one-half to four - who had no mothers or whose mothers were employed under the supervision of educationally qualified teachers as well.

In the 1930s and 1940s in the Egyptian educational system, we find that the kindergarten stage was considered one of the main stages, in the form of official kindergarten schools affiliated to the Ministry of Education in the capital cities in each province. The study period at these schools was for three years, starting at about the age of five. The kindergartens

included educationally qualified teachers specialised in this field, and they were either graduates of the Higher Institutes for Women Teachers, the section nurseries and kindergartens, or graduates of the additional sections of women teacher schools, the section of children and drawing. These kindergartens were not lower in standard than what was advocated by so-called 'modern education',⁴¹ but a major disadvantage was the level of fees which in effect limited attendance to children of higher social and economic classes.

Concerning the kindergarten course of study at that time, Table 17 indicates the kindergarten programme in the years 1945 - 1946. As the table shows, in the first year of study, stories were used for character-building and dealt with personifications of animals and plants, and with children in relationship to interesting aspects of the local environment, they stressed kindness to animals, helping the poor, and polite social behaviour. Stories in the second year were selected with a view to developing a sense of humour and appreciation of fairy tales, and to encourage love of family and companions, charity, hospitality, truth, helpfulness and good manners. In the third year, some stories were correlated with nature study, others to increase knowledge of people and still more to emphasise national heroes and religious prophets. In that third year, the object was to develop a simple Arabic style of expression in complete sentences and a larger vocabulary. The pupils were encouraged to write, illustrate and bind small books and magazines.

Study of Arabic began in the first year with conversation about objects and events of the children's everyday life.

TABLE 17PROGRAMME OF STUDIES FOR PUBLIC KINDERGARTENS:EGYPT 1945 - 1946

SUBJECTS	Periods per week		
	1st year	2nd year	3rd year
Character-building	2	2	2
Arabic (conversation, reading, writing and songs)	8	10	12
Arithmetic	6	6	6
Nature study and Hygiene	2	2	2
Handwork	8	8	6
Drawing	4	3	3
Games and music	4	3	3
	34	34	34

Source: Matthews, R.D. and Akrawi, M., Education in the Arab Countries of the Near East, (Washington: American Council on Education, 1949), p. 47.

Shape and sound of letters were associated in introducing the written language, and attractive pictures used to illustrate the teaching, joining letters to make words with plasticine and other materials.

In arithmetic, first year pupils began to count up to 50 and to do simple exercises with objects involving classification and counting. Subtraction from numbers up to 20 was taught, and simple oral problems dealing with familiar objects and situations of daily life were solved. In the second year, the pupils used numbers up to 100, learned operation songs for addition, subtraction and equality, and studied the multiplication table as far as 5×5 . Third year pupils dealt with the borrowing principle in subtraction and advanced to 10×10 in the multiplication tables. Quick and accurate solutions of oral problems and written problems to be solved in exercise books were part of the final year's work.

Handwork in all three years was designed to develop skills in using such materials as clay, sand, paper, cane, wool. Palm Fibre and plant stalks to illustrate stories and real happenings, both in and out of school.

Drawing began with free expression in white and coloured chalk on the blackboard. In the second year, they drew from memory and also from models of a simple sort. Third year pupils studied simple designs for decoration, correlated drawing with the course in nature study and began to use the compass, to paint with water colours.

Nature study was taught in the first year by stories that dealt with familiar animals, milk and its products, and common fruits, and observation of the development of pigeons,

chickens, rabbits, and some plants was carried on by raising birds and animals in the school. In the second year, pupils study common flowers and grow common vegetables, go into more detail on the breeding and raising of animals and the growing of plants. The third year course included more detailed study of germination of seeds, parts of plants and trees, and characteristics and habits of wild animals. The children were encouraged to collect leaves, shells and other objects to form a small museum of natural science for the school.

Games were selected for physical development as well as for their recreational value and were designed to develop co-ordination, a sense of rhythm and mental alertness.

In 1945 - 1946, there were 7,101 boys and girls (including those in five nursery schools in Cairo and Alexandria) in public kindergartens and 44,300 in private and foreign schools.⁴²

By 1950, kindergarten schools flourished all over Egypt and education at this level became free of charge when the Law 143 was issued in 1951. This considered kindergartens as apart from the educational ladder, and it was therefore decided to affiliate kindergartens to primary education, and to reduce the period of study to two years, forming the first and second years of the primary stage, while still keeping the name 'kindergarten'. Thus the study period in the primary stage became four years.

Table 18 indicates the number of kindergarten and nursery schools, and the number of children in different years over the period 1937 - 1952.

TABLE 18

THE DISTRIBUTION OF NUMBER OF CHILDREN IN
NURSERY AND KINDERGARTEN SCHOOLS IN
EGYPT IN DIFFERENT YEARS

YEAR	Nursery and kindergarten schools independent and attached	Number of Children
1937	30	2,449
1942	33	2,912
1947	52	13,301
1952	180	67,004

Source: Ministry of Education, General Inspection Committee for Zones Affairs, Statistical Department, Statistics for Nursery and Kindergarten Schools in Different Years, (Cairo: Al Maaref, 1956). (Arabic version).

It is clear from Table 18 that education in nursery and kindergarten schools in the period before the Revolution in 1952 that many developments had occurred, this phase of expansion having included independence kindergarten schools, nursery schools attached in girls schools and private kindergarten schools for boys. The number of children had increased as a result of parental demands for support to prepare for primary schools at a lower age than previously. Teaching in these schools depended on modern methods by specialised staff who realised the importance of individual education and free activity in teaching the children and the role of play in the educational process in the early years of a child's life.⁴³

6.4.3 Developments in Pre-School Provision after the 1952 Revolution

A new stage appeared in the social, political, economic and cultural life of the Egyptian society after the Revolution of 1952. The Ministry of Education undertook the responsibility of unifying education for all children and made primary education compulsory from the age of six, hence the kindergartens were abolished from the primary stage and gradually disappeared.

The status of kindergartens in Egypt did not remain long in this state, as the senior inspectors of mathematics in kindergartens submitted a proposal to the Minister to reconsider the provision of nursery and kindergarten services for the children of working mothers. Accordingly, in May 1954, the Minister issued a resolution, that the General Department for Primary Education, should establish thirty nurseries and kindergartens, on a fee paying basis, to accept children from

the age of three up to the age of six all over the country to cope with the demand of working mothers.⁴⁴

"Gradually, kindergartens began to grow and spread side by side with nurseries established by private efforts, and were affiliated to primary, preparatory or secondary schools, both governmental and private, as well as nurseries affiliated to language schools." 45

This is seen not as an educational stage, but as a social service, hence it must be affiliated to the Ministry of Social Affairs which in turn is responsible for establishing such schools, and for their supervision. Consequently, the Ministry of Education abolished the General Department for Nursery and Kindergarten Education and transferred its staff to the General Department for Primary Education.

In spite of all this, five of the existing nursery schools were not affected until 20 February 1968 when the Minister of Education issued a resolution 23 to abolish nursery and kindergarten schools which are affiliated to the Ministry of Education and change these schools to primary schools in the year 1968 - 1969. These schools were: Al Kuba Nursery School in Cairo, Al-Orman Nursery School in Giza, Loran Nursery School in Alex Zakazik Nursery School and Domyat Nursery School.⁴⁶

Accordingly, there is no formal nursery school under the control of the Ministry of Education. Table 19 indicates those nursery schools which were abolished after the said resolution. This left the only schools still open as the private nursery schools with high fees. Some of these schools were independent and others were attached to local education authorities. In addition to their high fees, they received

TABLE 19THE NURSERY AND KINDERGARTEN SCHOOLS ABOLISHEDIN FEBRUARY 1968

	The study years		
	1966-1967	1967-1968	1968-1969
Number of schools	5	4	-
Number of sections attached	1	-	2
Number of classes	13	10	2
<u>Number of children</u>			
1. Boys	192	132	10
2. Girls	116	78	7
<u>Total</u>	308	210	17
<u>Teachers</u>			
1. Men	-	-	-
2. Women	20	17	3
<u>Total</u>	20	17	3
The child teacher ratio	15	12	6

Source: Ministry of Education, General Statistics Department,
A Comparative Statistic on Education in the Formal
 Nursery Schools in the Period 1966 - 69 and 1969 -70.

donations and contributions from the Ministry of Social Affairs, in return for which they were placed under supervision.

In July 1969, a 'Resolution No. 10' was issued concerned with the supervision of nursery schools and it included the following paragraphs:

"The nursery schools which were established by societies and private establishments must be under the supervision of the Ministry of Social Affairs. In addition the nursery schools which belong to individuals or groups must be under the supervision of the Ministry of Social Affairs."

"Concerned with the nursery schools which are attached to schools and prepare the child educationally for primary schools, these schools must be technically, financially and administratively under the supervision of the Ministry of Education. In addition to this, the Ministry of Education is ready to help with her experience, the Ministry of Social Affairs in the supervision of the schools which come under the control of the Ministry of Social Affairs if these schools' aim was to prepare the child educationally for primary school." 47

Thus it might be said that the nursery schools which belonged to the Ministry of Social Affairs did not have any educational supervision and did not take into account recent attitudes in child development such as using free activities which are suitable for the child's needs, for freedom and moving. Most of the teachers who work in these schools were not educationally qualified for the task and this would partially explain their being out of contact with new approaches.

In 1970, the Ministry of Education realised the importance of this early stage in the child's development and re-established a section for nurseries and kindergartens to be affiliated

administratively to the General Department of Primary Education after issuing the Resolution No. 8 on 19th January, 1970:

"A Ministerial Resolution No. 8 on 19.1.70 was issued concerned with the establishment of a section for kindergartens and nurseries to be affiliated administratively to primary education. This section should have the responsibility of making study plans for nursery and kindergarten schools, making a follow-up of the work and issuing instructions and guidelines for planning all programmes to the child. In addition to setting training programmes for teachers who are working 48 in these schools."

In spite of establishing a section for nurseries and kindergartens in the Ministry of Education, this section had only the technical supervision and the training of supervisors for pre-school education, while the financial and administration supervision were under the responsibility of private education, according to the private education Law No. 16 in 1969.

As a result of the rapid social change, an increasing demand for pre-school education and the importance of qualified teachers for this stage became very necessary. So a Ministerial decision No 248 was issued on the 4th October 1970, including the following:

"Establishment of a branch for the preparation of nursery and kindergarten educators in teacher training schools, the five grades system would have the responsibility of work in pre-school education besides teaching in the first four grades of the primary stage." 49

Unfortunately, enrolment in this branch had been very low and not all the graduates from the programme took up a pre-school career, many preferring to work in primary schools where there was also a shortage.

According to the official record, the main aims for the nurseries and kindergartens which were under the control of the Ministry of Education were as follows:

a) "Provide opportunities for the child, for play, fun and free activities which help the child:

- i) to grow physically, mentally and spiritually;
- ii) form good habits and attitudes, and remedying any deviation in his behaviour;
- iii) develop his social relationship in the society of nurseries and train him on a systematic happy life;
- iv) to know his local environment.

b) Prepare the child mentally to accept learning at the primary stage through:

- i) training his senses in such a way which enables the child to watch, observe and understand everything around him as creatures and phenomena, according to his abilities and to distinguish sounds and appreciate music. All this will develop his ability to accept the systematic educational process, when he reaches the compulsory school age.
- ii) developing his linguistic, numerical and art abilities.

c) Caring for the children of working mothers to relieve her of some burdens and to help her do her work successfully." ⁵⁰

The state of affairs for the decade 1960s is summarised in Table 20. In spite of the increasing number of nursery schools and kindergartens, they are unsuitable for the increasing number of children between age 3 - 5 years. In fact there are around 2 million children whose parents look forward to their admission in the pre-school stage.

TABLE 20

STATISTICS OF NUMBERS OF NURSERIES AND KINDERGARTENS UNDER
THE SUPERVISION OF THE MINISTRY OF EDUCATION 71/72

Zones	Attached with formal schools			Attached with private schools			Attached with language schools		
	Sec.	Class	Chn.	Sec.	Class	Chn.	Sec.	Class	Chn.
N. Cairo	2	2	89	9	19	733	6	20	762
E. Cairo	11	21	659	36	63	2370	17	64	2379
Mid Cairo	13	21	-	6	10	455	8	32	1202
S. Cairo	7	9	194	7	13	510	5	18	790
W. Cairo	13	20	717	5	12	469	13	50	1817
Total	46	73	1659	63	117	4537	49	184	7950
Alexandria	-	-	-	13	29	1076	22	80	2746
Dakahlya	-	-	-	5	13	640	2	6	315
Wagh Bahari	10	26	122	13	29	1167	5	8	485
Al-Giza	1	1	29	9	17	691	2	17	697
Bani Sweaf	3	3	130	1	3	112	1	2	102
Al-Faum	-	-	-	2	5	165	1	2	86
El Menya	1	1	30	8	13	514	6	12	419
Asuat	-	-	-	1	1	95	3	4	211
Sohag	-	-	-	5	12	482	-	-	-
Kena	3	7	187	3	6	228	2	3	81
Aswan	6	10	331	2	5	274	-	-	-
Al-Wady	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Al Gadid	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Al-Bahr	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Al Ahmer	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Sina	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Matroh	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total	14	22	77	31	62	2559	15	40	1596
General total	70	121	4474	125	248	9979	94	318	9092

Source: Ministry of Education, Statistics of Education,
 Childhood Department Office, The Head of Section
 Nursery and Kindergarten. (Arabic version).

The situation of nurseries and kindergartens did not in fact change significantly until 1977 when Law No. 50 was issued.⁵¹ It considered that, nurseries and kindergartens are necessary for every child, not only that of a working mother but it is a place for educating children and helping them to grow properly, and not merely be accommodated. Egypt is a small society in which a young child at school leads a life nearer to that of home, he can through free activities in the nursery learn good health, intellectual and social habits, according to his interests and abilities.

"It has become incumbent on anyone who wants to establish any nursery, to obtain permission from the Ministry of Social Affairs." 52

However, the Minister of Education indicated that Law No. 50 of 1977 which was concerned with the nurseries and kindergartens was a general law, and does not abolish Law No. 16 in 1969 which was concerned with private and official education, whereas this law considered that the nurseries and kindergartens which are affiliated to private or formal schools are still under the supervision of the Ministry of Education and private education.

The Ministry of Education specifies regulations and the age of admission, and supervises carefully the implementation of these regulations. The nursery and kindergarten schools are no longer considered a luxury, but have instead become central. So, in recent years, there has been an increasing emphasis on the importance of the early years, accepting the following factors outlined by UNESCO.

a) The basic needs of young children, specially between the age of 4-6 years are for physical and emotional security, and

for a quantity and quality of perceptual and intellectual stimulation appropriate to their age. There is also the value of early identification of problems in any child's development.

b) Economists, health specialists, sociologists, and educators all over the world claim that the education of pre-school age is one of the aspects of life-long education:

"It is nowadays an accepted fact that pre-school education must be seen as the initial phase of life-long education, of which it is the basis. In various parts of the world where many children are still subject to social and cultural handicaps, it plays a compensating role and attenuates the influence of adverse conditions." 53

c) Rapidly changing social and economic conditions, and the revolutionary changes of the 20th century made necessary the participation of woman side by side with man in all fields. Such a comprehensive development requires the mobilisation of all the human resources available in any natural society today, irrespective of age and sex. Thus, women must perform their role in society. Hence, the increase in the percentage of working mothers in Egypt, made necessary for the young children to be kept in nursery and kindergarten school for the major part of the day.

The information available on the socio-professional composition of the group of working mothers whose pre-school children are enrolled in institutions indicates that most of these mothers work in the government sector. The overall professional distribution in 1978 was as follows: 54.3% employed in the government sector; 18.2% employed in the agricultural sector; 6.0% employed in the industrial sector; and 21.5% employed in unspecified sectors.⁵⁴

d) There is a lack of family facilities in most circumstances for providing and preparing a suitable place for the child to be able to experience appropriate activities which are very vital and essential for all round development. Parents generally exhibit a lack of awareness as to the educational value of play and creative activities for the child at this age.

e) Another factor is the need to:

"evolve economically feasible, and socially, and culturally relevant models of early childhood care and education to promote the full development of the child, and, where relevant, to prepare the child for primary schooling while at the same time serving as a means of promoting wider social development." 55

f) It should be recognised that early childhood education, through its close linkage with the adult community, can be a valuable force for overall social development by helping adults obtain confidence, skills, and improved self-concepts.⁵⁶

So in Egypt as elsewhere all these causes throw new responsibilities on institutions of pre-school education. The state has become a partner of the family in the upbringing of the young children. Accordingly, and as a result, to cope with the numerous pressures on parents to enrol their children in private kindergarten schools which have high fees, the state has to take all this into consideration in development plans. Consequently, the Ministry of Education in Egypt held a meeting on 22nd July 1978 to discuss the possibility of establishing formal experimental language schools (primary, preparatory and secondary), attached to every school a kindergarten school for children to learn a foreign language, in addition to learning social, physical, intellectual and

language skills. The General Department of Law have agreed to open these kindergartens in November 1978 after putting forward some essential observations to open these schools.

On 1st January 1979, a Ministerial Resolution No. 22 was issued to establish formal experimental language schools in the governorates Cairo, Alexandria and Giza, and attach a kindergarten school with every formal school. Article No. 17 from this resolution determined the study period as being two years in the kindergarten school and made the medium of study in these schools the English language. The main aim for such schools besides realisation of the aims of public education, is to realise the importance of teaching foreign languages, as in fact the private schools for language do. Article 7 from the 1979 resolution stated that the study in the two years kindergartens should be for 36 hours weekly, that is 6 hours for every day. It was also determined that the daily programme should be divided to periods from half an hour to one hour daily. The following dimensions of curriculum were to be covered and were reiterated by the Ministry of Education in 1985:

- a) the spiritual side: through different activities (two hours weekly);
- b) the physical side and health care, concentrating on
 - i) daily health care and the nutrition (6 hours weekly),
 - ii) physical activity and the body care (6 hours weekly);
- c) the psychological and social side, given through different daily activities and guidance;
- d) the intellectual side, through systematic play (3 hours weekly);
- e) the language side, through various activities (6 hours weekly);

- f) the practical side, through fixed activities in the curriculum (6 hours weekly);
- g) the creative side, through free expression during the child's activity, especially in art (4 hours weekly);
- h) aesthetical education, through music and appreciating nature (3 hours weekly).⁵⁷

The general idea is that the daily programme should be concentrated on the child's needs, interests, and abilities, including the problems which are perceived by the child to exist. Teaching should be through play as far as possible, using the educational toys which are suitable for the child's age.

According to Article 16 from the Law No1 94 in 1985, the fees, additional service and insurances paid by the child's parents are the same as the system in the private Arabic school. The kindergarten school is now treated as the first cycle of basic formal education stage. Table 21 illustrates the nature and scale of fees involved:

TABLE 21
THE NATURE AND SCALE OF FEES IN THE FORMAL
EXPERIMENTAL SCHOOL

Additional services	Nursery school	Basic primary cycle	Education preparatory cycle	Secondary education stage
General activity	£20.00	£20.00	£20.00	£20.00
Nutrition	£25.00	-	-	-
Experimental services	£40.00	£50.00	£60.00	£70.00

Source: The Ministry of Education, Ministry Office,
Circular No. 94, 1985. (Arabic version).

The age of admission in kindergarten school has been set at a minimum of 4 years at the beginning of the academic year (October). Every class in kindergarten school now has two teachers, one of them for foreign language, arithmetic, nature studies and music, the second teacher for all other subjects. This kind of kindergarten school is the subject of the writer's field work which is the subject of following chapters.

So today, in Egypt, there are different types of pre-school institutions, comprising a varied basic sector of the national system.

6.5 Institutional Provision for the Pre-School Child in Contemporary Egypt

6.5.1 General

In the Arab Republic of Egypt, there are two main types of pre-school institutions:

- a) day care centres for the children of working mothers between the ages of three months and six;
- b) nursery schools or kindergartens for children between the ages of three and six.

Although there are some private unregistered institutions, most of pre-school institutions are either public or are run by private agencies (schools or employers) under the supervision of the public authorities. Child Care Centres in Egypt are now an important feature and absorb the efforts of three Ministries (Education, Social Affairs and Labour). Each of these Ministries are responsible for pre-school education.

The goals of pre-school education in nursery schools or

kindergartens which belong to the Ministry of Education have been stated in 1977 in a special note from the Vice Minister for educational services and foreign affairs:

"Child care centres which belong to schools are established to prepare the children for school life, to habituate them as students and to make them ready to be enrolled in the primary schools. For these reasons, the centres aim to help the children to develop the best habits, to fulfil their needs and to take care of them physically and to develop their best attitudes towards a healthy social life." 58

The nursery schools which belong to the Ministries of Social Affairs and Labour differ greatly from those which belong to the Ministry of Education. The first aim for these nursery schools are to take care of the children of working mothers and to socialise with them in a healthy environment. Teaching the children and preparing them for primary school education comes second, so they are considered as day care centres.. Furthermore, children may be enrolled at any time in the day care and nursery schools which are run by the Ministry of Social Affairs, while those pre-school institutions under the authority of the Ministry of Education accept children only at the beginning of the academic year (October). In terms of number of institutions and enrolments the Ministry of Social Affairs plays the major role in the provision for pre-school education in Egypt. Those who enrol their children under the auspices of the Ministry of Education, especially those nurseries belonging to the private education, do so because they prefer the early learning of a foreign language and a type of educational care that will prepare for entry to formal primary schooling.

6.5.2 Teacher Preparation for Pre-School Education

a) An Historical Comment

It is essential to trace the historical development for the preparation of the pre-school teacher, because the success or failure of expanding pre-school education depends largely on the quality of those we prepare as the teacher and on the quality of their training. The teachers are not only a vital element in educational provision but possibly also the most important element in educational change.

A teacher of young children obviously needs to possess certain qualities if he or she is to face up to the responsibilities involved. We can summarise these qualities as follows:

- i) the needs to be able to develop moral education and religious values in the child;
- ii) the needs to be someone who is essentially human, someone who likes people, especially children, and to be a substitute parent;
- iii) to have a high degree of sympathy, understanding, patience and highly demanding of excellence of many kinds and deep insight into the needs of the children, parents and the community;
- iv) the needs to be able to share the children their activities during play, and provide opportunities and facilities for appropriate activities, observe the children and take the latter's remarks and observations into account;
- v) the needs to highly educated personally and professionally in those areas of knowledge, understanding and skills which will be conveyed to children;

vi) the needs to be able to give a balanced education to every pre-school child, according to the special needs of each individual child, to help each and everyone of them to develop to their fullest potential;

vii) the needs to be intelligent, friendly, kindly, and patient, whereas the child at this age is difficult to manage;

viii) Finally, as Mellar states:

"The teacher must be, above all things, a whole human being, with every part of his human personality well-exercised by a varied experience among men, and in good working order." 59

Concerning the development of teacher training, it has also been said that:

"The idea of educating youngsters has been associated in the minds of a great number of people with the idea of the Koranic school teachers, which was known in our educational system in the first decade of his century (The Kuttab), when the teacher of the Kuttab at best spent one academic year in the classes for the preparation of the Kuttab teachers, where he got the basics of reading, writing and arithmetic to entitle them to take up some simple clerical jobs or to follow up their religious education, or formal education with its different stages for those who would be lucky enough to get such opportunities." 60

Later, from 1901, the Ministry of Education in Egypt began sending 'scientific missions' to England in order to prepare teachers in the field of early childhood.

Among the graduates of those missions, some students obtained a higher educational certificate in child education and an International Froebel Certificate. The Ministry continued to send such missions until 1913, despite the fact that none of those graduates ever worked in the pre-school

field because there were no kindergartens in Egypt at that time. There were also great efforts to prepare the Egyptian pre-school teacher when follow-up courses were set up in Bulak training schools for girls in 1916 to extend opportunities for the graduates of 'Elementary Training Schools' to follow up a two-year course to be trained as a kindergarten teacher. Also, the Ministry of Education in 1917 had established a department for preparing pre-school teachers in the training schools for girls at Shoubra.⁶¹ With the establishment of the first kindergarten school in 1918, the Ministry of Education eventually benefitted from some of the graduates emerging from the later scientific missions to England.

The graduates from the training schools for girls at Bulak and Shoubra continued to carry out their mission through to the beginning of the 1960s. In addition, the Institute of Education for Girls which took up the name of 'Zamalek Training Institute for Females' had a department for the preparation of pre-school teachers which was set up in 1934. In 1945-1946, the Ministry of Education established a kindergarten for children attached to the Zamalek Training Institute for Females to train the students specialising in nursery and kindergarten education. This institute was deeply affected by the Froebel method and system and modelled their schools on it. Consequently they were centred on activities such as handicrafts, nature study, drawing, number lessons, religious education and other things which depended on play and free activities.⁶²

The curricula in the teacher training institutes dealing with early childhood were universal and contained academic, cultural and vocational preparation. It included play and

the use of simple visual aids. On the other hand, the curriculum also contained the principles of education and psychological development. The student also had to know the features and facilities of the local environment and how these attributes or constraints affect the educational process.

b) The Contemporary Scene

In 1953, the nursery and kindergarten departments abolished pre-school teacher training because the state gave priority to primary education making it compulsory and free for all. However, by the early 1970s the number of working mothers had increased considerably, producing a parallel demand for education in the pre-school stage and the related need to prepare specialist teachers for it. A Ministerial decision in 1970 approved the establishment of a branch for the preparation of pre-school teachers in teacher-training institutes. The period of the study and training in this branch was five years after preparatory school, so as to prepare teachers for working in pre-school institutions, as well as teaching in the first four grades of the primary stage.

However, as before, most of the graduates of these courses did not work in the field of pre-school education but in the primary school instead, due to a severe lack of teachers at this stage. Thus, once more the work in pre-schools was left to untrained teachers.

In addition to the teacher training institutes, The Faculty of Women in Ain Shams University, had been established in 1964. This faculty was and still is one of the first institutions to prepare leaders and supervisors for pre-school education. A new department has been specially established for the study

of child care development. The period of the study programme in this department is for four years after secondary schools, at the end of which the student is awarded a Bachelor of Arts in Home Economics.

The department has been planned to prepare specialists in childhood development, so they can work as directors or supervisors in the day centres as well as in the nursery and kindergarten schools.

The student receives a general course during the first two years, in both Arabic and English, social studies, physics and mathematics. In the second two years, the study is concentrated on educational and psychological subjects besides the practice training in nursery and kindergarten teaching. Table 22 indicates the steady increase in the number of graduates from the Department of Childhood Development in the Faculty of Women in Ain Shams University.⁶³

The constitution and regulations of the Department of childhood Development in the Faculty of Women in Ain Shams University contain a study of subjects for four years which qualifies the students and prepares them to be an effective teacher in the pre-school sector.

Table 23 indicates the study programme in the Faculty of Women in the Department of Childhood Development in Ain Shams University,⁶⁴ while Table 24 indicates the study programme in the Faculty of Education in the Department of Childhood Education in Tanta University.⁶⁵ It is clear from the tables that the preparation of nursery and kindergarten teachers includes both theory and practice.

TABLE 22

NUMBER OF GRADUATES FROM THE DEPARTMENT OF CHILDHOOD
DEVELOPMENT IN THE FACULTY OF WOMEN IN AIN SHAMS UNIVERSITY

YEAR	Number of Graduates
1968/1969	3
1969/1970	8
1970/1971	6
1971/1972	6
1972/1973	16
1973/1974	19
1974/1975	23
1975/1976	41
1976/1977	80
TOTAL	202

Source: A.R.E., The National Centre for Educational Research, Educational Documentation and Information Agency, The System of Education in the A.R.E., (Egypt: The Documentation Centre for Education, 1973), p. 9.

TABLE 23

THE DISTRIBUTION OF THE STUDY PROGRAMME IN THE FOUR YEARS STUDY IN THE DEPARTMENT
OF CHILDHOOD DEVELOPMENT IN THE FACULTY OF WOMEN IN AIN SHAMS UNIVERSITY

The Study Subjects													
Field Study	Nursing and Diseases	Linguistics	Art Subjects	Economic	Special Education	Juvenile Delinquency	Curriculum	Childhood	Education	Sciences	Psychology	Arabic Language	Year
		Foreign Language		General Hygiene				Childhood Institutions The Child Cultural		Physiology General Chemistry	Introduction to psychology psychological development	Arabic Religion	First Year
			Art Subjects	Mother Health Nutrition	Special Education for retarded children	Juvenile delinquency		Child and the Nursery		Heredity and embryology	Psychological measurement physical psychology	Arabic	Second Year
	Teaching Practise	Child diseases	Art Subjects				Audio Visual Aids	Socialization and child problems	Education and Social problems	Anthropology	Physical health Social psychology Individual differences	Arabic	Third Year
	Teaching Practise	Teaching Practise	Art Subjects		Problems of retarded child			Scientific methods for studying children	Comparative Education History of Education Foundation of Education		Psychological and Educational Guidance	The Arab Family children literature	Fourth Year

Source: UNESCO, The Role of Working Mothers in Early Childhood Education,
(A.R.E., 1977), p. 23.

TABLE 24

THE DISTRIBUTION OF THE STUDY PROGRAMME IN THE FOUR YEARS STUDY IN THE DEPARTMENT OF
CHILDHOOD EDUCATION IN THE FACULTY OF EDUCATION IN TANTA UNIVERSITY

The Study Subjects												Year
Field Study	Nursing Diseases	Linguistics	Art Subjects	Economic	Teaching Method	Curriculum	Childhood	Education	Sciences	Psychology	Arabic Language	Year
		Foreign Language	Art Subjects Music	General Hygiene			Socialization Education		Physiology	Introduction to psychology, Psychological development	Arabic Religion children literature	First Year
		Foreign Language	Art skills Music	General Hygiene			child nursery and kindergarten child theatre	History of Education	Scientific concepts Linguistic concepts	Physiology	Arabic	Second Year
Teaching Practice	Children Diseases	Foreign Language	Art skills Music		Teaching Methods	Curriculum Audio Visual Aids	Children Stories	Philosophical foundations		Social Psychology Psychological measurement Individual Differences Physical health	Arabic Religion	Third Year
Teaching Practice		Foreign Language	Art skills Music		Teaching Methods	Curriculum Audio Visual Aids	Scientific Methods	Social foundations		Educational psychology Psychological and Educational Guidance	Arabic	Fourth Year

Source: Department of Childhood Education, Faculty of Education, Tanta University.

In addition to the foundation of the Department for Childhood Development in Ain Shams University, Tanta University has also established an early childhood department and awards a 'Professional Diploma in Childhood'. The School of Home Economics in Helwan also prepares the qualification of supervisors, and Ain Shams University established in 1978 the 'Childhood Studies Centre' in the University, which introduces every day, the recent and new trends in the childhood field and child care, such as: television programmes, specialised books for parents to help them in education and development of their children. In addition to the researches which are introduced by the Centre and concentrate on the psychological and physiological development for the children.

To support these innovations in initial training, the Ministry of Education and Ministry of Social Affairs have prepared a programme for in-service training for the teacher to give them a refresher course in the childhood field. Also the Ministry send summer missions of teachers overseas to find out the recent developments in the field of pre-school education.

In spite of the establishment of all these higher level institutes to prepare pre-school teachers, the actual facts of the matter indicate that most of the teachers in pre-school institutions are not specialists working with children. The problem of attracting really fit individuals to work as teachers in the pre-school education, and the provision of the numbers required of these educators persists to be one of the major problems confronting expansion in pre-school education.

6.5.3 Curriculum and Activities for Pre-School Children in Egypt

As a general rule, the programme in pre-school education includes such free activities as drawing, gardening, handwork, music and songs, and physical training. Teaching of the basic skills is usually permitted as from the age of five years. The Ministry of Education did its best to prepare a model programme for daily activities, which is acceptable for modification, according to the environmental facilities.

Table 25 indicates the Model Programme for 'Daily Activities', but beyond this, the Ministry of Education in Egypt does not offer any official instructions concerning the curriculum, because it considers that there is no place for formal lessons in pre-school education. Every nursery and kindergarten school should follow the curriculum which is suitable for its circumstances, and the circumstances of its social and physical environment. In practice, however, most nurseries and kindergartens concentrate on preparing the child for literacy. This is normally done by way of initial training in different shapes and colour pictures, followed by the child trying to distinguish between different shapes to know the letters, hence the child starts to create an image of the work from different pictures.

Concerning writing, the child begins to learn by drawing the words not by writing it.⁶⁶ The child learns writing the alphabetic letters and formation of the words. Much depends on the personal qualities and cultural attributes of the teacher.

All this is 'by default' in view of the absence of

TABLE 25A MODEL DAILY PROGRAMME FOR PRE-SCHOOL EDUCATION

TIME	ACTIVITY
8.00 - 8.30	Receiving children, Health examination and discipline.
8.30 - 9.30	Outdoor play.
9.30 - 10.15	Gardening and the care of chickens.
10.15 - 11.00	Drinking milk or juice and going to toilet.
11.00 - 11.30	News and expression language and learning simple elementary three R's, for age group between five and six.
11.30 - 12.00	Songs, music and movement rhythm.
12.00 - 1.30	Going to toilet - Lunch and rest.
1.30 - 2.00	Stories and imaginative activities.
2.00 - 2.30	Getting ready for departure.

Source: Ministry of Education and General Department for Primary Education, General News Letter No. 128, in 26 - 8 - 70.

appropriate, or any, educational plans for the pre-school curriculum.

"The teacher is no longer the transmitter of knowledge, neither he is the bearer of information, Rather, he is the guide who leads every child to grow and flourish according to his individual abilities and potentialities up to the maximum of his capacities." 67

The writer believes that all this illustrates the need to develop pre-school training in Egypt.

6.6 Major Problems Existing in the Development of Pre-School Education

All societies are undergoing rapid change, some aspects of the change are common, and impose new demands on education as a profession, such as the increased development of knowledge, science, technology and mass media. These changes bring new tasks to Egyptian society to face up to the following problems which exist in the field of pre-school education. Problems which are common in Egypt in the field of pre-school education include:

a) the problem of lack of trained staff for working in pre-school institutions heads the list of problems which are undoubtedly the major barrier to the expansion of pre-school education. This is due to the absence of specialised elements from teachers in the field of pre-school, in spite of the fact that some of those specialised teachers who graduated from the colleges in the field of pre-school education. So the problem of attracting the really fit individuals to work as teachers in pre-school education and the provision of the numbers required from those specialised teachers are considered one

of the major barriers to the expansion of pre-school education. As a result, Egypt is in the process of expanding training facilities and programmes.

b) The second problem is the rate of population increase which is extremely high and is causing a continuous rise in the number of children who should be in pre-school. This situation imposes new tasks on the teachers on the teachers. They have to practise how to work with large groups of children, how to provide for individual differences, how to plan for diversified activities and how to evaluate children's growth and development. There is a need to reduce the pupil: teacher ratio.

c) Another problem is concerned with the attitudes towards pre-school education. Many parents who send their children to nursery school between the ages of three and six expect the nursery school to begin the child's formal education, and give them a head start to read, write and account, so that they will be better prepared for primary school. Those parents are not aware of the educational value of play and free activities for the children of this age.⁶⁸

d) The provision of adequate facilities in both qualitative and quantitative terms for the pre-school children poses a number of specific problems such as the lack of the financial facilities to meet demand, lack of equipment, educational materials and furnishings, and lack of building capacity. All of these problems affect the kind of services which are introduced and available for the child.

e) Lack of planning and co-ordination of various forms and

types of pre-school education at all levels. Whereas three Ministries are responsible for different forms of pre-school education, it becomes difficult to co-ordinate and implement policy on a national level, whether it should be through the public authorities or through national associations.

f) Lack of financial resources for publicity and centrally-funded comprehensive pre-school education schemes which respond particularly to the needs of working mothers and their children.

g) Numerous problems are also involved in planning the development of pre-school educational institutes, whereas although there are not enough nursery and kindergarten schools to meet demand, many existing ones are not filled to capacity. This means that the planning for establishing pre-school institution lacks feasibility surveys to recognise the needs in different areas.

h) Another problem concerns the attitudes of parents towards pre-school education, which is represented in the lack of awareness on the part of parents to the importance of pre-school years for the full development of the child.

i) A final set of problems and a difficult one faced by many of the working mothers is that the children of working mothers are not necessarily given priority in the admission policies of pre-school institutions.

In spite of all these problems, there is increasing concern with the care and education of pre-school children

at all levels and this is the result of the great efforts by the Ministry of Education and Ministry of Social Affairs in the last two or three decades.

.....

This concludes the descriptive analysis of the Egyptian system of education and its pre-school dimension in particular. To go further requires empirical research and so the writer undertook a survey of selected pre-school teachers and heads in both Egypt and England. The following chapter is concerned with how this field study was planned and executed, and what the major outcomes were.

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CHAPTER SEVEN

A FIELD STUDY OF PRE-SCHOOL EDUCATION IN ENGLAND AND EGYPT

7.1 Research Design and Structure

7.1.1 Introduction

Clearly the present situation in respect of early childhood education in both England and Egypt is, no doubt, a reflection of the historical development of pre-school education in each country. But to what extent do England pre-school teachers and Egyptian pre-school teachers today agree on aims, objectives, and priorities in pre-school education? The findings of a field study carried out in England compared with the findings of a study undertaken in Egypt go some way to provide an answer to this question. It also adds to the literature of research in this field, in that it is important to give first hand knowledge of the situation in England and Egypt.

In order to undertake this task the researcher developed a questionnaire for teachers and headteachers in the pre-school stage. As mentioned above, the survey attempted to provide as clear a picture of the current provision as possible by securing data on different aspects of kindergarten and nursery school education in each country. In addition to this, the aims of the survey were to draw up recommendations for the future development of pre-school education in Egypt.

The researcher made an attempt to keep the difference between the two samples to a minimum to make a fair comparison between findings in the two countries. Inevitably certain

modifications were made to the Egyptian questionnaire to make it more applicable to the particular context, especially in respect of background data on teachers such as training qualifications. A few alterations had to be made in respect of questions on objectives for subjects concerned with the religious/moral education of the child and sensitization to future role in the society. This objective seemed to be of great relevance to kindergarten education in Egypt and is indeed emphasised in the stated philosophy and purposes of the education system in that country.

7.1.2 Schedule

The methods used to collect information for a general view of the educational practices and staff opinions as to the present situation in pre-school provision in Egypt and England were as follows:

- a) collecting information through the use of two questionnaires: the teachers questionnaire and the head teachers questionnaire. These were designed to obtain information about the educational practices in pre-school education;
- b) in England, the questionnaires were distributed after the perusal and authorisation of Mr. Rex Stott, then Senior Education Officer of Schools, Humberside Education Authority;
- c) in Egypt the questionnaires were distributed after consultation with the Ministry of Education to gain permission and assistance to apply the questionnaires;
- d) in Egypt, the questionnaires were distributed and collected personally by the researcher, enabling her to discuss with the teachers any problems related to the questionnaire;
- e) in England most of the questionnaires were personally

distributed in nursery schools and nursery classes by the researcher in association with Mrs. Jean Williams who is a specialist in the field of Early Childhood Education - some of them were mailed;

f) the purpose of the study was carefully explained to the sample of teachers and headteachers in both countries;

g) the questionnaire was refined and translated into Arabic for its use in Egypt;

h) the teachers were asked not to write their names on the questionnaires, so as to preserve anonymity;

i) the questions comprising each document were divided into three types:

- i) open-ended questions,
- ii) closed questions,
- iii) marked-type questions in a (5) point Likert scale running from not important, to very important or the opposite,
- iv) multiple-choice type to ensure that individual items yielded measurable results.

Three hundred printed copies were prepared for distribution to teachers in Humberside and Cairo nursery-kindergarten schools and 100 printed copies were prepared for the headteachers in both countries. The questions were coded and the questionnaire data was entered on cards for input into the SPSS file.

j) the collection of field data lasted three months in Cairo- from November 1986 to January 1987;

k) in Humberside, it lasted six months from October 1986 to April 1987;

l) all completed questionnaires then were brought to reading

for analysis.

7.1.3 Validation of the Questionnaires

The questionnaires were based on A Study of Nursery Education: Schools Council Working Paper 41¹ after modification to be suitable for the purpose of the study.

The Schools Council Working Paper 41 questionnaire was modified before for using in the Arab world with reference to Mardan², Nashf³ and Al-Bahrani.⁴ Similar circumstances in most Arab countries gave the researcher the opportunity to depend on these studies in designing the questionnaire. In addition to this, the validity and reliability of the questionnaire was established by consultation with specialists a) in early childhood education (Jean Williams), and b) in the University of Hull Computer Centre (Mr. Alan Reese). As a result of the comments of those specialists, some elements were modified, some questions removed and others added, in order to obtain clear responses from teachers.

7.1.4 The Samples

The sample was chosen from Humberside in England and from Cairo in Egypt. The provision of nursery education in Humberside is mainly in nursery schools and classes. The number of nursery schools in Humberside (East Riding-Grimsby/Hull-Scunthorpe) is only nine so the sample consists of 4 nursery schools and 22 nursery classes. The researcher delivered 120 questionnaires to teachers in nursery schools and classes, plus 26 of the questionnaires for headteachers.

The final return of teacher questionnaires was 62 in all which represented an overall return of 51 per cent of the sampled schools and classes. Of the headteacher questionnaires, 22

out of 26 were returned.

For a while, the Egyptian sample was taken from Cairo where most of the kindergartens are concentrated. The sample concerned state kindergartens only, especially those established in 1978. The number of these schools was 23, all of which came under the responsibility of the Ministry of Education. The researcher decided to include all 23 schools in the study. A sample of this size provided for comparison with the sample from Humberside.

The researcher sent 120 questionnaires between all 23 kindergartens, and 23 questionnaires for the headteachers in these schools. The final return from the teacher questionnaire was 96 in all, representing an overall return of 77 per cent, while the return from the headteachers questionnaire was 20, a very similar proportion as in the case of Humberside.

7.1.5 The Questionnaires

The teacher questionnaire contents (and responses) are grouped under the following headings:

- a) the number of children in the class, personal details and experience, qualification of the teachers in pre-school education;
- b) aims of nursery-kindergarten education;
- c) the role of the nursery-kindergarten teachers;
- d) the objectives of nursery-kindergarten education;
- e) the curriculum at nursery-kindergarten level.

The headteachers questionnaire contents (and responses) are grouped under the following headings:

- a) the number of children in the nursery-kindergarten school, and the pupil/teacher ratio;

- b) the experience and the qualifications of the headteacher;
- c) the relationship between the staff, and the attitude of the headteachers towards the teachers.

7.2 Research Findings

7.2.1 Findings of the Teachers Questionnaire in England and Egypt

a) Number of Children, Personal Details, Experience and Qualifications.

i) The Number of Children:

The first part of the questionnaire told a great deal about the 62 teachers who completed it in England, and 96 teachers who completed it in Egypt.

Compared with the number of children in class in England, Egyptian kindergarten classes are relatively big. This is true as the following facts indicate in Table 26.

TABLE 26
NUMBER OF CHILDREN IN THE CLASS

No. of Children in the class	In England			In Egypt		
	No.	%	Cum.	No.	%	Cum.
Less than 15	1	1.6	1.6	-	-	-
15 - 19	10	16.2	17.8	1	1.0	1.0
20 - 24	33	61.3	79.1	1	1.0	1.0
25 - 29	6	9.7	88.8	55	57.3	59.3
30 - Over	-	-	-	39	40.6	100.0
Nil Response	7	11.3	100.0	-	-	-
TOTAL	62	100.0		96	100.0	

The majority number of classes in Egyptian kindergartens were between (25-29) 57.3% and (30 and over), 40.6% and 1.0% was from (15-19), 1.0% from (20-24). For a while in England, 61.3% concentrated in number between (20-24), 16.2% between (15-19), 9.7% from (25-29) and 1.6% contain less than 15 children.

If this is true, this means that the number of children in kindergartens in Egypt is big, with the size of the class being 25 to 30 and sometimes over 30. This is due to the fact that the number of kindergartens in Egypt is relatively few as compared with the number of children who need pre-school provision at this age level. This is due also to the shortage in the number of teachers who work at the kindergarten stage. This means that the ratio of teacher to child is 1:25 or even 1:35 at least so the teacher operates as a class teacher. She alone is responsible for the class, except in some activities like music and physical education.

In England (Hull) the size of the class in nursery school and nursery class was between 15 - 19 or 20 - 24. Furthermore, the teachers generally work as a team, and not as individuals. The ratio of the teacher to children was found to be between 1:10 to 1:13 and some of the children stay in the nursery for full-time day, though while the majority stay part-time only, in Egypt all the children stay full-time.

ii) Age Group and Marital Status:

As compared with nursery teachers in Hull, the Egyptian kindergarten teachers are young. The age distribution of the sample indicates that the largest proportion (49.0%) were in the age group of 'less than 25 years' with 33.3 per cent being

in the age group 25 - 29. Only a minority were over 30 years of age.

In Hull, responses showed that 9.7 per cent of nursery teachers were under 25 years of age, while 43.5 per cent were between 35 - 44 years of age and an additional 22.6 per cent between 25 - 34 years of age. This represents a clear contrast as between the UK and Egyptian samples.

Table 27 shows the distribution of English and Egyptian teachers by age.

TABLE 27

DISTRIBUTION OF ENGLISH AND EGYPTIAN TEACHERS BY AGE

England			Egypt		
Age	No.	%	Age	No.	%
Less than 25 yrs	6	9.7	Less than 25 yrs	47	49.0
25 - 34	14	22.6	25 - 29	32	33.3
35 - 44	27	43.5	30 - 39	11	11.5
45 - 54	9	14.5	40 - 49	5	5.2
55 - Over	4	6.5	50 - Over	1	1.0
Nil Response	2	3.2	Nil Response	-	-
TOTAL	62	100.0		96	100.0

Concerning marital status, the responses show that while 82.3 per cent of Hull nursery teachers were married, only 40.6 per cent of kindergarten teachers in Egypt were married. Not surprisingly, a much higher proportion of nursery teachers in England had children of their own. The researcher believes that the situation in England's nursery schools may be better

than that in Egypt in respect of a more mature professional group, experienced and stable.

The tables 28 and 29 in sequence show the marital status of English and Egyptian teachers, and the number of teachers who had children of their own.

TABLE 28

MARITAL STATUS BY ENGLISH AND EGYPTIAN TEACHERS

Marital Status	England		Egypt	
	No.	%	No.	%
Single	8	12.9	56	58.3
Married	51	82.3	39	40.6
Nil Response	3	4.8	1	1.0
TOTAL	62	100.0	96	100.0

TABLE 29

CHILDREN OF THEIR OWN

Children of their own	England		Egypt	
	No.	%	No.	%
Yes	41	66.1	23	24.0
No	20	32.3	65	67.7
Nil Response	1	1.6	8	8.3
TOTAL	62	100.0	96	100.0

iii) Teacher Qualifications

An analysis of the qualifications of the teacher sample

who answered the questionnaire in England shows that the majority of nursery teachers received training relevant to their work. More than 40 per cent of teachers possessed teaching certificates and also 51.6 per cent possessed the NNEB (National Nursery Examination Board) Certificate; some 3.2 per cent had gained a University degree and 4.8 per cent an Advanced Diploma.

Nursery Education was included as a major part of their training and the majority of them were qualified to work with pre-school children. Most of them had trained for two years, and others for three years.

Table 30 shows the distribution of teachers qualifications in nursery schools in England.

TABLE 30

TEACHERS QUALIFICATIONS IN NURSERY SCHOOLS IN ENGLAND

Teachers Qualifications	No.	%	Cum.
Teacher Training Certificate	25	40.3	40.3
University Degree	2	3.2	43.5
Advanced Diploma	3	4.8	48.4
NNEB	32	51.6	100.0
TOTAL	62	100.0	

In Egypt, nearly a quarter of the teachers (24.0 per cent) hold a secondary school certificate and so they were not qualified to teach in kindergarten school. Only 6.3 per cent had the general teacher training certificate from general

teacher training institutes, which qualified them to teach in primary schools and kindergartens. The course of study in these institutions is for five years after intermediate school, with the fourth and fifth years specialised for teaching in kindergartens. In addition to this, 10.4 per cent were trained for two years after secondary school education and hold special teacher training certificate. The majority hold a university degree (59.4 per cent) in different specializations, which qualified them for teaching at preparatory or secondary school. They were trained for four years after secondary school education. Some of those who had teaching university degree specialized in pre-school education from (Woman College and Ainshams University and Faculty of Education, Tanta University) in the Departments of Early Childhood Education, but they worked recently in kindergarten school.

Table 31 shows the distribution of kindergarten teacher qualifications in Egypt.

TABLE 31

TEACHER QUALIFICATIONS IN KINDERGARTENS IN EGYPT

Teacher qualifications	No.	%	Cum.
Secondary Certificate	23	24.0	24.0
General Teacher Training Certificate	6	6.3	30.2
Special Teacher Training Certificate	10	10.4	40.6
University Degree	57	59.4	100.0
TOTAL	96	100.0	

So it might be said that the majority of nursery teachers in England were receiving more training relevant to their work than their counterparts in Egypt. However, there are in-service training courses relevant to the work of pre-school teachers in Egypt for those who do not hold a teaching certificate and not qualified to work in kindergartens. In addition to this fact, the number of students who have a teaching certificate in early childhood education has increased and the Ministry of Education concentrates their efforts to benefit from all those who are qualified teachers in the field of early childhood education to teach in pre-school education.

iv) Teaching Experience

Compared with nursery teachers in England, kindergarten teachers in Egypt have shorter experiences in teaching. So whereas 41.9 per cent of the Hull nursery teachers had taught in school for between 5 - 10 years and a further 25.8 per cent had taught in school from 11 - 20 years, only 10.4 per cent of kindergarten teachers in Egypt had taught for 5 - 9 years, with a further 8.3 per cent having 10 - 19 years.

Table 32 shows the length of teaching experience in the English sample, while Table 33 shows this for the Egyptian group.

TABLE 32LENGTH OF EXPERIENCE OF NURSERY-KINDERGARTENTEACHERS IN TEACHING UNDER-FIVES (ENGLAND)

Length of Teaching in England	No.	%
Less than 1 year	2	3.2
1 - 4 years	11	17.7
5 - 10 years	26	41.9
11 - 20 years	16	25.8
20 - Over	5	8.1
Nil Response	2	3.2
TOTAL	62	100.0

TABLE 33
LENGTH OF EXPERIENCE OF NURSERY-KINDERGARTEN TEACHERS
IN TEACHING UNDER-FIVES (EGYPT)

Length of Teaching in Egypt	No.	%
Less than 1 year	31	32.3
1 - 4 years	46	47.9
5 - 9 years	10	10.4
10 - 14 years	3	3.1
15 - 19 years	5	5.2
20 - Over	1	1.0
TOTAL	96	100.0

Years of experience were categorised differently in the Egyptian questionnaire to allow for the relatively shorter experience of Egyptian teachers. So data on teaching experience of English and Egyptian teachers is not directly comparable. A major reason for the shorter experience in Egypt might be due to the fact that some of the teachers had changed from teaching older children because they like to work with young children and/or feel that it gives them a greater chance of promotion.

v) Motives for Teaching in Pre-School

In this question, the teachers were asked to rank ten motives for teaching in the nursery/kindergarten. The findings of the English and Egyptian questionnaire indicate that the

Hull nursery and Cairo kindergarten teachers had essentially similar motives for entering the profession at this level (see Table 34).

As Table 35 indicates, the motives which are classified as vocational by the Study of Aims of Nursery Education Project (1972)⁵, such as: interesting work, liking for working with children, freedom to organise my own work, worthwhile work, and work you could do best, accounted for a high percentage of 'very important' in the teachers responses in both countries. The structure of the motives stated as 'very important' serves to underline the importance of 'vocational motives'.

Table 35 shows the importance of the vocational motives in both countries.

TABLE 34

MOTIVES FOR ENTERING TEACHING OF ENGLISH AND EGYPTIAN TEACHERS

Motives for Entering Teaching	1	% Rating	2	3	4	5	Nil Response	Mean	STD
1. Interesting work	(A) (B)	- 3.1	1.6 -	3.2 13.5	12.9 6.3	74.2 61.5	8.1 15.6	4.35 3.76	1.43 1.87
2. Opportunity to pursue interest in particular subject	(A) (B)	11.3 16.7	24.2 11.5	17.7 11.5	11.3 14.6	16.1 14.6	19.4 31.3	2.38 2.05	1.69 1.86
3. Security	(A) (B)	12.9 7.3	3.2 6.3	21.0 17.7	27.4 11.5	24.2 28.1	11.3 29.2	3.12 2.59	1.68 2.02
4. To organise my own work	(A) (B)	3.2 8.3	6.5 4.2	15.5 9.4	32.3 19.8	33.9 32.3	9.7 26.0	3.58 2.85	1.56 2.06
5. Occupation with status	(A) (B)	43.5 4.2	14.5 3.1	14.5 9.4	9.7 16.7	1.6 41.7	16.1 25.0	1.62 3.13	1.28 2.08
6. Good hours and holidays	(A) (B)	12.9 28.1	16.1 7.3	19.0 4.2	16.1 9.4	11.3 24.0	14.5 27.1	2.53 2.12	1.56 1.99
7. Liking for teaching to children	(A) (B)	- 1.0	- 2.1	6.5 4.2	16.1 7.3	72.6 76.0	4.8 9.4	4.46 4.27	1.17 1.56
8. Worthwhile work	(A) (B)	- 2.1	3.2 3.1	3.2 4.2	12.9 16.7	71.0 52.1	9.7 21.9	4.22 3.47	1.55 2.07

Motives for Entering Teaching	1	% Rating 2	3	4	5	Nil Response	Mean	STD
9. Salary	(A) 38.7 (B) 40.6	19.4 4.2	14.5 7.3	8.1 -	- 6.3	19.4 41.7	1.53 1.02	1.20 1.33
10. Work you could do best	(A) 3.2 (B) 9.4	1.6 2.1	16.1 8.3	17.7 11.5	48.4 30.2	12.9 38.5	3.67 2.35	1.74 2.20

Key

Not important at all (1)

Irrelevant (2)

Of only minor importance (3)

Important (4)

Very important (5)

England (A)

Egypt (B)

TABLE 35
MOTIVES RATING "VERY IMPORTANT"

Motives	English Teachers		Egyptian Teachers	
	No.	%	No.	%
<u>Vocational</u>				
1. Interesting work	46	74.2	59	61.5
2. Liking for work with children	45	72.6	73	76.0
3. Worthwhile work	44	71.0	50	52.1
4. To organise my own work	21	33.9	31	32.3
5. Work you could do best	30	48.4	29	30.2
6. Opportunity to pursue interest in particular subject	10	16.1	14	14.6
<u>Economic</u>				
7. Security	15	24.2	27	28.1
8. Occupation with status	1	1.6	40	41.7
9. Good hours and holidays	7	11.3	23	24.0
10. Salary	-	-	6	6.3

The first motives for teaching in pre-school were vocational in both groups. The second motives for teaching which were considerably lower in weight were economic. In summary, it could be said that where the percentage for all the economic motives were considered most important by a relatively higher percentage of kindergarten teachers in Egypt than by nursery teachers in England, all the vocational motives

were considered very important by a higher percentage in both groups. In addition to vocational and economic motives for teaching in pre-school education, there are other reasons in both groups which were classified as personal reasons for the purpose of comparison - such as in England 'attraction to go to college', had 6.5 per cent of rating 'very important'. In Egypt, the motive 'family pressure and having a child of pre-school age' had 21.9 per cent of rating 'very important'.

The essential background to an understanding of the teachers stated motives is that a considerable percentage of them knowing what they know about the profession would still choose to take up teaching. Clearly, they are professional people with the majority of them committed to their work. When teachers were asked, 'knowing what you know now, would you still choose teaching? - as Table(36) shows, the majority of them in England still choose teaching, 77.4 per cent answered Yes and only 19.4 per cent said No. In kindergarten schools in Egypt, more than half the teachers still choose teaching. The percentage was 60.4 and only 37.5 per cent said No.

TABLE 36

DISTRIBUTION OF TEACHER PERCENTAGE "STILL CHOOSE TEACHING"

Choose Teaching	In England		In Egypt	
	No.	%	No.	%
Yes	48	77.4	58	60.4
No	12	19.4	36	37.5
Nil Response	2	3.2	2	2.1
TOTAL	62	100.0	96	100.0

vi) Buildings and other Facilities

One of the questions asked was about the teachers opinion of their school buildings and facilities as an environment for nursery/kindergarten education. The teachers were asked to describe their own school building on a scale ranging from "Ideal" to "Very Poor" (see Table 37).

TABLE 37SCHOOL BUILDINGS AND FACILITIES

Building Facilities	In England		In Egypt	
	No.	%	No.	%
Ideal	11	17.7	9	9.4
Very good	26	41.9	25	26.0
Adequate	21	33.9	53	55.2
Limited	4	6.5	9	9.4
TOTAL	62	100.0	96	100.0

In England, more than half the teachers (59.6 per cent) thought that their building and facilities were "ideal" or "very good", while in Egypt, only 35.4 per cent were of this opinion.

viii) In-Service Training

One of the survey questions asked the teachers in both groups about their feelings for a need for in-service training. The response was that 72.6 per cent of the Hull teachers and 37.5 per cent of the Egyptian teachers felt this need. However, both groups were more in agreement as to the nature of training needed. Three topics of in-service training seem

to be of interest to them; current trends and new ideas in the field of pre-school education; refresher courses on teaching methods; curriculum studies of pre-school education. But whereas teachers in England were more interested in practice in nursery teaching, the opportunity to meet and discuss with other teachers, and study courses concerned with early childhood problems and those of minority group children in particular, the Egyptian teachers said they needed training in preparing teaching aids for use in transmitting subject matter to kindergarten children, specially for use in the learning of language, science and mathematics. They also said they needed to know something of the systems of pre-school education in other countries, especially European countries.

viii) Education Courses for the Pre-School Teacher

The final question of section one of the questionnaire asked the nursery and kindergarten teacher which of ten possible components of a course for teachers they thought most important.

Table 38 gives the distribution of rating of the ten components of education courses for pre-school teachers, and shows the relative importance as identified by the teachers of these aspects of curriculum. It also illustrates the mean rating to the different components of the course and the percentage of the "very important" category given by the teachers in both groups.

We can see that the nursery school teacher in England gave higher ratings to practice in nursery teaching (88.7 per cent "very important" with a mean rating 4.50) whereas it was only 37.5 per cent in Egypt with mean rating 3.76. Although

TABLE 38

THE DISTRIBUTION OF RATING OF TEN COMPONENTS OF A NURSERY-KINDERGARTEN TEACHER EDUCATION

COURSE BY ENGLAND AND EGYPT

Area of Course		% Rating					Nil Response	Mean	STD
		1	2	3	4	5			
1. Study of one or more expressive subjects	England Egypt	1.6 4.2	- 8.3	8.1 18.8	43.5 22.9	37.1 42.7	9.7 3.1	3.85 3.82	1.47 1.35
2. Practical skills	England Egypt	- -	4.8 1.0	27.4 21.9	32.3 30.2	25.8 45.8	9.7 1.0	3.50 4.18	1.43 .92
3. Study of one or more academic subject	England Egypt	1.6 3.1	4.8 4.2	22.6 18.8	40.3 31.3	19.4 36.5	11.3 6.3	3.38 3.75	1.49 1.40
4. Curriculum Studies	England Egypt	- 3.1	- 10.4	- 21.9	30.6 17.7	58.1 42.7	11.3 4.2	4.13 3.74	1.55 1.40
5. Sociology of Education	England Egypt	- 5.2	3.2 8.3	8.1 24.0	43.5 22.9	30.6 34.4	14.5 5.2	3.58 3.57	1.65 1.43
6. History of Education	England Egypt	1.6 7.3	4.8 16.7	33.9 28.1	30.6 15.6	16.1 29.2	12.9 3.1	3.16 3.33	1.49 1.40
7. Educational Organisation and Administration	England Egypt	- 3.1	4.8 6.3	11.3 30.2	41.9 31.3	29.0 22.9	12.9 6.3	3.57 3.46	1.59 1.34

Area of Course		% Rating					Nil Response	Mean	STD
		1	2	3	4	5			
8. Health and Hygiene	England Egypt	- 1.0	- 1.0	6.5 5.2	27.4 25.0	56.5 66.7	9.7 1.0	4.11 4.52	1.48 .87
9. Practice in Nursery-kindergarten teaching	England Egypt	- 5.2	- 6.3	- 16.7	1.6 30.2	88.7 37.5	9.7 4.2	4.50 3.76	1.49 1.48
10. Theory and Philosophy of Education	England Egypt	- 2.1	1.6 2.1	8.1 13.5	40.3 20.8	38.7 52.1	11.3 9.4	3.82 3.91	1.53 1.56

Key Rating:

Irrelevant	1
Not Important	2
Of only minor importance	3
Important	4
Very important	5

the "study of health and hygiene" seems to be important to both groups, it appears slightly more pressing to kindergarten teachers in Egypt, with mean rating of 4.52. Both groups also recognised the significance of curriculum studies.

The Study of Theory and Philosophy of Education had the second highest rating percentage as "very important" in Egypt. Considering that the mean rating was 3.91 per cent in Egypt and 3.82 per cent in England, this again illustrates comparability of a high order. This suggests that both groups of teachers recognise that the practice in nursery/kindergarten teaching should not be engaged in without the appropriate framework of theory to support it.

Egyptian teachers were more agreed about the importance of learning practical skills such as toy making and construction of games than were teachers in England. Both, however, were agreed about the importance of studying one or more expressive subjects, believing this to be an important contribution to the personal development of the student teacher.

The history of education, the study of one or more academic subjects and educational organisation stand out as the least preferred components among the Hull sample of English teachers. The low rating of "the study of one or more academic subjects" suggests the need for a reappraisal of the conventional College of Education course with its emphasis on such a study. However, this would go directly against the criteria developed by the Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (CATE) which is presently examining the work of teacher training institutions of all types. In Egypt "the study of one or more academic subjects" had a reasonable percentage

of "very important" ratings and this is due to the fact that more formal teaching of certain academic subjects occupies the kindergarten teacher there.

In summary, it can be said that for the Hull teachers, the practice of teaching and the study of the curriculum were seen as the most urgent item, while for the Cairo teachers the preference was for health and hygiene and the theory and philosophy. However, both groups gave a fair amount of support to all ten potential components.

b) Aims of Nursery+Kindergarten Education

Educational aims at the nursery-kindergarten level are subject to changes and broadly reflect the society to which the system belongs; that is to say, such aims as any society considers it worthwhile and practical to pursue in the education of young children. Since these aims are concerned with the new generation, they tend to be open-ended in order to offer maximum possibilities of acquiring skills and capabilities, sensitivities and attitudes. Open-ended aims provide a guide for how the education of the young children should be carried out. Five such aims were presented to the teachers who were asked to rank them in order of preference 1 - 5 (see Appendix In brief:

i) concerning the introduction of the child to the field of aesthetics;

ii) concerning the creation of a smooth transition from home to school;

iii) concerning general social skills and relationship between self and others;

iv) physical development;

v) concerning intellectual development.

As Table 39 shows, "social/emotional development" was ranked first overall by both groups, but with its emphasis on the child as an individual it seems to be of more importance to nursery teachers in England, for 54.8 per cent of the nursery teachers there gave top rank to this aim with a mean rating of 1.87, as compared with 36.5 per cent of the kindergarten teachers in Egypt ranking it top with a mean rating 2.05.

The intellectual aim seems also to be of more importance to nursery school teachers in England than those in the Egyptian sample, with 69.3 per cent of rankings (1) and (2) and a mean rating 1.93 in England. This compared with 53.1 per cent of such rankings in Egypt and a mean rating of 2.28.

The provision of a smooth transition from home to school seems to have been of equal importance to both samples of teachers, achieving 32.3 per cent of first rankings in both countries, with a mean rating of 2.46 in England and 2.25 in Egypt.

The purpose of "aesthetic development, takes up an intermediate position in both groups, with mean rating 3.01 in Egypt and 2.71 in England, but it had the highest percentage (30.6 per cent) of first ranking by nursery teachers in England, This compared with 24.0 per cent of first ranking by kindergarten teachers in Egypt.

The Physical Aspect of Development was considered much more important by kindergarten teachers in Egypt, being given the highest percentage (68.8) of rankings 1 and 2, and a mean rating of 2.25. This compared with only 40.3 per cent of

TABLE 39

A FIELD STUDY OF AIMS OF PRE-SCHOOL EDUCATION

Purpose of pre-school by England and Egypt	% Rating					Nil Response	Mean	STD	
	1	2	3	4	5				
1. Aesthetic development	England Egypt	30.6 24.0	9.7 12.5	17.7 19.8	17.7 20.8	19.4 21.9	4.8 1.0	2.71 3.01	1.63 1.51
2. The effection transition from home to school	England Egypt	32.3 32.3	12.9 29.2	22.6 20.8	16.1 11.5	11.3 5.2	4.8 1.0	2.46 2.25	1.49 1.21
3. Social, emotional development	England Egypt	54.8 36.5	16.1 34.4	6.5 16.7	8.1 7.3	9.7 4.2	4.8 1.0	1.87 2.05	1.42 1.12
4. Physical development	England Egypt	27.4 25.0	12.9 43.8	21.0 25.0	19.4 3.1	14.5 2.1	4.8 1.0	2.66 2.10	1.54 .92
5. Intellectual development	England Egypt	40.3 22.9	29.0 30.2	11.3 34.4	11.3 10.4	3.2 -	4.8 2.1	1.93 2.28	1.21 1.0

Key Rating

Very important	1
Important	2
Of only minor importance	3
Not important	4
Irrelevant	5

rankings 1 and 2, and a mean rating of 2.66 for the nursery teacher sample in England.

In summary, the overall order of the purposes for the two sample groups would seem to be:

<u>In England</u>		<u>In Egypt</u>	
Purpose 3	Social	Purpose 3	Social
Purpose 5	Intellectual	Purpose 2	Physical
Purpose 2	Home & School	Purpose 4	Home & School
Purpose 1	Physical	Purpose 1	Intellectual
Purpose 4	Aesthetic	Purpose 5	Aesthetic

In the writer's view the differences probably reflect ✓
contrasting social and environmental conditions in the two countries. Apart from the few differences, there were no relations between age, qualifications and teaching experience, and ranking the purposes in both groups.

Nursery schools and classes in England and kindergartens in Egypt serve catchment areas with different social classes, are located in different parts of the country and contain different numbers of children. These factors might affect the purposes that the teachers felt they ought to select in ranking terms. In view of the apparent emphasis on formal education in Egyptian kindergartens, it was expected that the Egyptian sample would give a higher ranking of importance to the intellectual purpose, but it was contrary to expectation because they prefer to leave more formal education until the primary stage.

c) The Role of the Nursery?Kindergarten Teacher

In this section, the teachers were asked to say which of four roles approximated most closely their own views of the role of the nursery-kindergarten teacher. The first role (a) was a role in which the child almost entirely determined the educational activities in which he engaged, and in which the teacher's part was to see that he was safe and happy. In the second (b) the teacher played a greater part though the child himself still gave the lead to the educational activities that would be provided. These first two roles may be characterised as 'child-centred' in the sense that it is the child who, in some degree or other, determines the educational activities.

In contrast, the other two roles (c and d) are 'teacher centred'. In both these roles, the agent of educational action is more the teacher than it is the child.

Tables 40 and 41 show that there is a preference in both samples for 'teacher centred' roles, but where the child makes a distinct contribution. However, the degree to which child directed elements were welcome was higher in Egypt.

Differences in the teachers preferences for each of the four roles in both groups may be related to differences of view about the nature of childhood.

TABLE 40
TEACHERS' ROLE PREFERENCES

The Role of the Nursery Teacher in England	Percentage Rating	Summed Per- centage
a) Child-centred: Child-directed	1.6	11.3
b) Child-centred: Teacher-directed	9.7	
c) Teacher-centred: Child-directed	50.0	79.0
d) Teacher-centred: Teacher-directed	29.0	
NIL RESPONSE	9.7	9.7

TABLE 41

The Role of Kindergarten Teachers in Egypt	Percentage Rating	Summed Per- centage
a) Child-centred: Child-directed	28.1	36.5
b) Child-centred: Teacher-directed	8.3	
c) Teacher-centred: Child-directed	35.4	63.5
d) Teacher-centred: Teacher-directed	28.1	
NIL RESPONSE	-	

d) The Objectives of Nursery-Kindergarten Education

Educational aims or purposes are broad educational intentions. In order to achieve these intentions, it is necessary to make proposals for action, to say what particular skills and capabilities children being given nursery-kindergarten education will be encouraged to develop.

In this section of the questionnaire, thirty objectives were stated and the teachers were asked to rate each one of the objectives on a 4 point scale to indicate how important it was for them to help the children to achieve the specific objective. The Egyptian survey included six objectives added to the thirty pre-existing. These were related to the national/religious objectives in respect of the following six general areas:

- i) aesthetic: concerned with awareness and creation of art, music, etc.;
- ii) physical: concerned with physical development and care of the body;
- iii) intellectual: concerned with general mental abilities;
- iv) social/emotional: concerned with personal and group relationships;
- v) school internal: concerned with adjusting to the school situation.
- vi) national/ religious.

The objectives were related to the following five areas which, with the exception of number 5, may be taken as analogous to the aims of pre-school education which are employed earlier.⁶ The area number 6 was related to the Egyptian sample only.

The responses of the two samples are given in Table 43 and Table 44.

TABLE 42NURSERY AND KINDERGARTEN OBJECTIVES ACCORDING TO PURPOSE

Purpose	Objectives	
	England Questionnaire	Egyptian Questionnaire
1. Aesthetic	1,8,11,12,26,30	1,11,13,16,31,36
2. Social-emotional	3,4,9,14,16,23	3,4,10,17,19,27
3. Physical	2,17,20,22,28,29	2,20,24,26,33,35
4. Intellectual	6,7,13,18,19,21	7,8,14,21,22,25
5. School-internal	5,10,15,24,25,27	6,12,18,29,30,32
6. National religious	-	5,9,15,23,28,34

The classification of objectives according to the main purposes of nursery/kindergarten education is shown in Table 42.

Tables 43 and 44 show how all the objectives were rated, and the extent to which the teachers agreed about the rating of each objective.

An examination of the objectives which gave a rating of 1 "extremely important", by more than 50 per cent of the sample, shows that 12 objectives were so rated by nursery school teachers in England compared with 8 objectives by the Egyptian sample, which excluded the national/religious objectives.

The objectives so rated by the England sample were: objectives 3, 4, 9, 14, 16, 23, classified as social-emotional, objectives 15, 24, 27, 29 classified as school-internal and objectives 7, 13, classified as intellectual.

Table 43 shows that some objectives were given a rating of 2 "important", by more than 50 per cent of the England sample. These objectives were related to three areas: physical objectives 2,20, intellectual objectives 6,21 and school internal objectives 5 and aesthetic objective 30.

In the Egyptian sample (Table 44) the objectives which rating of 1 "extremely important" by more than 50 per cent of teachers were related to three areas: school-internal objectives 6, 18, 29, 30 and physical objectives 26, 33, 35, but mainly concerned with the health and hygiene aspects, and social-emotional objectives 17. None of the objectives were given a rating of 2 by 50 per cent or more by Egyptian sample.

Only five objectives seemed to be equally important to both samples. These were objectives 14/17. "Become more independent", was given a rating of 1 by 69.4 per cent of England's sample and 60.4 per cent by the Egyptian sample. Objectives 15/18 "listen and follow direction from teacher" was given a rating of 1 by 61.3 per cent of England's sample and 69.8 by Egyptian sample. Objectives 24/29 "get along with others and play co-operatively" was considered extremely important by 72.6 per cent of England's sample.

Of the national/religious objectives rated by the Egyptian sample, two objectives were given a high percentage of rating 1 "extremely important". These were objective 9 "to help the child to develop belief in religious and moral values" (84.4 per cent), objective 28 "to help the child to understand certain religious practices" (65.6 per cent). The only national-religious objective given a rating of 1 by a small percentage of the Egyptian sample was objective 23

TABLE (43)

DATA ON RATING OF OBJECTIVES IN ENGLAND

	1	2	3	4	No Response	Mean	STD
1. Become expressive through art, music, etc.	32.3	46.8	12.9	-	8.1	1.64	.81
2. Develop and co-ordinate large muscles.	30.6	58.1	6.5	-	4.8	1.66	.68
3. Develop an easy relationship with staff.	56.5	35.5	3.2	1.6	3.2	1.43	.69
4. Substitute verbal expression for aggression.	53.2	24.2	4.8	11.3	6.5	1.61	1.08
5. Fit in with the routine of the nursery.	33.9	53.2	8.1	-	4.8	1.64	.70
6. Measure, count, match, sets etc.	19.4	51.6	21.0	3.2	4.8	1.98	.86
7. Explain ideas and convey information.	64.5	25.8	6.5	-	3.2	1.35	.66
8. Become aware of beauty in his life.	45.2	35.5	16.1	-	3.2	1.64	.79
9. Develop control from within	64.5	27.4	1.6	1.6	4.8	1.30	.67
10. Share teachers attention with other children.	45.2	45.2	4.8	-	4.8	1.50	.67
11. Begin to distinguish what he finds beautiful.	22.6	41.9	25.8	4.8	4.8	2.03	.94
12. Become creative through art, music, etc.	27.4	48.4	19.4	-	4.8	1.82	.80
13. Help the child reason	53.2	35.5	6.5	-	4.8	1.43	.69
14. Become more independent	69.4	21.0	4.8	-	4.8	1.25	.63
15. Listen and follow direction from teacher.	61.3	33.9	-	-	4.8	1.29	.56
16. Come to accept himself and his	53.2	33.9	6.5	1.6	4.8	1.46	.76

Objectives	Rating				No Response	Mean	STD
	1	2	3	4			
17. Develop confidence in using his body effectively.	43.5	40.3	11.3	-	4.8	1.58	.76
18. Judge and express an opinion.	45.2	37.1	14.5	-	3.2	1.62	.77
19. Classify.	24.2	45.2	22.6	1.6	6.5	1.88	.89
20. Develop and co-ordinate his small muscles.	35.5	54.8	6.5	-	3.2	1.64	.65
21. Take initiative in problem solving.	37.1	53.2	6.5	-	3.2	1.62	.66
22. Acquire a positive attitude towards eating etc.	16.1	43.5	32.3	3.2	4.8	2.12	.90
23. Understand feelings and needs of others.	61.3	30.6	4.8	-	3.2	1.37	.63
24. Get along with others, play cooperatively	72.6	24.2	-	-	3.2	1.21	.48
25. Accept and Respect authority.	48.4	41.9	4.8	-	4.8	1.46	.67
26. Develop a feeling for forms of language.	19.4	46.8	29.0	-	4.8	2.00	.83
27. Wait for turn, or share equipment.	54.8	38.7	3.2	-	3.2	1.41	.61
28. Begin to understand reasons for health routine	40.3	35.5	19.4	-	4.8	1.69	.84
29. Understand that certain situations are dangerous.	62.9	27.4	6.5	-	3.2	1.37	.66
30. Develop a desire to participate in art, music or drama.	24.2	53.2	17.7	1.6	3.2	1.90	.78

Key: Rating

1. It is extremely important for me to help the child to achieve this.
2. It is important for me to help the child to achieve this.
3. It is important for me to help the child to achieve this but only to a small extent.
4. It is not important for me to help the child to achieve this.

TABLE (44)

DATA ON RATING OF OBJECTIVES IN EGYPT

Objectives	Rating				No Response	Mean	STD
	1	2	3	4			
1. Become expressive through art music, etc.	34.4	19.8	17.7	8.3	19.8	1.60	1.22
2. Develop and co-ordinate through his large muscles.	7.3	19.8	34.4	24.0	19.6	2.45	1.33
3. Develop an easy relationship with staff.	43.8	20.8	14.6	1.0	19.8	1.33	.99
4. Substitute verbal expression for aggression.	40.6	21.9	15.6	8.3	13.5	1.64	1.15
5. Help him to belong to his country.	45.8	24.0	12.5	3.1	14.6	1.43	.99
6. Fit in with kindergarten routines.	51.0	19.8	15.6	1.0	12.5	1.41	.94
7. Measure, count, match sets, etc.	19.8	35.4	26.0	3.1	16.5	1.81	1.08
8. Explain ideas and convey information.	38.5	34.4	13.5	2.1	11.5	1.56	.94
9. Develop belief in religious and moral value.	84.4	6.3	1.0	1.0	7.3	1.06	.63
10. Develop control from within.	33.3	37.5	13.5	3.1	12.5	1.61	.98
11. Become aware of beauty of his life.	24.0	37.5	17.7	5.2	15.6	1.72	1.09
12. Share teacher attention with other children.	36.5	30.2	17.7	-	15.6	1.50	.96
13. Begin to distinguish what he finds beautiful.	7.3	16.7	38.5	17.7	19.8	2.27	1.38

Key: Rating as in England

Objectives	1	2	3	4	No Response	Mean	STD
14. Help the child reason.	20.8	18.8	28.1	9.4	22.9	1.80	1.33
15. Understand the moral values in a story.	36.5	34.4	12.5	5.2	11.5	1.63	1.02
16. Become creative through-art, music, etc.	17.7	26.0	27.1	16.7	12.5	2.17	1.27
17. Become more independent.	60.4	20.8	7.3	3.1	8.3	1.36	.86
18. Listen and follow direction from teacher.	69.8	17.7	4.2	2.1	6.3	1.28	.81
19. Come to accept himself and his feeling.	35.4	24.0	19.8	-	20.8	1.42	1.04
20. Develop confidence in using his body.	18.8	35.4	22.9	4.2	18.8	1.75	1.13
21. Judge and express an opinion.	28.1	30.2	19.8	5.2	16.7	1.68	1.13
22. Classify.	30.2	26.0	24.0	6.3	13.5	1.79	1.14
23. Take interest in country's achievements.	10.4	17.7	38.5	18.8	14.6	2.36	1.31
24. Develop and co-ordinate his small muscles.	21.9	16.7	24.0	21.9	15.6	2.14	1.39
25. Take initiative in problem solving.	24.0	19.8	27.1	11.5	17.7	1.90	1.30
26. Acquire positive attitude towards eating etc.	65.6	18.8	2.1	1.0	11.5	1.18	.79
27. Understand feelings and needs of others.	31.3	28.1	20.8	4.2	15.6	1.66	1.10
28. Understand certain religious practices.	65.6	11.5	5.2	4.2	13.5	1.22	.96
29. Get along with others & play co-operatively.	58.3	25.0	4.2	1.0	11.5	1.25	.75
30. Accept and Respect authority.	54.2	21.9	8.3	4.2	11.5	1.39	.95
31. Develop a feeling for forms of language.	8.3	28.1	6.3	29.2	28.1	2.21	1.63
32. Wait for a turn or share equipment.	41.7	27.1	8.3	-	22.9	1.20	.89
33. Understand reason for health routine.	62.5	18.8	-	1.0	17.7	1.04	.68
34. Respect habits of his country.	39.6	24.0	10.4	3.1	22.9	1.31	1.04
35. Understand that certain situations are dangerous.	53.1	19.8	2.1	1.0	24.0	1.03	.79
36. Develop a desire to participate in art, music or drama.	20.8	42.7	15.6	7.3	13.5	1.82	1.08

"to help the child to take interest in country's achievements" (10.4 per cent), most responses related to rating 3 "of only minor importance" (38.5 per cent). Apparently, the Egyptian teachers thought the kindergarten children were still too young to be helped to achieve this national objective.

Taking an average over each of the area of objectives earlier stated, Table 45 shows how they would be ordered in relation to each other.

TABLE 45
MEAN RATING SCORES FOR AREA OF OBJECTIVES

Area of Objectives	Mean Score	
	England	Egypt
Aesthetic	11.03	11.89
School - internal	8.51	8.03
Social - emotional	8.33	9.02
Physical	10.06	9.59
Intellectual	9.88	10.54
National - religious	-	9.01

For the England sample, the area judged most important was the social-emotional area, which reflects the emphasis placed on this aspect in the education of nursery children in England, and the area judged of least importance was the aesthetic area. For the Egyptian sample, the area judged most important was school-internal area and the least was the aesthetic area.

The objectives which classified as school-internal were considered important by both samples. All the national/religious objectives, except objective 23 were considered to be important objectives in kindergarten education.

Table 46 gives the categories of objectives according to the mean rating given by both samples.

On the basis of the objectives judged by the Egyptian sample, it would seem that those considered most important have to do with helping the child to achieve 'good behaviour' in respect of the socially accepted norms of that society.

Physically, the child is expected to begin to understand reasons for health routines, and to acquire positive attitudes to eating and learn table manners, and to understand dangerous situations. The child is expected to develop a feeling of belonging to his country and have a strong belief in the religious and moral values of the society. The kindergarten teachers seem to place great emphasis on helping the child become more independent, to get along with others and play co-operatively, and listen to and follow directions given by the teacher.

A large proportion of the objectives considered also most important by Egyptian teachers related to the child's ability to adjust to the demands of the school, the community and the society at large, such as, the child should be helped to wait for his turn, learn how to explain his ideas, share teacher's attention with other children, accept and respect authority and fit in with the routines of the kindergarten.

The kindergarten teachers seem to attribute great importance to help the child acquire moral values and understand

TABLE 46

DISTRIBUTION OF OBJECTIVES AS RATED BY TEACHERS
GROUPED ACCORDING TO LEVEL OF MEAN RATING

Nursery teachers (England)			Kindergarten Teachers (Egypt)		
Item	Objectives	Mean	Item	Objectives	Mean
24.	Get along with others and play...	1.21	35.	Understand danger situation	1.03
14.	Become more independent	1.25	33.	Understand reason for health routine.	1.04
15.	Listen and follow directions	1.29	9.	Develop belief in religious values.	1.06
9.	Develop control from within	1.30	26.	Acquire positive attitude to eating & table manners.	1.18
7.	Explain ideas and convey information.	1.35	32.	Wait for a turn or share equipment.	1.20
29.	Understand danger situation	1.37	28.	Understand religious practices.	1.22
23.	Understand feeling and needs of others.	1.37	29.	Get along with others and play co-operatively.	1.25
27.	Wait for a turn or share equipment.	1.41	18.	Listen and follow directions	1.28
13.	Help the child reason	1.43	34.	Respect habits of his country	1.31
3.	Develop an easy relationship with staff.	1.43	3.	Develop an easy relationship with staff.	1.33
			17.	Become more independent.	1.36
			30.	Accept and Respect Authority	1.39
			6.	Fit in with kindergarten routines.	1.41
			19.	Come to accept himself and his feelings.	1.42
			5.	Help him to belong to his country.	1.43

Nursery Teachers (England)		Kindergarten Teachers (Egypt)	
<u>Extremely Important</u>			
15. Accept and Respect Authority.	1.46	12. Share teachers attention with others.	1.50
16. Come to accept himself and his feelings.	1.46	8. Explain ideas and convey information.	1.56
10. Share teacher attention with other children.	1.50	1. Become expressive through art, music etc.	1.60
17. Develop confidence in using his body.	1.58	10. Develop control from within.	1.61
4. Substitute verbal expression for aggression.	1.61	15. Understand the moral values in a story.	1.63
18. Judge and express an opinion.	1.62	4. Substitute verbal expression for aggression.	1.64
21. Take initiative in problem-solving.	1.62	27. Understand feeling and needs of others.	1.66
1. Become expressive through art, music, etc.	1.64	21. Judge and express an opinion	1.68
5. Fit in with the routines of nursery.	1.64	11. Become aware of beauty of his life.	1.72
8. Become aware of beauty of his life.	1.64		
20. Develop and co-ordinate his small muscles.	1.64		
2. Develop and co-ordinate large muscles.	1.66		
28. Begin to understand reason for health routine.	1.69		
<u>Important</u>			
12. Become creative through art, music.	1.82	20. Develop confidence in using his body.	1.75
19. Classify	1.88	22. Classify	1.79
30. Develop a desire to participate in art, music, etc.	1.90	14. Help the child reason	1.80
		7. Measure, count, match	1.81
6. Measure, Count, Match	1.98	36. Develop a desire to participate in art, music, etc.	1.82
		25. Take initiative in problem-solving.	1.90
<u>Important but only to small extent</u>			
26. Develop a feeling for forms of language.	2.00	24. Develop and co-ordinate his small muscles.	2.14
11. Begin to distinguish what he finds beautiful.	2.03	16. Become creative through art, music etc.	2.17
22. Acquire a positive attitude towards eating.	2.12	31. Develop a feeling for forms of language.	2.21
		13. Begin to distinguish what he finds beautiful.	2.27
		23. Take interest in country's achievements.	2.36
		2. Develop and co-ordinate his large muscles.	2.45
<u>Not important</u>			

the learning of the more specific intellectual skills.

So the nursery teachers in England were more concerned with the general cognitive abilities rather more than kindergarten teachers in Egypt, but the achievement of specific formal intellectual skills were considered of only minor importance in both groups. The data suggests that within the area of general cognitive abilities, there was a clear concern with developing the child's linguistic skills, such as explain ideas and convey information, and to judge and express an opinion. These objectives which related in some way to linguistic abilities were considered to be quite important by both samples.

The high average mean rating of the area of physical objectives in Egypt is partly accounted for by the development of health and hygiene habits. Whereas objectives related to the acquisition of a positive attitude to eating and learning of table manners and health routine and understanding that certain situations are dangerous are considered to be extremely important objectives to pursue in kindergartens.

The objectives related to the development and co-ordination of large or small muscles were considered unimportant for the Egyptian sample. The specific physical objectives, especially those related to helping the child to develop confidence in using the body, helping the child to develop and co-ordination of large or small muscles seemed to be of greater importance to nursery teachers in England.

The objectives which were classified as school-internal were considered of equal importance in both samples, while the aesthetic objectives were given relatively high rating by

nursery teachers in England.

From the analysis of these objectives, it can be said that some objectives contribute to more than one general area of objectives, such as objective 20/24 "to help the child to develop and co-ordinate his small muscles through screwing, threading, using scissors, etc.", contributes not only to his physical development, but also to his cognitive development because as the child learns to use his muscles, he also learns how things fit together. As he employs his physical skills, so his mind is brought to bear on the relationship between objects in the physical world around him.

.....

The second section of the questionnaire outlines the responses of the English and Egyptian teachers to question on purpose of the nursery/kindergarten education. To know if there was a relationship between the ranking of purposes and rating of objectives, the rank order of objectives and purposes were compared as given by both groups of teachers as shown in Table 47.

The nursery school teachers data in England supports earlier findings on the importance of social-emotional development for the child. The social objectives were considered by the nursery teacher to be the most important area of objectives in the education of young children.

The school-internal area of objectives was ranked second in order of importance, while the intellectual objectives came as third rank in the overall ordering of objectives. It ranked second among the five stated purposes of nursery

TABLE 47

RANKING OF PURPOSES AND MEAN RANKING OF AREAS OF
OBJECTIVES BY NURSERY AND KINDERGARTEN SAMPLES

Purpose	Rank		Area of Objectives	Rank	
	England	Egypt		England	Egypt
Social	1	1	Social, emotional	1	3
Home-school	3	3	School internal	2	1
Intellectual	2	4	Intellectual	3	5
Physical	4	2	Physical	4	4
Aesthetic	5	5	Aesthetic	5	6
			National/ Religious	-	2

education. The relatively low average mean rating of this area of objectives is partly accounted to the low rate for formal mathematical objectives.

The physical and aesthetic area of objectives were ranked the same as were the general, physical and aesthetic purposes.

The responses of the Egyptian sample indicated a discrepancy in the ranking of purposes and area of objectives. It is interesting to note that, while the teacher ranked the social purpose first, they ranked the social-emotional objectives third. This may be a reflection of the kindergarten teachers concern with the child's ability to adjust to the demand of the school, the community and the society at large rather than with his developmental needs.

The school-internal area of objectives were ranked first

in order of importance, and the national-religious objectives were ranked second in order of importance.

In spite of the intellectual purpose being ranked fourth among the five stated purposes, it came as the fifth rank in the overall ordering of objectives. The relatively low average mean rating of this area of objectives is partly accounted for in terms of the low rating given to the general cognitive objective, and this also suggested that the kindergarten teachers were not keen to stress formal education at that level.

The physical objectives were ranked fourth, while the physical purposes ranked second among the five stated purposes of kindergarten education. The relatively low average mean rating of this area of objectives in the Egyptian sample is partly accounted for the low rating of some specific physical objectives related to the development and co-ordination of large and small muscles.

The aesthetic area was ranked low by kindergarten teachers whether as a general purpose or specific objective.

As the study of Schools Council Working Paper 41 mentioned that, this result is not entirely surprising. The aims were stated at a high level of generality, while the objectives were at a closely specific level. There is a considerable gap between them. It might have been bridged through a wider range of objectives rather than the thirty stated. Ideally, aims should have a close and intimate relationship to objectives, but objectives as we have seen, may have more than one facet and this may make them difficult to group.⁷

e) The Curriculum at Nursery/Kindergarten Level

In the first question of the last section in the questionnaire, the teachers were asked to give their opinion on the present educational programme.

As far as teachers judgement of their curriculum was concerned, 74.2 per cent of nursery teachers in England thought that their present educational programme was "good" and a considerable minority (21.0 per cent) expressed the view that the curriculum was "adequate". This compared with 36.5 per cent as "good" for kindergarten teachers in the Egyptian sample, while more than 50 per cent thought that their educational programme was "adequate", and a small minority (8.3 per cent) expressed the view that the curriculum was "irrelevant".

Table 48 shows the distribution percentage for attitudes to the present educational programme in both samples.

The main concern of those who criticised the curriculum in the Egyptian case was that it demanded too much from the teacher, without taking into consideration the limitations of finance, and facilities. For example, the teachers are forced to teach such subjects as nature study by discussion rather than experience. There is a general lack of equipment and facilities.

In questions 2, 3, 4, 5 of the questionnaire, the teachers give their views concerning the subjects which the children like best; the subject they find least interesting and the subjects which should be included and which should be omitted.

The nursery teachers in England stated that the majority of children enjoy craft, constructional toys, story telling,

TABLE 48

DISTRIBUTION PERCENTAGE FOR THE PRESENT EDUCATION
PROGRAMME FOR NURSERY-KINDERGARTEN LEVEL

Item	England			Egypt		
	No.	%	Cum.	No.	%	Cum.
Good	46	74.2	74.2	35	36.5	36.5
Adequate	13	21.0	95.2	51	53.1	89.6
Irrelevant	-	-	-	8	8.3	97.9
No Response	3	4.8	100.0	2	2.1	100.0
TOTAL	62	100.0		96	100.0	

art, singing and messy play, eg. sand, water play, clay, dough, drawing and painting. In addition, they like creative and imaginative play, home play, outside play, rhymes, using apparatus, play with natural material, physical education and all free activities.

Seventy per cent of teachers stated that the activities which find least interest are sorting items, crayoning, chalking, manipulative hand and eye work and, worst of all, listening to radio programmes without any visual aids.

Fifty per cent of the Hull teachers stated that among activities which should be included at this early stage are computer-assisted learning, more environmental work, more science, drama and music. Furthermore, parent involvement should be increased and there should be outside visits from school.

The kindergarten teachers in Egypt stated that the majority of children favoured physical education, singing, music, play with bricks, group games and story telling - especially if the story was accompanied by pictures. In addition, they liked environmental activities, religious studies and all free activities such as playing on slides, climbing apparatus and swings.

Eighty per cent of the Egyptian teachers mentioned that the activities which are found of least interest to the children were: writing and keeping children sitting on their chair for a long time. This was observed to be true, especially as most of the teachers still used the blackboard and kept children sitting on their chairs for around thirty minutes at a time and explained the items of the curriculum day by day, according to the timetable and daily programme.

All teachers stated that activities should be added to the programme and the child library be provided with suitable books, more educational equipment, apparatus, musical instruments, games, posters, and pictures and more indoor equipment. In addition, the teachers believed it to be necessary for the child to experience some moral education in order to develop good character and manners.

In question 6 in the last section in the questionnaire, teachers were invited to give their views on employing 'formal' methods in nurseries-kindergartens. The teachers in both samples favoured using 'formal' teaching but on a limited scale. In fact, as Table 49 indicates more than 50 per cent in both samples favoured using formal teaching on a limited scale, but a considerable minority in both samples (30.6 per

TABLE 49

FORMAL METHOD IN NURSERY KINDERGARTEN TEACHING

Formal Methods		Frequency	%
Yes	England	-	-
	Egypt	5	5.2
Yes but on a limited scale	England	40	64.5
	Egypt	60	62.5
No	England	19	30.6
	Egypt	31	32.3
Nil Response	England	3	4.8
	Egypt	-	-

cent in England and 32.3 per cent in Egypt) rejected the idea for formal methods at this stage and preferred to leave the formal style of education until the primary stage.

In question 7 of this section, the teachers were asked to say how learning should be achieved in the nursery-kindergarten school. The majority of teachers in both samples preferred 'learning by free and guided activities' as a means to achieve learning rather than 'guided activities' or 'free activities' as alternatives.

Table 50 gives frequency and percentage ratings for each method. The learning by free and guided activities had 98.4 per cent for the England sample and 82.3 for the Egyptian

sample, whereas the 'learning by free activities' only had 1.6 per cent in the nursery school sample and 4.2 per cent in the kindergarten sample in Egypt.

TABLE 50
HOW LEARNING SHOULD BE ACHIEVED IN
NURSERY-KINDERGARTEN EDUCATION

Learning Method	Frequency		%
1. Learning by guided activities	England	-	-
	Egypt	12	12.5
2. Learning by free activities	England	1	1.6
	Egypt	4	4.2
3. Learning by free and guided activities	England	61	98.4
	Egypt	79	82.3
NIL RESPONSE	England	-	-
	Egypt	1	1.0

In question 8 of this section, the teachers gave their views concerning the reflection of the present nursery-kindergarten school curriculum on the needs of the child. The majority of the nursery teachers in England (71.0 per cent) were positive in response, as compared with 60.4 per cent in Egypt, (see Table 51).

TABLE 51
THE REFLECTION OF THE PRESENT CURRICULUM
ON THE NEEDS OF THE CHILD

The present curriculum		Frequency	%
1. Yes	England	44	71.0
	Egypt	18	18.8
2. No	England	1	1.6
	Egypt	18	18.8
3. To a considerable extent	England	15	24.2
	Egypt	58	60.4
NIL RESPONSE	England	2	3.2
	Egypt	2	2.0

In question 9 of the last section in the questionnaire, the teachers were asked to rate in priority ten activities for pre-school curriculum in three point scale for the England sample and in five point scale for the Egyptian sample.

The responses of the Hull sample are shown in Table 52 the rating of "very relevant" was given to eight activities as follows: Language Arts; Play and Free Activities; Art; Mathematics; Health and Safety; Music; Physical Studies; Science.

The remaining activities of the curriculum drew the lower level of being of "some relevance", that is to say:

TABLE 52
CURRICULUM RATINGS (ENGLAND)

Topics of Curriculum	3	2	1	No Response	Mean	STD
1. Language Arts	91.9	10.6	-	6.5	2.79	.75
2. Arts	80.6	11.3	-	8.1	2.64	.85
3. Mathematics	71.0	21.0	-	8.1	2.54	.86
4. Religious Education	17.7	48.4	24.2	9.7	1.74	.87
5. Health and Safety	64.5	27.4	-	8.1	2.48	.86
6. Music	56.5	33.9	-	9.7	2.37	.91
7. Science	48.4	40.3	3.2	8.1	2.29	.88
8. Social Studies	24.2	40.3	24.2	11.3	1.77	.95
9. Play & Free Activities	90.3	-	1.6	8.1	2.72	.85
10. Physical Education	51.6	37.1	3.2	8.1	2.32	.88

Key: Rating

Very relevant 3

Some relevance 2

Not relevant 1

Social Studies; Religious Education.

The Egyptian kindergarten teachers were asked to rate in priority these ten activities in five point scale.

The answers showed in Table 53 that the rating of "essential" and "very important" was given to the different activities in the following rank order: Religious Education; Play and Activities; Language Arts; Art; Physical Education;

TABLE 53
CURRICULUM RATINGS (EGYPT)

Topics of Curriculum	5	4	3	2	1	No Response	Mean	STD
1. Arts	29.2	49.0	17.7	4.2	-	-	4.03	.80
2. Social Studies	3.1	12.5	25.0	21.9	34.4	3.1	2.18	1.22
3. Health and Safety	18.8	38.5	22.9	8.3	9.4	2.1	3.42	1.27
4. Music	26.0	40.6	27.1	4.2	2.1	-	3.84	.93
5. Science	14.6	20.8	33.3	20.8	7.3	3.1	3.05	1.26
6. Play and Activities	38.5	53.1	5.2	3.1	-	-	4.27	.70
7. Language Arts	66.7	18.8	10.4	2.1	1.0	1.0	4.44	.96
8. Mathematics	37.5	36.5	15.6	7.3	1.0	2.1	3.95	1.12
9. Religious Education	78.1	16.7	5.2	-	-	-	4.72	.55
10. Physical Education	27.1	46.9	22.9	3.1	-	-	3.97	.79

Key: Rating

Essential 5

Very important 4

Important 3

Of only minor importance 2

Not important 1

Mathematics; Music; Health and Safety.

The two remaining activities of the curriculum drew a lower level of priority, though still regarded as "important": Science; Social Studies.

The rating scale for the Egyptian sample was categorised differently to allow for the teacher to give the relative importance for each topic of activities. Consequently, data on the content of activities is not directly comparable, but it can be said in general that teachers in both groups considered all activities of the existing curricula to have some degree of relevance or importance, and there was a reasonable level of agreement on the content of pre-school curriculum.

It is, however, interesting and perhaps significant that the social studies . . . drew a lower level of priority in both samples.

In question 10 of this section, the teachers were asked to indicate in their opinion on the three activities in the daily programme.

Table 54 shows that the great majority of teachers in both samples were strongly in favour with the activity "Imaginative Play".

As Table 54 shows the majority of teachers in nursery schools in England had a high percentage 96.8 as "very important" with a mean rank of 2.97 for imaginative play, and as the teachers in kindergarten school had 78.1 per cent as "very important" with a mean rank 2.76 for this activity, there was a high level of agreement. However, whereas the activity "visits outside school" had only 17.7 per cent as

TABLE 54
PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF RANKING OF ACTIVITIES
BY ENGLAND AND EGYPT

Activity		Rating %			No Response	Mean	STD
		3	2	1			
1. Play with sand and water	England	79.0	21.0	-	-	2.79	.41
	Egypt	21.9	32.3	45.8	-	1.76	.79
2. Visits outside the school	England	17.7	72.6	9.7	-	2.08	.52
	Egypt	30.2	55.2	13.5	1.0	2.15	.68
3. Imaginative play	England	96.8	3.2	-	-	2.97	.18
	Egypt	78.1	19.8	2.1	-	2.76	.48

Key: Rating

Very important 3

Important 2

Not important 1

"very important" rating from the school teachers in England, 30.2 per cent of the Egyptian teachers thought it so. Conversely "play with sand and water" had a high (79.0) percentage of "very important" for Hull nursery school teachers, but only 21.9 per cent at this level from kindergarten teachers in Egypt.

It transpired from free discussion with teachers and head teachers in kindergarten schools that most of them were not interested in using play with sand and water in kindergarten classrooms because they believed it would make a mess in the room, and especially that play with sand and water would leave

the children with wet clothes. Despite this, the researcher believes that "play with sand and water" should be retained in the kindergartens because it provides the opportunity to experiment through filling and emptying different sized containers, stirring water, cupping the hands to hold water, making bubbles etc., and for the formation of concepts such as: top, bottom, under, small, big, floating and sinking.

In question 11, the teachers were asked: is the work throughout the present curriculum appropriately sequenced for the children. The outcome, as shown in Table 55 was that the majority of teachers in both samples were strongly in agreement with the way the curriculum was sequenced.

The teachers were also asked about using a timetable for organising daily activities. As Table 56 shows, the majority of teachers in both samples, has a high percentage of agreement, but the Egyptian sample were more in agreement for using a

TABLE 55

THE CURRICULUM APPROPRIATELY SEQUENCED FOR CHILDREN

Curriculum	England		Egypt	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Yes	52	83.9	80	83.3
No	3	4.8	12	12.5
Nil Response	7	11.3	4	4.2
TOTAL	62	100.0	96	100.0

timetable (90.6 per cent) than were the English sample (71.0 per cent). This is due to the fact that the nursery school teacher in England has more freedom to organise and choose the daily programme and activities for the children according to their abilities and interests. Reasons given for using a timetable were as follows:

i) using a timetable gives the teacher the opportunity to organise work in the classroom more efficiently and to complete all the items in the curriculum;

ii) using a timetable helps the teachers to coordinate activities as between all groups and classes in a better way.

TABLE 56

USING A TIMETABLE FOR ORGANISING DAILY ACTIVITIES

Timetable	England		Egypt	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Yes	44	71.0	87	90.6
No	15	24.2	8	8.3
Nil Response	3	4.8	1	1.0
TOTAL	62	100.0	96	100.0

The teachers were also asked about discussing the content of the curriculum with the supervisor or the head of the team in the last term. The two samples had a high percentage for discussion of the content of the curriculum three times or more though the Hull nursery school teachers had 64.5 per cent for this as compared with those from Egypt with 44.8 per cent.

Table 57 illustrates the outcome.

TABLE 57
TIMES OF DISCUSSION OF THE CONTENT OF CURRICULUM
WITH SUPERVISOR OR THE HEAD OF THE TEAM

Times	England		Egypt	
	No.	%	No.	%
1. Once	2	3.2	13	13.5
2. Twice	4	6.5	16	16.7
3. Three times/over	40	64.5	43	44.8
4. None	3	4.8	17	17.7
Nil Response	13	21.0	7	7.3
TOTAL	62	100.0	96	100.0

The researcher then asked the teachers to indicate their degree of agreement as to each of the following methods being suited to pre-school education. They were asked to indicate their preferences in terms of:

- i) Class instruction

- ii) Group teaching
- iii) Free activities.

Table 58 shows the outcome, with group teaching and free activities clearly preferred to a more rigidly formal and traditional approach. It is very important to note that class instruction was preferred by only 21.9 per cent of the kindergarten teacher sample in Egypt. This is a really low percentage for the Egyptian teachers because most of them actually use this method in pre-school, and presumably felt obliged to do so, despite their own professional views as to how young children should learn at this stage.

TABLE 58
METHODS OF TEACHING

Teaching Methods		Rating %			No Response	Mean	STD
		3	2	1			
1. Class Instruction	England	17.7	40.3	33.9	8.1	1.68	.86
	Egypt	21.9	36.5	36.5	5.2	1.75	.86
2. Group Teaching	England	50.0	48.4	-	1.6	2.47	.59
	Egypt	44.8	45.8	8.3	1.0	2.34	.68
3. Free Activities	England	79.0	17.7	-	3.2	2.73	.63
	Egypt	65.6	31.3	-	3.1	2.59	.66

Key: Rating

Extremely useful	3
Useful	2
Not useful	1

The teachers were also asked about whether they had sufficient freedom to organise the activities of the daily programme (Table 59).

TABLE 59

FREEDOM TO ORGANISE THE ACTIVITIES OF THE DAILY PROGRAMME

Freedom to organise programme		Frequency	%
Yes	England	57	91.9
	Egypt	89	92.7
No	England	4	6.5
	Egypt	6	6.3
No! Response	England	1	1.6
	Egypt	1	1.0

As the table indicates, the majority of the teachers in both samples felt they had sufficient freedom to organise the activities of the daily programme (91.9 per cent of Hull nursery school teachers and 92.7 per cent of kindergarten teachers in Egypt).

In the last question of this section of the questionnaire, teachers were asked to indicate the best way to evaluate various aspects of the child's development. They were asked to rank the evaluation methods on a five point scale. The results are shown in Table 60 , which indicates that the nursery school teacher in England overwhelmingly used teacher observation (90.3 per cent) and this was also rated

TABLE 60

THE EVALUATION OF THE CHILD'S DEVELOPMENT

Evaluation way		Rating %					No Response	Mean	STD
		1	2	3	4	5			
1. Teacher observation	England Egypt	- 1.0	- -	- 4.2	3.2 24.0	90.3 69.8	6.5 1.0	4.64 4.58	1.24 .82
2. Standardised tests	England Egypt	33.9 4.2	12.9 16.7	21.0 20.8	11.3 29.2	4.8 26.0	16.0 3.1	1.92 3.47	1.45 1.32
3. Monthly reports	England Egypt	1.6 16.7	19.4 15.6	33.9 24.0	21.0 13.5	8.1 28.1	16.1 2.1	2.66 3.15	1.47 1.51
4. Use of record forms	England Egypt	1.6 29.2	4.8 13.5	16.1 10.4	40.3 18.8	27.4 22.9	9.7 5.2	3.58 2.77	1.48 1.69
5. The case study	England Egypt	8.1 7.3	16.1 7.3	32.3 16.7	12.9 22.9	16.1 44.8	14.5 1.0	2.69 3.87	1.59 1.32

Key: Rating

Very good 5
Good 4
Of only minor good 3
Not good 2
Very poor 1

highest by the Egyptian sample (69.8 per cent), though a much higher proportion of them (44.8 per cent as opposed to 16.1 per cent) rated the case study as a "very good" way to evaluate the child's development. The Egyptian teachers were also much keener on monthly reports as a method of evaluation (28.1 per cent as against 8.1 per cent). These reports they say, provide evidence for the parents that their child's progress is being evaluated and also gives some consideration of how well the child is adjusting to the school situation and what interests he or she may be developing that the parent may be unaware of.

7.2.2 Findings of the Headteacher Questionnaire in England and Egypt

The main purpose of the headteacher questionnaire was to have information about the administration of kindergarten schools in Egypt and nursery schools in England.

a) Numbers of Children and Staff

The data derived indicates that the majority of nursery schools in the English sample (72.7 per cent) had between 50 - 100 children, while the data indicates that the majority of kindergarten schools in Egypt (40.0 per cent) had roles between 100 and 150, and a substantial proportion (20.0 per cent) had between 200 and 250 children or even more than 250 (25 per cent). So there is a very clear contrast here as between the two groups in terms of size of school.

Not surprisingly this contrast is apparent also in the pupil-teacher ratios. In 90.9 per cent of the nursery schools in the Hull group it was 10:1, whereas in 60 per cent of the

TABLE 61

PERCENTAGE RATING FOR THE NUMBER OF CHILDREN IN
NURSERY-KINDERGARTEN SCHOOLS

Number of Children in Nursery/Kindergarten	England		Egypt	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Less than 50	4	18.2	-	-
50-100	16	72.7	3	15.0
100-150	1	4.5	8	40.0
150-200	-	-	-	-
200-250	-	-	4	20.0
250 and over	-	-	5	25.0
Nil Response	1	4.5	-	-
TOTAL	22	100.0	20	100.0

TABLE 62

THE PUPIL-TEACHER RATIO IN NURSERY/KINDERGARTEN SCHOOLS

Pupil-teacher ratio	England		Egypt	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
10:1	20	90.9	-	-
15:1	2	9.1	-	-
20:1	-	-	-	-
25:1	-	-	3	15.0
30:1	-	-	12	60.0
35:1	-	-	5	25.0
TOTAL	22	100.0	20	100.0

Egyptian sample it was 30:1. Clearly in Egypt the ratios are very high, especially if one takes into account the limitations of the schools in respect of lack of facilities, small classrooms, and shortage of teachers. The results are given in Table 62.

b) The Experience and Qualifications of Headteachers

The headteachers were asked about their qualifications in both samples. The majority of headteachers in the English nursery schools surveyed (72.7 per cent) have teacher training certificates while only 4.5 per cent had a University degree. By contrast, the majority of kindergarten headteachers in the Egyptian group (65.0 per cent) had a University degree, and only 35.0 per cent had a General and Special Teacher Training Certificate (See Table 64).

With respect to experience in administration, 36.4 per cent of the nursery school heads had 10 - 15 years and 31.8 per cent had 15 - 20 years. Furthermore, 81.0 per cent of them then followed in-service training programmes in nursery education.

By contrast, the majority of Egyptian kindergarten headteachers surveyed (50.0 per cent) had administration experience of between only 1 - 5 years though considerable proportions did have 10 - 15 years (20.0 per cent) or 15 - 20 years (25.0 per cent). Again a fairly high proportion (65.0 per cent) had followed in-service courses.

TABLE 63
HEADTEACHER QUALIFICATION

Qualification (England)	Frequency	%	Cum.
Teaching Certificate	16	72.7	72.7
University Degree	1	4.5	87.2
Nil Response	5	22.7	100.0
TOTAL	22	100.0	

TABLE 64
HEADTEACHER QUALIFICATION

Qualification (Egypt)	Frequency	%	Cum.
General Teacher Certificate	3	15.0	15.0
Special Teacher Certificate	4	20.0	35.0
University Degree	13	65.0	100.0
TOTAL	20	100.0	

TABLE 65LENGTH OF EXPERIENCE IN ADMINISTRATION

Length of Teaching		Frequency	%
1 - 5	England	1	4.5
	Egypt	10	50.0
5 - 10	England	6	27.3
	Egypt	1	5.0
10 - 15	England	8	36.4
	Egypt	4	20.0
15 - 20	England	7	31.8
	Egypt	5	25.0

TABLE 66ATTENDED IN-SERVICE TRAINING COURSES

In-Service Training		No.	%
Yes	England	18	81.8
	Egypt	13	65.0
No	England	4	18.2
	Egypt	7	35.0

c) The Relationship between Administration and Teaching Staff

All headteachers seemed to realise the importance of establishing a good relationship with the staff and the effectiveness of the kind relationship between all the staff on educational outcomes. The majority of headteachers during their discussion with the researcher expressed the view that the staff in nursery-kindergarten school should participate in the making of decisions concerning school policies in general and the nursery-kindergarten school in particular. This is reflected in Table 67 which indicates that the majority of both nursery school headteachers sampled (72.7 per cent) and the kindergarten school group (65.0 per cent) preferred to base their relationship on flexible lines according to the situation, though nonetheless keeping a firm hold on their status.

TABLE 67

KIND OF RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ADMINISTRATION AND STAFF

Relationship with the Staff		Frequency	%
1. The hierarchical relationship	England	-	
	Egypt	2	10.0
2. The relation of "being the first among equals"	England	6	27.3
	Egypt	4	20.0
3. Applying both relationships according to the situation	England	16	72.7
	Egypt	13	65.0
Nil Response	England	-	-
	Egypt	1	5.0

All the English headteachers sampled believed that sharing in some teaching in nursery school helps to increase the co-operation between them and the teachers and gives them an opportunity to know the children and see directly their problems, to set a positive example and to appreciate the work done in nursery and monitor the children's progress. By this way the headteacher and the rest of the teachers can gain a better understanding of the educational situation.

In the Egyptian sample, 50 per cent of headteachers did some teaching in their schools in addition to their administrative role. They consider sharing in teaching in the kindergarten to be essential to give them an opportunity to understand the children's needs and their problems, and to increase their understanding of the educational situation in their schools. The other 50 per cent of the Egyptian headteachers felt it was not part of their job to be involved in teaching in their kindergarten. Such headteachers adhere strictly to the fact that each member in the educational organisation fulfils his or her particular duties.

The headteachers were also asked about their attitudes towards teachers who suggest innovations in the educational process. The majority of them in England (90.9 per cent) and in Egypt (95.0 per cent) said that they would encourage those teachers who are keen to innovate in the educational process of the nursery or kindergarten, particularly if these innovations were of benefit to the school and the children (Table 68).

On the question of an assistant head there is another contrast of views. While most of the English headteachers

TABLE 68THE HEADTEACHERS ATTITUDE TOWARDS THE TEACHERS INNOVATION

Attitudes towards innovations		No.	%
1. Encourage and give the fullest support	England	20	90.9
	Egypt	19	95.0
2. Encourage a little	England	1	4.5
	Egypt	1	5.0
3. Reject the suggestions		-	-
Nil Response	England	1	4.5
	Egypt	-	-

TABLE 69THE NEED FOR AN ASSISTANT HEADTEACHER

The need for an Assistant Headteacher		No.	%
Yes	England	3	13.6
	Egypt	15	75.0
No	England	17	77.3
	Egypt	5	25.0
Nil Response	England	2	9.1
	Egypt	-	-

did not feel that an assistant headteacher is needed (77.3 per cent), unless a very large number of children is involved, the majority of the Egyptian kindergarten headteachers (75.0 per cent) said they did need an assistant headteacher. This relates well to the respective sizes of school in the two samples.

In general, the headteachers in both samples expressed their view that the main functions of the assistant headteacher are as follows:

- i) be able to replace the headteacher totally in her absence;
- ii) be the standard setter in the classroom;
- iii) set an example of good practice in general;
- iv) liaison between the staff and the headteacher;
- v) be able to help, organise, direct and control nursery-kindergarten activities and stand in when any members of staff are absent;
- vi) keep the headteacher informed of staff problems and take the lead in the curricula area.

.....

This chapter has been used exclusively to report on the outcome of the empirical research. The conclusions the writer draws from this, and from her documentary research, comprise the concluding chapter of the thesis.

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CHAPTER EIGHT

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

8.1 International Comparisons Revisited

In fact, the main purpose of this study was to compare pre-school provision in both England and Egypt, with a view to identifying aspects of the former that could be usefully built into, or adapted to the pre-school sector in Egypt. In order to gain a wider perspective on both countries, the thesis also contained an examination of the development of pre-school education internationally.

Both documentary and empirical analysis are used. The history of pre-school education provision in international perspective showed up that certain problems in respect of attempted comparisons of this sector as between national systems existed:

- a) the commencement age of compulsory schooling varies considerably;
- b) the percentage of children who receive pre-school education before attending primary school also varies enormously;
- c) there are sharp contrasts in respect of the content of curricula and teaching methodology used at pre-school level;
- d) the initial and in-service training of pre-school and primary teachers is often very different in style;
- e) pedagogical control and administrative responsibility is carried through on a wide range of styles and ideologies.

It is not only that differences exist between countries, there are also great disparities within them, for example in

the type of provision, the philosophy, the practice and the control of facilities. There is often a duality of provision as between private or public sectors or a mixture of the two such as some sort of subsidised arrangement by local or national government. In some places much of it is provided by voluntary agencies. The range and systems of financial and administrative control is extremely wide, yet is crucial to the outcome.

The study also showed that the purpose of education in any country is shaped by the nature of the particular society or societies in it, their cultural heritage and economic, political and social institutions. For example, in Western nations, and particularly the USA, the aims and philosophy of education have been that education, especially at this level, is primarily for the sake of the individual. By contrast, the basic aims of Soviet education is to serve not the individual but the collective state. Consequently the child in the USSR has to be reared in a collective ethos, with a cooperative style. However, despite the differences apparent between the developed countries, the study has also illustrated that their pre-school education stems of the common roots of Rousseau, Pestalozzi, Froebel, Montessori and other European pioneers. Nonetheless, the existence of pre-school education is often justified in relation to the family, and the school system above. Reasons such as the need to prepare the child for primary school, to cover for mothers at work, to compensate for poor housing, or other shortcomings within the family, also a motivating force. Thus the pre-school systems exist in response to both theoretical and practical influences.

The second world war stimulated the growth of nursery schools in those countries that were strongly involved, as an increasing number of mothers went to work in war industries. Subsequent changes in family patterns have affected demand for nursery provision as has the increase in social and economic mobility. The effects of urbanisation - and other forms of 'modernisation' even in rural areas has been almost universally adverse to the extended family:

"If we consider these changes together with the fact that Europeans have, almost universally in many countries received formal schooling for much longer periods than their own fathers and mothers, and that they are, therefore, more highly educated than parents have been at any time, we can then begin to see the pressures that underline demands for more pre-school provision ... Work patterns are changing ... Poor housing, low incomes, high unemployment, bad working conditions and volatile, unstable family life create stress, but they also generate demands for high quality education, and for better provision generally for children." 1

A major impetus to the expansion of nursery education has been the belief that school failure can be prevented by early educational intervention. For the majority of research workers in this field - in England and in the USA, the problems of early education are mainly conceived in terms of compensatory efforts on behalf of disadvantaged children. However, a vast amount of pre-school provision is in fact the preserve of the affluent sectors of society. Despite the expansion which has been seen in many countries, the level of expenditure on young children is relatively "small" in absolute terms even in the industrialised and developed nations.

The intellectual dimension of this study concentrated on

comparisons between France, the USA and USSR. Of the three, France was found to have the most extensive system of pre-school education, and it has been developed from the 18th century. Pre-school provision in France is now a free public service to children from 2 years to compulsory school age. It is organised and financed by both national and local government, an extensive provision which does not rely greatly on the private sector. In the mid 1980s over 80 per cent of French children in the 2 - 4 age group attend school. From 4 - 6 the figure is 100 per cent.

Nursery schools in France aim to ensure a balanced development of the child's physical, emotional, ethical and intellectual qualities by providing the care that the young child needs and a comprehensive training organised in a structured way. It prepares them specifically to be receptive to the years of compulsory education. Training of pre-school teachers is identical to that of primary school teachers with particular attention given to small group instruction.

However, France which has a remarkable quantitative achievement in pre-school provision, does not always satisfy qualitative criteria. Staff:children ratios of about 1:40 exist in French nursery schools. Great disparities and inequalities are hidden in such large groups. Overcrowding in some instances plus the insufficient training of teachers in particular problems of very early childhood, the retention of very formal modes of instructions are all negative features in the view of the researcher.

As far as pre-school education in the USSR is concerned, the study has shown us that the age range of pre-school

education is generally greater than in most countries of the western world, as compulsory schooling begins at the age of seven. It is highly centralized, well equipped, well staffed and based on clear and comprehensive concept of education, with its own deliberate bias in ideological terms. Children learn chiefly through planned forms of play. In effect, formal education begins in the kindergarten. In the opinion of the writer the whole educational programme at pre-school level in the USSR has been advanced to a higher plane than any other country.

"Several research institutes (the principal one being the laboratory for the study of the pre-school child in Moscow) devote their continual attention to the development of new techniques and the revision of old ones in the light of new evidence." ²

Pre-school education in USSR is neither free, nor compulsory nor available to all. The tuition is charged to the parents of enrolled children according to their ability to pay. They are required to contribute 25 to 35 per cent of the cost depending on their income. Perhaps most distinctive is the effort, whenever possible, to provide nursery facilities at the place of parental employment.

A main feature of American pre-school provision is that kindergartens are provided in separate institutions for the children aged 5 - 6. Not all states do this and attendance is not compulsory. However, it is normally free of charge. There is a fair amount of private provision for three and four year olds in nursery schools, but this is obviously fee paying, so only a small part of the population is able to benefit from it. At the other end of the scale the 'Headstart' programme was

developed to provide enriched pre-school experience for culturally disadvantaged children, giving them experience compensating for their home environment.

As this study has shown, the pre-school teacher in the USA has a highly specialised type of preparation in college and universities in the form of a four years programme, and large numbers of teachers hold masters and doctoral degrees. Consequently, the status of pre-school teacher in the USA is at least as high as any other teacher.

As elsewhere, the key principle in the pre-school curriculum for children in the USA is learning by doing and learning through play. However, a major criticism of the pre-school system in the USA, is that there are few links with the public elementary schools.

Whatever the case may be in these countries, pre-school education is generally in great demand everywhere by both families and children.

As a result of the examination of selected pre-school systems it may be said that they are characterised by 'planned' informality, while there is much privately funded provision at this stage in some countries, another major motivation is to give compensatory education programmes for children from underprivileged backgrounds. Whatever the motivation or even ideology behind it, the aims are very similar, namely to provide for all round social, emotional and physical development per se, plus preparation for the formal compulsory sector beginning with the primary school.

At this stage we may ask what, then, do the general features of English pre-school education look like when

compared with these three countries? A beginning can be made by stating that in England there is an earlier start to formal education than in most other countries in the world, and therefore there is a tendency to underestimate the quantity of provision for children designated as pre-school by international comparison. Many of those who would be 'pre-school' in the USA, USSR and France would be in primary school reception and infant classes in England and Wales.

Nonetheless, the state provision for the development of 'pre-schooling' as defined in England, is still amongst the smallest of developed western countries, though in advance of the USA.

There is certainly an advantage in the system in England of being attached to primary schools which obviously provide vital links between pre-school and primary education, which are missing today in most countries. Meanwhile in England 43 per cent of three and four year olds were receiving nursery education in 1980, and if we count also the four year olds who are attending primary schools as well as those in nursery education, then the figure in 1980 was 56 per cent of all four year olds. This percentage might seem like a moderately impressive sign that the demand for more nursery education is being met.

8.2 Pre-School Comparisons as Between England and Egypt

8.2.1 Documentary Study

The study of the history of pre-school education in England and Egypt has shown that the differences in life style of families in the two different cultures, plus some fundamental

differences in the stated aims of pre-school education in England and Egypt were influential in affecting the nature of that sector of provision. So the development of pre-school education in Egypt suggests some parallels with the development of pre-school education in England, though to some extent these may be derivative. These seem clear if we compared the practices in nursery and infant schools in England from a century ago with the modern approach to nursery education today. In the nursery and infant school in the late Victorian Britain, the classroom usually consisted of tiered galleries in which up to a hundred young children sat in desks or on galleries with far too little room to stretch and few opportunities for movement or play. The curriculum consisted mainly of the 3 Rs (reading, writing and arithmetic). A description for these conditions was given by a Board of Education Inspector in 1905:

"A high desk is very common. The child stands up and leans over the desk in a stooping position throughout the writing lessons, or again it raises itself by sitting on one of its own feet ... Without desks children are obliged to use slates instead of paper and are bent double when writing on their knees, while a second common and pernicious practice is to place children standing up back to back writing on slates, with one arm round the slate to support it and the whole back bent crooked in consequence while the lesson lasts ... long lessons twenty-five and thirty minutes. Babies timetable the same as for others ... Babies are questioned by Board examiner at three years old."

The Women Inspectors reacted strongly against this and stated that these little children should have no formal instruction in the three Rs but plenty of opportunities for free expression; they should learn to talk before they learn

to read and to understand before they learn number by heart. So the modern movement, based on the ideas of earlier pioneers, was revived.

The study of the development of pre-school education in both countries has shown that the nursery school movement in England has derived its main impetus from a determination to provide healthy conditions and good care. Social and economic influences over the last hundred years, industrialisation and modernisation, urbanization, war and the changing role of women all played a role in the establishment of pre-school provision. However, the study of pre-school in Egypt showed that the establishment of public nursery schools was not intended at first to help the poor or working mothers as happened in England and other western countries. Instead, they were intended for the children of rich families, and considered as a kind of luxury for children of high social classes. The principal aim of such schools was to prepare the child for the primary school or, more specifically, for entrance to prestigious schools. In consequence most of these public nursery schools were and still are located in the large cities. The institutionalized efforts in pre-school education were modelled on the formal nursery school of the industrialised countries, even though most of them are in the private sector. The history of early childhood in Egypt is for the most part a history of changing attitudes of society towards children and learning. Twentieth century Egypt has seen rapid social changes, enormous demographic pressures and revolutionary politics, all of which have supported increased demand for pre-school education. To some extent, traditional roles and

institutions are breaking down especially in areas where women are participating. Consequently a great effort is being made to meet the needs implied by these changes in terms of the care of pre-school children of working mothers. In the 1970s the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Social Affairs prepared a comprehensive plan to increase the number of nursery schools and to improve their standard. Since then, there has developed in the government an increasing awareness of state responsibility for the education of young children within a public nursery and kindergarten schools system.

Despite the considerable expansion of places, the great importance of religious, national and political ideology is central to Egyptian aims and contrasts with England where these forces are relatively weak. There are other differences between English and Egyptian pre-school education which may be summarised as follows:

- a) Compulsory education in Egypt begins at 6 years of age and goes through to 15, while in England compulsory education begins at 5 and continues to 16. Consequently pre-school education in England is concerned with 2/3 - 5 year olds, whereas in Egypt it is concerned with 4 - 6 year olds.
- b) In England there is a relatively wide distribution, though with disparities due to social class and LEA policy, whereas in Egypt there is much greater concentration of this sector on the affluent market and in cities.
- c) The content (programme) of pre-school education in England is 'informal' with no laid down curricula. The emphasis is on learning through play, on creativity and on waiting until the child is ready to learn. Therefore many different activities

may be going on in a classroom at one time. In Egypt there is a greater amount of 'whole' class instruction and formal, subject based timetabling.

8.2.2 Empirical Study

The field study between English and Egyptian samples revealed that, in spite of differences between the two countries in cultural, religious, social, moral and economic systems, the overall view of the findings of the two surveys suggested that there was a high level of agreement about purposes, aims and objectives. However, differences were observed, when the functioning of pre-school education was scrutinized.

This study has revealed that the nursery school teachers in England are a more mature professional group, more experienced in early childhood development, with the majority of them having had training relevant to their work with pre-school children. In contrast, most of the kindergarten teachers in Egypt are not trained to work with pre-school children, having been qualified to work with primary or even secondary school pupils instead. A small number of them do have higher degrees in pre-school education. However, in Egypt the Ministry of Education has prepared a programme for in-service training courses relevant to the work of pre-school teachers, but most of these courses concentrate on theoretical studies rather than practical work. Compared with nursery teachers in England, the teachers in Egypt have had shorter experience in teaching for pre-school children.

It appeared from analysis of the teachers questionnaire that the size of the class in kindergartens in Egypt is too

big, around 30 - 35 or more, while in England the size of the class is seen to be around 15 - 20, often with both a nursery teacher and nursery assistant. In Egypt there is only the teacher, without such support. This accounts in part for the more formal approach. In England the smaller group can be handled informally. In particular, the teacher in the smaller group is able to meet the urgent need of the young children to communicate. The rating of the components of a suggested education course discovered that the English teacher had a greater concern with pedagogical practice in nursery teaching and also the aesthetic component of education. On the other hand the Egyptian teacher expressed a greater interest in the study of academic subjects, practical skills and health and hygiene.

The Nursery school teachers in England seemed to concentrate on the all round development with the child's development socially, emotionally, physically and intellectually. This means that the nursery teachers in Hull focussed more on the development of the individual child rather than on society's demands. The development of general cognitive abilities was also considered important but the achievement of specific formal intellectual skills was not considered so urgent at this stage. The pre-school teachers in Egypt also expressed great concern for the social development of the child, but from a different perspective. In their case, the basic goal was the initiation of the child into socially accepted norms, values, beliefs and habits. The idea is to help the child to achieve the norms of behaviour in every respect, in other words, to conform. Particularly important in Egypt is to

develop the child's religious beliefs.

In both samples of teachers there was a preference for teacher-centred approaches, even where the child plays a distinct part, though the English group tended more towards a child-centred element. Despite keeping firm control in both cases it is interesting to note that the majority of teachers in both groups in principle preferred learning by free activity as the best method. They both rated imaginative play and unstructured programmes for the daily activities highly.

It is the writer's view that teachers in Egyptian kindergartens should be encouraged by being given more freedom in choosing their activities in the classroom according to the needs of the children, and in preparing a suitable environment for learning by doing and through play. Consequently the researcher recommends for the education of kindergarten teachers a course that concentrates on practical teaching rather than theoretical studies, and the understanding of the child psychology. Such a course would help to overcome the many problems in the field of pre-school education in Egypt that were identified in her survey. Foremost among these were:

- a) pre-school provision is limited in scale and scope;
- b) kindergarten education lacks the provision of the trained staff but there is now the preparation of pre-school teachers in some Faculties of Education so the problem will be reduced;
- c) the rapidly increasing number of pre-school children imposes new pressures on the teachers, as class sizes rise; they have to practise how to work with large groups of children with a range of abilities;

d) there is a severe lack of adequate facilities of all kinds to meet demands, and a lack of equipment materials which constrains the kind of work which can be introduced to the child.

Despite these problems, it must be said that great strides in early childhood care and education have been made in Egypt. There is evidently a spirit of determination to improve this sector of the system. In view of this, and in the light of the findings of the writer's research we may ask: what features of English pre-school provision could be practically and usefully built into pre-school provision in Egypt?

In the writer's opinion the following areas of English experience and practice are likely to be of use, and are relevant to the development of pre-school education in Egypt:

- a) the different aims and objectives;
- b) the classroom and other facilities;
- c) the teacher:child ratio;
- d) the activity dimension of the pre-school curriculum;
- e) non-formal methods;
- f) quality of school building and equipment;
- g) nourishment and health services in pre-school institutions.

8.3 Recommendations

8.3.1 Pre-School Provision

- a) Early childhood care and education should be provided, as of right, to all children, while priority, due to resource limitations, must be assigned to deprived, disadvantaged and under-served populations. At the same time pre-school services must be made available free of charge to parents;

- b) Pre-school education should be emphasised as the first phase of life-long education and more attention should be paid to developing new approaches to the education of the pre-school age child and to the adaptation of pre-school education to the cultural, economic and social environment in any particular area;
- c) A child should be seen in relation to the full development of the personality and with reference to physical, mental, emotional and social requirements;
- d) Pre-school institutions should be organised flexibly, especially as regards opening and closing times, to suit the needs of the various parents concerned;
- e) The provision should take into account the fact that pre-school education, while retaining its essentially educational character, also meets changing social needs;
- f) There should be close collaboration between public and private education authorities, the medical and social services and the parents;
- g) In organising services for the pre-school child, efforts should be directed to strengthen family ties and the role of the families within the community;
- h) Pre-school facilities should provide for special needs: children who are physically handicapped, emotionally disturbed or mentally retarded should not be excluded except in extreme cases;
- i) Any service for the under fives must be based on the principle that there can be no distinction between the education and welfare needs of young children;
- j) Responsibility for provision of under fives services

should be vested in one government department. Local authorities should also integrate their services;

k) The role of father in the nursery school is very important but often neglected: the nursery school is traditionally, and still, considered to be a 'woman's job', but there is a valuable and essential place for men in the lives of young children.

8.3.2 The Pre-School Teacher

- a) Pre-school teacher training must be based on a sufficiently high level of general knowledge, and should be revised to include more emphasis on young children's educational needs, especially the skills of linking the practical and the theoretical aspects of pre-school teaching.
- b) Teaching staff in pre-school education should have ongoing in-service training throughout their career, because the field of child development is expanding at a very fast rate;
- c) Any programme for in-service training must attempt to balance the personal interests and style of the individual teacher and the needs of any particular school;
- d) Pre-school teachers should be encouraged to adopt modern methods which identify the needs of young children and guide and assist the child's development;
- e) the pupil:teacher ratio should be more the more favourable the younger the children are, as smaller group sizes are needed in Egypt;
- f) Efforts should be made by the Egyptian Government to experience at first hand what is happening in other countries in the pre-school field, especially in European countries which have established high educational standards in this sector,

and this experience should translate itself into in-service provision for teachers.

8.3.3 The Pre-School Curriculum

- a) Pre-school programmes should be informal and unstructured deriving from the aims and objectives of pre-school education;
- b) As far as possible the pre-school curriculum should not be separated from children's experiences at home and in the community;
- c) The maturity of the individual child should be the starting point for planning the pre-school curriculum and it should lead on to take account of the transition between pre-school and primary school by organising the curriculum of pre-school and primary education as a continuous whole;
- d) The daily programme in pre-school education should give more opportunity for learning through play and free activities, including such areas as reading, writing and numeracy skills;
- e) The existing curriculum in Egypt should be modified to meet young children's needs to make better use of natural interest and curiosity at this stage of life - equipment and play materials should be made available to support this aspect;
- f) Television and radio should be a normal part of the daily programme especially as they are commonly experienced at home - in particular these media might 'open windows' for the linguistically deprived;
- g) Young children's libraries are vital, so every nursery school should have one.

8.3.4 Further Research

I the writer suggest the following areas of further research:

- a) Much further research is needed on the question of the role of working mothers in relation to their pre-school children - this could usefully be done on international and comparative studies;
- b) Comparative studies would also be informative in relation to the question of transition from pre-school to primary school;
- c) Studies of the long-term impact of pre-school education on subsequent educational attainment.

.....

It is hoped that this thesis has succeeded in its consideration of evidence from documentary and empirical study as providing a sound basis for serious policy developments to support the expansion and development of the pre-school sector. It is the writer's view that such development would be strongly supported by regular links with those working in this sector in England.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX AMEETING ON PRE-SCHOOL EDUCATION AS THE
FIRST PHASE OF LIFELONG EDUCATION

(Unesco Headquarters, Paris, 5-9 January 1976)

WORKING DOCUMENT

(Extracts)

The present meeting brings together specialists in pre-school education, policy makers, administrators of pre-school education programmes, psychologists, etc. It should provide an opportunity for discussing existing conditions and new trends of lifelong education in the light of the participants' experience; and making suggestions for new approaches required for expanding pre-school education and adopting it to diverse situations.

It is felt that pre-school education, as is now increasingly recognized in most countries, should be an integral part of complete educational structures and should therefore in no way be viewed as a luxury. It takes on a new significance in the perspective of lifelong education and has a special contribution to make towards the democratization of education. However, it cannot be generalized in many countries with limited budgets without a drastic effort to reduce its costs. This requires new approaches and imaginative formulae which should be sought through fully using the educational resources offered by the community and relation of pre-school education to the social and cultural context.

The purposes of pre-school education are not entirely aimed at the intellectual development, but are also intended to help the overall total development of the child, which includes his emotional development. This affective factor is, in particular, important with reference to the mother, father, friends, the family and community. Attention needs to be given to the affective development of the child if he is to grow up to react and interact with the community in an environment that will contribute positively to his development.

Children vary all over the world but the stages of development outlined by Piaget seem to occur in the same sequence from whatever region of the world children come. This probably has not been researched thoroughly in all areas and perhaps further research would be relevant. The effect of the environment, its physical and cultural aspects - at home, in the community, etc. - is clearly important in determining the ages at which children reach certain stages of their development and the particular skills which they may develop.

Pre-school education programmes as a form of intervention are clearly important in particular for children who suffer from some kind of deprivation including poverty.

In some cases, the rather low unit costs of pre-school education indicate a level of expenditure which is below the requirements of efficient pre-school education. In many countries, pre-school education programmes are operated with inadequately trained personnel, if not completely untrained. In other countries, in small numbers, the teachers assigned to pre-school institutions can be considered as perhaps the best qualified and pedagogically prepared of the whole educational system.

The concept of lifelong education is bound up with the desire to meet the growing demand for education which is characteristic of our age and with a movement in favour of democratization which entails not only general access to education but also equality of opportunity, to be achieved through education which is adapted to the aspirations, characteristics and needs of the different age groups and the various socio-economic and occupational categories.

Secondly, just as education is not mediated solely by the scholastic institution, it is also not restricted in time to the period of full-time schooling but, on the contrary, extends over the entire span of human life and is thus, in temporal terms, a continuing process as well as being in social and spatial terms, a global process.

The education of the "complete man", as outlined in the report of the International Commission on the Development of Education, is therefore a global education as well as being a lifelong education: its aims must be systematically to attain the ideal which, in fact, has always been that of educators and philosophers even though it has generally been betrayed in actual educational practice, the ideal of the harmonious and balanced education of the individual within the polis.

The concept of lifelong education is recalled only in view of its implications for pre-school education. Five of them seem to be of particular relevance:

(i) lifelong education is, first of all, a continuous process and its organization requires vertical integration of its components - as well as horizontal integration. However diverse the sequence and combination of educational experiences may be, each learning experience will obviously be all the more fruitful if it can build on previous experience which has prepared the learner for it. In this perspective, the importance of the initial phase of education becomes essential, as it provides the foundation for ensuing learning, and it should be conceived in view of this function. This question was discussed, among others, by a meeting of experts on the basic cycle of education organized by Unesco in June 1974. One of the recommendations was that pre-school education should be part of the basic cycle of education. At the same time, while it should be articulated with the other components of the system, it should play a specific role in it - as all others;

(ii) lifelong education is committed to the democratization of education. Democratizing education, however, cannot be achieved only in terms of access of education. It also requires equalizing the chances of access. From this point of view, pre-school education has a considerable role to play, which has already been mentioned: compensating and reducing the social cultural handicaps, from which many children suffer and which range from less ease and fluency in verbal expression, inability to use the language of teaching and lesser ability to use abstraction, to difficult housing conditions, lack of medical care including lack of detection of physical handicaps, inadequate food and poor diet, etc. The whole development of the individual may depend on the compensatory function which pre-school can play in this respect, not in the form of a corrective and remedial type of education, but as a means of equalizing conditions. Despite such argument in this respect, it seems that the importance of this role cannot be denied.

(iii) lifelong education aims at enabling the individual to perform his or her various roles and function in life, and at ensuring the harmonious, well-rounded development of the "complete man". Therefore, this requirement should be reflected in the education which the child receives in his or her most formative years,

which are the years of life. Pre-school education should be conceived in such a way as to foster cognitive, emotional, physical development, to reconcile individual development and creativity with socialization, to impart moral and social values, to make the child part of the human and physical environment;

(iv) lifelong education is education for a world of change and for changing the world: pre-school education should give the child the sense of emotional security which he or she will need to accept change, welcome it with confidence and participate in it;

(v) in a lifelong education perspective the individual receives his or her education as a member of the community and through life in the community. The whole community tends to become educational. Therefore, all the educational resources of the community should be used for pre-school education, not only in the interest of economy and greater efficiency, but also because it will make pre-school education more relevant to the environment and will thus better prepare the child for living in it.

Continuity is also necessary between the education which a child receives from the home and the community, and pre-school education where it exists in an institutional form: one of the characteristics of lifelong education is the assumption that education takes place both in school and in the community at large and the plea that pre-school education be the very first phase of lifelong education in no way implies that the role of the family and the social environment of the child should be decreased.

If pre-school education is to be generalized in the developing countries, two main requirements must be met: the costs of pre-school education should be reduced; and pre-school education should be more closely related to the social and cultural patterns of the community which it serves. In fact, the problem is very much linked to the one previously discussed of the supportive role of the home and the community.

APPENDIX B

THE NURSERY SCHOOL CURRICULUM IN ENGLAND AS ENVISAGED BY
DOROTHY MAY ON BEHALF OF THE NURSERY SCHOOL
ASSOCIATION OF GREAT BRITAIN AND NORTHERN IRELAND

"Instead of outlining the courses of study which may be chosen by the students, since these may differ to some extent from one College to another, the various fields of interest likely to be shared by teacher and children alike are outlined here in the following ways:

- (i) as represented by the scope of the studies during the students' training;
- (ii) as represented by the kinds of activities and interests found among Nursery School children.

Creative and self-expressive interests such as art and craft, drama, literature and music

Art and Craft

(i) This includes various forms of creative work for the student's own interest and satisfaction and for the development of her own skill, e.g., painting, modelling, carving, vegetable dyeing as a preliminary to embroidery and weaving, book-making and book-binding and the designing and making of toys and other equipment for the Nursery School.

(ii) In the Nursery School there is the opportunity for the teacher to discover the "artist" in children, in their delight in their growing skill in handling creative and constructive materials. Thinking of the playroom as a studio or workshop, by making adequate and appropriate provision

the teacher may ensure that the children experience delight in their own achievements, as well as, at the same time, finding creative forms of self-expression in painting and modelling, and satisfying outlets for their energy in woodwork, and in other forms of instruction.

The teacher discovers also that there is scope for widening the horizons of the children and the mothers, in regard to the pictures, book, fabrics, pottery, etc., which can be introduced into the nursery play-room. In so doing, she discovers that young children have a real appreciation of the teacher's own creative efforts.

Drama and Speech

(i) In the study of drama, in particular in acting, miming and puppetry, students have the dramatic experience of entering into the roles of others and thus of studying some of the psychological complexities of human character. This work is closely combined with practical work in stage design and in designing and making costumes.

In her work as a Nursery School teacher, she will be working in a variety of roles, as "mother", "big sister", "nurse", "welfare worker", as a teacher, a playmate, a workmate and a fellow-discoverer. Her own understanding of children will be so much deeper if she can enter into the thoughts and feelings of the children as she does when she enters into a title role in a play.

(ii) This "entering into the role of others", which is an essential element in dramatic work, is found in young children to be both a spontaneous form of self-expression,

and to be one of the ways by which they discover how other people think and feel. The most dramatic and arresting types of play in the Nursery School are those in which the children play out the drama of family life, enter into the experiences of "workmen", take on the characters of animals or even such inanimate objects as trains and cars, and play out the stories they hear. Simple dressing-up materials and "props" provided by the teacher, but which the children may help to make, play an important part in stimulating dramatic play.

Literature

(i) This involves a study of our literary heritage and of English usage, spoken and written. Students are encouraged to do creative writing in prose and verse and in story-writing, as well as to make a study of traditional and other stories, poetry and verse appropriate for small children.

(ii) In the Nursery School, where at the age of two years children have very little command of language, but by the age of five years are using language as a means of self-expression and as a medium of communication, the teacher has the opportunity to watch and to foster the children's growing command of language. Giving the children a rich and varied background of stories and poems, encouraging the children's own spontaneous story-telling and verse-making, helping the children to find answers to their questions, giving them opportunities to clarify and give expression to their own ideas, are ways in which the Nursery School teacher helps to lay the foundations for the teaching that will take place at a later stage through the medium of language.

Music

(i) The study of music in its various forms, choral and instrumental, gives students the opportunity to develop their own musical ability and sensitivity through the mastery of an instrument and through the appreciation and study of music as one of the arts. They may learn to play recorders and to design and make simple instruments for the use of children in school.

(ii) In the Nursery School, provision is made for the children's awakening response to music by a variety of musical experiences, in singing, dancing, playing simple musical instruments, experimenting with rhythm and melody in a music corner. Here, as in the field of art, the teacher finds that she can widen the horizons of the children by sharing with them her enjoyment and appreciation of the music she sings to them, or plays to them on a musical instrument or a gramophone.

Biological, scientific and environmental interests

(i) The various courses offered under this heading, while important from the point of view of the student's own education, are important also in preparing her for an attitude of mind which she will meet in her children. If she herself pursues her studies or explores new fields of study with an inquiring mind, she will the better understand the children's insatiable desire to "find out", and she will have learnt how to search out the information for satisfying their curiosity.

(ii) With such an approach to her work, she will find in the Nursery School an environment where children can explore, experiment, investigate, discover: she will find that children are curious about the world around them and

eager for new experiences, and that, whether it is within the familiar environment of home and school, or in the field of animal and plant life, or of human work and achievement, children need grown-ups who are prepared to share their interests and to be fellow-discoverers with them. Her role here is to open up the facts of the external world to the children in such a way that they can grasp and understand them. She can only do this if she is prepared to continue to educate herself while she is engaged in educating children.

Home-making and mothering and nursing aspects of Nursery

School work

(i) Courses in which the physical welfare and routine care of young children and the conditions essential for their healthy growth and development are studied provide the basis for the practical application in the Nursery School of the knowledge gained in these courses, in safeguarding the children's health, and in fostering the children's awakening desire to be independent and self-reliant in routine physical care.

In thinking of the Nursery School as an extension of the home and as a place where the nurture of young children must receive careful attention, some experience of domestic crafts during the training is an essential preliminary to planning the domestic jobs which must be undertaken by the student nursery nurses and by other members of the staff. There may be a close link with the courses in art and craft, in needle-work and in woodwork, for there is scope for the designing of soft furnishings, e.g., making hand-printed curtains and cushions, for designing and embroidering the emblems with

which each child's belongings are marked, for picture-making, doll-making and doll-dressing, and for learning, under the guidance of a woodwork instructor, how to make such things as cots, chests of drawers, wardrobes, dressers, etc., for the children's "Home Corner" play.

(ii) In the Nursery School those kinds of play are provided for the children which give them scope for playing "mothers" and playing "doctors and nurses", e.g., by the provision of a Home Corner and a Hospital Corner. Here, too, there is scope for fostering the children's independence and self-reliance by the provision of all those forms of domestic play which are so much loved by young children - cleaning, washing, "cooking", sewing, etc., and for enlisting their help in routine jobs. Boys are often just as interested as girls in these activities, though their interest more often takes the form of woodwork constructions, e.g., making houses out of boxes.

Athletic interests

(i) While physical education in the College course includes both the study and practice of movement, in dance, games and use of apparatus, it also assists students to appreciate the children's pleasure in physical achievement and to learn how to meet individual and group needs in this respect.

(ii) In the Nursery School there is much scope for ingenuity and resourcefulness in devising apparatus to call forth the greatest effort from the children, and to foster their growing muscular skill and co-ordination. Moreover, Nursery School life is an active one, and much of the time is spent out of doors.

Religious, philosophical and historical studies

Embodied in these studies, as well as being inherent in the various courses already mentioned, are the fundamental principles which enable students to see the education of young children in the Nursery School as part of the first stage in education for life and to see the work of the teacher in its true perspective.

Such studies help the student to become increasingly aware of the ultimate values in life. She will find that her life in the classroom reflects her philosophy and beliefs, and that these influences permeating her work will not only affect her relationship with the children, parents and nursery assistants and trainees, but will also increase her awareness of the spiritual needs of the children and how these needs may be met."

Source: May, Dorothy, Nursery School Education: Its Scope and Opportunities, (London: The Nursery School Association of Great Britain and Northern Ireland, University of London Press Ltd., 1957).

APPENDIX CCARING FOR UNDER FIVESIN HUMBERSIDE, ENGLAND

Since 1981 the policy of Humberside County Council has been to regard the Under Fives as a single group of children who are, in fact, the joint responsibility of its Social Services and Education departments and the health authority.

One of the major results of this policy has been the establishment of the Council for the Under Fives which has brought together all the agencies and voluntary organisations involved with the care of the Under Fives, from playgroup organisers and child minders to health visitors and nursery teachers and representatives of the National Children's Bureau, Dr Barnado's and other voluntary organisations.

Senior elected representatives have been an important part of the council. This has helped to create a feeling of belonging to a very important part of our service which has, in the past, felt insecure and vulnerable.

Not only have we had stimulating meetings with outside speakers on a variety of topics; a magazine has also been produced which has disseminated information about good practice across the country and has been established as a major means of communication in Humberside.

The County Council has made grants available (mainly from the Education and Social Services departments) to encourage parental involvement with the Under Fives and this has led to closer co-operation between those working with the Under Fives and the communities they serve.

It has also given substantial grants to the Playgroup Association to provide funds for training, believing that improving standards in playgroups is a significant contribution to meeting the needs of the Under Fives in the county.

Humberside has continued to provide nursery education - progress is very slow because of the cost and Government restrictions on local authorities expenditure - but we have managed to provide 300 fulltime places since 1981 in what we consider to be areas of need. Many of the places have been made possible by some imaginative creative remodelling of existing premises.

One of the exciting developments on the Under Fives front has been the early admissions policy. In the last two years some 20 primary schools in the County have admitted children at the age of four, at the beginning of their fifth year.

Nursery teams

Criteria have been successfully established and children have been admitted to schools under nursery type provision. This has enabled about 300 children to have experience of nursery education.

Another interesting development has been the establishment of what we call peripatetic nursery teams. The county council is very aware of the deprivation that can occur in the rural areas of the county and apart from the mobile nursery caravan which visits five schools on the North Bank, the authority has introduced two pilot schemes where a nursery teacher and

a nursery nurse visit a school on two half days a week and work with the nursery children in that area. Liaison with local playgroups is an important aspect of this development.

The unequivocal commitment of the authority to the Under Fives has given those currently involved with young children a professional confidence and security which has led to the formation of an extremely successful North Humberside Early Years Association.

Source: Wilson, Veronica (Coun.), The Humberside Reporter,
News from the County Council

APPENDIX D

AN EXAMPLE OF THE KIND OF SUPPORT AVAILABLE
TO ENGLISH PRE-SCHOOL TEACHERS

Schools Council Newsletter

Early Mathematical Experiences A Project

The Early Mathematical Experiences project was funded by the Schools Council at a cost of £49,000 as one result of the pilot nursery study by Marianne Parry and Hilda Archer. The project has now completed its course of 3 years, starting in September 1974 and has been granted 18 months of 'dissemination' on a smaller scale. Concurrently an evaluation exercise is being carried out by the National Foundation for Educational Research, to find out how new users react to the draft publications.

The general aim of the project was stated as follows:

To study relevant experiences leading to mathematical ideas for nursery children and to help their teachers with suggestions on how to encourage these. More specifically, the aims are:

1. To identify and classify relevant experiences leading to mathematical ideas by observing nursery classes and relating their work to the theoretical development of early mathematical concepts.
2. To produce guides for teachers to help them to stimulate the development of mathematical concepts in young children.

To achieve these aims, a team was formed with ourselves as part-time directors, two full-time project officers and a secretary. We were also extremely fortunate in having free help in the shape of a term's work from Margaret Adams and Yvonne Wardrop of Rolfe

College Exmouth, and Dr Bob Perry of Mitchell College of Advanced Education, Bathurst, Australia. We were even more fortunate in the setting up of a network of teachers' groups up and down the country consisting of 22 'pilots' with whom the team would keep regular contact, and 61 'associates' who would also contribute with suggestions and criticisms. These teachers' groups were to prove more vital than we could have imagined, for when it came to 'identifying and classifying relevant experiences leading to mathematical ideas...' we found surprisingly little to help us in the literature. Accordingly if ever there was a 'teacher-based project', it is EME. we simply *had* to ask the working groups to supply the fundamental data and ideas.

The response was magnificent. We appealed for information in the first instance 'on the backs of envelopes', notes of a conversation between two children or a child and an adult or of an action which might be considered as an 'early mathematical experience'. These notes came pouring in, sometimes with actual examples of children's work, photographs, even specially-produced folders, and always with the age of the children concerned in years and months so that we could start looking for a pattern of development. After six months or so, we felt able to ask for rather longer anecdotes (what happened leading up to a particular incident, what follow-up there was, or even might have been). We also began to shape up the materials



age-range by Julia and Geoffrey Matthews



under headings which would eventually become the titles of our booklets to be prepared for publication. To jump ahead for a moment, to the end of the story, the titles of these booklets are as follows:

Water	Raw Materials
Space and Shape	The Family
Home Corner	The Environment
Comparisons	Apparatus, Toys and Games
Towards Number	Rhymes and Stories
Outdoor Activities	The Passage of Time

They are being published by Addison-Wesley early in 1978. In addition to the 'topic' booklets, there is a General Guide to EME including sections on 'Where's this all leading to?', record keeping and a mathematical glossary. Two other publications complete the package.

A series of 30 slide transparencies, the use of which with the booklets is strongly recommended;

A videotape lasting 1 hour altogether, but split up into 4 independent sections

Each of these has accompanying notes. The slide transparencies show everyday nursery scenes, the message being that mathematics is there for the asking and should not be regarded as a subject apart. The videotapes were made to show progression, which is sometimes easier to see than to describe. Four topics were chosen: cooking, a home corner tea party, picture-making and water play (with special reference to floating and sinking). Groups of children were recorded first at about 4 years old and then again twice at 6-monthly intervals, the 'opening scene' in each case being the same. Their different reactions certainly make absorbing viewing in general terms of child development as well as showing the acquisition of mathematical ideas.

It has been very necessary throughout the project to define as clearly as possible just what was meant by 'early mathematical experiences' - how early is 'early' - what is 'mathematics' and what constitutes an 'experience'. Having established that 'early' meant any child from about 3 years old to 6, the 'mathematical experiences'

were clearly to be concerned with the acquisition of certain concepts, rather than doing 'sums', a skill which would come at a much later stage. A clue to what these concepts might be had been provided by the Nuffield Mathematics Project (age range 5-13 yrs). That project had produced a 'tree of knowledge' showing that certain concepts had to be acquired before others and that it was useless to introduce skills before the relevant concepts had been acquired. Some of the earlier concepts in the tree would undoubtedly be relevant to EME and of course this proved to be so. The concepts concerned include: comparisons, sorting, matching and ordering. These do not only lead to ideas of number and consequently 'sums' but also to spatial awareness and eventually geometry.

The following examples illustrate how these ideas can crop up in the nursery.

(1) Comparison

Andrew (4.9) Flats are bigger.

Teacher Bigger than what, Andrew?

Paul (4.9) Bigger and higher than houses.

Teacher Can you think of something smaller than a house?

Paul A cottage and some flats.

This example shows the role of the teacher: here reinforcing vocabulary and ideas already assimilated by the children.

(2) Comparison

Vanessa (4.5) (comparing her milk): I've got more than you.

Victoria (5.4) If you drink some, we'll have the same.

(They compared heights of milk in their bottles.)

(3) Matching

Fiona (4.7) made 4 biscuits and took them home. The next day she said 'I couldn't give one to Daddy because there weren't enough. I had one, Justin had one, Joanna had one and Mummy had one, so I gave Daddy a bit of mine.'

(4) Sorting

In this example the teacher has provided a collection of shells for the children to explore. S. (4.6) and Tr. (4.8) are looking at the shells and their teacher, noticing their interest in the different kinds, joins with them to initiate a 'spontaneous' sorting activity.

S. I've got a tiny one.

Tr. This is a big one. It's like a stick.

S. Feel this. This is a smooth one.

Tr. I've got a smooth one.

S. Here's another stick one.

Teacher Put the stick ones together.

S. And the smooth ones.

The children put the shells in appropriate groups, 'stick ones', 'tiny ones', 'curly ones', 'smooth ones'.

(5) Ordering

When playing in the home corner, Alexandra (4.3) quite spontaneously sorted a set of pots, matched each with the right-sized lid and graded them on a shelf by size.

The EME booklets include such examples and having described the topic concerned, show ways in which its mathematical possibilities might be developed and the teacher's role in fostering these.

The next move is to make EME more widely known. Already some pilot and associate groups are spreading the message to other areas. We ourselves are planning to visit many groups and run courses during the dissemination period. In particular, we are organising a second conference in April 1978 for College and National Nursery Education Board lecturers. We will answer as many calls as we possibly can. For further information, please write to Isobel Provan at EME, Chelsea College, University of London, 88-90 Lillie Road, London SW6 7SJ.

(Left): Checking paper cups to arrange them in a one-to-one correspondence

(Above): Exploring shapes with coloured papers of different sizes and shapes

APPENDIX E

THE ROLE OF THE NURSERY SCHOOL IN ENGLAND

ASSISTANT TEACHERS AND NURSERY NURSES QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear Teacher

This questionnaire consists of five sections. Please read the instructions to each section before completing it.

I should be grateful if you would answer all the items frankly. Your answers will be of immense value because they would enable me to explore fully the nature of nursery education. They would also be of tremendous help in connection with improving and further developing the nursery school curriculum in Egypt. However, if there is any question which you do not care to answer, please indicate by putting a line through it.

I will visit your school personally, to collect the questionnaire and discuss with you any problems with regard to answering it.

Thank you very much

Yours sincerely

H S El-Sayed

From: Colin Brock, MA MEd: Chairman, International Education Unit

This is to certify that Mrs Hoda El Sayed is a bona fide full time research student of this Institute and University. As her supervisor I should like to thank you most sincerely for any cooperation you are able to give in respect of completing Mrs El Sayed's questionnaire. She is a most diligent and responsible person who will make proper use of any information she receives.

.....

.....

Section A: GENERAL INFORMATION:

Please answer the following questions by placing a tick in the appropriate box or writing a list, or number as indicated.

1. What is the number of children in your class?

Less than 15

15 - 19

20 - 24

25 - 29

30 - 50

2. To what age group do you belong?

Under 25

25 - 34

35 - 44

45 - 54

55 and over

3. Marital status:

Single

Married

4. Have you any children of your own?

Yes

--

No

--

a) If "Yes" - then how many, and what ages?

5. What are your qualifications?

O levels/CSE

A levels

Teacher Training Certificate

First Degree

Postgraduate diploma or certificate

Higher Degree

NNEB

6. Please indicate which of the following motives for entering teaching were important to you.

(Please grade each item on a scale of (1) for "not at all important up to (5) for "very important".

Interesting work

Opportunity to pursue interest in particular subject

Security

Freedom to organise much of own work

Occupation with status

Good hours and holiday

Liking for teaching to children

Worthwhile work

Salary

Work you could do best of all

7. Knowing what you know now, would you still choose teaching?

Yes

No

a) If "No" please give main reasons.

8. How long have you been teaching children of this age group?

Under 1 year
1 - 4 years
5 - 10 years
11 - 20 years
20 and over

9. Which one of the following describes your school building and facilities as an environment for kindergarten education?

Ideal
Very good on the whole
Adequate
Limited
Very poor

10. Do you feel a need for in-service training?

Yes

☐

No

☐

- a) If "Yes", what kind of in-service training do you feel has been or would be beneficial for you.

11. Assess the components of an education course listed below for nursery teachers. Which do you consider to be more or less important?

Please insert the chosen number in each box as per the following scale:

Very important	5
Important	4
Of only minor importance	3
Unimportant	2
Irrelevant	1

- a) The study of one or more expressive subjects, eg art, music, dance, drama
- b) Practical skills, eg toy making, construction of games
- c) The study of one or more academic subjects, eg English, Mathematics, Science
- d) Curriculum Method Studies eg the teaching of language or number
- e) The Sociology of Education, eg family structures, social class
- f) The History of Education, eg the rise in importance of kindergarten education, the evolution of educational legislation
- g) Educational Organisation and Administration, eg the law concerning kindergarten education and its management
- h) Health and Hygiene eg the physical growth of a child, childhood ailments
- i) Practice in nursery teaching, ie periods of placement in the pre-school contexts
- j) Theory and Philosophy of Education, eg the aims of nursery education the ideas of pioneers of the movements

Section B. AIMS OF NURSERY EDUCATION

1. Below there are five statements about the purposes of Nursery Education. By general consent all are important. Will you please read all of them carefully and, when you have read them, indicate the order of priority you would give them by putting a (1) against the purpose you would stress most, and other things being equal, down to (5) for the purpose you would stress least.
- a) The purpose of nursery education is to provide opportunities for the child to experiment with a variety of materials in the fields of art and music, to encourage him to be creative and expressive in his own way, and to stimulate in him a growing awareness and appreciation of beauty in whatever form it occurs.
 - b) The purpose of nursery education is to create an atmosphere in which staff and parents can develop an easy relationship, where the staff can awaken in the parents a fuller understanding of the needs of young children and of ways of making the child's educational life smoother and happier, thus acting as an extension of the home and enriching the life of both school and home through mutual experience.
 - c) The purpose of nursery education is to create an environment where the staff is trained to understand the needs of young children, to help each child make warm, stable relationships with other children and adults, to encourage responsibility and consideration for others and to help build self-confidence, independence and self-control so that he has very chance of leading a full and happy life.
 - d) The purpose of nursery education is to help the child use his body effectively by developing motor and manipulatory co-ordination and skills, and to meet his physical needs through the provision of fresh air, space to play and sleep, good food, training in personal hygiene, and regular medical inspection, so that the child develops physical skills and a healthy body at his own pace.
 - e) The purpose of nursery education is to provide an environment in which a child has scope to explore and experiment, and to encourage his intellectual development by fostering the use of language, by helping him to learn how to learn, by stimulating his natural curiosity, and by encouraging the development of the ability to form concepts, so that in time he may use his intellectual powers to the full.

Section C: THE ROLE OF THE NURSERY TEACHER

1. Please tick ONE of the following statements about the role of the nursery teacher that approximates most closely to your views on your role as a nursery teacher.

The role of the nursery teacher is to create a safe, happy, stimulating child-centred environment in which:

- a) the child chooses for himself those activities he wishes to do, and so develops his potential in his own way at his own pace.
- b) the child can develop his potential and in which the teacher guides helps and encourages the child to do those things the child wishes.
- c) the child can develop his potential and in which the teacher guides, helps and encourages the child to do those things the child wishes to do, and to do certain things that the teacher considers are desirable for the child to do.
- d) the child can develop his potential and in which the teacher not only guides, helps, and encourages the child, but also ensures that the child does certain things that the teacher considers are desirable for him to do.

Section D: SKILLS AT NURSERY SCHOOL

The following statements are about skills that a nursery teacher could help her children achieve.

Would you please read the list of statements and by using the following scale, indicate the degree to which you emphasize the skills in your school.

It is extremely important for me to help the child to achieve this

1
2
3
4

It is important for me to help the child to achieve this

2

It is important for me to help the child to achieve this but only to a small extent

3

It is not important for me to help the child to achieve this

4

- 1) to help the child become expressive through art, music and drama

☐

- 2) to help the child to develop and co-ordinate his large muscles through climbing, throwing, jumping etc.

☐

- 3) to help the child to develop an easy relationship with the staff

☐

- 4) to help the child substitute verbal expression for aggressive feelings such as hitting, biting etc.

☐

- 5) to help the child fit in with the routines of the nursery school
- 6) to help the child to measure, count, match sets, add and subtract small quantities
- 7) to help the child to explain ideas and convey information
- 8) to help the child become aware of beauty in his life
- 9) to help the child develop control of his behaviour from within
- 10) to help the child share teachers attention with other children
- 11) to help the child begin to distinguish what he finds beautiful
- 12) to help the child become creative through art, music and drama
- 13) to help the child reason - eg to notice what things cause other things
- 14) to help the child become more independent
- 15) to help the child listen and follow simple directions from the teacher
- 16) to help the child come to accept himself and his feelings
- 17) to help the child develop confidence in using his body effectively
- 18) to help the child make judgements and express an opinion
- 19) to help the child classify
- 20) to help the child to develop and co-ordinate his small muscles through screwing, threading, using scissors etc.
- 21) to help the child to take initiative in problem solving
- 22) to help the child acquire a positive attitude towards the skills and purposes of eating
- 23) to help the child understand and recognise the feelings, needs, and attitudes of others

- 24) to help the child get along with others and play co-operatively
- 25) to help the child accept and respect authority
- 26) to help the child to develop a feeling for forms and styles of language, eg poetry
- 27) to help the child wait for a turn or share a piece of equipment
- 28) to help the child begin to understand reasons for health routines, eg cleaning teeth, washing hands
- 29) to help the child to understand that certain situations are dangerous, eg sucking beads, incorrect use of scissors, etc.
- 30) to help the child develop a desire to participate in art, music or drama

Section E: THE CURRICULUM AT NURSERY LEVEL

1. Do you think the present educational programme is:

Good

Adequate

Irrelevant

2. What are the subjects and the activities in the educational programme which you think the children like best?
(please list them below)

1.

2.

3. What are the subjects and the activities in the programme which you think the children find least interesting?
(please list them below)

1.

2.

4. What are the subjects and the activities which you think should be included (or added) to the programme?
(please list them below)

1.

2.

5. What are the subjects and activities which you think could be omitted from the programme?
(please list them below)

1.

2.

6. Do you think that formal methods should be employed in nursery teaching?

Yes

Yes, but only on a limited scale

No

7. In your opinion, how should learning be achieved in the Nursery?

Learning by guided activities

Learning by free activities (self activities)

Learning by free and guided activities

8. In your opinion, does the present nursery school curriculum reflect the needs of the child?

Yes

--

No

--

To a considerable extent

--

9. In your opinion, how relevant is the content of each of these topics of the present curriculum in meeting the children's requirements in the nursery school? Please use the following scale.

Very relevant

3

Some relevance

2

Not relevant

1

Language

Music

Art

Science

Mathematics

Social Studies

Religious Education

Play and free activities

Health and Safety

Physical education

12. How important in your opinion, are the following items in your daily programme? (please indicate, using the scale)

Not important Important Very important

Play with sand and clay

Visits outside the school

Imaginative play

13. In your opinion, is the work throughout the present curriculum appropriately sequenced for your children?

Yes No

14. Do you follow a timetable for organising daily activities?

Yes No

15. How often in the last term have you discussed the content of the curriculum with the head of your team?
(please tick one box only)

Once Twice Three times/over None

16. In your opinion, how generally useful is each of these methods for teaching pre-school children ?
(please indicate by using the scale)

Not useful Useful Extremely useful

Class instruction (teacher talking to the class as a whole)

Group teaching

Free activities

17. Are you allowed sufficient freedom to organise the activities of the daily programme?

Yes No

18. What is the best way to evaluate most aspects of the child's development?

Use scale

1

 for "Very poor" to

5

 "very good"

Teacher Observation

Standardized Tests

Monthly Reports

Use of record forms

The case study

Thank you for completing this questionnaire.

If you would like to make additional comments, or elaborate on answers to your questions, or to suggest aspects of the curriculum I have overlooked, please make use of the space below.

Source: This questionnaire is based on that in: Taylor, P.H., Exon, G.S., and Holley, B., A Study of Nursery Education: Schools Council Working Paper 41, Evans/Methuen, 1972.

APPENDIX F

THE ROLE OF THE NURSERY SCHOOL IN ENGLAND

HEADTEACHERS QUESTIONNAIRE

This questionnaire is for the Headteacher. If you are also a class teacher please answer the other questionnaire attached. If you are Headteacher, please answer the part related to you.

I should be grateful if you would answer all the items frankly. Your answers will be of immense value because they would enable me to explore fully the nature of Nursery Education in England, will in turn be of tremendous help in connection with improving and further developing the nursery school curriculum in Egypt. However, if there is any question which you do not care to answer, please indicate by putting a line through it.

I will visit your school personally, on a date to be mutually agreed, to collect the questionnaire and discuss with you any problems with regard to its completion.

Thank you very much

Yours sincerely

H S El-Sayed
Research Student

From: Colin Brock, MA MEd: Chairman, International Education Unit

This is to certify that Mrs Hoda El Sayed is a bona fide full time research student of this Institute and University. As her supervisor I should like to thank you most sincerely for any cooperation you are able to give in respect of completing Mrs El Sayed's questionnaire. She is a most diligent and responsible person who will make proper use of any information she receives.

.....

.....

Please answer the following questions by placing a tick in the appropriate box or writin a list, or number as indicated.

1. How many children are there in your nursery?

Under 50

50 - 100

100 - 150

150 - 200

200 - 250

Over 250

2. Please indicate the pupil/teacher ratio:

10 : 1

15 : 1

20 : 1

25 : 1

30 : 1

35 : 1

3. Please indicate your academic/professional qualification:

O levels

A levels

Teaching Certificate

University Degree

Postgraduate Diploma

NNEB

4. How long have you been a Headteacher?

1 - 5 years

5 - 10 years

10 - 15 years

15 - 20 years

5. Have you attended an in-service training course?

Yes ☐ No ☐ If "Yes" then how many? ☐

6. According to your experience, what kind of relationship with the staff is more effective in carrying out your job? (tick one box only)

The hierarchical relationship

The relationship of "being the first among equals"

Applying both relationships according to the situation

7. Do you usually let teachers participate in taking decisions concerning education in the nursery?

Yes ☐ No ☐

8. Do you think that a headteacher should do some teaching?

Yes ☐ No ☐

If your answer is "Yes" please state your reasons below.

a)

b)

9. What is your attitude towards the teacher who suggests introducing innovations in the education process, particularly if these innovations require added expense or some other changes in the routine? (tick one box only)

Encourage giving the fullest support possible

Encourage a little

Reject the suggestion on the basis that it is too difficult to be attained or even tried

Reject the suggestions without giving a reason

10. Do you think that every nursery needs an assistant Headteacher?

Yes

☐

No

☐

11. What are in your opinion - the main functions of the assistant headteacher?
List them below. Please list in order of importance.

a)

b)

c)

d)

Thank you for completing this questionnaire.

If you would like to make additional comments, or elaborate on answers to your questions, or to suggest aspects of the curriculum I have overlooked, please make use of the space below.

Mrs H.S. El-Sayed

Source: This questionnaire is based on that in: Taylor, P.H., Exon, G.S. and Holley, B., A Study of Nursery Education: Schools Council Working Paper 41, Evans/Methuen, 1972.

APPENDIX G

EGYPTIAN KINDERGARTEN TEACHERS QUESTIONNAIRE

بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم

المربية الفاضلة :

تحية طيبة

قامت رياض الاطفال فى مصر من أجل تحقيق أهداف تربوية تدور حول رغبة
الطفل وتربيته تربية سليمة تنبع من حاجاته وحاجات المجتمع وقيمه ، ورياض الاطفال
هى بداية السلم التربوى الذى يقدم الأنشطة التربوية ويساعد على تنمية المهارات
واكتسابها وذلك وفق المناهج المربية وطرق التدريس الفعالة وكذا الوسائل والأدوات
المعينة .

وعلى هذا يمكن القول بأن تقديم هذه المناهج المربية بالأسلوب وطريقة
التدريس الفعالة هو محور نجاح العملية التربوية فى دور الحضانة وبالتالى تحقيق
أهداف بناء الطفل بناءاً تربوياً سليماً .

وهذا البحث يدور حول المناهج وطرق التدريس فى رياض الأطفال والدراسته
الميدانية سواء فى مصر أو المملكة المتحدة تشكل جانب هام من جوانب البحث ،
وذلك من أجل تحليل ودراسته واقع المناهج وطرق التدريس الحالية وتحديد مشكلاتها ،
ثم دراسة امكانيات التطوير وحل المشكلات بدراسة النظم الحالية فى عدد من دول
العالم المتقدمة .

ومن هنا فأنت مدعوة للمشاركة فى هذا البحث وذلك بإجابتك على أسئلة هذا
الاستبيان من واقع عملك وخبرتك الشخصية ، علماً بأن ما تبدينه من آراء وما تقدمينه
من اقتراحات سيكون له قيمته الفعلية فى هذه الدراسة .

ويتكون هذا الاستبيان من جزأين الأول الى المربية والثانى الى المدير ، ويتناول
الاستبيان موضوعات ذات صلة بتربية الطفل فى مرحلة الرياض ، يرجى الاجابة عليها
بصراحة وموضوعية تامة ، حتى يتحقق غرض هذا البحث الذى محوره طفل اليوم وانسان
الغد فى وطننا العزيز مصر ...

مع خالص شكرى وتقديرى لتعاونك

هدى سعد السيد

الدور التربوي للمدرسة رياض الأطفال

أولاً : بيانات عامة :

يرجى الاجابة على الاسئلة التالية بوضع علامة () في المربع المناسب .

١- ما عدد أطفال فصلك ؟

١٥ - ١٩ ☐

٢٠ - ٢٤ ☐

٢٥ - ٢٩ ☐

٣٠ - فأكثر ☐

٢- ما عمرك ؟

أقل من ٢٥ سنة ☐

٢٥ - ٢٩ سنة ☐

٣٠ - ٣٩ سنة ☐

٤٠ - ٤٩ سنة ☐

٥٠ سنة فما فوق ☐

٣- الحالة الاجتماعية ؟

متزوجة ☐

غير متزوجة ☐

٤- هل لديك أبناء ؟

نعم ☐

لا ☐

٥ - المؤهل الدارسي ؟

- ☐ الشهادة الابتدائية
- ☐ " الإعدادية
- ☐ " الثانوية أو ما يعادلها
- ☐ دبلوم معهد المعلومات العام •
- ☐ " " " الخاص •
- ☐ شهادة جامعية أو مؤهلات أخرى (تذكر) •
-
-

٦ - يرجى وضع علامة () داخل المربع المقابل للحافز أو الحوافز التي أدت الى اختيارك لمهنة التدريس وذلك بإعطائها درجة من درجات الأهمية التالية ابتداءً من ٥ مهم جداً •

١ غير مهم على الإطلاق •

- ☐ التدريس مهنة مشرفة •
- ☐ هناك مجال للتقدم والنمو المهني في هذه الوظيفة •
- ☐ فرصة للاهتمام أو متابعة الاهتمام بموضوع معين •
- ☐ مهنة التدريس توفر الأمان •
- ☐ التدريس يعطي الحرية لتنظيم عمل بنفسي •
- ☐ أحب التدريس •
- ☐ مهنة لها مركزها واحترامها •
- ☐ سلطات العمل مريحة والاجازات طويلة •
- ☐ رغبة الأسرة •
- ☐ أحب العمل مع الأطفال •
- ☐ التدريس مهنة تستحق المجهود والتعب •

- ☐ لم يكن هناك مجال كبير لاختيار مهن أخرى .
- ☐ الراتب
- ☐ المهنة التي أجدها أكثر من غيرها .
- ☐ حوافز أخرى (تذكر)
-
-

٧- والان ، وبعد أن مارست مهنة التدريس ، هل يقع اختيارك على هذه المهنة لو خیرت بينها وبين مهن أخرى ؟

- ☐ نعم
- ☐ لا

٨- كم سنة عملت في مهنة التدريس بالروضة ؟

- ☐ أقل من سنة .
- ☐ سنة - ٤ سنوات
- ☐ ٥ - ٩ سنوات
- ☐ ١٠ - ١٤ سنة
- ☐ ١٥ - ١٩ سنة
- ☐ ٢٠ سنة فما فوق .

٩- أى من الأوصاف التالية ينطبق على مبنى مدرستك والتجهيزات الموجودة به
مكان لتربية الأطفال .

- ☐ مثالى
- ☐ جيد جدا بصفة عامة .
- ☐ مناسب
- ☐ محدود الامكانيات
- ☐ غير مناسب مطلقا

١٠- هل حصلت على تدريب أثناء العمل ببرنامج الأطفال ؟

نعم ☐

لا ☐

إذا كانت الإجابة (نعم)

كم كانت مدة التدريب

.....

١١- هل تشعرين بحاجة للتدريب أثناء العمل ؟

نعم ☐

لا ☐

إذا كانت الإجابة (نعم) ، أى نوع من التدريب تعتقدين بأنه يمكن

أن يكون مفيداً بالنسبة لك ؟

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

١٢- المواد التالية تعتبر منهجاً لاعداد مدرسة الرياض، يرجى قراءتها
ثم ابداء رأيك فى مدى أهمية كل مادة منها باعطائها درجة — من
درجات الأهمية التالية :

(٥) مهمة جداً

(٤) مهمة

(٣) مهمة الى حد ما

(٢) غير مهمة

(١) لا علاقة لها بعمل مدرسة الرياض

☐ دراسة واحد أو أكثر من مجالات التعبير مثل التربية الفنية ، الموسيقى
الرقص ، التمثيل ، الداراما ، الخ ...

☐ مهارات عملية مثل عمل اللعب وتصميم الوسائل والالعاب المختلفة .

☐ دراسة واحدة أو أكثر من المواد الدراسية مثل اللغة العربية والتربية
الدينية ، أو الرياضيات أو العلوم ، الخ ...

☐ طرق تدريس اللغة أو العلوم أو الرياضيات ، أو التربية الدينية ، الخ ..

☐ علم الاجتماع التربوى مثل تكوين الأسرة ، وعلاقة الروضة بمؤسسات المجتمع
الآخرى .

☐ تاريخ التربية مثل نشأة الرياض وازدياد الاهتمام بهذه المرحلة ، الخ ..

☐ تنظيم وإدارة الرياض مثل النظام التعليمى فيها ، وإدارتها تعليمياً ، الخ ..

☐ صحة وتغذية الطفل ، مثل النمو الجسمى والأمراض التى يمكن أن تصيب
الطفل ، الخ ...

☐ تربية عملية فى الرياض .

☐ فلسفة التربية مثل مراحل نمو الطفل ، والنمو العقلى السوى للطفل وصحته
العقلية ، الخ ...

ثانيا : اهداف رياض الاطفال فى مصر :

فيما يلى خمس وظائف تؤدى بها الروضة - وهناك اجماع على ان هذه الوظائف هامة - يرجى قرائتها بتمعن ومن ثم ترتيبها حسب الاهمية بأن تعطى رقم (١) لأهم وظيفة فى نظرك (٢) للوظيفة التى تليها فى الأهمية وهكذا حتى تصل الى الوظيفة رقم (٦) والتى تعتبرينها اقلها اهمية .

□ وظيفة الروضة هى ان تهيئ للطفل الفرص المناسبة لى يختبر بنفسه المواد والادوات والأماكنات المختلفة فى مجال الفن والموسيقى وتشجيمه على التعبير بطريقة بناءة وبأسلوبه الخاص واثارة اهتمامه ووعيه لتذوق الجمال فى صورته واشكاله المختلفة .

□ وظيفة الروضة هى تهيئة الجو المناسب للتعاون وخلق علاقات طيبة بين هيئة التدريس وأولياء الامور . بحيث تساعد هيئة التدريس أولياء الامور على تفهم حاجات أطفالهم وكذلك الوسائل المؤدية الى جعل العملية التربوية ابسط واسهل بالنسبة للاطفال وهذا تكون الروضة بمثابة امتداد للأسرة وتشرى حياة الطفل فى البيت والمدرسة من خلال التجارب المتبادلة .

□ وظيفة الروضة هى خلق جو يتسم بتفهم هيئة التدريس لحاجات الاطفال فى هذه السن ومساعدة الطفل على تكوين علاقات سوية مع الاخرين ومع البالغين وتشجيع الطفل على تحمل المسؤولية وتنمية الثقة بالنفس واحترام الاخرين وزيادة القدرة على السيطرة على النفس والشمور بالاستقلال . كل هذا من شأنه ان يضاعف فرص الطفل لحياة سعيدة فى المستقبل .

□ وظيفة الروضة هى مساعدة الطفل على استغلال نموه الجسمى بطريقة فعالة وذلك عن طريق تنمية التوافق الحركى والمهارات الحركية المختلفة . وتلبية حاجات الطفل الجسمية بواسطة توفير مكان للعب فى الهواء الطلق ومكان للراحة

وتقديم الغذاء الكامل وتدريب الطفل على المحافظة على نظافته واجراء الفحوصات الطبية بصفة مستمرة حتى ينمو جسم الطفل ومهاراته الحركية بطريقة صحيحة طبقا لاستعداد كل طفل .

□ وظيفة الروضة هي تهيئة الجو المناسب الذى يفسح المجال أمام كل طفل لللاكتشاف والتجريب وتنمية القدرة على استخدام اللغة وبالتالي تنمية مدارك الطفل وإثارة حب الاستطلاع الطبيعى لديه ومساعدته على التعلم — وتهيئة الجو الذى يساعد على تكوين المفاهيم عند الطفل ليستطيع مع مرور الوقت أن يستغل قدراته العقلية الى أقصى حد ممكن .

ثالثا : دور مدرسة رياض الأطفال :

يرجى وضع اشارة فى المربع المقابل للاجابة التى تتفق ووجهة نظرك بالنسبة للدور الذى تقومين به كمدرسة فى رياض الأطفال وتخيرى اجابة واحدة فقط) .
دور مدرسة الرياض هو خلق جو يشعر فيه الطفل بالأمان والسعادة ويكون الطفل فيه هو محور العملية التربوية وذلك :

□ حتى يستطيع الطفل أن يختار الأنشطة التى يود أن يمارسها وهذا تتم قدراته المختلفة الى اقصى حد ، كل طفل بطريقته الخاصة وبالسعة التى تتناسب وقدراته واستعداداته .

□ حتى يتمكن الطفل من أن ينمو الى أقصى حد ممكن بتوجيه ومساعدة المدرسة التى تشجعه على عمل الاشياء التى يجد فى نفسه رغبة فى عملها .

□ حتى يتمكن الطفل من أن ينمو الى اقصى حد ممكن بتوجيه ومساعدة المدرسة التى تشجعه على عمل الاشياء التى يجد فى نفسه رغبة لعملها ، وكذلك بعض الاشياء الأخرى التى تراها المدرسة مناسبة ومفيدة للطفل .

□ حتى يتمكن الطفل من ان ينمو الى أقصى حد ممكن بألا تكتفى المدرسة بالتوجيه والمساعدة والتشجيع وانما تحرص على أن تقوم الطفل بعمل الاشياء التي تراها في مصلحته ومفيدة بالنسبة له .

رابعا: المهارات المختلفة :

الجل التالية تتناول المهارات التي يمكن لدرسة الروضة أن تساعد اطفالها على اكتسابها . يرجى قراءة القائمة ومن ثم بيان الى أى درجة تركيز على هذه المهارات في فصلك مستخدمة المقياس التالي :

- ١- من المهم جدا بالنسبة لي أن اساعد الطفل على اكتساب هذه المهارة .
- ٢- " " بالنسبة لي أن " " " " " " " " " " " "
- ٣- من المهم بالنسبة لي أن " " " " " " " " " " " " ولكن ليس الى حد بعيد .
- ٤- ليس من المهم بالنسبة لي أن أساعد الطفل على اكتساب هذه المهارة .

□ مساعدة الطفل على التعبير الفنى .

□ " " " تنمية العضلات الكبيرة وتحقيق التوافق الحركي لهذه العضلات عن طريق التسلق والرمى والقفز ، الخ .

□ مساعدة الطفل على خلق علاقات سوية مع هيئة التدريس .

□ " " على أن يعبر لغويا عن مشاعر العداء بدلا من الضرب والعض ، الخ

□ " " " تنمية مشاعر الانتماء للوطن .

□ " " " تذوق الموسيقى .

□ " " " التكيف لمتطلبات الروضة (النظام) .

□ " " " ادراك بعض الاوزان والمقاييس وتعلم المد والمطابقة وتحليل

وتركيب بعض الأعداد الصغيرة .

□ مساعدة الطفل على التعبير عن بعض أفكاره ونقل المعلومات .

□ " " " الايمان بالمعتقدات الدينية والقيم الأخلاقية .

- ☐ مساعدة الطفل على تنمية القدرة الذاتية للسيطرة على نفسه .
☐ " " " ادراك الجمال فيما حوله .
☐ " " " تقبل مشاركة الأطفال له في اهتمام المدرسة .
☐ " " " التعبير من خلال الدراما والتمثيل .
☐ " " " اكتساب القدرة على " ادراك السببية " - مثلاً - ملاحظة ان
 بعض الأشياء تسبب أشياء أخرى .
☐ مساعدة الطفل على ادراك المغزى الخلقى الذى تتضمنه قصة ما .
☐ " " " الخلق البناء من خلال الفن والموسيقى والدراما .
☐ " " " أن يصبح أكثر اعتماداً على نفسه .
☐ " " " سماع واطاعة بعض التوجيهات البسيطة التى توجهها له
 المدرسة .
☐ مساعدة الطفل على تقبل ذاته ومشاعره .
☐ " " " اكتساب القدرة على استخدام أعضاء جسمه بطريقة فعالة .
☐ " " " الحكم على أو التعبير عن رأى معين .
☐ " " " اكتساب القدرة على التصنيف .
☐ " " " الاهتمام بالانجازات التى تمت فى بلاده .
☐ " " " تنمية عضلاته الصغيرة وتحقيق التوافق بينها عن طريق استخدام
 بعض الادوات مثل المقص والمسامير أو لضم الخيوط .
☐ مساعدة الطفل على أخذ المبادرة فى حل المشكلات .
☐ " " " اكتساب العادات الغذائية السليمة وتعلم آداب المائدة .
☐ " " " تفهم مشاعر الآخرين والتعرف على حاجاتهم ووجهات نظرهم .
☐ " " " تنمية القدرة على فهم بعض العبادات الدينية .
☐ " " " مشاركة الأطفال الآخرين لعبهم والتعاون معهم .
☐ " " " تقبل واحترام السلطة .

- ☐ مساعدة الطفل على تذوق بعض أشكال وفنون اللغة مثل الشعر أو السجع .
☐ " " " انتظار دوره أو السماح للآخرين بمشاركته في لعبه .
☐ " " " اكتساب بعض العادات الصحية مثل تنظيف الاسنان وغسل اليدين .
☐ " " " تقبل واحترام تقاليد أبناء الوطن .
☐ " " " ادراك الخطورة في الاستعمال الخاطئ لبعض الأدوات مثل
 المقص أو الخرز الصغير .

خامس : تنظيم المناهج :

١- هل تعتقد أن المناهج الحالية بالرياض :

- ☐ جيدة ☐ مناسبة ☐ غير مناسبة .

٢- ما هي المواد والأنشطة التي يفضلها الأطفال في نظرك ؟ (تذكر)

.....

٣- ما هي المواد والأنشطة التي لا يفضلها الأطفال من واقع خبرتك ؟

.....

٤- ما هي المواد والأنشطة التي ترين ضرورة اضافتها للمناهج الحالية ؟

.....

٥- هل هناك مواد ونشاطات ترين ضرورة الغائها من المناهج الحالية ؟

☐ لا

☐ نعم

إذا كانت اجابتك نعم ، ما هي ؟

.....
.....

٦- هل تعتقدين ان طرق التدريس الرسمية ينبغي ان تستخدم في التدريس

في دور الحضانة ؟

☐ نعم

☐ نعم ولكن بدرجة محدودة فقط .

☐ لا

٧- ما هي في رأيك الطريقة التي يتم بها التعليم داخل الفصل ؟

☐ التعليم بواسطة الانشطة الموجهة

☐ التعليم بواسطة الانشطة الحرة

☐ التعليم عن طريق النشاط الحر والموجه معا .

٨- هل تعتقدين ان المناهج الحالية في الحضانة تعكس احتياجات الطفل ؟

☐ الى حد ما

☐ لا

☐ نعم

٩- المواد التالية لها أهميتها في مقابلة احتياجات ومتطلبات أطفال

رياض الأطفال في مصر يرجى قراءتها ، ثم ابداء رأيك في مدى أهميتها

كل منها باعطائها درجة من درجات الأهمية التالية :

(٥) أساسية (٤) مهمة جدا (٣) مهمة (٢) مهمة الى حد ما

(١) غير مهمة .

١٣

- ☐ اللغة ☐ الموسيقى ☐ الرسم
☐ الحساب ☐ العلوم ☐ الدراسات الاجتماعية
☐ التربية الدينية ☐ اللعب والأنشطة الحرة ☐ الصحة الوظيفية
☐ التربية البدنية

١٠- ما هي في رأيك أهمية الأنشطة التالية في برنامج الدراسة اليومي ؟
 ضعي درجة الأهمية أمام كل نشاط من الأنشطة الآتية ، كما هو متبع في
 السؤال السابق :

- ☐ غير مهم ☐ مهم ☐ مهم جدا
☐ اللعب بالرمـل .
☐ زيادة البيئة خارج الحضنة .
☐ اللعب الخلاق (التخيلى) .

١١- هل العمل خلال المنهج الحالي يحقق التتابع لطفلك ؟
☐ نعم ☐ لا

١٢- هل تستخدمين جد ولا زمنيًا في تنظيم العمل اليومي ؟
☐ نعم ☐ لا

١٣- ما هي عدد المرات التي تناقشين فيها محتويات المناهج مع الموجه
 خلال فصل دراسي واحد ؟

- ☐ مرة واحدة ☐ مرتين
☐ ثلاثة او اكثر ☐ ولا مرة

١٤- ما هي في رأيك أكثر الطرق التالية فائدة للتدريس داخل الفصل ؟
يرجى اعطاء كل واحدة منها درجة من درجات الأهمية كما هو متبع :
☐ ١ ليست مفيدة ☐ ٢ مفيدة ☐ ٣ مفيدة جدا

- ☐ التدريس للأطفال كمجموعة واحدة .
- ☐ تقسيم الفصل الى مجموعات .
- ☐ الأنشطة الحرة .

١٥- هل يتيح لك الموجه حرية الحركة في تنظيم برنامج النشاط اليومي ؟
☐ نعم ☐ لا

١٦- ما هي أفضل الطرق المستخدمة لتقديم نمو الطفل ؟
يرجى استخدام درجات الأهمية التالية ابتداء من :

- ☐ ١ ليست مهمة وحتى رقم ☐ ٥ مهمة جدا
- ☐ الملاحظة
- ☐ اختبار المستوى
- ☐ التقرير الشهري
- ☐ استخدام استمارات التسجيل
- ☐ دراسة الحالة

هل لديك أية اقتراحات أو أفكار جديدة تجاه المنهج وطرق التدريس الحالية
في رياض الأطفال ؟ اذا كان لديك أية اقتراحات يرجى ذكرها في السطور
التالية:.....

APPENDIX H

EGYPTIAN KINDERGARTEN HEADTEACHERS

QUESTIONNAIRE

جامعة هل
قسم التربية

استبيان

الدور التربوي لرياض الأطفال في جمهورية
مصر العربية

اعداد

هدى سعد السيد
المدرس المساعد بكلية التربية
جامعة طنطا
الدارسة بالملكة المتحدة للحصول
على
درجة دكتوراه الفلسفة في التربية

دور رياضه الاطفال في مصر

استبيان مديرة الرضعة

هذا الاستبيان خاص بمديرة الرضعة (الناظرة) . اذا كنت
ايضا مدرسة فصل بالاضافة الى عملك كمديرة للحضانة يرجى من
سيادتكم الاجابة على هذا الاستبيان والاجابه على الاستبيان الآخر
الخاص بمدرسة الحضانة ، اما اذا كنت مديرة فقط فيرجى من
سيادتكم الاجابه على هذا الاستبيان فقط .

وما لا شك فيه انه من واقع خبرتك وعملك كمديرة للرغصة سوف يكون
لاجايبه سيادتكم اكبر الاثر وعظيم القيمة في اثراء البحث واطرافه الجديده
الى انشطه الحضانة وبرامجها اليومية . وسوف ازور دار حضانة
بعد الاجابه على هذا الاستبيان لمناقشة ايه مشاكل قد تمسوق
الاجابه عليه ان وجدت .

شكرا جزيلا لسيادتكم لحسن تعاونكم معي في الاجابه على الاستبيان

الباحثه

هدى سمسك السمسك

دور مدبرة الروضة

هذا الاستبيان خاص بمدبرة الروضة ، يرجى من سيادتها الاجابة عليه
بصراحه وموضوعية من واقع عملها وخبرتها الشخصية في رعاية الاطفال .

١- كم عدد الاطفال بالروضة ؟

- ☐ اقل من ٥٠ طفلا
☐ ٥٠ - ١٠٠ طفلا
☐ ١٠٠ - ١٥٠ طفلا
☐ ١٥٠ - ٢٠٠ طفلا
☐ ٢٠٠ - ٢٥٠ طفلا
☐ ٢٥٠ فأكثر

٢- اذكرى العلاقة بين عدد الاطفال والمدرسة ؟

- ☐ ١ : ١٠
☐ ١ : ١٥
☐ ١ : ٢٠
☐ ١ : ٢٥
☐ ١ : ٣٠
☐ ١ : ٣٥

٣- ما هي مؤهلاتك الدراسية ؟

.....

٤- كم عدد سنوات عملك بالادارة ؟

- ☐ ١ - ٥ سنوات
☐ ٥ - ١٠ سنوات
☐ ١٠ - ١٥ سنه
☐ ١٥ - ٢٠ سنه

٥- هل حصلت على تدريب أثناء العمل بالحضانة ؟

نعم ☐
لا ☐

٦- ما هي من واقع خبرتك نوع علاقتك مع هيئة التدريس والتي تكون أكثر تأثيراً وفعاليتها ؟ يرجى اختيار واحدة فقط

☐ علاقة الرئاسية
☐ العلاقات المتكافئة والمتساوية
☐ كلا العلاقتين طبقاً للموقف

٧- هل تدعين المدرسة تشارك في اتخاذ القرارات المتعلقة بالتعليم في الحضانة ؟

نعم ☐
لا ☐

٨- هل تعتقدين أن مديرة الحضانة ينبغي أن تشارك في التدريس في الفصل ؟

نعم ☐
لا ☐

إذا كانت إجابتك نعم ، يرجى ذكر الأسباب :

١-

٢-

٩- ما هو دورك تجاه المدرسة التي تقدم ابتكارا في العملية التعليمية ، خاصة
إذا كانت هذه الابتكارات تتطلب اضافة بعض التغييرات في برنامج الحضانة
اليومى ؟

- ☐ اشجعها بدرجة كبيرة
☐ اشجعها الى حد ما
☐ اعرض اقتراحاتها على اساس انه يصعب عليها ذلك
☐ اعرض اقتراحاتها بدون ابداء الاسباب

١٠- هل ترين ضرورة وجود مساعدة لمديرة الروضة ؟

- ☐ نعم
☐ لا

١١- ما هى فى رأيك مهمة مساعدة المديرة ؟

.....
.....
.....
.....

شكرا لحسن تعاونك فى استكمال بيانات الاستبيان .
إذا كان لديك ايه اقتراحات او ابيانات او ايه تعليق على الاسئلة تفضل مشكورة
بذكرها فى السطور التالية :

.....
.....
.....
.....

الباحث

هدى محمد السيد

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BIBLIOGRAPHY

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