THE UNIVERSITY OF HULL

A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF THE SECONDARY SCHOOL CURRICULUM IN ENGLAND AND WALES AND THE REPUBLIC OF CAMEROON: ISSUES OF BREADTH, BALANCE AND RELEVANCE.

being a Thesis Submitted for the Degree of PhD

in the University of Hull

by

PATIENCE ABANGMA (Mrs.) BA (Ed); MA, Hull.

October, 1992.

DEDICATION

To my mother, Late **Celina Enowmbah,** whom nature did not permit to reap the fruit of her labour;

To My Children:

M'Etaga
EtchuTabot
Enoma
Ejongagkpa
M'Orockmika

AND

Most especially to my husband **CHIEF DR. ABANGMA** whose invaluable support and relentless efforts amidst all odds, brought my aspiration to fruition.

Abstact of Thesis submitted for PhD degree

by **Patience Abangma** (Mrs)

on

A Comparative Study of the Secondary School Curriculum in England/Wales and the Republic of Cameroon: Issues of Breadth, Balance and Relevance.

The question of breadth, balance and relevance of curriculum as a major concern of educational issues today, has provoked the investigation of their existence within the secondary school curriculum in England and Wales and in Cameroon. Arguments invoking the concept of subject-mindedness and integration in favour of specialisation or of breadth, are considered to be incomplete. Alternatively, arguments in favour of breadth, balance and relevance based on consideration of intrinsic and instrumental values of curriculum activities are considered. But some of the claims made on instrumental grounds for the importance of certain subjects as elements in the curriculum are be questionable. Like all other concepts, that of breadth, balance and relevance have been placed in the study within a certain context to bring out their meaning. In this thesis, the concepts are discussed in relation to the secondary school curriculum in both countries under study. This therefore led to a re-examination of the educational systems and curricula in both countries, and some curricula models with a view to answering our research question which is: "To what extent does the secondary school curriculum in England and Wales and in Cameroon reflect the principles of breadth, balance and relevance?".

For the purpose of this thesis, breadth has been related to the range of activities within the school and pupils response; balance in terms of the different values which the curriculum attaches to the various activities and the extent to which these activities are related to minimum teacher competence; while relevance is related to meaningful

activities, satisfying needs of the child and values in the community and constantly evaluated to determine the extent to which it has achieved its goals.

The relativity of these concepts makes it necessary to find an organising conceptual framework within which these concepts can be made more practical. After much scanning through curricula models, and the purpose for which they are developed, it emerged from the study that Lawton's cultural analysis model which incorporates elements of Barnes (1976) view of objectives, values and experience of both pupils and teacher could be a much more practical model. An important aspect of a broad, balance and relevant curriculum is the ordering of priorities which on the one hand will depend on socio-economic and cultural context in which the curriculum is to operate and on the other hand, the perception of the whole notion of a curriculum.

An analysis of the literature and empirical findings from England and Wales has revealed that, their priority of socio-economic and cultural values are enhanced as a result of a much broader notion of the curriculum which is not only limited to traditional subjects taken at the examination. In which case, according priority to literacy, communication skills, personality and development skills, and attitudes related to the concepts of every day life which gives opportunities for pupils to excel and gain positions of high status in society. In contrast, the literature and findings from Cameroon have revealed that though socio-economic and cultural values are claimed to be a priority, the narrow interpretation of the concept of curriculum which limits it only to traditional subjects at the examination may fulfil the principles of breadth and balance but not relevance.

Consequently, a much broader notion of a curriculum will enable the principles of breadth, balance and relevance to be more practical. In this light, a curriculum tailored to the Cameroonian context, must therefore attempt to broaden the scope and perception of curricula and education offered in schools.

Acknowledgements

I wish to seize this opportunity to express my sincere appreciation to my supervisor, Mr. Colin Brock, for his tremendous efforts in getting this work to its final phase, despite his many commitments. His criticisms, ideas and suggestions, have helped in shaping the work in this form, and have also become part of my intellectual consciousness. Special thanks to all the heads, teachers administrators and pupils who took part in the survey but who because of anonymity cannot be identified. Thanks are also due to Mr. David Malvern, of School of Education, University of Reading, who made it possible for me to attend some sessions at the school, and also made available to me relevant information that have been used in this work. I am particularly indebted to the lecturers in the School of Education, University of Hull, and those in other Universities I visited, for their contribution.

I am equally grateful to Allan Reese of Computer Centre, University of Hull and James Rantel of Institute of Education, University of London for introducing me to SPSS package. Thanks, also to Dr. Robinson Ayuk for introducing and recommending to me relevant statistics books that enabled me to analyse my data with ease.

Finally, I wish to thank my husband and children, whom though deprived of my love and care, remained patience, understanding and endurable throughout my years of study.

LIST OF TABLES

List of Figures

Abbreviations

A/L	Advanced Level
APP	Appendix
AR	Avialability of Resources
BAC	Baccalaureat
BEPC	Brevet d'Etude de Premier Cycle
BTS	Brevet Tecnicien Superieur
CA	Career Aspiration
CAP	Certificat d'aptitude Professionel
CAPIET	Certificat d'aptitude Pedagogie de Institute de L' enseignment Technique
CEPE	Certificat D'Etude Primiare Elementaire
CETIC	College d'enseignment Technique Industrial et Commercial
CNE	Centre National de L'Education
CPVE	Certificate for Pre-Vocational Education Program
DES	Department of Education and Science
E&W	England and Wales
ENSET	Ecole Normale Superieur de L'Enseignment Tecnique
ENI	Ecole Normale d'Instituteur
ENIA	Ecole Normale d'Instituteur Adjoint
ENIAET	Ecole Normal d'Instituteur Adjoint de L'Enseignment Technique
ENIET	Ecole Normale d'Instituteur de L'Enseignment Technique
FE	Further Education

FSLC	First School Leaving Certificate
GCE	General Certificate of Education
HMI	Her Majesty's Inspectors
IPAR	Institute de pedagogie Applique a Vocation Rural
Lang.	Languages
LCC	London Chamber of Commerce and Industry
LR	Lack of Resources
LT	Lycee Technique
MINEDUC	Ministry of National Education
NA	Needs Approval
NC	National Curriculum
NC	National Curriculum
NE	Not for Examination Purposes
ns	Not Significant
O/L	Ordinary Level
PG	Personal Gratification
RSA	Royal Society of Arts
s	Significant
TS	Teaching Style
TVEI	Technical and vocational Education Initiative
UNESCO	United Nations Education Scientific and Cultural Organisation
Voc.	Vocational
ANOVA	Analysis of Variance
LEA	Local Education Authority
HMI	Her Majesty's Inspectors

CHAPTER 1: PROBLEM AND METHODOLOGY

CHAPTER ONE

PROBLEM AND METHODOLOGY

1.1: GENERAL INTRODUCTION

This introduction provides a general setting of the thesis. It focuses on the main concepts under study by providing a brief definition and clarifies the nature of the research problem the thesis sets out to investigate. It lays out the background information concerning curriculum and will proceed to formulate the problem and other related tasks to be accomplished. The scope and limitations of the research as well as the methodology used will be examined. This thesis is based on the evaluation of the principles of breadth, balance and relevance of the secondary school curriculum in both Cameroon and England and Wales. Such an assessment is important, especially as secondary education is the source of most middle level manpower, the terminal stage for the majority of pupils, but also a step to higher education for others. More so, the aim behind most government policies in both countries also, has been to ensure that a solid foundation is laid at this level to equip pupils with the skills which will enable them to enter into gainful employment and gain access to higher education.

But the assumption that men can challenge and reject norms and normative laws, as expounded by Brian Holmes (1965), implies that no philosophy can be the source of a permanently satisfactory normative pattern for any society. Thus, the claim that a curriculum is broad, balanced and relevant should not be accepted only at its face value. The investigator has therefore, to consider the stage of a society's history or evolution for which a construct is needed in order to decide which views or combination of views should be selected as useful. The comparison and review of the educational systems and curricula of the countries under study is based partially on this premise. In addition to the influence of colonial legacies in Cameroon, the existence of a National Curriculum in both England and Wales and

in Cameroon, prompted a comparative study of the two systems. Comparative educationists have explained the purposes and advantages of studying educational systems of other countries. Mallinson for example, justifies this in the following words:

> "becoming familiar with what is being done in some other ----countries and why it is done is a necessary part of the training of all serious students of educational issues of the day. Only in that way, will they properly be fitted to study and understand their own systems and to plan intelligently for the future" (1957:10).

Bereday (1964) defines comparative education as the analytical survey of foreign educational systems, which helps to explore systematically the quality of foreign schools as a means of evaluating one's own educational system. He values educational comparison for it's own sake but sees comparative education as having a most challenging intellectual content. Holmes however sees comparative education as a helpful means towards the improvement of education. He states that "it should help administrators to reform their schools more effectively and efficiently"(1972:205-219). Issan (1986) suggested that Bereday's model enables research workers to examine first, area of studies in relation to educational systems and then juxtapose them without explaining how and why. By contrast, Holmes' approach addresses itself to the problem and provides models for investigating policy formulation in order to propose solutions and ways of predicting success. The problem approach advocated by Holmes in his Problems in Education (1965), and referred to in most of his writings as a method of inquiry in comparative education will be employed as the intellectual framework within which the comparisons in this study will be based. Thus it becomes necessary to give a brief description of some of it's main features. Holmes based his method on John Dewey's reflective thinking in his book How we Think (1933)and on K.R. Popper's `critical dualism or critical conventualism' in his book The Open Society and it's Enemies (1962).

The functions of the 'reflective thinking' according to Dewey is to clarify a situation in which obscurity and doubt are experienced. He states:

> "reflective thinking can proceed, with the intent to transform a situation in which, there is experienced obscurity, doubt, conflict, disturbance of some sort, into a situation that is clear, coherent, settled, harmonious"(1933:187).

Between the pre-reflective and post-reflective situations, occur five phases. Holmes (1981:78) grouped them under the following:

(i) problem intellectualisation or analysis;

(ii) hypothesis or solution formulations;

(iii) analysis of specific content;

(iv) logical deductions of consequences;

(v) practical verification - or testing the hypothesis by overt or imaginative action.

So it would be naive to claim that the study is not intended to establish an ideal construct or ideal type from traditional normative statements that have been intended to inform curricula practice in the period considered. In as much as it is intended to follow a clearer understanding of the context in which demands for modifications to existing institutional practices are subsequently made, thus enabling an observation of the extent to which a cultural lag may exist between curricula practices and normative statements, it is also intended where possible to provide or propose a curricula model within which the applicability of a broad, balanced and relevant curriculum can be feasible

This study is therefore both descriptive and explanatory. It is descriptive in the sense that it attempts to describe phenomena in detail,

(i) when pupils are offered a range of subjects;

(ii) when a curriculum is handed down to teachers;

(iii) when teachers or administrators are in control etc.

While it is explanatory because it attempts to explain the reasons behind such a curriculum.

Meanwhile, the method of referencing used in this thesis is to have everything listed in a single bibliography at the end of the thesis.

1.2: DEFINITION OF THE MAIN CONCEPTS UNDER STUDY.

As with other national curricula, one may be led to ask if the curricula in both England and Wales and the Republic of Cameroon are broad, balanced and relevant. Such assessment is possible only when we understand exactly what those concepts are. Before exploring the full meanings of the concepts of breadth, balance and relevance in the school curriculum, it is worthwhile examining these concepts in terms of the following:

(i) what is their nature and scope?(i.e. of breadth, balance and relevance)

(ii) what is the necessity for basing the curriculum on these principles and their implication on the management of secondary school curriculum,(i.e. including the selection and development of content).

These questions are based on the proposition that every educational content must be designed on a clear view of it's concept of education; it's aims and functions in a particular society at a set time. While some of the answers to the questions above may be given at the outset, some would only be obvious when the whole of this study has been accomplished. We shall now look at some definitions of breadth, balance and relevant to curriculum.

1.3. THE MEANING OF BREADTH

Breadth, literally means wide in size, from one side to the other. Within the curriculum context, however, breadth means exposing pupils to a wide variety of activities and experiences. Since it is associated with range of subjects studied, which subjects therefore must be studied in order to ensure required breadth, is a

question that so far has been unanswered by curriculum theorists. If we are to have a subject based curriculum, then the number of subjects to be studied will to some degree determine whether or not we have a broad or narrow curriculum. Deciding also on the mix of subjects constitutes breadth as is the case with the National Curriculum (NC) in England and Wales which seems to have gone more for the sciences. This could therefore be interpreted as breadth. Yet it is being criticised by some for not paying attention to the time factor. In the cause of my interview with a lecturer of curriculum studies, I got this response:

> "it is certain the NC has sufficient breadth, but with more subjects to be introduced, it remains to be seen whether the subjects can be accommodated properly within a reasonable time".(interviewed on 19th February, 1992)

Thus concepts such as 'breadth' have to be related to reality. For while it is possible to look at a number of subjects studied, the way they will be treated, and the scope of the subjects have also to be carefully considered. As such when referring to a broad curriculum, we should take note not only of the time, quantity of knowledge and number of skills to be required, but also the pupils' capability to accommodate these activities due to the underlying assumption that the total range of activities provided will be that which the pupils will be able to cope with. Breadth therefore means the range of activities and the extent to which pupils respond to it. The underlying principle behind this definition is based on:

(i) range of activities;

(ii) student's performance.

Within the range of activities, we consider the activities finite because there is indeterminacy as to where to draw the line, and it also pre-supposes that the activities are within the capability of the learners. Student responses will indicate whether the pupils view the curriculum as sufficient or insufficient, over-stretching or burdensome.

1.3.1: Variations of breadth in the School Curriculum

Breadth in school curriculum is a relative and pragmatic concept in most cases. Within the curriculum, breadth might span over several or all the basic forms of knowledge, such as Hirst (1974) has proposed, with an emphasis on categorical aspects of knowledge rather than on information knowledge of less central kind. Squires et al. (1976) also call this "knowledge about knowledge". It could therefore be possible for a person to become initiated into each of these forms of knowledge and yet, at the same time fail to understand certain interrelationships between them.

Another form of breadth which is similar to Hirst's notion of fundamental forms of knowledge was exemplified in Peterson's (1960b) idea of `general education' through specialisation whereby he outlined the main four modes of thinking (the logical, the empirical, the moral and the aesthetic). These could be developed even through a single subject, although, normally, something like four subjects, Peterson considered would be more likely to achieve appropriate breadth. It was also this kind of breadth that Ashby (1957) had in mind, when he suggested that a broad education might come out of a subject. Such a study might take one through a course of learning that is involved in a wide range of subjects. Squires also likened this sort of breadth to 'depth' as he remarked:

> " The theory of depth holds that any specialised course provides both an education in and an education through: an education in physics or economics or history for those who will become occupational specialist in those subjects; and an education through physics or economics for those who go on to do quite different things in subsequent work and life"(1976 :42)

A third kind of breadth is that which is integrated through a focus on psychological interest (Beck, 1977). Such breadth is assumed to motivate the pupils to seek out some areas of knowledge rather than others. Beck (1977) pointed out that broadening out from a focus of interest in this kind of way can sometimes, at any rate, result in what he regards as "cognitive narrowing". There are attendant

difficulties on this view of breadth, such as the epistemological problem which suggests that the degree of breadth might be very considerably circumscribed and curtailed by organising knowledge around a focus of personal interest.

Finally, an aspect of breadth that seems to differ from any of those outlined above is what Berger (1967) calls `modern breadth'. By this he means, breadth which permits `graded levels' of `breadth and depth' so that one has two complementary halves of a curriculum made up of a study in depth, and a more global approach of general studies. Such inequality of treatment is called for by the need to develop to the full the potentialities of the individual and to satisfy objective requirements.

1.3.2: Justification of Breadth in School Curriculum

From the foregoing discussions, it seems as if `breadth' implies the widening of horizons in knowledge to which educationalists seem to attach so much importance. This is especially so when one considers the views of those educationalists who wish to exonerate themselves from the circle of others who seek certain options. It is claimed that pupils within the secondary school age may not be able to make appropriate choices. Of course, by having a broad curriculum, pupils can begin making connections between phenomena, and perceiving inter-relationships. Knowledge, and particularly applied knowledge, is by no means as neatly parcelled up into institutionalised divisions as departments and courses might suggest (Squires 1976:39). The student who crosses departmental boundaries can perceive the relative artificiality of academic divisions and place each specialism in a wider perspective. Such a curriculum, it is claimed, enables the pupils to prepare for any career or employment. This point is based on the premise that some people, can later in life regret the choices made while at school.

The argument for example that pupils' reasons for the options they choose while at school are often rather bizarre, and more cogently, that early choosing may

universally preclude later opportunities for late employment or for continuing education seems to be unfounded. Adolescents need some freedom of choice. The requirements of subjective coherence would seem more likely to be met if the pupils themselves had a say in what they study. Dearden (1981) for example, argued that if pupils are given some choice in what they study, they will study with more interest and with effectiveness. Thus both parents and pupils can be encouraged to show a more responsible attitude towards their future because they might have had certain objectives in life which they aspire to accomplish. Thus, career intentions can become operative with a further motivational gain. Since the curriculum itself is a major source of social control in school, allowing therefore a measure of choice will make control much easier than it would be with coherced and even resented study. This is because pupils will have already achieved at least some degree of balance by the time they face these options, and because schooling is not in any case the end of all opportunity in that respect . Apparently, most recent arguments in favour of options appear to be administratively determined as opposed to national needs. This is one of the arguments that was put forth by Jack Straw, (the British 'Shadow' Secretary of State for Education at the time of writing),who accused the then Secretary of State for Education (Kenneth Baker) of merely wanting to reduce costs and gain more power under the pretext of introducing a National Curriculum.

Musgrave observed:

> "the most serviceable education would appear to be a general one which specialisation can grow. The deeper the specialisation, the further the general education must be carried.------ a broad general education will assist adaptability since a worker will be more able to understand future changes in his field and to relate them to his own particular job. if the job is changing, the worker can return to the basis provided by his general education to start out a fresh.----- with a broad education he can easily cope with the change"(1965: 112).

Another view of having a broad curriculum is what I call the 'egalitarian view' which is simply the basis of creating a more just, and a happier society in that it removes class and other barriers between people, especially in certain stratified societies, such as Britain where there is a working-class, a middle class and upper

class. The views above which justify breadth do not fall short of what Squires says: "breadth let's you know where you want to go afterwards------it helps you orient yourself, when dealing with detail ----- you get in quicker"(1976 :39) .In this light, a broad curriculum is therefore a vital or potential education, or a 'promissory note' which can be 'cashed in' latter.

1.3.3: Problems of Breadth in School Curriculum

The contention that the ethical principle of non-interference with a person's wants is a principle directly and fundamentally relevant to curricula decisions (Beck, 1977), poses a major problem in decisions about breadth in school curriculum. Furthermore, there is the argument that although the principle of liberty is subject to the proviso that sometimes there are good reasons for making exceptions to such a general rule, and because there has been a move towards the broad curriculum at all levels of secondary education, nevertheless, good reasons can be given in favour of allowing a greater degree of option. For instance, it is better to pursue in depth a limited number of intrinsically valuable school activities than to participate with some degree of reluctance in a broad curriculum. Secondly it is logically inappropriate to suggest that intrinsically invaluable activities should be a compulsory part of a curriculum whether the participants enjoy them or not. Since the intrinsic value of such activities is logically connected with the enjoyment that is to be derived from the activities. This consequently suggest that, if the participant does not derive enjoyment for them, then the activities loose intrinsic value and so should not be compulsory.

It must be recalled however, that freedom of choice within a curriculum can always be exercised within a wider frame work of constraint. For choice in education can never, where education in its commendatory sense is concerned, be a choice of anything more than a choice of activities which are properly thought to be educative. Pupils take their options from that curriculum content which their teachers (in the case of school based curriculum) and the Ministry (in the case of a

National Curriculum) whether rightly or wrongly deemed as useful. It can be argued further that the justification of curriculum activities is not at all a simple matter, and the criteria for the efficacy do not always appear to have been systematically worked out. For example, there are curricular activities sometimes included in curricula which might be regarded as of peripheral or even having doubtful educational value. Some schools, for example, depend on the ideology held at the time may decide to include any activity thought worthwhile, some of which may not bear any relationship to the disciplines. It may also be possible for policy makers in countries with a National Curriculum to force upon pupils what they consider worthwhile but which in reality may have no relationship with other disciplines. For example in a country where the Head of State belongs to a particular religion, it may be possible to force that religion upon pupils, irrespective of their own professed faith.

In an attempt to solve this kind of valuation problem, a number of writers have tried to formulate general principles for selection of worthwhile curriculum content. Generally , curricula theorists such as Taba (1968), Inlow (1966), Bell (1966), Tyler (1949), Phenix (1964), Brunner (1960) in the United States; and Hirst (1966), Entwistle (1970a), White (1973), Lawton (1983) and others in Britain may be classified as theorists whose work contains an important and even substantial element of presentation concerning what they conceive as worthwhile content. Hirst (1966) for example, lays considerable emphasis on the basic forms of understanding as being prime curriculum objectives, and therefore criteria for curriculum content. These forms of understanding, moreover are to be thought of not so much in terms of bodies or collections of information, but rather as conceptual systems with their own distinctive truth criteria by means of which our experience becomes structured round the use of accepted public symbols.

A similar kind of emphasis is to be found in the insistence by Bell (1966) on `centrality of method' as the core of general education(GE), in Entwistle (1970a)

`fundamental modes of thought' in relation to wide areas of human experience; and in Paterson's requirement that a good general education should have as many as possible the main modes of thinking; not a diversity of information. Paterson tried to make it clear that the problem of combining general education with requisite skills cannot be solved until we cease to think of general education in terms of general knowledge. While there may be much to be said on giving basic forms of knowledge a central place in a curriculum for general education, Beck (1977) argues that there are at least two difficulties arising from any rationale which prescribes the fundamental modes of thought to be developed through specialist subjects as a result of options. First, there is the notorious difficulty concerning transfer of training, and secondly there is the risk of under - emphasising the part which informal knowledge of a non-categorical nature should play.

1.4: THE CONCEPT OF BALANCE IN THE CURRICULUM

Educators face a continuous dilemma because they are bombarded with content options (Melograne 1984). They are expected to make choices and establish priorities regarding what to teach, for how long and at what level. The relative emphasis placed on scope depends on balance, which according to Higham and Bell (1983) is a key criterion for assessing adequacy of a curriculum. Balance is a concept, and as such if it has to be shared, must be defined (Jones 1983). Balance in curricula terms is based on too many assumptions and lacks explanations as to what it constitutes; i.e. is balance consistent for all children of all ages and ability? What are being balanced? subjects, experiences, resources, time, skills, attitudes? These are all puzzling questions that accompany the word 'balance'. The notion of balance in certain subjects like physics is more precise and can be expressed as a mathematical formula. It is not possible to have such precision in any educational context as they may be figurative. Like all other such notions, that of balance in education must be recognised as relative, taking its meaning almost entirely from the value system of the person using it.

While balance is not a term having great precision, Eisner (1975) relates it to the school curriculum on the grounds that children will have access to the major intellectual and artistic disciplines that have historically been a part of their culture. Some scholars argue that major fields of inquiry constitute a fundamental core of some subject matter and that becoming educated requires an understanding and appreciation of ideas and method which the field provides as well as being able to use them. Like a well balanced diet, a balanced curriculum contributes to educational well being. It is not expected that a balanced diet will consist of equal parts by weight of each essential foodstuff; rather it should include sufficient quantities of each of the necessary elements. In like manner, a balanced curriculum may not necessary include equal amounts of time for each subject, be it science, mathematics or swimming. The balance referred to in curriculum is rather judicial than mathematical. By definition therefore, a balanced curriculum is characterised by equality, or a state of equilibrium among relative values (Melograno, 1984). Peters , Hirst , Lawton, HMIs and others have addressed the problem of curriculum balance in many ways. But they all agree that a curriculum will be balanced if attention is given to the disciplines outlined. Lawton in one of his articles says: "a balanced curriculum will be one which does not neglect one of the eight systems "(1980:5) The systems he referred to are:

(i) Socio-political system;
(ii) Economic system;
(iii) Communication system;
(iv) Rationality system;
(v) Technology system;
(vi) Belief system;
(vii) Morality system;
(viii) Aesthetic system.

1.4.1: Achieving Balance in School Curriculum

The definitions of balanced when classified, will fall under one or all of the three approaches of defining curriculum balance as indicated by English (1986):

(i) the imposed a priori model;

(ii) the social utility model;

(iii) the phenomenological model.

1.4.1(a) The Imposed a Priori Model

Determining balance by this model will first of all mean to construct a model or rationale based on the delineation of `value structure'. Value structure simply means that the development of curriculum rests on stated or implied perceptions and ideas about what is most important to be taught in a school setting. The value structure serves as a basis of determining what to teach and also the time allocation, as well as the limits within which the learner has to choose. The curriculum is thus considered as a means to an end. Balance will therefore be achieved by comparing the actual elements within an operational school setting to the stated model, and adjusting the differences to come closer to the model. Feedback is largely irrelevant in this model, except perhaps to improve the quality of implementation.

1.4.1(b) The Social Utility Model

This is the dominant model at work in schools at the time of writing. While its progenitor was Bobbit (1918), it's most popular and well known advocate is Tyler (1949). The following steps are used in determining balance, according to the social utility model:

(i) The outcomes in terms of desired or required skills to survive and contribute to the society are determined;

(ii) Skills are arranged in logical and hierarchical order, and in terms of difficulty and matched to grades and subjects.

(iii) Balance can then be determined by comparing the actual results.

Design depends on results. Balance within such a model is situational and impossible to define until there is a feed-back about learning.

1.4.1(c) The Phenological Model

Phenological curriculum development is concerned not with the pre-defined categories that frame explanation, but rather on the pre-cognitive 'givens' of experience which is defined, not by our knowledge of them, but by our behaviour in relation to them (Merleau Ponty, 1967). This kind of model is transactional in nature, but not in the same way as the social utilitarian approach. Steps used in determining balance within the context of the phenological model are:

(i) A careful description of the phenomena in all domains of experience without regard to tradition;

(ii) Phenomena/experiences are arranged into relationships or clusters, developing an hierarchical order only if one is believed to exist in actual evolutional model;

(iii) A curriculum is constructed as a means of mirroring this evolutionary experiences to serve no other ends but to realise the greatest experimental development possible;

(iv) Balance can then be determined by assessing the extent to which the schooling experience, as contrived, reflects a natural ordering and includes the elements of actual experience.

School Experiences

In reality there is only one curriculum in the experience of a child in a school (English, 1986). That reality includes all the activities in which the child is involved such as academics, aesthetics and athletic. These activities when put

together provide us with three broad types of experiences that a child may undergo in school:

(i) Training (the acquisition of skills);

(ii) Education (the development and appreciation of culture);

(iii) Celebration (Joyous proclamation).

Figure 1.1 indicates a generalised pyramid proposed by English (1986), showing the frequency of the three types of experiences. The area of aesthetic experience provides the widest experience with the celebrative one. The celebrative experience which can be witnessed embraces a winning team in the highest levels of artistic performance. Celebrative experiences occur only when the following conditions prevails:

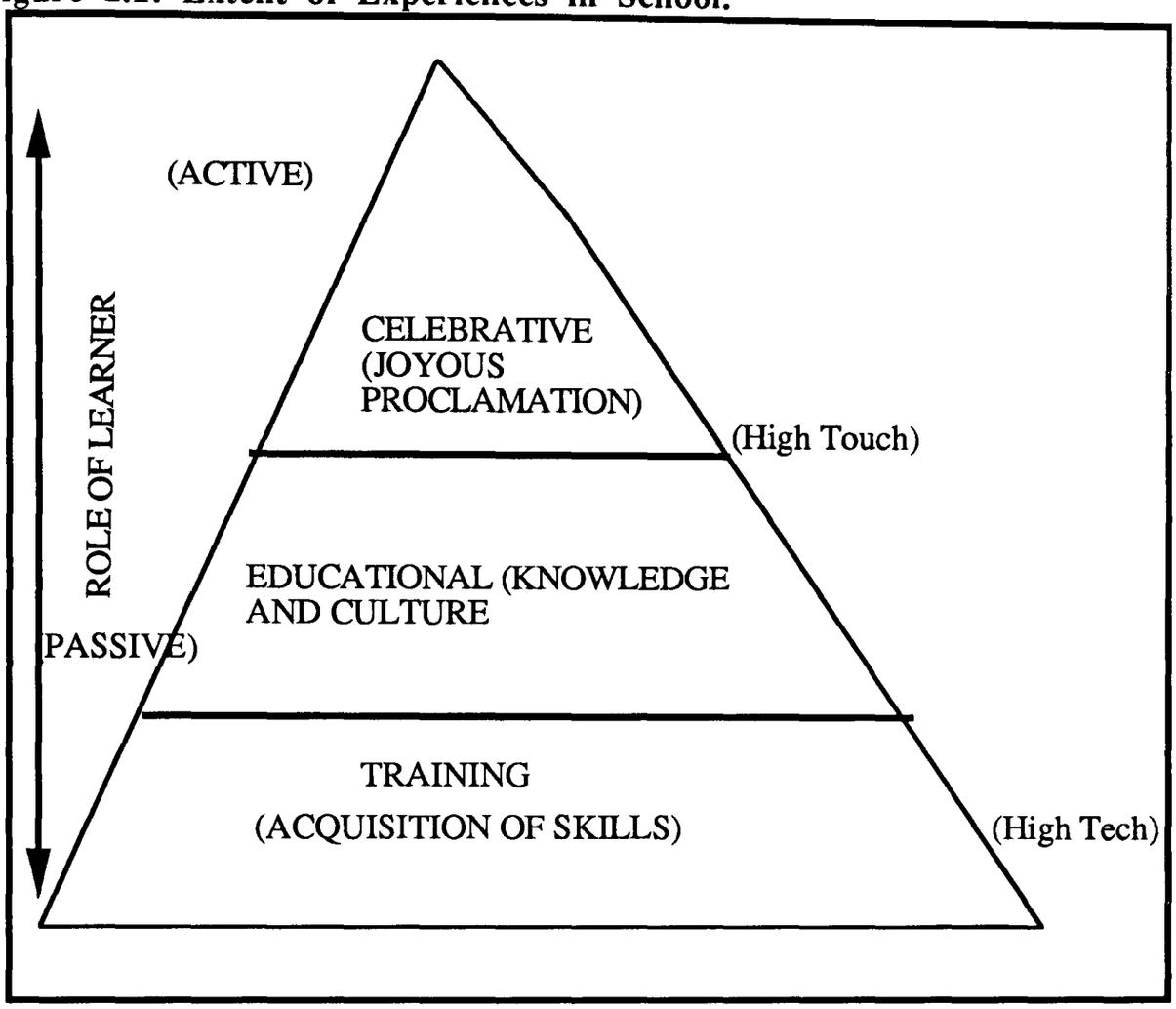
(i) Great effort has been expended

(ii) The effort is the result of disciplined training

(iii) Great obstacles have been overcome in the process

(iv) A goal has been reached.

Figure 1.1: Extent of Experiences in School.



Source: **English, F.W.** Balance in the School Curriculum: Today directions and dilemmas. Spectrum: Winter, 1986 Vol.4, p.9-15.

As figure 1.1 indicates, in terms of frequency, the celebrative experience occurs the least in school settings. It occurs when the learner moves from passive participant to being an active player or actor. It is an example of what Naisbett (1982) calls 'high-tech to high-touch". High-tech training experiences cast the learner into a passive role. A celebrative experience is never passive. English (1986) concluded that, for a curriculum to be balanced, it must include all three types of experiences (training, education and celebration) and all three approaches (a priori, social utilitarian and phenomenological).

Notwithstanding what has been said about balance, in the study, it represents the different values which the curriculum attaches to the various activities

and the extent to which these activities are related to minimum teacher competence. Woodbrigde and Barnard (1990) refer to values education as a pedagogic attempt to assist the educand to acquire the ability to reflect intelligently and understand the role of values in human life, in his own personal life and society in general. Two phrases are worthy of note within such a definition:

(i) different values

(ii) minimum competence

Different Values: Not all activities or blocks of activities are given the same emphasis, importance or prominence. We can always find some pattern to achieve some balance which reflect options the curriculum designers have made. In a curriculum where science is given prominence, these will be reflected in terms of time allotted to it, material or equipment and even staffing. The values to attach to subjects can also be reflected in the examination system where as in the case of Cameroon, the more privileged subjects are given the highest co-efficient and the less important may not be examined or given any co-efficient at all.

Minimum Competence: This is concern with the competence and effectiveness of teachers; this is related to their training, qualification and professionalism.

1.5. EDUCATIONAL RELEVANCE

1.5.1 Introduction

Education is expected to lead individuals towards preparation for change; for living in the unknown future. In view of this, education can be seen as a catalytic agent which seeks changes in attitudes, development, sincerity and honesty with self and with others. The role of education thus starts with the development of better attitudes towards change itself in order to ensure change as being an improvement. Kreuter and Barnett quoting the words of Dewey :

> 'While there is no guaranty that an education which uses science and employs the control process of industry as a regular part of it's equipment will succeed, there is every assurance that an educational practice which sets science and industry in opposition to its ideal of culture will fail"(1967 : 1)

The demands of work and education upon each other, the value or lack of value of courses for learners and the current school offerings are problems facing education today. Some plans to overcome these problems have been the move of some nations towards centralisation in the form of National Curriculum, and some moving towards discentralisation geared towards having curriculum developed at the local level. This is all in search of a relevant curriculum. The search for relevance in school curriculum is a universal one, although it may differ from country to country, or may be expressed in different ways. A major global problem is the question of what education should be relevant to? It becomes yet more problematic when planning must encompass both immediate and future needs. Attitudes to relevance vary according not only to groups interested in the change, but also to the time at which they are advanced. The various theories that have been propounded by educationalists and philosophers may be interpreted as an appreciation of the necessity to improve the quality and relevance of education. Therefore, the search for relevance is present in some form or the other; whether mentioned explicitly or not.

> "Innovative educators through out the world have continued in the 1970's to work towards the ideal of more relevant and diversified schooling even though `relevance' as a catch-phrase or slogan has faded from headlines".(Sinclaire and Lillis, 1980:21)

Other over-simplifications include accusations that: content of education is too theoretical with no bearing on the lives of the people or conversely; too pragmatic with scant attention paid to any subject matter other than the purely vocational (Al-Mekhafi, op.cit). In sociology, a new area concerned with sociology of knowledge is generating much debate about the nature, organisation and distribution of knowledge and the psycho-social influence of linguistic and cultural background. Musgrave examined this from a sociological point of view, says: "Many would argue that education should be directed to an end such as `good life' and not harnessed to the needs of the industry"(1965 : 179)

MacIntyre (1964) offered a justification for a good life in terms of participation in intrinsically valuable activities, as opposed to means taking activities which may never take the participant towards intrinsically worthwhile ends. In pedagogy, many argue that discovery learning strategies are superior to exposition. Ausubel (1954) for example, find much potential in meaningful learning in traditional methods.

It is clear, from the foregoing arguments, that the hard facets of economic life are very much linked with a vision of the future. More so, we are concerned nationally with the need to improve our country's competitive position in the world economy. Clearly such claims always contain elements of truth that is violated when controversy surrounds it. To assert that a liberal academic type of education, for instance:

(i) Is completely irrelevant to a child from a working class or rural background; and;

(ii) That an education with a practical bias or based on traditional views of human nature (for example those offered in religious systems) has no relevance to children growing up in the industrialised west or in urbanised sectors in developing countries is itself an irrelevance.

1.5.2: The Meaning of Relevance in Curriculum

`Relevance' is relatively the most overused and misused terms in the educational vocabulary. Despite its wide use and the genuine concern with making educational programs relevant, the context in which it is often used is still vague, and lacks the necessary theoretical clarity that would guide educators in their efforts to make education relevant. The vagueness and uncertainty surrounding this concept leads to the need to examine some of the definitions of the relevance in curriculum and how it fits in the educational debate.

In an attempt to explain what a relevant curriculum is, Oyetunde (1985) referred to a relevant curriculum as that which is geared towards the realities and needs of the society which it purports to serve, and for a curriculum to meet the requirement of relevance, it has to be designed to function in the context of the individual country's developmental needs. The handicap within Oyetunde's definition is that it tends to exclude the pupils who afterall are the final product of the curriculum. 'Relevant' according to the Oxford Dictionary means `bearing upon', `connected to', `pertinent to', the matter in hand. Scheffler (1971) asserts that relevance is not an obsolete property: nothing is relevant or irrelevant in and of itself. Relevance is therefore a relative and contextual concept, in that if something is to be described as 'relevant' or 'irrelevant', there must be at least two objects, one that may be relevant or irrelevant and another to which it may be so (Price, 1974). The formula `X is relevant to Y' must be followed in any situation where relevance is discussed.

Withey (1975) suggests that the use of relevance in education involves an extension of central prepositional usage to an `evaluative' use, wherein relevant is synonymous with suitable, `acceptable or appropriate'. Such usage necessitates reference to the conceptual features of education, to moral principles and to theories of knowledge and the human mind. Withey seems to suggest that what can be seen as relevant should be appropriate to what we know of the concept of education, to epistemology and to psychology which must be examined in the light of moral principles. From this line of analysis, Scheffler offers three interpretations of relevance:

(i) Concern with the nature and warrant of knowledge (epistemology);

(ii) Something to do with character thought (psychological).;

(iii) Treating the purpose of schooling which is mainly moral. (1971 ; 109)

Relevance according to Beeby (1969) means giving the particular pupil in a particular place, the right sort of education. A relevant curriculum should be seen to meet the present prospective needs (DES, 1985). All these set of definitions

suggest that the concept of relevance cannot be understood in isolation from the subject matter to which it relates.

The question of the purpose of education also forces an examination of the other side of the equation: relevant to what or to whom? Haydon (1973) states that no point could be said to be relevant to a random series of unconnected assertions, since the notion of relevance operates only within a purposeful context. However, if an argument is relevant, the series of assertions within it will be purposeful, and a point will be relevant not just because it has something to do with the subject-matter, but because it contributes to the pursuit of the purpose. The debate as to whether education should be relevant to the society or to the individual can never be settled definitely, especially in times of rapid change, global inter-dependence and increasing concern for freedom. The best that can be done is a temporary balance with more or less emphasis on the socialisation or personal development of the society to which the definition of education is to be applied. So a relevant curriculum is considered in this study as one that provides meaningful activities, satisfying the needs of the pupils and values in their community and in a changing world dominated by science and technology and constantly evaluated to determine the extent to which it has achieved its goals. The essential words in the meaning to which attention should be given are :

(i) meaningful;

(ii) needs of child and values of the society (in local community and modern world of science and technology);

(iii) It must be flexible and must provide for the growth that is essential in order to meet the stated or implied objectives;

(iv) It must build into it a constant evaluation to help determine the extent to which the educational enterprise is meeting the goals as stated in terms of the end products.

For a curriculum to be meaningful, it must be related to the pupil's life which of course means related to cultural experiences. If what we produce has no utilitarian value, we cannot say it is relevant e.g. if we talk of the railway systems in Britain or farming in the prairies of Canada, it would mean little to the Cameroonian child; but if we talk of the railway systems in Cameroon or Cameroon Development Corporations (CDC) plantations in Fako, it becomes more relevant. In as much as the local community is essential, the curriculum should also include knowledge of the world.

1.6: STATEMENT OF PROBLEM

1.6.1: The Problem in General

Discussions of what constitutes knowledge seems to be conducted on political lines. There is no doubt that any view held as to what is worthwhile knowledge will inevitably provide a relevant curriculum. Of late, there has been the regular usage of the curricular principles of breadth, balance and relevance which are seen to provide an answer for what is considered to be a 'full-flesh' curriculum. James Callaghan's speech at Ruskin college in 1976 reiterated the fact that standards are falling and urged that something be done. This speech is said to have opened up what is in Britain today called 'the great education debate'. To meet the challenges of the debate, the Thatcher government finally introduced the National Curriculum which they consider broad, balanced and relevant. The government of the Republic of Cameroon also asserts that their curriculum is broad, balanced and relevant (Abangma 1989).What is certain is that concepts such as these have to be treated with caution because of their relativity. If education is to be seen as a means to an end, and with the curriculum being a means through which this end is achieved, then there is every reason for educationists, parents, teachers and all those concerned in one way or the other with the future of the society, to raise their eyebrows when a curriculum is described as broad, balanced and relevant.

The era of mixed feelings for technology and the morals of our society is an indication that while we are interested in providing a workforce for our society, we are also interested in the children being accepted as belonging to that society. To do this, the curriculum should not therefore be seen only in terms of the subjects that are taken at the examinations. Emerson (1937) remarked that the educated man is one who survives from his intuitive capacities to go down into the secrets of his mind and consequently into the secrets of all other human minds. In this light, until our curriculum reaches a point where it is made more practical and realistic, we are guaranteed a built-in inferiority and may have no hope for regaining a better place in the society for our children. Any dogmatism about the nature of a broad, balanced and relevant curriculum is premature until much more objective analysis and discussions, free from any political views take place. Such is the criteria that this study seeks to fulfil. Objectivity is necessary especially as it has become increasingly clear that the supposed causes of poor performance and unemployment are infact symptoms of a deeper cause; of a set of attitudes and an inherited culture which puts accountability at the bottom of the social pecking order:

> "the individual must be able to examine his own feelings and attitudes on the subject, bring them out into the open, see how they compare with the feelings of others, and move from an intellectual awareness of a particular behaviour or practice to an actual new practice"(Bloom 1964:81).

1.6.2: Research Questions

A guide in framing the research questions is that subjects should not be viewed as monolithic entities but as social communities with conflicting loyalties and intentions, but the claim that the courses or subjects offered in schools are broad, balanced and relevant gives rise to our main research question which is:

"To what extent does the secondary school curriculum in Cameroon and England and Wales reflect the principles of breadth, balance and relevant?"

Our research question generates the following hypotheses:

1. The secondary school curricula is not based on the principle of breadth, balanced and relevance.

2. A broad curriculum is not a balanced and relevant curriculum.

To work on the main hypotheses, a series of sub-hypotheses had also to be generated, which are:

(i) That there is some relationship between pupils' expectations and achievements on the one hand and the type of institutions they attend. For example, recruitment procedures and the curricula offered in the grammar , technical and comprehensive schools, stem from the assumptions that pupils in grammar schools are fit for more rigorous academic exercise with a view to pursuing university education while those in technical and comprehensive schools are seen as the non-academically fit, whose education should be more work-oriented.

(ii) there is no relationship between the type of school teachers teach and their responses;

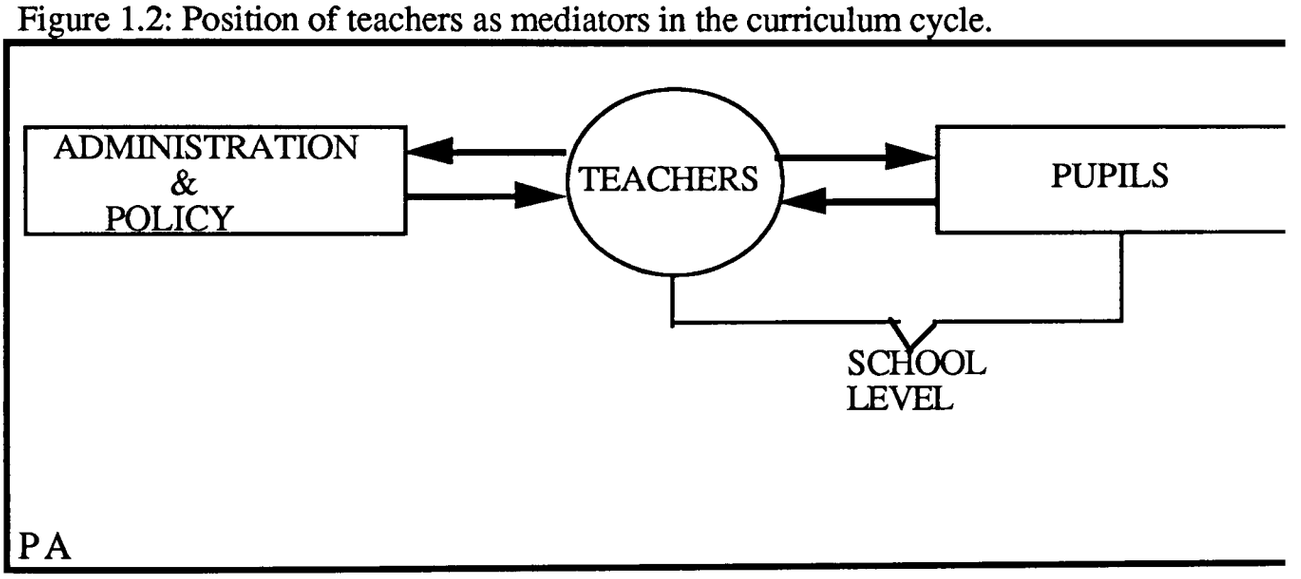
(iii) that pupils when exposed to a much more wider range of activities are said to have a more balanced and relevant curriculum.

From the assumptions above, it does imply that the breadth, balance and relevance of a curriculum is assessed more from what is offered to the pupils, which quite often stems from the fact that there is some relationship between education and socio-economic development (Abangma 1981:24). However, in the present context, the question as to whether education is a factor of social and economic development is not the main issue, but rather more importantly, how countries, especially the under-developed ones, can contribute further to this development. This issue is said to be the heart of educational planning and the reform of educational system (MINEDUC, 1973). To the economic dimension, therefore, have to be added social, cultural, political, demographical and attitudinal

factors (Hagen, E :1962). But Abangma (1981) makes it clear that society does not only need accumulation of capital, knowledge and skills for it to develop socially and economically, but also attitudes and habits which may become obsolete and inimical to change. Attitudes and habits therefore form the bases of acquiring knowledge and skills. Consequently, these attitudes and habits are seen as one of the determining factors in achieving a broad, balanced and relevant curriculum.

In as much as we seek a change in attitudes and habits of pupils, there should also be concern for a change in the attitudes and habits of teachers who afterall, are not only the deliverers of the curriculum but are also considered to be mediator (between policy makers and pupils) as shown in the following diagram

Figure 1.2: Position of teachers as mediators in the curriculum cycle.



PA

Thus we may not only be concerned about what pupils learn and probably how they learn it, but also how teachers help them, what supporting materials, styles and methods of assessment they use and in what kind of facility it all takes place. Since teachers have a direct influence on the pupils, more than the administrators as seen from fig.1.2, it is but normal that teachers understand exactly what they are expected to implement. The more the understanding by teachers of what they are expected to implement, the more they will achieve positive results.

Positive results cannot be obtained by providing a wide range of activities to pupils and claiming that they are balanced and relevant. Positive results can only be

achieved when teachers adopt positive attitudes towards their task. This assertion therefore leads to the fourth sub-hypothesis which suggests that a real balanced and relevant curriculum can be achieved when teachers are capable of efficient implementation of the curriculum. This is because teachers are undoubtedly a crucial factor in changing attitudes as they are the main adapters and transmitters of new values and habits. Doherty and Travers (1984) suggest that curriculum theorists should themselves begin to explore the reality of the process as perceived by pupils, teachers and others in the system. But if teachers are to change the attitudes of their pupils, it is essential that they themselves have favourable attitudes towards their work. This can only be the case if they are genuinely part of the process by which the curriculum in its widest sense is decided and operated.

1.7: SCOPE AND LIMITATIONS

Though the theoretical literature in this thesis is much broader , the empirical work employed here will be limited to the first cycle of the secondary school with the exclusion of the private secondary schools in the case of Cameroon; and the independent schools in the case of England and Wales. The population sample in the case of the pupils were the fifth former and only in a few instances, those in the fourth form. It is assumed that at this level, pupils can assess a situation intelligently. The teacher's questionnaires were delivered to those who showed an enthusiasm in completing the questionnaire; though the response in England and Wales was a little bit disappointing. The reason for this as was explained by more than two head teachers, is said to be due to the introduction of the National Curriculum which they claim has put a lot of pressure on their teachers.

1.8: ORGANISATION OF THE THESIS

As pointed earlier, the study focuses on the extent to which the secondary school curriculum in Cameroon and England and wales is broad, balanced and relevant. With this view, the study has nine chapters which are made up of

background issues, material and data from both Cameroon and England and Wales and a general comparison. Within the background issues, there are two chapters. Chapter one being the introductory chapter in which the concepts of breadth, balance and relevant is discussed; the problem stated, as well as the research questions; hypotheses, scope and limitations and the methodology employed. Since the concepts are operational within the curriculum context, some curricula models are reviewed in the second chapter, to get an insight into which model a broad, balance and relevant could be more realistic and practical.

Chapters three, four and five use the case-study of Cameroon while chapters six, seven and eight use that of England and Wales. In this sections, the educational systems are reviewed; curricula analysed and the perception of teachers as curriculum deliverers is sought. In addition to the analysis of pupils and teachers questionnaires which form part of the case-studies, the models of the school systems in the two cultures are examined with reference to their structure, grouping of pupils and curricula organisation. Finally, out of the analysis of the school systems and the findings from the empirical work, proposals and suggestions for improvement are made.

1.9: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

This section presents the planning and design of the empirical work. This involves the method of data collection adopted, the instruments used in the study, and a description of the statistical procedures in the analysis of research data.

1.9.1: Sampling Procedure

In choosing the sample and determining the manner in which the sample was to be drawn, account was taken of the availability of finance and time. A second consideration was related to one of the objectives of the study, which is to get the perceptions of pupils, teachers and administrators on the secondary school curriculum. Hence these data were collected with more caution. To reduce the time

and cost of surveying samples from the two populations, under study, multi-stage and quota sampling were used. The population here is defined as the total number of secondary school pupils and teachers and administrators in the two countries under study(i.e. Cameroon and England and Wales). With the multi-stage sampling, locations were selected at random. Within the areas selected, some schools were chosen. In fact, as regards Cameroon, a total of ten schools were chosen from four different provinces:- Central, Littoral, NorthWest and SouthWest. The choice of the four provinces out of the total of ten is based on a consideration of balancing the two Anglophone provinces against two counterparts from the Francophone area. In England and Wales, the ten schools selected were from London Borough of Sutton, County of Humberside, Kesterven District of Linconshire and County of Burkinghampshire. The rationale for selecting these schools is based on getting a range of schools in the big cities and smaller towns, and also their willingness to participate in the survey. In conjunction with the multi-stage sampling, was the quota sampling whereby the questionnaires were based on certain strata; such as the 'age group' or 'class' of the pupils while the interviews were conducted with professionals and head teachers. The no sampling frame needed especially for quota sampling explains it's popularity with many research organisations (F. Caswell, 1982 : 11).Although it has the disadvantage that not every one in the population has a chance of being included in the sample which in the end may reflect only the views of those chosen; nonetheless, it has the advantage that each stratum is generally represented in sample in the same proportion.

However, proper awareness of the advantages of properly selected samples was maintained through out the study. Ross (1978) and Bailey (1982) see some of the advantages in these procedures such as:

(i) Reduced costs;

(ii) Greater accuracy due to closer supervision of data gathering procedure;

(iii) Greater speed in data collection and analysis.

In like manner, Stubbs regards the sampling approach as :

> "a way of gathering suggestive and rich data in as pure a form as possible, and with as little time wasted as possible. The researcher chooses groups of situations that will help to generate to the fullest extent the properties of his theoretical categories"(1978 : 242).

Thus bearing in mind the fact that `sample size is far less important than sample representative' and that no data are sounder than the representatives of sample from which they were obtained, no matter how large the sample (Fox, 1969 : 346 - 351), it was considered more appropriate for the present study that a multi-stage and quota sampling be used. Krejcie and Morgan (1970) recommends 379 as an appropriate sample size from a population of about 20,000 to 30,000. Consequently, a sample of 400 pupils and 80 teachers in each of the countries under investigation was considered an adequate sample for the present study.

1.9.2: Methods of Data Collection

In a study such as this, where diversity of information is sought, a battery of instruments is needed so that each should supplement the other in order to generate more adequate and meaningful data. Such a strategy is supported by Lin who states that

> "to obtain precise and generalisable data, the multi-method approach to data collection is most desirable--------, because the more the multi-methods differ, the more the confidence a researcher has in the found relationship"(1978 : 203) .

In this study therefore, the survey method is adopted using the following instruments to collect data:

(i) pupil's questionnaire

(ii) existing literature

(iii) teacher's questionnaire

(iv) interviews(for school administrators only).

The survey method was considered suitable for this study because it enables one to collect data from a large sample. According to Ndagi (1984), it is possible to generalise from the results of the sample to the population from which it is drawn. A survey method which is a type of descriptive study is primarily concerned with portraying status quo of the phenomenon or problem being researched in; describing currently existing conditions and opinions held which is what this study is out to achieve. Best sums this view thus ;

> "a descriptive study describes and interprets what is it concerned with conditions or relationships that exists, opinions that are held, processes that are going on, effects that are evident or trends that are developing, It is primarily concern with the present---"(1981 :93).

In describing the survey method as the most commonly used descriptive method in educational research, Cohen and Marion (1985 : 94) gave various purposes of survey as :

(i) describing the nature of existing conditions;

(ii) identifying standards against which existing conditions can be compared;

(iii) determining the relationship that exists between specific events.

1.9.3: Instruments of research Survey

As stated earlier, the main research tools that were employed in the collection of data in this research were questionnaires and interviews. Due to the fact that a comparative study of this nature had no precedent, no standard

instruments existed that could be used to collect data in the present study. Consequently, the research instruments used in the study are all novel and had to be standardised in order to serve the same purpose for the two types of schools in the two cultures under study. Also, this was not only done to ease analysis of data, but also because from observation, the two educational systems are operated on a very similar pattern.

In order to make meaningful inferences and suggestions which educationalists could find useful, it was decided that the views of pupils, teacher and administrators alike should be sought in the two cultures under study. To this effect, questionnaires were the principal instrument used to collect data from pupils and teachers; while interviews were used for administrators. Interviews were considered most appropriate for school administrators because of their relatively small sample size; since only a detailed examination of their views would bring about the kind of information sought. However, both questionnaire and interviews are known to be fraught with some disadvantages. The questionnaire, for example, can be rigid and inflexible, for two reasons. First, subjects often give responses which they perceive to be socially acceptable; i.e. influenced sometimes by acquiescence tendencies'. Second, there is always the probability of `extreme biases' emerging with the subjects using or avoiding extremes in answering some questions. The interview method, on the other hand, is recommended for it's flexibility and suitability for deeper probing of the issues involved in a survey. For example, if the question is not clear, it can be rephrased. Besides, an interviewer can observe both what the respondent says and how it is said. Also, the interview can be very useful in collecting personal information on attitudes or beliefs and it is particularly useful in probing for additional information if need arises. Nonetheless, the interview has its own disadvantages such as biased responses that could result from the interviewer's personal characteristic (facial expression), his form of references and the type of leading questions he adopts. Indeed, Dunham and Smith stressed upon the need to combine both tools in data collection, thus:

> "the unique strengths and weakness of both interview and questionnaires suggest that a combination of two techniques provides the most effective organisational survey program"(1979 :15).

It was due to the wisdom implied in this recommendation that interviews and questionnaires were used simultaneously in this research.

1.9.4: The Questionnaires

1.9.4(a): Teachers questionnaire

Given that one of the assumptions of this study is that balance in the secondary school curriculum can be achieved only to the extent where teachers will be able to implement the said curriculum, the teacher's questionnaire therefore has the following as it's aims:

(i) To tap information about teacher's qualification;

(ii) To give information about teachers qualifications, it may help determine if attribution of blame for pupils is justifiable or not;

(iii) To determine whether there are inadequacies in experience and methods of presentation;

(iv) To determine if teachers actually understand the intricacies of what they are to implement.

Hence the first part of the questionnaire was meant to elicit biographical information such as the sex, educational qualification, age and years of teaching experience. In the second part, the questions were intended to ascertain teachers' perceptions of the secondary school curriculum, their attitudes towards work and their knowledge and level of INSET activities. The assumption here is that unless teachers understand `what' ' they are doing and `why' they are doing it, they cannot know how and when to do it (i.e. what + why = How).

For most of the items in the questionnaire as seen in appendix B and D, a five-point response rating format of Likert (1932) was adopted initially. For

reasons of precision., this scale was compressed from the five-point response preference to form a three-point scale i.e. instead of` strongly agree', `agree', `strongly disagree' `disagree' and `not sure'; it now became `agree', `disagree' and `not sure'.

1.9.4(b): Pupil's Questionnaire

The first part of the pupil's questionnaire like that for the teachers, also sought biographical information. Part 2 constituted the core of the research. Working on the premise that it is the change in the pupils that we seek to have (Tyler, 1949) and that their views as clientele are a pre-requisite in judging the adequacy and effectiveness in any curriculum, this section was intended to reveal what pupils think of their curriculum. The pupil's questionnaire is basically open ended (see appendix A and C). One of the reasons behind open ended questions was to avoid guessing by respondents. The open ended questionnaire was considered particularly suitable for pupils due to its advantages as quoted by Bailey as:

(i) They can be used when all the possible answer categories are not known, or when the investigator wishes to see what the respondent views as appropriate answer category,

(ii) They allow the respondent to answer adequately, in detail and to qualify his or her answer,

(iii) They can be used when there are too many categories to list on the questionnaire,

(iv) They allow opportunity for self-expression (1982 : 125).

Though open ended questions do have some disadvantages such as difficulty in coding, as indicated by Bailey (ibid), nevertheless, Bradburn and Sudman (1979:19) suggest that they are rather consistently superior to close-ended questionnaires

when threatening issues are being studied as they allow the respondent to express exactly what he/she wants to.

1.9.5: The Interview

The interview method used for administrators, as stated earlier, were unstructured or non-directive. Those interviewed in Cameroon included ten principals of secondary schools, four Pedagogic.Advisers, the Director of ENSET and the Director of Technical Education in the ministry of National Education. As regards England and Wales, the writer spoke to eight head teachers, two deputy heads, three lecturers of the University of Reading, six of the University of Hull as well as one from the University of Cambridge and one from the Institute of Education London. It took the form of a discussion rather than an interview. The researcher explained the concepts under study to the interviewee, which then triggered the discussion. The probability of making errors by omitting certain questions and probing errors as indicated by Hyman (1954 : 239) was somehow reduced by use of an audio cassette that was employed to tape the discussions; thereby recording all what was discussed. Hence, avoiding what Hyman (1954) called recording error which could have been unavoidable if notes were written by hand. To avoid the risk of hostile and intimidating respondents, phone calls were made to those to be interviewed(e.g. in the case of England and Wales) and letters (in the case of Cameroon). Only those who gave favourable response were interviewed. This goes to explain why not many interviews were conducted.

1.9.6: The Administration of Questionnaire and Interviews.

To increase the efficiency of measuring instruments used, the researcher made personal contact with the schools well in advance. Borg and Gall (1983) for example has noted that contacting respondents before administering the test has been found in several studies to increase the response rate. Thus, it was considered that distributing the questionnaires personally and staying with the respondents

while they completed them had the disadvantage of time consumption and increased expenditure. But nevertheless, by so doing produces some advantages:

(i) It ensured that the questionnaire reached the respondents, and on time.

(ii) It gave very little opportunity for respondents to collude with each other, and thereby falsify their responses

(iii) It produces a high percentage of questionnaire return rate for pupils; 100% from both cultures. For the teachers, the response in Cameroon was 88.9% while in England and Wales it was 75%;

(iv) It gave an opportunity for the respondents to obtain clarification for questions about which they had doubts.

The fieldwork that was executed to collect data for this study was carried out between January 1991 and February 1992. This involved a trip to Cameroon between January to April 1991. And the rest of the period was spent in the fieldwork in England and Wales(May 1991-feb.1992). The fieldwork in England and Wales took more time than was expected especially as most schools complained of increased work load due to terminal examinations; which made it impossible for them to accept that the survey be done in their institutions. In these circumstances, other schools were contacted which again meant waiting for reasonable length of time. However, during the intervals of waiting for responses from British schools, the data from Cameroonian schools were analysed. On the whole the schools in both Cameroon and Britain were very co-operative.

1.9.7: Techniques of Data Analysis

1.9.7(a): Responses

The statistical procedures chosen for the analysis of data from any study are influenced by two major factors:

(i) The type of data obtained from research using specific tools,

(ii) The type of research questions being investigated.

The questions asked in the questionnaire were mainly descriptive and associative statements. According to Dyer (1979 : 141) descriptive questions aim at identifying the characteristics of an individual, a group, several sub-groups, a system or an object. Dyer (1979), also assumes that associative questions focus on the pattern of the degree of association or covariance between two or more variables. Descriptive and associative questions allow two main types of statistics to be used (descriptive and inferential statistics). Descriptive statistics in this case show the frequency distribution of the subjects' responses on every item while inferential statistics provides an idea about whether the patterns described in the sample are likely to apply in the population from which they are drawn. Since descriptive statistics can oversimplify the data, therefore distorting one's understanding of how individual respondents performed in the study, inferential statistical techniques can be used to make inferences from the sample statistics to the population parameters (McCall 1980). The choice of inferential statistics depends on the nature of the data.

Generally, thus, the chi-square (X^2) statistic was used in the present study to show if there is a relationship between the independent variables(IV) and dependent Variables(DV). The dependent variable is the variable which is dependent on something else (effect), while the independent variable is the assumed cause. The data in the study requires the use of the X^2 test which is said to be suitable for data which is nominal (Greene and d'Oliveira, 1990). Nominal data is one which we can distinguish between categories of a variable but cannot rank the categories in any order. As a result it is said to be appropriate in making predictions about how many different subjects will fall into each category.

A more frequently encountered use of the X^2 is it's regular use as a test of significance. It compares the observed frequencies in each of the cells of a contingency table with the expected frequencies (E) to determine if the differences are due to chance, as stated by the null hypothesis i.e. the test compares the actual

number of students who fall in each cell as against the number that would be expected to fall into each cell if there were no difference between the study patterns of the pupils. The X^2 is computed using the formula:

$$X = \Sigma \frac{(O-E)^2}{E}$$

Where:

O = Observed frequency for each cell

E = Expected frequency for each cell which is calculated by multiplying the two relevant marginal totals for each cell and dividing by the total number of subjects.

Σ = add up the results of $\frac{(O-E)^2}{E}$ for each cell. The result got is what is called computed X^2. To know if there is a significant X^2 or not, the computed X^2 has to be compared with the table values (see appendix H). To do this we need to know the degree of freedoms (df) associated with our X^2. In general, df reflect the constraints imposed on the calculation of the test statistic. DF is calculated using the formula:

df = (r-1) (c-1)

Where:

r = number of rows in contingency table

c = number of columns in contingency table.

Contingency tables are computed by means of cross-tabulations. Nie et al (1975) define cross-tabulations as a joint frequency distribution of cases according to two or more classificatory variables. The display of the distribution of cases by their position on two or more variables is the chief component of contingency table analysis and is perhaps the most commonly used analytical method in the social sciences. The joint distributions after the analysis, can be summarised by a number of measures of association such as contingency coefficient, Phi, Cramer's and

Pearson's correlation, which describes the degree to which the values of the variable predict or vary with those of another (Nie et al, 1975 : 218). Should the obtained value be sufficiently high for the null-hypothesis to be rejected, it would follow that the data exhibited tendencies for certain joint responses to predominate, and that the size of the X^2 cannot be interpreted as an indication of the degree of association, only that a relationship exists.

While the pupil's questionnaire was done manually using the X^2 formula, the teacher's questionnaire was analysed using the SPSS package in the computer. In analysing the teacher's questionnaire, the Likelihood Ratio test which is one of the tests associated with the chi-square was used. Likelihood ratios are said to be less affected by small sample sizes than is the normal X^2 test when there are two or more degree of freedoms. For very large sample sizes, the two are equivalent (Howell, 1982). A further analysis of the teacher's questionnaire was done using the analysis of variance(ANOVA). ANOVA allows for the testing of two or more means.

1.9.7(b): Non-Response

To deal with non-responses, the technique proposed by Babbie (1973 :240) was applied. In this case, all non-responses were subtracted from the total sample size (N) and the right responses computed from the remainder of sample.

1.9.7.(c): Reliability and Validity

The two important constructs in educational measurement are those of validity and reliability. Validity refers to the extent to which an instrument measures what it is supposed to measure. Reliability on the other hand is the extent to which a measuring device is consistent in measuring what ever it measures. There are four main types of validity:

Validity

(i) Content validity: refers to the degree to which a test or other measuring instrument samples the content area which is being measured.

(ii) Predictive validity: refers to the extent to which a test can predict future performance of individual. A test could be said to have a predictive validity when it can effectively indicate how a person will do on a latter task;

(iii) Concurrent validity or congruent validity: refers to the relationship between scores on a measuring instrument and a criterion available at the same time.

(iv) Construct validity: is the extent to which a test reflects constructs presumed to underline the test performance and also the extent to which it is based on theories regarding these constructs (Youngman, 1979).

In this study, the content validity has been adopted. Crocker (1974) upholds the method of ascertaining the content and construct validity of instrument through professional experts. He feels that validity is checked by finding the relationship between what we have measured and one of the following:

(i) actual figure performance;
(ii) expert opinion;
(iii) result of another test of known and accepted validity.(Crocker 1974:46)

The researcher is convinced that the study fulfils conditions (ii) and (iii) above. To obtain expert opinion, the instrument were first discussed with some students under going post-graduate courses in the School of Education of the University of Hull. These people were chosen because their knowledge in the field of curriculum studies is quite sound and because they also have a knowledge of the educational system in England Wales. From discussions and suggestions with these students, some adjustments were made. The instruments were then taken to Mr. Allan Reese

of the computer centre in the University of Hull who gave his expert opinion as regards it's analysis using the computer and final amendments were then made.

Since those whose expertise were sought agreed finally that the instrument reflected what the study intended to, and an appropriate statistical method has been used, it is assumed that content (face) validity is established.

Reliability : Measuring instruments need to be reliable. There are several techniques which can be applied to estimate the reliability of a measuring instrument.

(i) Test - retest method: This is a measure of stability of measuring instrument in terms of consistency over time. This method compares results obtained from applications of a test on two different occasions. If the same version of the test is used, a test-retest reliability coefficient is produced by correlating pairs of scores.

(ii) Equivalent forms (Parallel test forms) : This method can be determined by administering two different but equivalent forms of a measuring instrument.

(iii) Internal Consistency: Frequently, reliability has to be assessed from a single application of a test and then an internal estimate is required. The most obvious solution is to split the test into two comparable halves, and then to correlate score on these. Unless some good reasons prevent it, the odd and even numbered items can be separated and the correlation between them becomes what is known as the split-half reliability.

However, estimating the reliability of questionnaires and interviews creates special problems, since repeated measures on subjects are extremely difficult to obtain. Reliability of factual questions can be evaluated through internal checks. For example in teachers' questionnaire, item 10 and item 18 both testing impact of culture on pupils while item 4 and 16, both testing teachers' responsibility or influence in curricula issues. In pupil's questionnaire, item 5 and 10 both testing reasons for subjects preferred. From analyses, these items show no marked

discrepancies. In the case of attitude or opinion questionnaire, the basic assumption is that the questions are measuring attitudes or opinions to the same phenomenon. Reliability can therefore be tested by using one of the correlation coefficients. Siegel (1956) upholds that one of the uses of the correlation is to test for reliability. The type depending on the nature of the data. Siegel (ibid) recommends the Contingency Coefficient (C) as a suitable measure of testing the reliability of a non-parametric data of this nature. The chart in appendix I gives a clue as to which test is suitable for any study.

The C is obtained by the formula:

$$C = \sqrt{\frac{X^2}{N + X^2}}$$

Furthermore the structure of the instrument may also affect the degree of reliability. Techniques for enhancing the reliability of instruments typically focus on how to write good questions and accuracy in coding and tabulating data. Some built-in cross-checking was also done using particular probe questions presented in slightly different forms but intended to tap the same information.

1.10: SUMMARY

The review of the literature on breadth, balance and relevance, reveals that whether or not we regard these concepts as desirable, it is important to be cautious when attempts are made to win us over such persuasive terms. There is a serious risk, at times in some proposals for curricula reform when people are persuaded to accept a rhetorical point of view as opposed to the discursive use of metaphor. The persuasive use of a metaphor may in other words become a substitute for persuasion by the giving of good reasons.

In view of this, breadth is seen in the study as the extent to which a pupil can conveniently accommodate the range of activities within the curriculum and

balance not only in the terms of the range of subjects, but as the teachers' capability of helping pupils to cope with the activities. In this sense, balance is tied to the concept of minimum competence. While a relevant curriculum is geared to the needs of the society but with more flexibility to accommodate pupils' diversified interest.

CHAPTER TWO

FIELD OF CURRICULUM STUDIES

2.1: INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapter it was noted that the concepts of breadth, balance and relevance have to be operational within a certain context. In identifying the school as an arena for discussing the concepts under study, it becomes necessary to explore the models that are instrumental in the activities at school. A review of the curriculum models is very necessary especially if there is to be any proposal for a change at the end of the study. Kelly shared this view as she states:

> "amidst all the change, nothing has been more significant nor as fundamental as the major modifications that have been made to the curriculum. Its fundamental nature derives from the fact that the curriculum is the very function of any educational system and no amount of tinkering with the structure of the system, the organisation of the schools or the selection procedures to be used, will have more than a peripheral effect unless accompanied by a rethinking of the real substance of education - the curriculum itself"(1977: 2).

This chapter therefore will be concerned with analysing the concept of curriculum and the process of it's planning. The issues here range from planning to designing, through to implementation and follow up as seen in the table 2.1 below. As table 2.1. indicates, at various stages of curriculum planning, several tasks are involved. A multitude of factors such as ideological, technical, psychological, etc. are considered in the course of designing the various tasks. Though the discussions may not be exhaustive or definitive, they however serve as a framework on which inferences on which the breadth, balance and relevance of the curriculum under study will be made.

Table 2.1: Curriculum task at different stages.

STAGES	TASKS
Planning Curriculum outlines	Situational/Cultural analysis; -Selection of developmental strategies -Selection and organisation of content areas -Selection and organisation of teaching-learning strategies -Selection of evaluation strategies.
Development of curriculum materials	-Development of instructional materials -organisation of materials into courses of study -trial of materials -revision and modification of materials
Implementation and follow up	-Diffusion and dissemination -continuous monitoring and evaluation -continuous review and modification of materials. PA

The chapter reviews definitions of curriculum. Interest in the content of education and the curriculum has many historical antecedents whose beliefs have influenced the contemporary world. The discussions of those beliefs constitute the first section. The rest of the chapter examines and outlines guidelines which provide frameworks through which these concepts in education can be given tangible form as curriculum proposals. It will therefore seek to answer questions such as;

(i) How can knowledge or relevant information be made known to pupils;

(ii) What has to be guarded against in the course of transmission of the knowledge?

(iii) How much assimilation the students have had?

2.2: THE CONCEPT OF CURRICULUM

The definition of any subject can be expressed more clearly only if the importance of the subject is known. In the same way, the word `Curriculum' will be understood better if one clearly understands why it should be studied. The reasons why curriculum must be studied are as follows:

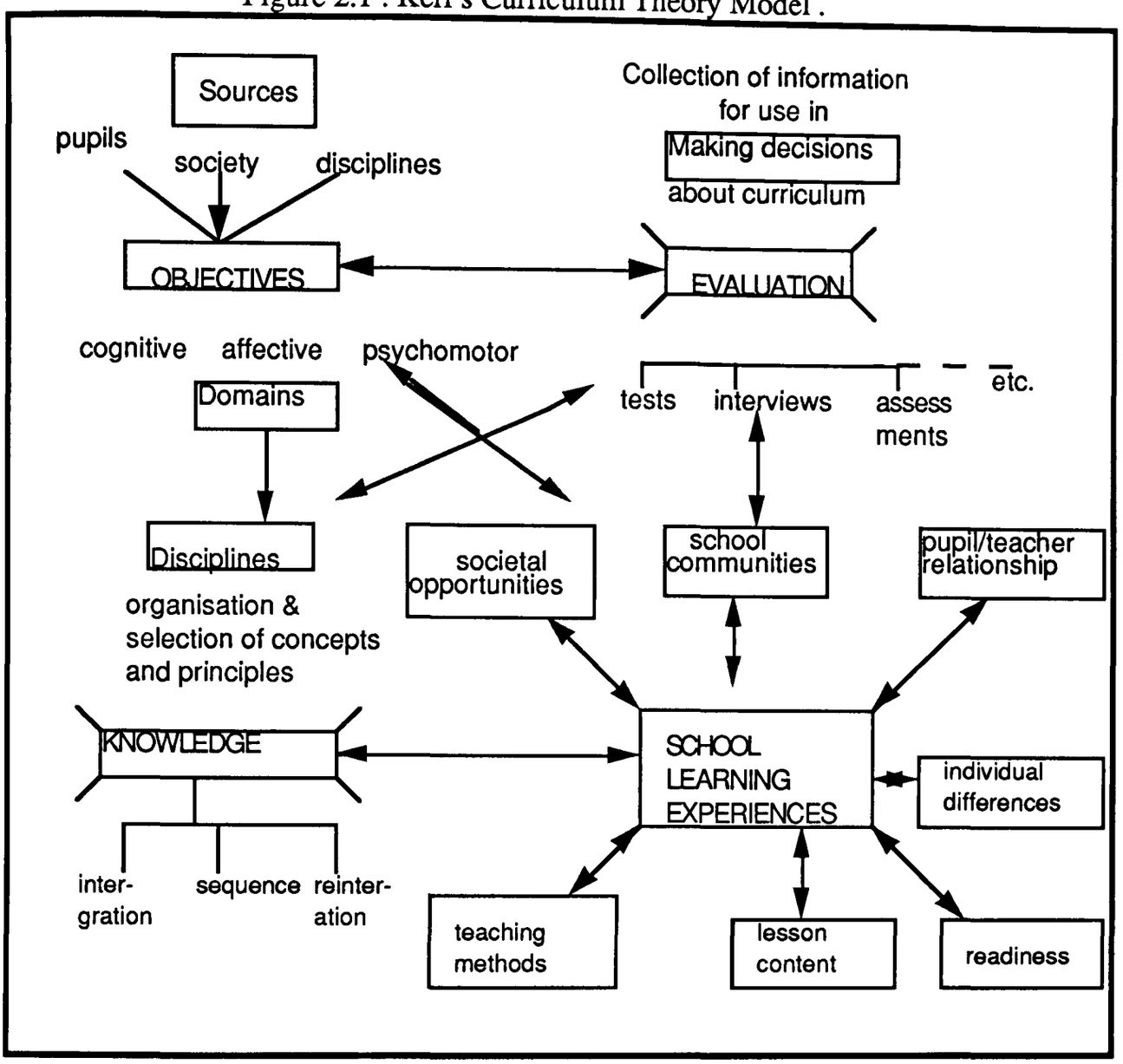
(i) employable man power is achieved through curricula experiences;

(ii) the concern to improve the curricula of schools which provide this man power can be provided with ease.

The term 'curriculum' leaves us with a great variety of interpretations and definitions. Like other terms in the social sciences, it has no universally accepted definition. It is therefore a slippery word because it is defined, re-defined and negotiated at a number of levels and in a number of arenas (Ivor Godson, 1989). Originally, the term, curriculum in Latin, meant the course or circuit on which a race is to be run, implying for educational purposes the path or track to be followed: the course of study to be taken. Traditionally, it meant specifically the content of the subject matter, selected by the teacher or another authority, for transmission to the learner.

Maccia (1965) for example, saw the curriculum as the presented instructional content. Barnes (1982), defines the school curriculum as a selection from all available knowledge, beliefs, skills, values and habits, but in justifying one particular selection we must take seriously the possibility that it is an arbitrary selection, sanctioned by convenience and tradition. According to Barnes (1976), teachers' objectives and their choices of content and methods are important, but they do not by any means constitute the whole. The pupils too have objectives, beliefs and values which must influence the effective curriculum just as the teacher's planned objectives. Kerr (1968) looks at a curriculum as learning which is planned and guided by the school, be it in groups, individually inside or outside the school as portrayed in his model in figure 2.1.

Figure 2.1 : Kerr's Curriculum Theory Model .



Source: **Kerr, J.F. (1969)** The Problem of curriculum Reform. In Changing the curriculum (ed) Kerr, J.F. UNIBOOKS.

Kerr offered a little complicated but very useful and comprehensive model of curriculum theory. This model is excellent in the way it describes relationships between elements but less easy to translate into practical action. It indicates all the different possible pressures that need to be taken into consideration in changing curriculum. The importance of this model is that the activities are correlated. Everything influences the other, hence it is possible to begin an analysis at any point. It is assumed that a definition such as this will provide a reasonable basis for planning all the organised activities of a school.

The DES (1985) assert that the curriculum includes not only the formal programme of lessons, but also the 'informal' programme of the so-call extra-curricula activities as well as those features which produce the school's 'ethos', such as the quality of relationships, the concern for equality of opportunity, the values exemplified in the way the school sets about it's tasks and the way it is organised and managed. Teaching and learning style strongly influence the curriculum in such a way they that cannot be separated. Hirst (1975), on the other hand sees the curriculum in terms of a programme of activities which are designed to enable pupils attain as far as possible, certain educational ends or objectives. This definition immediately raises the question: "what programmes"? A question such as the above then relates to the desired objective not a specific function. Yet the notion of an educated person tends to differ socially and philosophically. Peters (1966) outlined three criteria for worthwhileness which form a basis of his definition.

(i) educational activities involve a broad cognitive perspective indicating that knowledge has a broad implications. In this respect, education has to be differentiated from training. For example, education involved developing the pupils intellectually, morally and socially especially as a formal or prolonged process. The process of education is infinite as it is carried into all circles of the society, while training involves the teaching or learning of a skill which is acquired within a set time;

(ii) the broad cognitive perspective must not be inert. Knowledge must be related to life, it must involve understanding;

(iii) knowledge possessed by the educated person must involve the kind of commitment that comes from being on the inside of a form of thought. There appears to be knowledge for intrinsic value rather than extrinsic reasons.

Barrow (1976) for example, argues for an extrinsic justification i.e. children receive education for the good of society which should therefore include skills which are important for that society.

Kelly (1982) proposes a much broader definition which will include the learning and other extra-curricula activities that go on within the school vicinity. Taylor (1985) on the other hand does not consider it appropriate to define curriculum in such broad terms as it will set confusion with the term 'schooling'. To Taylor (1985), the confusion can be avoided if the curriculum is seen as consisting of content, teaching methods and purpose. To the definition above should be added the concept of the relationship between curriculum and society (Lawton, 1975, 1978, 1983). Lawton describes the curriculum as a plan for instruction which has to be selected from the culture to suit the society in which we live and the kind of society we want. He places it in a much more wider context to include justification and evaluation. Magendzo (1988) also considers Lawton's cultural analysis model to be a constructive and suggestive framework for planning of the curriculum in Latin America. This definition immediately raises the questions as to what culture?, and who does the selection?

Although the definitions above identify curriculum with learning within the school, there is a variation as to where the stress is laid. Each of the definitions has the concepts of breadth, balance and relevance in their own right i.e., they all indicate that the range of activities to be provided are such that will develop in the pupils the skills that they deem necessary. At this point the definition to be adopted by the writer within which each of the concepts under study could be inferred, is a modified version of Lawton (1975,1978,1983) and Barnes (1976). Lawton recognises that a curriculum cannot exist in a vacuum cut off from the society (Skilbeck, 1976). His definition of what is planned, provided and selected from the culture for learners in schools will involve activities generated by the school or higher authority for the school which takes place in the class as well as activities planned in the school and taking place out of school hours in the communities. They involve the generation of activities and skills as well as the inculcation of knowledge. Barnes (1976) on the other hand, seeks to incorporate objectives, values and experience of both the teacher and pupil in shaping the pupils. From

these theoretical definitions, a curriculum in the present study will be referred to as a selection from the culture of the society with a view of shaping pupils but incorporating the objectives and values of both the recipient and the giver. Recipient in the study refers to the pupils, while giver refers to teachers and those responsible for planning and developing of the curriculum. Societies have always had the problem of passing on to the next generation what they consider to be worthwhile knowledge. In simple societies this knowledge could be easily transmitted directly by members of the family or by means of other face to face relations. In complex societies, division of labour and social mobility makes it impossible for such knowledge to be passed on by traditional, informal means and the task is partly entrusted to formal education. With the limited time and resources available to schools, it is therefore necessary that the curriculum be planned to ensure that the desired knowledge is selected. Lawton for example, stressed upon this point thus:

> "Those responsible for making the selection have a duty to demonstrate that it is neither arbitrary nor idiosyncratic; it should be open to rational inquiry and justification, not least because complete agreement about the curriculum will rarely be possible"(1989: 17).

2.3: EDUCATIONAL IDEOLOGY

Educational ideologies represent different cluster of beliefs, values, sentiments and understandings but which all explain what education is and it's relationship to society. Salter and Taper (1981) argue that the very process of education performs an ideological function in that by arranging knowledge into hierarchies, there is control over access to knowledge, and persuading people that it is legitimate, carries with it an ideological function. Skilbeck (1976) contends that an ideology is very important to educationalists because they inevitably operate within one ideological framework, even if not explicit. It would therefore, be a mistake to identify any particular individual or social class, economic or political group in a society with any particular ideology especially as an ideology may have it's support from a group which may help serve that group interests, but many of it's beliefs may be held by members of other groups. Skilbeck (1976) gives three

basic educational ideologies each of which may generate a different type of curriculum theory; they are classical humanism, progressivism and reconstructionism.

2.3.1: Classical Humanism

Classical humanism reflects a system that lays emphasis on the acquisition of knowledge. It dates back to the 4th century BC when Plato developed the idea of cultural heritage, in his ideal state whose custodians were the guardians (Cornford 1941). This ideology associates traditional culture and values with a small minority group or elite, which Plato in his Republic referred to as the 'men of gold', who were to receive a different type of education from the other mentally less able groups. Plato felt that only a small `elite' were to have freedom to pursue enquiry and even for them, only after a commitment to the values of the state had been thoroughly inculcated. The schools in his 'Republic' were to be of three kinds. The elementary school which provided basic general education for every one, the secondary school which offered more rigorous physical and intellectual training for students with special talents and higher education for the training of more highly selected groups of students who would become research scientists, educators and legislators (Brumbaugh and Lawrence, 1963 ; chap.2). Classical humanism or idealist opinions could be easily seen as an unconscious desire to dominate. Academic excellence and maintenance of standards are idealists aims (Evetts, 1973 : 10). This ideology seems to be such a basis of our educational thinking and planning that we see no sensible alternatives to them. Hence the use of discussion method for instruction, the idea of a university as the highest point in the educational ladder, and the division of levels of school and curricula are all platonic concepts.

A contemporary classical humanist in England is Professor Bantock who holds the notion that there should be two types of education for the two different social classes in the community; literacy education for the small minority and

popular culture for the masses based on oral traditions. Bantock (1968) feels that the school curriculum is too literary and abstract for the `working class' pupils who should have something closer to their own concrete reality. He represents however, not only the upper class cultural superiority view but also the view that the working class are incapable of benefiting from the same kind of education as their social superiors. He does not feel that the lower classes have no right to this kind of superior education but merely that their cultural background makes a normal conventional curriculum inappropriate for the masses. Bantock (1968) is more concerned with providing each section of the society with a worthwhile education than he is with the stability of the state. His motive appears to be rather social and cultural than political as is the case with Plato's.

Hargreaves (1982) sees Bantocks'(1968) view of two curricula as being a more radical approach. Bantock like many others, does not seem to have come to terms yet with the fact that some working-class children possess capacities which sometimes are under-estimated by teachers and which could, with more concerted teaching efforts, be fostered to much higher levels of achievement. A consequence of taking a view of knowledge as being hierarchically structured is that it leads to a maintenance of the stratification of society. Lawton gives two reasons as to why such an ideology can no longer be accepted in most societies. In the first place, it runs contrary to democratic ideals of social justice and equality of opportunity because in democratic societies, education is regarded both as a means of encouraging greater equality and as a 'good' in it's own right which ought to be available to all, rather than be confined to a small elite. Secondly, the relevance of what has traditionally been regarded as high status or forms of cultural heritage is increasingly questionable.

2.3.2: Progressivism

While classical humanism is knowledge centred, progressivism is child-centred. The progressivist ideology is frequently traced back to Rosseau's

imaginary biography of the pupil Emile (1911). Rosseau inspired a new philosophy in education through some of the famous slogans such as :" the wisest people are so much concerned with what grown-ups know that they never consider what children are capable of learning" as quoted by Skilbeck, (1982:7). Rousseau's point derives from the initial view that an educator must submit to the development imposed by nature. He focused on the learner as naturally good, thus: "God makes all things good, man meddles with them and they become evil" (Rousseau, 1911:1). He sees learning as natural and thus should be spontaneous and joyous. His concern was about lack of knowledge and understanding of children; as Boyd stated in his preface: "by studying your pupils better; for assuredly you do not know them"(1962 :6). He went on to say:" all that man must be will be when need arises as well as anyone else" (Boyd, 1962:15). The child-centred approach to education has a long standing history. Perhaps the best known examples are those of the Summerhil School of A.S.Neil, and the First Street School in New York.

'Summerhill', as it is normally known, may be seen as a radical attempt to implement the concept of learning as a natural development within a loving and understanding atmosphere while also allowing the pupils reasonable freedom. It was the creation of A.S.Neil in England, in 1921. The classes were according to year groups, each with a housemother. The freedom accorded the children did not in any way distract them from studies as the result revealed. Though they may not be successful in the university examinations because of lack of prescribed knowledge as Neil remarked, yet they were able to adapt to the world of work. As Fromm, notes: "they will acquire a sense of genuiness which will prevent their becoming misfits or starving beggars" (From, Forward to Neil 1960 : XIV - XV).

Neil's (1960) view was that the child is innately wise and realistic and is capable of developing if left without adult suggestion of any kind. To him, the child should live his own life and not of his anxious parents nor a life according to the purpose of the educator who thinks he knows best. Such interference and guidance

on the parts of adults only produces a generation of robots, he concludes. The writings of Neil influenced the setting up of the first street school in the lower east side of New York City (Patterson 1973). The school was constituted of black, white and Puerto Rican children from poor backgrounds aged 5 to 13. Though many were problem children, no attempt was made to impose instruction on them. Apparently, they gradually became less rebellious, less over reactive and resistant, and began to learn. At the end of the year many of them were reading beyond their age levels. Dennison (1969) suggested that the First Street School should not be a model for education but rather a first step.

2.3.3: Reconstructionism

Reconstructionists claim that education can be used as a major force for planned change in the society. It is therefore a movement in educational thought which starts from a sense of deep dissatisfaction with existing arrangements and tendencies in society. An essential part of reconstructionism is to see the individual and society integrated rather than necessarily in opposition. In the USA, this ideology is often associated with John Dewey for whom the experimental methods of science provided the most appropriate approach to social questions. Dewey's (1938) combination of experimentalism and democracy, underlies much of his thinking about the relationship between education and society. His notion of democracy was not only linked to a form of government but a way of life which provided maximum opportunities for experimentation and growth. Such a curriculum will therefore be one that incorporates within the learning facets, the activities and involvement of the society at large. Such is the case with Lawton's model which is clearly in the tradition of Dewey.

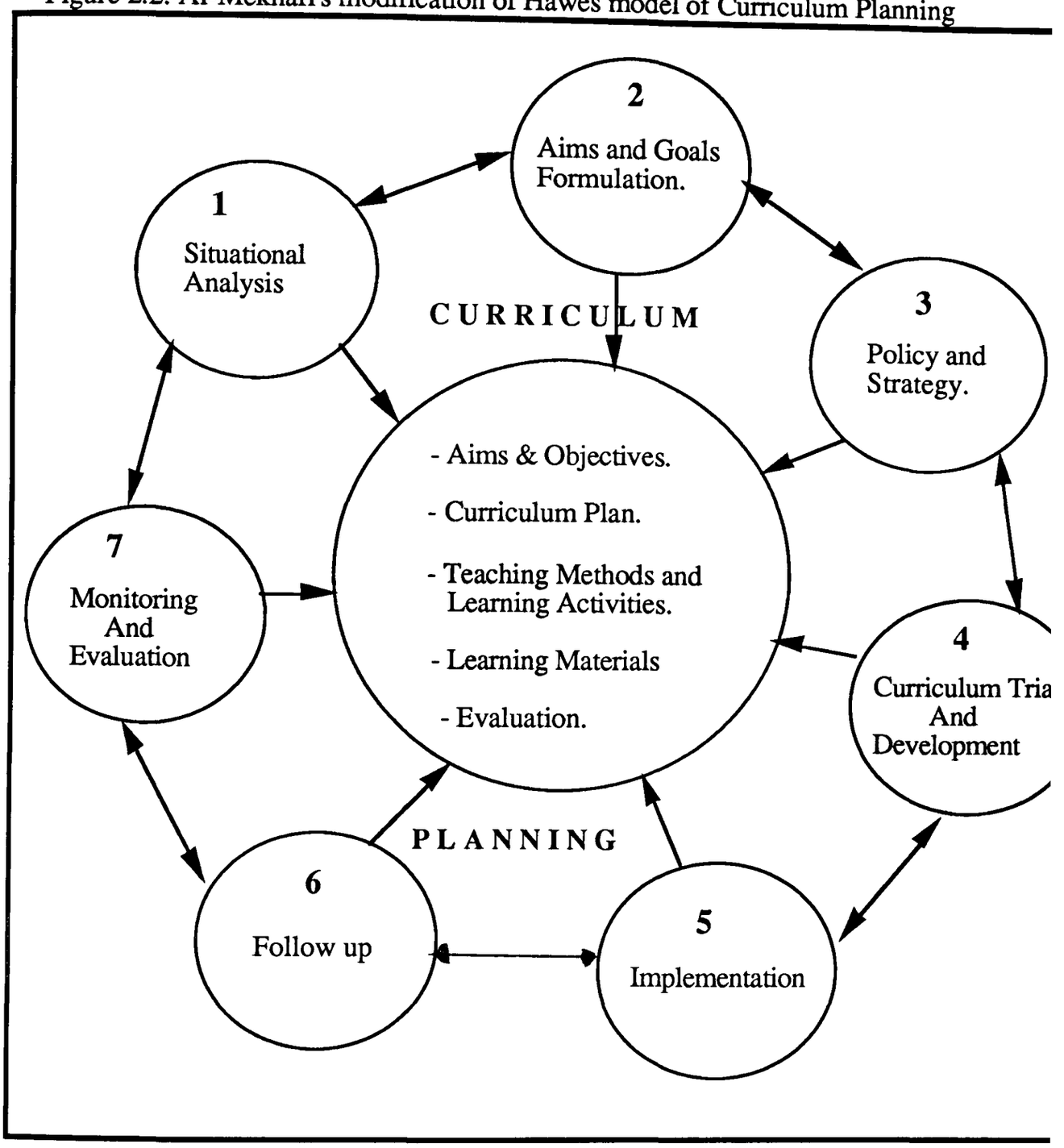
2.4: CURRICULUM PLANNING AND DEVELOPMENT

The curriculum development movement has been termed an attack on the separation of theory and practice (Stenhouse,1975:3). Curriculum development improves schools through the improvement of teaching and learning. Decisions concerning curriculum development are made at various stages and by various people, from politicians to parents and teachers, in respect to aims, objectives and syllabuses for school work, schemes, timetable, selection of learning materials etc. The two things that have to be considered with regard to any scheme is whether or not it is good in itself, and if it can be easily put into practice. Complex though the process may be, the efficiency of any selection scheme can only be measured on the learner and what he/she learns. Since no two human beings are always the same, the whole process of curriculum development is of changing people. Both curriculum and curriculum development are therefore dynamic rather than static (Hugh et al. Readers in curriculum planning reader 1: Curriculum Context and Design p.1).

Curriculum planning which precedes development involves a number of related processes, as the model proposed by Al-Mekhafi (1986) illustrates in figure 2.2. Figure 2.2 is assumed to embody the whole process of choosing what children learn and translating that choice into action, i.e, from the first attempt to make a selection and it's justification, to the final adoption of the new materials which may emerge within the school system. From such a perception of curriculum planning, many concepts and processes such as curriculum development, implementation, dissemination, adoption, institutionalisation and evaluation are therefore assumed to form integral components. From a rational point of view, the process originally works in a clock-wise direction starting with the situational analysis; followed by determination of aims and goals formation and ending with monitoring and evaluation. Hawes (1979), Hawes and Dave (1982) and Skilbeck (1976) all emphasise the fact that all components are not only integral parts of one whole, but

are also inter-connected in that each component relates to all other components at the same time.

Figure 2.2: Al-Mekhafi's modification of Hawes model of Curriculum Planning



Source: Al-Mekhafi, M.S.S. (1986) Relevance and the Curriculum: The case of Yemen Arab Republic. Ph.d. University of London, Institute of Education.

Figure 2.2.reveals two things that are worthy of note:

(i) the wheel may move in anti-clock wise direction when clarification or feed back is required through implementation of a given curriculum;

(ii) The modified version of Hawes (1979) model adopted by Al-Mekhafi (1986) and used here places the components of the curriculum itself as suggested at the centre of the wheel to indicate and emphasis that those involved in the process of planning must at all steps bear in mind the whole concept of the curriculum; and examines each component in relation to all others (e.g. at the stage of situational analysis, one must examine the existing curriculum, it's aims and objectives, plan teaching and learning strategies and activities, it's materials and evaluation methods and techniques) as a new or modified programme will be tried and developed covering all components.

This perspective is essential for any effective educational programme, but even more so for a curriculum that seeks to secure relevance in a rapidly changing society. It reveals that the whole notion of breadth entails a set of relative activities. Such a comprehensive view indicates the necessity for the involvement of many people from various fields as well as those for whom the curriculum is planned. In the present perspective, balance can be said to be achieved only when there is involvement of both the planners and its administrators as well as those for whom the curriculum is planned (e.g. pupils).

2.4.1: Curriculum Planning and Development models

It is assumed that any curriculum model used will provide a broad, balanced and relevant curriculum. This study will however be limited to the discussion of the three most popular ones viz.

(i) The Objective Model;

(ii) The Process Model;

(iii) The Cultural Analysis Model;

2.4.1(a): Objectives Model

The objective model of curriculum planning is a widely used model. The

contributions made by Bobbit and Charters in the fields of curriculum design and planning has given the objectives approach a more scientific, behavioural and job-analysis flavour (Kelly, 1982 : 89). Tyler (1949) proposed a very simple linear theoretical model, with four stages model which was a notable event in curriculum theory. The four main stages of Tyler's model was translated into a more simpler one as shown in figure 2.3.

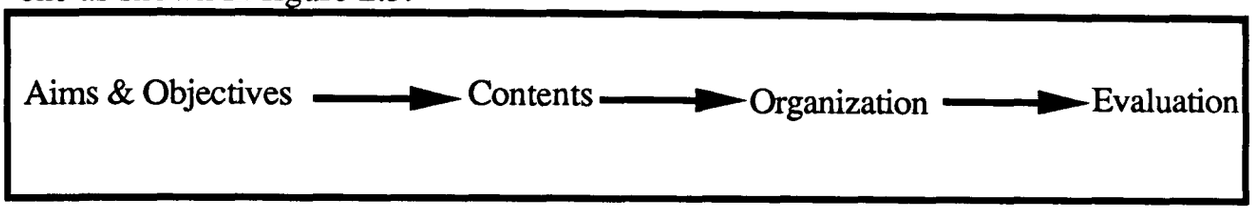
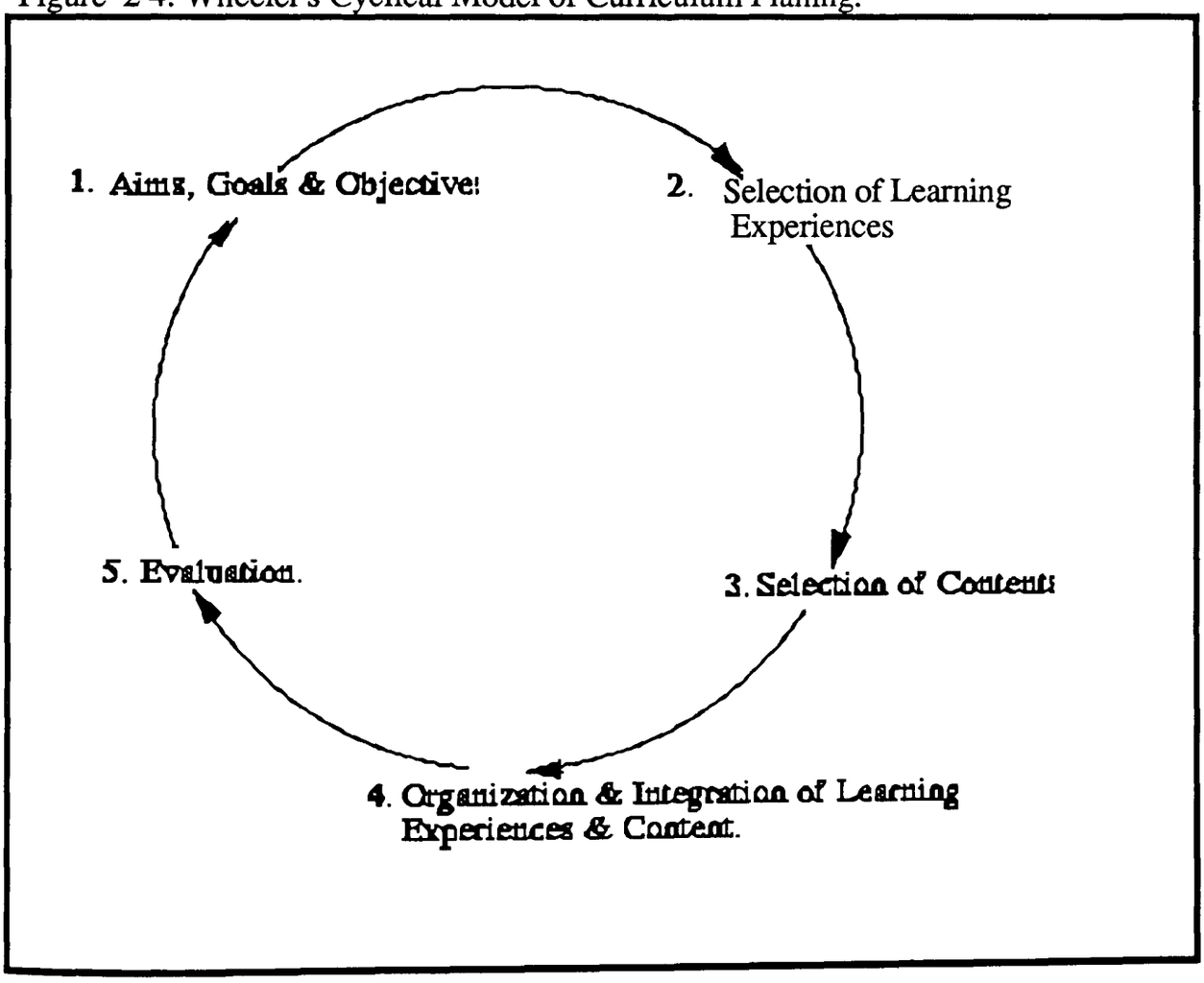


Figure 2.3: Tyler's (1949) Linear Model.

Considering the necessity of evaluation at every stage of curriculum development, Wheeler (1967) latter converted the linear model in to a five-stage cyclical model.

Figure 2 4: Wheeler's Cyclical Model of Curriculum Planing.



Source: **Wheeler, D.: (1967)** Curriculum Process. ULP. p.31.

As figures 2.3 and 2.4 indicates, both Tyler's and Wheeler's models begin with a statement of objectives; but with Tyler's linear model giving the impression that curricula activities end at evaluation, while Wheeler's cyclical model suggests that it is a continuous process. The importance attached to the objectives model was as a result of Tyler and Taba's work from 1940 onwards. The basis of the model lies in the belief that education is a means to an end. It's main features are:-

(i) Curriculum activities are directed towards change in learners' behaviour;

(ii) End is the objectives which are expressed in behavioural form;

(iii) Objectives are measurable;

(iv) Disciplines, content areas and methods are means of achieving objectives.

Gravett (1985) sees the objectives model as presenting knowledge as a commodity to be acquired. Kibler, Barker and Miles (1970) concluded that objectives are relevant to all participants in the educational process.

Although the model has several weaknesses, such as: much dependency on an industrial psychology; impracticability of pre-specifying pupil responses; difficulty in framing and testing behavioural objectives; inadequacy in representing structure of knowledge;(Stenhouse, 1975); nonetheless, it has a number of advantages too:

(i) it guides the teacher in selecting learning strategies and designing learning experiences;

(ii) it helps in improving quality of learning sequences and deciding what to assess;

(iii) guides curriculum makers in selecting discipline, content, concept, methods.

2.4.1(b): <u>The Process Model</u>

Stenhouse (1975) in proposing the process model argued that it is idle to criticise the objectives as a strategy for the design and development of curriculum if no orderly alternative can be found. He therefore proposed the process model as an alternative to the objectives model. The process model advocates that in education, it is more appropriate to specify content and traditions rather than specify objectives. In this model, content and methods are selected on the basis of criteria and not of objectives. In such a model, the teacher motivates pupils to explore worthwhile educational areas and processes rather than reaching pre-specified conclusions. The major strength of the process model which at the same time is also a weakness, is that it rests heavily on the quality of the teacher. That is, the process model is committed to teacher development.

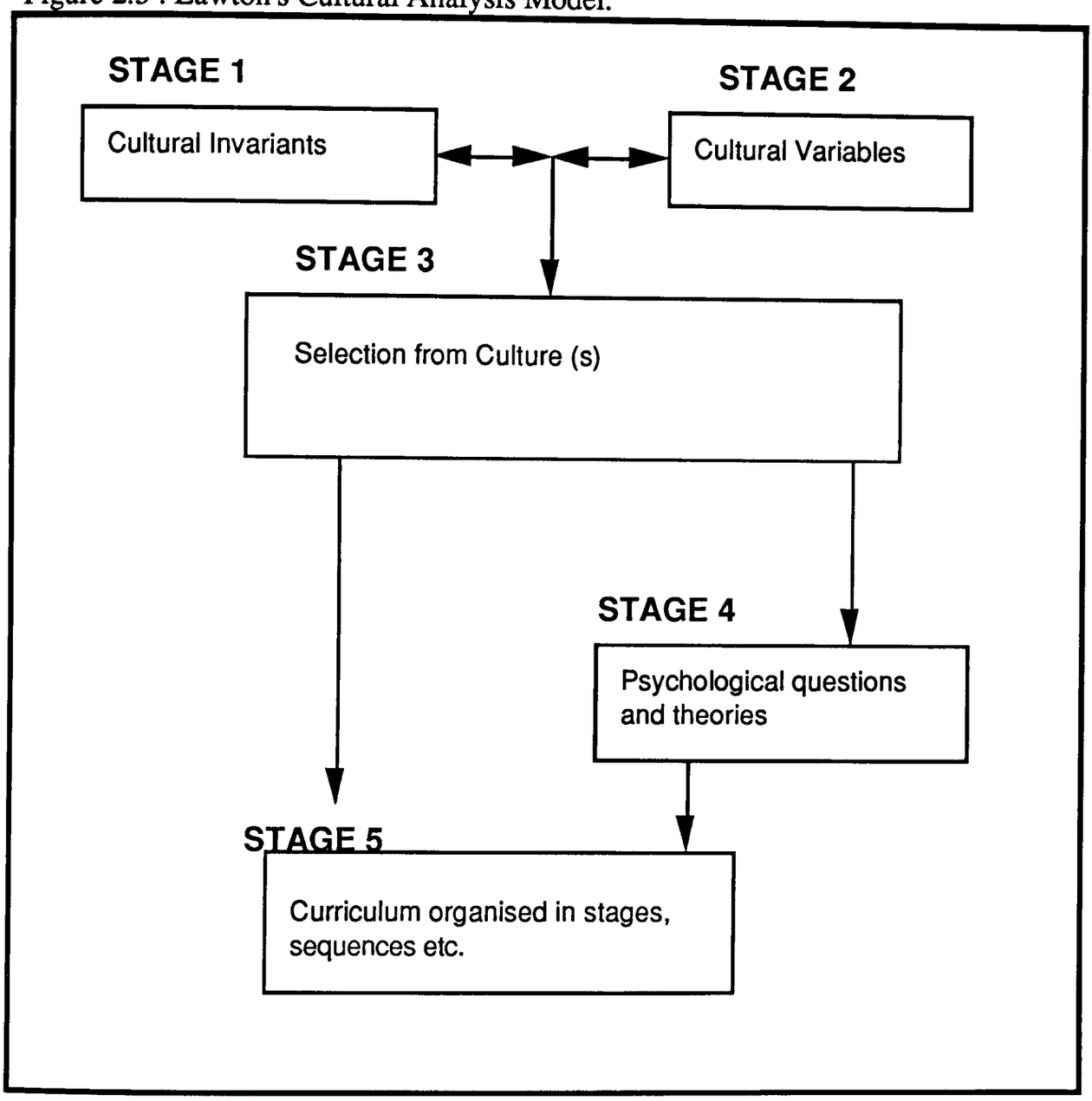
As there are no guidelines or restriction, there is much possibility of unwanted activities emerging in teaching-learning situations. The curriculum worker may face immense difficulties in selecting specific content from a vast universe of knowledge, and teachers may also experience difficulties in selecting their methods. Nonetheless, Stenhouse (1975) sees his model as more appropriate in areas of curriculum development which centre on knowledge and understanding, while objectives model is used in areas emphasising information and skill.

2.4.1(c): Cultural Analysis model

In reality there exist a gap between theory and practice. Lawton has attempted to bridge this gap by suggesting a simple flow-diagram as illustrated in figure 2.5, which is a basis for considering the curriculum process. His cultural analysis model like Skilbeck's situational model of how curriculum content is selected and organised is based on the idea of a common culture and a common curriculum. But while the objective model has it's roots in behavioural psychology and the process model in philosophy of education, the cultural like the situational model has it's roots in the cultural analysis. Lawton's model is essentially eclectic as it includes both aspects of the objectives and the process models. It persuades

curriculum agencies to come to terms with the social context and, as such, plan a curriculum accordingly. The cultural analysis model demands a look into the present situation of society, as well as examining the curriculum of the past, and thus plot the trends of development.

Figure 2.5 : Lawton's Cultural Analysis Model.



Source: **Lawton, D (1983)** Curriculum Studies and Educational Planning, p.30. Houghton and Stoughton.

Although Lawton has made an attempt to bridge the gap between theory and practice, it is worthwhile noting that the complexities and ambiguities of each of the main factors in figure 2.5. accounts for its lack of success. Its sources of

information are therefore social interaction, observation, survey, research reports etc. The point that is worth noting here is the uncertainty of what Lawton terms `psychological' questions in the curriculum process. In his early book (1973), Lawton links it to the third stage of the process which is a selection of culture and in his later work (1983), the two stages linked to the fifth stage (curriculum organisation). If Lawton's notion of culture involves the whole way of life of a given society, as represented by a wide spectrum of beliefs, values, ideas and life styles, then there is a complex relationship between education and culture. In other words, it may be a good idea to regard education as transmitting the culture of a society. That is if we consider one of the important aims of education as the development of personal autonomy which must include development of critical attitudes, then the question that should come to mind in developing any curriculum will be: "Is it possible to distinguish between one that encourages students to asses, criticise, and redefine what they have been taught and one that encourages and rewards acquiescence in what ever is being taught?" The information needed to implement the cultural analysis model is presented in table 2.2.

Table 2.2: Information needed in the Cultural Analysis Model

(a) the learners	their parents, home, society, economic situation, language, perception, interest, aspirations, level of cognitive development, physiological and psychological development, needs etc.
(b) the teachers	their social and economic background and status, education, training and experience, interest and aspirations, professional ethics, role of their professional organisations etc.
(c) the education system	structure, legal and administrative structure, basic demographic statistics, parallel systems of education and administration etc.
(d) the current curriculum in practice	origins, programme, subject taught, language in use, advantages, weaknesses etc.
(e)the advancement of knowledge	structure, discipline, influence of science and technology, knowledge exposition etc.
(f) availability of resources	possible financial resources from school, committee and government
(g) the schools	physical facilities and amenities, available teaching aids, school community relationship, school environment, co-operation between staff and students
(h) the community	socio-economic structure, resources, ideologies, values, culture, attitudes, needs etc.
(i) the nation	national ideology and policy, needs, political practice, constitutional provisions, economic conditions etc. PA

One very forceful argument relating to curriculum development and transmission of cultural values is the relativity of knowledge. Young (1971) maintains that there is no objectivity and that truth and validity are relative. The argument against the relativity of all knowledge is that objectivity is tied to truth (Thornton 1986). If man made concepts are wrong, then the world will itself show them to be wrong, and by so it will be possible to distinguish truth from falsehood. Though Skilbeck (1976) rejects the relativity of all knowledge argument, he does warn that in a pluralist society where there is profound disagreement over values, a value free curriculum is not possible. Instead, curriculum does express the values,

beliefs and perspectives of particular groups. Educational thoughts and practice are profoundly influenced by ideology even though the influence may not be understood by those engaged in the educative process(Thornton 1986).

Kelly regards the promotion of culture as a very vexed one with regards to many ethnic groups that are found in the society. He demonstrates this view as follows:

> "----- if we belief that the content of the curriculum should be based on the culture of the society, it will be impossible to assert with any real expectation of any real acceptance what that culture is and therefore what the content of the curriculum should be".(1982 :.40)

He went on to say that Lawton is wrong in assuming that value issues that are central to the curriculum can be resolved by reference to the work of philosophers.

> "-- if one thing is to be clear from even the most cursory examination of assertions that are made as a result of this kind of approach, it is that there is no agreement between philosophers on this issue or even on the kind of basis upon which such agreement might be reached"(1980:11).

In spite of these criticisms, Kelly acknowledges that the cultural analysis model has some merits to which attention must be drawn. These include:

(i) Curriculum must come in contact with society and culture;

(ii) Curriculum planner has to be aware of the logical constraints;

(iii) Social pressures the planner and curriculum development are subject to;

(iv) the importance of teachers in making the curriculum a success.

2.5: IMPLEMENTATION AND FOLLOW-UP

Table 1 indicates that the issues of curriculum studies should end up in the putting into practice what was planned, by taking the appropriate action. At this stage, various tasks are involved such as diffusion and dissemination, continuous monitoring and evaluation and continuous review and modification of materials. This section therefore answers the question as :

(i) what happens when the curriculum has been developed?

(ii) how do you ensure that what has been developed is in accordance with the set intentions?

2.5.1: Implementation

The question as to what happens when curriculum has been developed gives rise to implementation, which is a complex process and requires contact with and involvement of all teachers, students and administrators. it requires the establishment and spreading freely of a systematic built-in network to ensure contact with other directly affecting programmes and bodies such as administrative bodies, examination boards, and teacher organisations. It also needs to ensure supply of educational materials and equipment to all schools.

2.5.2: Curriculum Evaluation

The evaluation of a curriculum is more or less a follow-up in the planning and designing of a curriculum especially as deterioration may take place at any time and may occur for some parts of a programme. The professional response to questions of curriculum evaluation stresses the improvement of pupil learning or, more generally, the improvement in the quality of education. In this circumstance, evaluation is seen as an element of professional development. On the other hand, evaluation could be seen as a process of accountability. In both situations, (accountability and professional development) evaluation is needed to conduct quality control so as to ascertain the effectiveness of the curriculum and to adopt the necessary measures to restore effectiveness as and when necessary.

Curriculum evaluation is done by either insiders or outsiders. Insider evaluation is performed by teachers in the form of assessing the pupils through testing, interviewing, terminal examination, observation etc. Insider evaluation is refereed to in this study as formative evaluation. Its usage in the study implies the preliminary gathering of information which has to be used to shape the overall curriculum. Bloom (1981) regards formative evaluation as that which deals with

only a segment in detailed and exhaustive fashion. Evaluation by outsiders is done through testing programmes and observation of schooling by inspectors. Testing as an evaluation procedure is more likely to be conducted at a national or at a local level.

2.6: SUMMARY

In this chapter, the various ideologies and curriculum models that are instrumental in shaping teaching/learning experiences have been explored. It must be remembered that models have been found to be metaphors and may cease to be of use if taken too literally. In the English context, we note that Lawtons' list of sub-systems as social structure, economic system and technological system and DES list of 'areas of learning' and experience includes human and social, physical and technological areas. The inclusion of such issues in lists of educational priorities indicates that it has become necessary to make them explicit whereas previous lists regarded them as implicit in other areas of knowledge and curriculum studies. Therefore, it would seem to be necessary when considering the substance of the curriculum not to think entirely in terms of the traditional disciplines and the various interdisciplinary fields that are developing but as well as on-going society itself as sources of content. Consequently, Lawton (1975) and Barnes (1982) notions of curriculum adopted in this study will, in the view of the writer, provide a basis for a broad, balance and relevant curriculum.

CHAPTER THREE

EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM OF CAMEROON

3.1: INTRODUCTION

According to Ipaye ,

> ``Literary education is foreign to Africa. Yes, but not education itself. The west African family can be illiterate but not uneducated. Prior to the arrival of our imperialists and exploiters, each African society had a system of education designed to enable it's children to participate fully in its life"(1969 :93) .

This chapter presents a brief historical account of education in Cameroon during the pre-colonial and colonial periods. This account develops into a more vivid description of the contemporary educational system. This brief historical account is necessary because it explains, on the one hand, why Cameroon has in effect two types of educational systems. On the other hand, it will be useful in the present study to see the extent to which the concepts of 'breath', 'balance' and 'relevance' might have been embedded in their curricula activities. It has not always been an easy task to give a comprehensive view of education because some people perceive it from the limited perspective of formal schooling alone.

The business of education according to O'Connor (1957) is to develop the individual as a person and in preparation for functioning effectively in that society. The French sociologist Emile Durkheim (1956), saw education as the influence exercised by adult members of a given society over younger ones. Being a sociologist, Durkheim (1956) looked at education from a sociological viewpoint, in respect of socialisation, and concentrating on pre-industrial societies without institutionalised schooling. This brief description of what education is, reveals that a form of education had existed in African societies as long as societies operated schemes of systematic personnel development. It is of no fundamental consequence that these methods of educating

people might have been different from the practices experienced in the western formalised and institutionalised systems of education.

3.2: THE PRE-COLONIAL ERA

So Durkhein's definition of education is an indication that education takes place in every human society. Since education serves to integrate the individual into the community in which he or she is born, it was therefore the responsibility of the parents, older siblings, the extended family and even the whole village community to educate the young ones. Education was therefore adapted to local needs. The first teacher the child had was the mother, which is true of all societies. Boys and girls received separate instructions, the girls staying close to their mothers and other female relatives while the boys moved progressively into the male society. Young girls were kept with household functions such as, care for infants, fetching water, sweeping the compound and washing of dishes, whereas their brothers were taught to look after the family's animals, chase birds from crops and hunt. Almost any adult in the village could play the motherly or fatherly roles of scolding, instructing, advising or rewarding children. The sort of education that existed in pre-colonial Cameroon was therefore informal and traditional. Blakemore and Cooksey (1981 :21) studying the sociology of education in Africa concluded thus: "Education clearly was not brought to Africa by the Europeans, they simply brought their own kind of education with them". A useful discussion of traditional education in Africa is provided by Brown and Hisbett (1975).

3.3: THE COLONIAL ERA

This period covered the early 1840's, when the first schools in Cameroon were established; up to 1960/61 when the ex-French and ex-British sectors, each with its own school system ,decided to form an independent Cameroon.

3.3.1 : The Pre-Annexation Period (1844 - 1884)

British and Jamaican missionaries came to Cameroon and became the founders, organisers and teachers of the first schools. It was from the Baptist congregation of west African descended Jamaicans newly emancipated from slavery that enthusiasm for taking Christianity and civilisation back to West Africa led to appeals to the UK's Baptist congregation for support in these projects (Vernon Jackson 1968). A settlement of British and Jamaican Baptists was established in 1841 on the Spanish island of Fernanda Po in the Bight of Biafra (in the sight of mount Cameroon on the west African mainland): Their first stations were at Bimbia and King Akwa's town in 1844 and at Victoria, now known as Limbe, in 1858.

While the Jamaicans and their British colleagues began by the estuary of Wouri and the midland bays opposite Fernando Po in the middle of the 19th century, American Presbyterian missionaries established their bases in the last quarter of the century along the South-Eastern coast and continued to what is now Spanish Guinean territory to Rio Muni. Both the Baptist and Presbyterian missionaries patterned their schools in line with existing institutions in their respective countries. The American Presbyterians were of professional backgrounds while the British and Jamaican Baptist missionaries were less educated, sub-professionals, and artisans and from small shopkeeper backgrounds (Vernon Jackson ,op.cit). The first language of instruction to be written down by the Baptist missionaries was Isubu in Bimbia and Douala (then spelt Duala) at nearby King Akwa's town across the Wouri estuary. Forty years later, the Presbyterians followed the same policies and pattern for language studies and literature production in the Bulu language at Balanga, about one hundred miles along the south east-coast. Children were being taught under the dwellings of the missionaries.

3.3.2: Cameroon Education under the German Days(1884-1914)

Long before 1884, the Germans had, in 1860 established their 'trading hulks' in the Wouri estuary opposite the Douala trading towns. The year 1884 saw the German annexation of Cameroon and the take-over of the British Baptist missionary Society stations by the German speaking representative of the Evangelical Missionary society of Basel mission. There was also the creation of a German government education department and government schools with German medium and cultural connections. The German protectorate period in Cameroon can be sub-divided into three periods:

(i) From 1884 to early 1890's
(ii) From Early 1890's to 1907
(iii) From 1907 to 1914\16

3.3.2(a): The first period (1884 - 1891).

The first German civil servant, an education officer for the territory, Theodore Christaller, arrived and opened Cameroon's first government schools. The schools were along the coast in Victoria, Douala, and Batanga. Agreements between the German government and the American Presbyterian missionaries as to the policy on the opening, conduct and medium of instruction in schools were concluded. The German Basel missionaries took over the English speaking Baptist missionary society's stations. Then there was also a split from the Basel mission to an independent Cameroonian Baptist community with its own chapels and schools.

3.3.2(b) : Second Period (Early 1890'S - 1907).

In October, 1890, the first Pallotiner mission to Cameroon led by Father Heinrich Vieter reached Douala. He later became the Catholic bishop in Cameroon. The Catholic missionaries began their own schools and established post-primary schools, vocational and technical schools. In 1894, the Engelbert Station was founded, together

with a girls' boarding school. By 1903 there were 136 boys and 32 girls at the school opened in Yaounde for the teaching and learning of catechism.

3.3.2(c): Third Period (1907 - 1914\16)

This period was characterised by increased official regulations on social, commercial and educational matters by the protectorate government

3.3.3 : THE PERIOD 1914-1945

This of course, includes the League of Nations mandate period. The Franco-British expeditionary forces occupied Douala in late September 1914, after the German withdrawal. Subsequently, Cameroon was divided into French and British sectors.

3.3.3(a): The League of Nations Mandate (French sector)

In 1922 there was the report from the French government which stressed the importance of establishing a government education department in Cameroon. The changes also brought about the replacement of German language by French. As a result, teachers were sent from France to teach in the schools there. Post- primary, `senior' or high schools were opened at the principal commercial port and administrative capital of Douala. Children over fourteen years of age were officially precluded from recognised primary schools and the age limit for admission into post primary schools was set at 18. The minimum qualification for teachers was the Brevet Elementaire and Diplome de Moniteur. For teaching assistants, pupil teachers undergoing in- service training, the `Certificat d'Etude Premières was required. The two-years course at the Ecole Superieur was followed by one year of specialisation. At the end of the third, successful candidates were awarded the Diplome d'Ecole Superieur.

3.3.3(b): The League of Nations Mandate (British Sector)

By 1914, there was a British government primary school at the town of Victoria now Limbe. There was also a government agricultural training school with a botanical garden at Bota near Victoria, and a government carpentry school at Buea, the former German administrative headquarters. A few mission schools existed in a dispersed pattern. The 1922 British report on the Southern Cameroon's described the subject of education as one of the greatest concern to the local administrators. Limited in expansion only by the lack of teachers, the provision was inadequate. During the period of this report, the British government primary schools were seven in number with 25 teachers and 570 registered pupils. The curriculum included reading, writing, arithmetic, nature study, physical education, and singing. They also included vocabulary building, colloquial English and encouragement for the use of vernaculars. A recommended list of textbooks by the Nigerian education department complemented the curriculum. St. Joseph's college, Sasse, the only secondary school at the time had progressed in academic levels to middle IV (secondary II) by 1941. Pupils were prepared for the Cambridge Overseas School Certificate examinations.

3.3.4 : The Trusteeship Period (1946 - 1960\61)

In the British sector, then known as the Southern Cameroons, primary education now required 8 years for graduation. The first four years were for the junior primary course and successful pupils were sent for the last four years to senior primary courses. There were two `grade III' teacher training centres owned by the missions situated at Bambui and Batibo and one `grade two' centre owned by the government, situated at Kumba. Saint Joseph's college Sasse, and the Cameroon Protestant College, Bali were the only secondary schools for boys. Later, Queen of the Rosary College at Okoyong in Mamfe and the Government Trade Centre at Ombe were opened for girls and boys respectively. Similar changes were also taking place in the French sector. By 1947, there were 144 government schools out of which 137 were primary, 5 secondary

and 2 technical schools. This was in sharp contrast to the 1,195 non- governmental schools, comprising of 1,188 primary, 3 senior primary, 2 secondary, and 2 technical schools (Ministere de la France 1947 :191). At the secondary level, Lycees, modelled on those of France were planned to prepare students for the same examinations as similar institutions back in France. Polytechnic colleges were to include commercial and technical divisions while higher and university education was to be provided in France.

3.3.5 : The French and English Colonial Education Policies

It is claimed that the educational system of Cameroon today is completely structured on the western model of its ex- colonial rulers. Forzie (1990) contends that the colonial masters attempted to subvert the Africans by claiming superiority of their own cultures, music, and above all their degree of civilisation. This situation arose because it was claimed that Africans had neither a culture, civilisation, nor beliefs of their own. Education in Africa was therefore declared to mean peasant agriculture (Brown, 1964). Ipaye (1969) remarked that: "They were educating the Africans to use their hands and heads to pursue their venture of maximising profits and exploitation was a task to be done in all haste". The Africans were forced to learn the western alphabets (A B C) in order to service their broad aims of colonisation while rejecting their own well developed tongues (Forzie, 1990). This was an instrument to reduce Africans to communicate effectively by speaking English and French. According to the educational philosophies of the colonial powers, only inferior jobs accompanied by low pay were to be given to the Cameroonians. This picture is clearly depicted in appendix G(note that it has not been possible to include the whole of the document). It indicates the job titles and salaries offered to Cameroonians in the 1949 fiscal year by the then British colonial rulers.

3.3.5(a): The British Colonial Educational Policy of 'Adaptation'

The British policy of education was aimed at producing Africans through the policy of adaptation of education to rural conditions and needs. It was the British aim

in African countries to educate Africans with the hope that they will eventually need self governing status: Brown (1975, 423),HMSO (1925). Gray commented on these policies:

> "Education should be adapted to the mentality, aptitudes, occupations and traditions of the various people, conserving as far as possible all sound and healthy elements in the fabric of their social life; adapting them where necessary to changed circumstances and progressive ideas as an agent of natural growth and evolution"(1965:46).

Many attempts were made in the various parts of the colonies to put the concept of adaptation into practice but it was doubtful whether or not it would achieve the expected success. The British colonial masters sought to administer this policy through the co-operation of local chiefs. Thus instructors were recruited to carry out initiation activities in the villages. This approach was highly welcomed by some enthusiastic elements as it embodied some traditional features in initiating local people into the western pattern of education. The training offered was made relevant to the local conditions and economic orientations of the society, though, experiments were still on a limited scale. Lewis remarked that;

> "It can not be claimed that the progress of educational adaptation might be applied every where, but it offers a starting point for educational development among communities whose local traditions are still alive"(1954 :58).

To ensure the success of this policy, traditional councils were involved in the organisation and administration of the schools.

3.3.5(b): French Colonial Educational Policy of 'Assimilation'

The French, unlike their British counterparts, aimed at producing Africans in blood and colour but French in intellect. The aim of their policy therefore, was to maintain Cameroonians' loyalty to France and the assurance of the French policy of nationalism. Such a policy was aimed at favouring the political independence of African countries, but still under the ambit of French control. The policy of Assimilation was expressly stated in a decree of May 1924 indicating that; The essential object of primary education is to draw the possible number of the indigenous people closer to us and to

familiarise them with our language, institutions and our methods, to lead them imperceptibly towards economic and social progress by prudent evolution of their own civilisation (Brown, 1975) .The French theory of assimilation assumed that all men are equal in intellect, irrespective of their racial origin or cultural background. Thus, the African child was worthy of citizenship in France, the same as the illiterate French peasant (Forzie, 1990). This policy also extended to the political sphere in the colonies, and explains why the colonies could send representatives to the mother political institutions in France. Crowder (1970) observed that the only disturbing issue was that; the representation was not proportionate to the population under their control as it existed in France.

The assimilation principle suppressed the political and social structures that were purely African. They replaced them with colonial structures, but the educational system was quite different from what existed in France. Through a gradual process, France insisted that within the framework of this policy, overseas territories should enjoy similar educational facilities as institutions in France. For example, in the nineteenth century, the French decided to put their philosophy into practice by providing schools which were identical to those in metropolitan France. At the completion of studies, Africans with proven abilities could eventually be admitted into French universities. France later on moved into a different direction by advocating the policy of `Association', when they discovered that the policy of `Assimilation' was encountering resistance in their overseas territories. This policy called for respect of local customs, religion and their attitudes. The recognition of cultural differences between the European children and those of the assimilated Africans led France into creating a unique school system for both children.

3.4: THE POST COLONIAL ERA

The colonial era as described above, ended in 1960 with the French Cameroon achieving her independence, but still maintaining the French educational system. In 1961, a United Nations (UN) referendum was held, which gave the British Cameroon

the option of joining Nigeria or the newly independent Republic of Cameroon. The result of the plebiscite was overwhelming and gave Southern Cameroons automatic independence and a unification that was achieved on October 1st 1961. The English speaking Cameroon like their French counterparts, also up-held to their British inherited system of education. According to article 5 of the Federal constitution, higher education and scientific research was the responsibility of the Federal government. This included secondary education and the national university. Primary education and associated teacher training was to be the responsibility of states or local governments. The referendum of 20th May 1972 which gave birth to the United Republic of Cameroon was a historic move towards the unification of the political, administrative and educational structures of the former Federal republic of Cameroon.

3.4.1.: General Educational Policy of Cameroon

For many years Cameroon has made a central issue of the development of its educational institutions. It sees education as an instrument for nation building. As a result, the state, the local communities and private individuals are actively involved in the establishment and management of schools The state's share in the provision of educational infrastructure is concerned with the creation and management of some educational institutions, the training of teachers, direct support to individuals through scholarship awards and tuition fees to students. It also encourages private promoters by subsidising standardised educational facilities (Ministry of Planning and Territorial Development, 1980). The question here is, what does Cameroon want to achieve in the domain of educational provision? In an analysis of this situation, and being a country with many tribes, the government sought to achieve the following objectives.

3.4.1(a): National Unity

In the historical colonial background of Cameroon, two cultures are manifested in its educational institutions: French and English. Many local languages are spoken in Cameroon as a result of the country's numerous ethnic groups (see appendix

F) but because it has been difficult to develop a common national language or a lingua franca. the country resorted to English and French as an instrument of uniting the nation. This task of national unity can only be achieved through a language policy in the educational system, because language is a vehicle for transmitting the society's values. This causes the government to face difficulties which are not experienced in the planning, but in the establishment and management of educational institutions. To achieve national unity, the government of Cameroon aims at harmonising educational programmes throughout the country. The government also believes that the fostering of bilingualism through its educational system will help suppress traditional and national divisions inherited from colonial powers, and thus help to achieve national unity (Yembe, 1988). As a strategy of achieving this, the Cameroon government currently encourages the use of French and English as the national languages, and the provision of civic education throughout the territory.

3.4.1(b): The Assertion of National Personality

The educational system and its institutions are used in Cameroon as agents for the promotion of national cultures and their recognition. It is the wish of the Cameroon government to maintain its cultural autonomy. This type of autonomy involves the refusal to allow foreign cultures to be perpetuated in the educational system.

> "Education should reject what is alienated, obsolete and superficial in foreign cultures. Such an attitude constitute a factor of national liberation'(Ministry of National Education, 1988)."

In this policy, the main concern is to strive for priority in promoting the country's variety of cultures. In fact, multiculturalism cannot be ignored in Cameroon, and it constitutes an enriching factor of national culture. Educational research aimed at increasing the mastery of a stable political, economic, social and cultural environment is encouraged. With this, the country seeks to achieve a national personality through its educational system and institutions.

3.4.1(c): Self-Reliant-Development

It is the policy of the Cameroon government that self-reliant-development can only be achieved through the reinforcement of this into its educational system. The Ministry of Education (1988:.4) emphasised that "Self-reliance development is the development of the people, by the people and for the people". The aim here is to develop Cameroonians by reinforcing mass technical and agricultural education but through the decentralisation and regionalisation of research institutes. This is also intended, through the training of employers/employees and senior officials, to meet administrative needs. So, the national policy for self-reliance aims at preparing through the educational process, self enterprising activities and administration of the state.

3.4.1(d): Development of Every Citizen

The development of individuals intellectually, physically, and psychologically are some of the ultimate goals of education in Cameroon and are principally the educational activities promoted by the state. The aim is to ensure that everyone is collectively participating in the development of the state. This goal is achieved through the democratisation of educational facilities. In this regard, the government has undertaken to ensure equal distribution of educational facilities. Cerychi (1968) believes that equity in educational facilities is a major problem for governments of developing countries. This crucial problem may be viewed from the standpoint of inadequate resources. Nonetheless, it is the aim of the Cameroonian government that every person wishing to be qualified by ability or educational attainment should be able to pursue education and have the facilities to do so (Gerald et al., 1973). The government's policy of making education accessible to everyone conforms to Rene's (1963) philosophy which asserts that the achievement of educational goals is essential to the fulfilment of economic development targets.

3.4.1(e): Training for Communal Liberalism

The education policy of the government of Cameroon intends to offer, promote, or accord approval to any form of training that is geared towards communal liberalism. This is a political and social philosophical concept which accepts any training that enables every citizen to recognise their liberty by respecting the laws of the state. Training for communal liberalism is geared towards the individual, freedom of enterprise, the need for solidarity and the recognition of the regulatory functions of the state (Ministry of National Education, 1988, p.5).

3.4.2: The Managerially Tripartite System

The notion of the tripartite system as used in this section differs in some ways from the tripartite system of secondary education in western Europe in general and Britain in particular. Its usage here refers to who owns and runs a particular set of schools, who has access to them and the different groups of students who attend these schools. The quality of educational input, management and efficiency differs in the managerially tripartite system of secondary educational establishments in Cameroon. Merit measured in educational terms has become the acceptable criterion of selection for virtually any sphere. Mbeng (1985) remarks that, `the realities of the adult world continues to make selection and allocation on the basis of competition a necessary evil'. He claims that, interviews after the Common Entrance examination do sometimes compound social class and ethnic prejudices for final admission to a particular set of secondary schools. This system without doubt presents some conflicts between the goals of equity and efficiency he concludes.

3.4.2(a): Government or state Secondary Schools

The government concern for secondary education as a public utility and an important tool for national development has led to the opening of many such related institutions. As a matter of policy, every divisional headquarters has at least one `full -cycle' secondary school. A notable feature of these schools is that they are non-fee

paying. Most of the students are day students. Like in France, education in Cameroo state secondary schools is secular, and does not include religious education as discipline within its curriculum. This situation differs from the British educationa policy which embedded religious education in accordance with its 1944 Education Act the only compulsory subject in British schools until the Act of 1988.

Government Secondary Schools in Cameroon are highly valued because o their staffing and the selection system. This fact however, remains to be tested rathe than assumed. Competition for admission is fierce and only pupils who pass the entrance examination into secondary schools in `List A' are admissible, following an interview. In theory, these colleges only admit the best `brains'; consequently, they have a record of academic excellence. For obvious reasons such as status of their parents in society, admission to these schools tends to favour children from the elite class background. It cannot be denied that these institutions have become the cause of rift and envy to those children who have less chances of entry.

3.4.2(b) : PRIVATE -Denominational Secondary Schools

Before independence, the few secondary schools in the anglophone sector of the country were owned and run by two religious denominations (Catholic and Protestant). A somewhat similar situation also existed in the Francophone sector. However, the status of these schools has been marginally reduced as compared to state-owned schools. Religious knowledge is a compulsory subject in their curriculum irrespective of its non-recognition by the government as an academic subject. These institutions are fee-paying, with subsidies from the government. About 90% of the students are boarders but with the current harsh economic situation prevailing in the country in the 1980s and 1990s, high tuition and boarding fees are matters of concern. The rejects from `List A' by the government schools, and those who pass in `List B' in the common entrance examination are eligible for interview and subsequent admission. An interesting fact is that, priority of admission into private denomination schools is sometimes given to pupils of that particular denomination. This fact shows a degree of

religious discrimination. Some of the teaching staff are missionaries from friendly churches in western Europe and the United States. Poor working conditions and low salaries cause instability among teaching staff.

However, church schools are credited with some of the best infrastructures discipline, and equipment in the country. Their management is the most effective in comparison to state owned schools. These may be some of the causes of the high performance and success levels in their final examinations. Elites who passed through these schools often maintain their interest and allegiance to the Missions and are committed to gaining admission for their children despite the tuition and boarding fees. Cooksey (1978:211) remarked that in English speaking Cameroon, it is these schools which dominate the secondary system as regards both status and results, and which continue a tradition of elitist fee- paying confessional education . In French speaking Cameroon however, similar schools exist in Douala, Makak, Libamba and elsewhere but they are increasingly overshadowed by the larger state Lycees in major towns'. Note should be taken that the situation has changed slightly since Cooksey did his research. The state owned schools have now overshadowed the church schools in the entire country. While church owned schools are being given higher status because of the good morals and good results as confirmed by Cooksey, the state owned schools are regarded as having high status, mainly because of their qualified teaching staff.

3.4.2(c): PRIVATE-Lay

The concept of lay private secondary schools in Cameroon is different from those in western Europe - particularly in Britain. Boyd and King (1972) observed that in most countries, private schools in the strict sense of the word, enrol a minute proportion of children who are regarded as being capable of doing more rigorous academic work. In Cameroon, the situation is completely the reverse, because these schools are classified lowest in the strata of secondary educational institutions. In theory, this category of schools admits the least talented pupils. Parents send their children here often only as a last resort. The general infrastructure and equipment is

poor, from the classroom to laboratory, library and book shops. Most of the teacher are unqualified and the poor working conditions and salaries worsen the situatio These conditions adversely multiply the inefficiencies and wastage in these schools Meanwhile as public demand for more secondary education continues to grow, mor and more of these schools are granted permission by the government to operate. On th other hand, some of these schools are being closed down for failure to meet th minimum required standards. Inspite of the hazards being encountered by thes schools, a few of them seem to be doing well judging from their performance at th external examinations, GCE, RSA, LCC and CAP for example.

3.5: THE ORGANISATION OF THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

The importance of having an overview of the whole Cameroonian educational system at this point cannot be overestimated. While some readers may find it inappropriate to discuss the whole system since the research is concerned mainly with secondary education; the writer considers this approach necessary for the following reasons:

(i) the process of education is sequential which makes it inappropriate to discuss one stage without having a glimpse at the others;

(ii) the process of education can be seen as that of production, and secondary education in this light may be regarded as the intermediate stage in the production process, as such depends on 'raw materials' provided by the primary level.

(iii) The tertiary level also relies on the products of the secondary stage of education as inputs or 'raw material'.

Consequently, secondary education cannot be discussed in isolation of the other levels of education. English is a medium of instruction in the Anglophone schools and French in the Francophone schools but bilingualism is highly encouraged and promoted in all schools. Education in Cameroon has three levels (see fig. 3.1. below)

3.5.1: Primary Level

3.5.1(a): Nursery Education

Nursery education is not yet popular in Cameroon and it is found mostly in the urban towns (Abangma 1989). It is still elitist, serving mainly the interests of children from socially and economically privileged backgrounds. Nursery schools offer two to three year courses for infants between the ages of 3 to 5, and the medium of instruction is French and English in the Francophone and Anglophone areas respectively. The children are usually taught simple numeracy in the language of instruction through rhymes and games.

3.5.1(b): Primary Education

The entry age into primary schools in the Anglophone provinces is from 5 years and the duration is 7 years, while in the Francophone provinces, the entry age is 6 years and the duration is 6 years. However, in many rural areas, many children start attending school when they are much older and sufficiently strong to walk to the nearest school. Therefore, the entry age may vary depending upon the location. There are two important examinations taken at the end of the final year of primary education.

(i) Government Competitive Entrance Examination into:-

- Secondary Grammar Schools.
- Secondary Technical / Commercial Schools.

(ii.) Government Certificate Examination to mark the successful completion of the primary education.

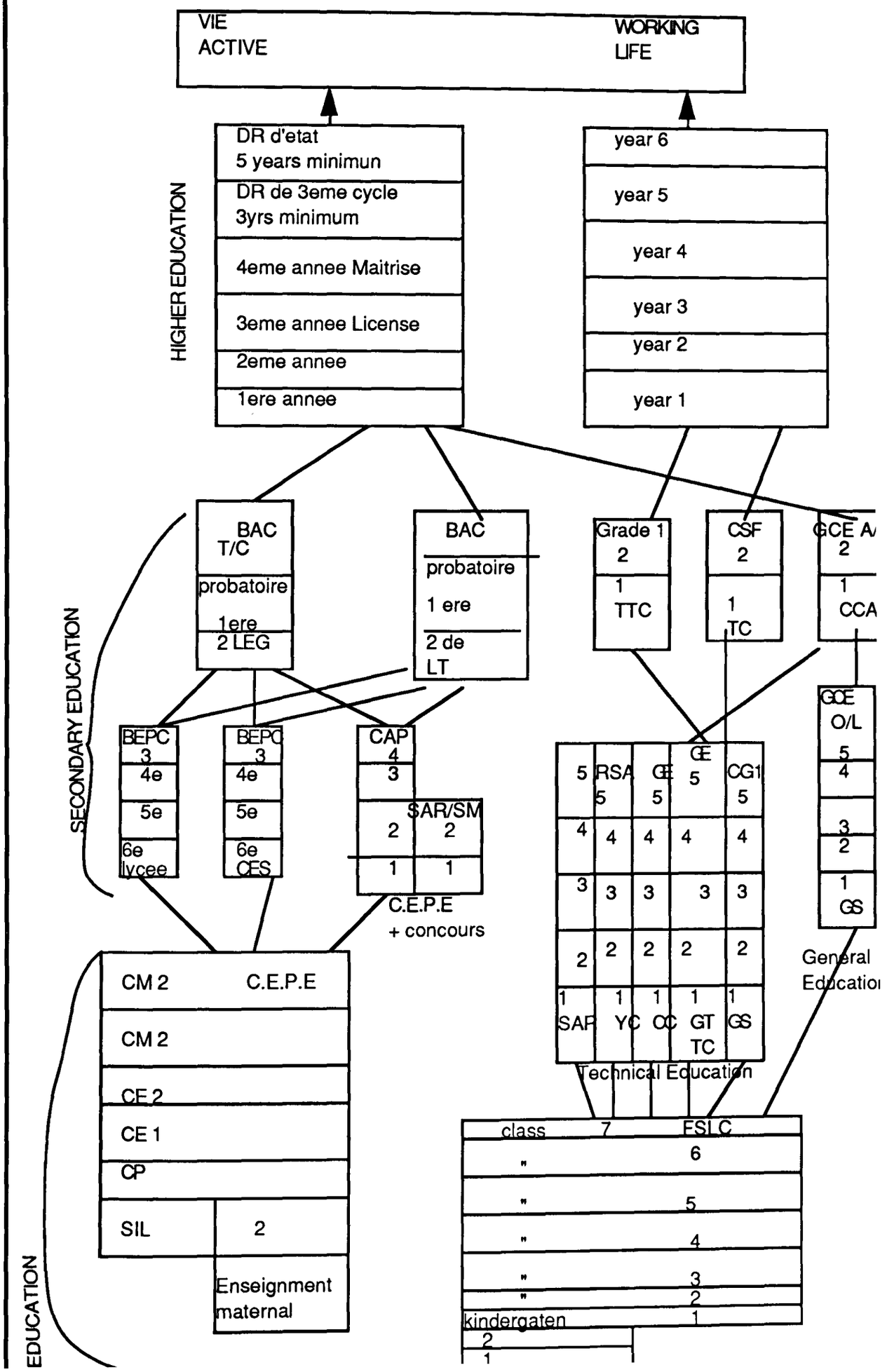
In the Anglophone and Francophone sectors, the certificate at the end of primary education course is known as the First School Leaving Certificate (FLSC) and Certificat D 'Etude Primaire Elementaire (CEPE) respectively. A significant number of teachers are neither academically qualified nor do they have sufficient professional training as indicated in the 5th Five Year Development Plan. Most primary school

leavers are employed as teachers in some schools but majority of teachers are secondar school leavers, and even drop-outs. For obvious reasons, the quality of primar education in Cameroon is low which is reflected in the high rate of drop-outs an repeaters. Consequently, most primary school leavers are not well prepared fo rigorous academic work in the secondary schools. This may be one of the reasons fo poor academic performances in secondary schools (Abangma, 1989 p.14).

Post-Primary Institutions

A small number of post-primary institutions exist all over the country fo vocational courses in such fields as: Agriculture, Carpentry, Bricklaying, Stenography Home craft and Home Economics. The duration varies from one to two years. Some like the Section Artisan Rurale (SAR) and Section Menangere (SM) are vocationa institutions run by the government; while some are run by churches and other private bodies. The skills learnt in these institutions are mainly practical and the graduates are expected to be self- employed, but because most of them lack the resources to do so, they are compelled to join the long queue of applicants for `white collar' jobs. Others, however, resort to a second chance of continuing with academic courses.

Fig. 3.1: ORGANISATION OF EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM IN CAMEROON.



3.5.2: The Secondary Level

3.5.2(a): Grammar Schools

In the Anglophone sector, the first cycle of secondary education lasts for 5 years and the criterion for entry into the second cycle is usually through success in the competitive entrance examination and a good pass in General Certificate of Education (G.C. E) ordinary level in at least 4 subjects with a suitable combination. The certificate examination at the end of the second cycle, which lasts for two years, is the G.C.E advanced level. On the other hand, Francophones have 4 years of first cycle secondary education and 3 years of the second cycle. At the end of the first cycle in francophone schools, the students sit for BREVE which is the equivalent of G.C.E ordinary level Successful candidates then proceed to the second cycle in which the first two years prepares them for the `Probatoire' examinations. This is an intermediate examination between 'BREVE' and the 'Baccalaureate' (BAC); whose equivalent is a pass in one G.C.E advanced level subject. Success in the Probatoire then leads the pupil to do a one year course in order to sit for the BAC.

3.5.2(b): Secondary Technical/Commercial Schools.

These schools includes :

(i) Collège D'Enseignment Technique (CETs);

(ii) Collège D'Enseignment Technique Industriel et Commercial (CETIC);

(iii) Lycées Techniques (LT).

The colleges of technical education which train pupils for 4 years after the First School Leaving Certificate (FSLC) includes specialities such as:

(i) Mechanical Engineering (Motor mechanics, Adjusting and Metal sheet etc).

(ii) Electrical Engineering (Electricity, Electronics, Air Conditioning etc.).

(iii) Social and Home Economics, Clothing.

(iv) Commercial and Administrative trades (Office employees, Typist and Book keepers etc.).

(v) Paramedics and Social Aid Workers.

Successful completion of the first cycle takes pupils to the second cycle which lasts 2 years, like their grammar school counterpart. At the end of the first two years of the second cycle, pupils have to sit for the Probatoire Technique; and then the BAC Technique in the last year as the final examination of the cycle.

Teacher Training at Secondary Level.

Teacher training forms a vital aspect of secondary education. In the past, teacher training institutions were being regarded as an inferior alternative to secondary grammar schools. In practice, most of the institutions served remedial functions in bringing on primary school leavers particularly in basic academic subjects and pedagogical skills. Teacher training, secondary level, constitutes:-

(i) ENIA / ENIAET: Trains Grade Two teachers for both general and technical education. The duration of the course is three years for holders of FSLC, and one year for holders of GCE ordinary level.

(ii) ENI / ENIET: Also trains grade One teachers for general and technical education. The course is open to holders of the teachers' grade two certificate, or G.C.E. advance level or it's equivalent.

3.5.3: Tertiary Level.

This refers to colleges of higher education and includes the University of Yaounde, other university centres and professional bodies. The admission requirement into the faculties or professional schools is at least 2 G.C.E advanced levels, the BAC, or BAC Technique in addition to a pass in the competitive entrance examination. Within the Tertiary level, there is also the Advance Teacher Training college (ENS / ENSET). More on the training colleges will be discussed latter.

3.6: EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION AND MANAGEMENT

The importance the government attaches to the education of its citizens has le to its supervision and distribution, supply, and organisation of education all over th country. The system of educational administration and management of education i under two ministries viz. :

(i) Ministry of National Education (MINEDUC) which is concerned with primary an secondary level;

(ii) Ministry of Higher Education, Computer Services and Scientific Researcl (MESIRES) which is concerned with education within the Tertiary level.

Cameroon operates a highly centralised system of educational administratior with posting and recruitment of teachers, authorisation and payment of salaries an disciplinary measures all being dealt with by the Ministry of National Education in Yaoundé and not at the provincial delegations of education (Cameron & Hurst, 1983). The Ministry is headed by a Minister, assisted by two Secretaries of states. Within the central administration, the Minister is being assisted by the secretary general, technical advisers, directors of various departments and chiefs of services who are assigned specific duties. In each of the 10 provinces, there is a provincial delegation headed by a delegate. Under the delegate there are Divisional Inspectors who are also assisted by sub- inspectors. There are also technical services within the provincial delegation and these are enforced by provincial inspectors in the various disciplines. Each primary school is headed by a head teacher; secondary schools and teacher training colleges by principals who and are all accountable to the provincial delegates, who in turn, report to the Minister.

3.7: SUMMARY

Going through this chapter we can summarise that education in Cameroon, like in most ex-colonies can roughly be identified as having passed through three

phases. The first being prior to colonisation. Kazzim (1990) refereed to this period a 'primitive accumulation' with the education provided mainly for economic survival an social cohesion among the various groups in the society. It was not focused o increasing the per capita income of the population or on providing opportunities fo individual social stability rather than in producing social change. The next phase whic was during colonisation was first directed to exploit the wealth of the colonies an provide for the excess population of Europe. In the words of Maunier (1949:290):

> "the object was to establish 'colonies of exploitation' and 'colonies of settlement and exploitation'".

To achieve this, they educated or socialised a few of the local population to accep values and beliefs of the coloniser including the assumption of their superiority (Kazim 1990). Lloyd (1967) pointed out in referring to Africa that the official aim of the colonisers was to produce some employees to staff the growing bureaucracies and provide a cultural bridge between the expatriates and the African masses. In latter part of the colonial expansion, the ability of the colonised to purchase products from the metropole also became an important concern. The last phase which is the post-colonial period gradually adopted the policy of mass education. The previous discussions reveal that at any point in time the notion of breadth, balance, and relevant are embodied in the content of what has to be studied, and that good organisation and administration are crucial in achieving such concepts. While in the formal schooling, administration is in the hands of officials appointed by the Minister, the colonial masters involved traditional councils in the organisation and administration of schools to ensure the success of their policy.

Finally, the Anglophone and Francophone systems have been treated as one for the purpose of this study because the broad policy of education as seen in 3.4.1, are meant to serve the two sectors. Besides, if Cameroonians strive for harmonisation as is expressed, then there is every reason to treat the two systems as one.

CHAPTER FOUR

THE SECONDARY SCHOOL CURRICULUM IN CAMEROON

4.1: INTRODUCTION

Though this chapter may discuss more the contemporary secondary school curriculum, it is worth noting that the process of passing on to the next generation the knowledge, skills and attitudes that are universally recognised as being of most worth to the members of the society was also the concern of the colonial masters. The 1922 and 1924 commissions founded by the Phelps Stokes Foundation of the United States which were invited to report and make recommendations on education for Eastern, west, Southern and Equatorial Africa of which Cameroon is one of them, strongly argued the case for relating education more to the needs of the local communities. This was to enable the youngsters after attending school not to try to move elsewhere in search of jobs but would instead try to fill the shoes of their parents (Hailey, 1938). In addition to agriculture, subjects like crafts, health, hygiene and home improvement were offered in schools with academic subjects related to the 'living consciousness' of the population which meant that the arithmetic which was thought was to be relevant for farmers and the teaching of vernacular language stressed (Kazim Bacchus, 1990). The reports which formed the basis of the 1925 Education policy in British Tropical Africa stated that the education provided for Africans should be adapted to the mentality, aptitudes, occupations and the traditions of the [Africans] ----, conserving as far as possible all sound and healthy elements in the fabric of their social life-----. It's aim should be to render the individual more efficient in his or her condition of life, whatever it might be, and to promote the advancement of the community as a whole(Govt. of G.B. 1925).

This brief description and what has been discussed in chapter 3, gives an indication of what the colonial masters saw as a broad, balanced and relevant

curriculum. Though their ideas could be described by some as exploitation, a careful understanding of what they did shows that they had a firm grip of the nature of the economy and related their curricular to the situation as it existed. As kazim commented;

> "The colonisers were always aware of the potential danger of having the output from school reaching a point where there might be more educated individuals than the number of lower level jobs available for them"(1990:293).

To prevent such a development, the colonial authorities severely limited their educational expenditures and stressed the need for the type of education that would de-emphasise the preparation of students for these few white collar jobs. As a result they resorted to making the school the means of improving the condition of the peasantry, by teaching them how health may be preserved by proper diet, cleanliness, ventilation and to give a practical training in household economy.

There is apparently the claim that the contemporary curriculum in Cameroon is broad, balanced and relevant as was revealed by Abangma (1989) in one of her interviews with an official. The intricacies surrounding such a claim are difficult to be analysed especially in a country such as Cameroon where the curriculum is more like a secret garden where no one except ministry officials has access to it. In a situation such as this, it is difficult if not impossible to assess it. However, through the pupils questionnaire and my discussion with some officials, some valuable judgements can be made. Not withstanding the secret nature of the system, there is a general assumption that education should aim at providing the children with skills, knowledge and understanding which at the secondary school level is done through two types of school - grammar and technical school(see chapter 3).The two types of school certainly operate two different kinds of curricula both with the intention of providing a broad, balanced and relevant curriculum. The extent to this claim will depend on what is acceptable as broad, balanced and relevant curriculum.

However, Mbeng 1985 had this to say:

> "In recent years, schools - particularly secondary and higher institutions have been under attack for failing to deliver the knowledge and skills needed by the society" (p.54)

In one of the writer's interviews, an official claimed that the educational system is generating what I may call 'qualification inflation'. This chapter therefore is intended to present a vivid description of the secondary school curriculum from a number of perspectives ____ pupil's perception of the curriculum through the analysis of the questionnaire, educational policy, resources, methodology, etc. will constitute the main sources of knowledge upon which it will be possible to measure the breadth, balance and relevance of the curriculum.

4.2: THE TERM 'CURRICULUM' IN THE CAMEROONIAN CONTEXT

The concept 'school curriculum' is difficult to define. The term is used in two senses - a restricted and a broad one. In its restricted meaning it denotes the outline of syllabi and topics to be taught. In it's broad sense, it includes all activities that go on within the school environment. The Cameroonian view of curriculum is narrow. In one of the writer's interviewees, an official had this to say:

> "the notion of the curriculum is strange to most of us; we are familiar with the word syllabus which in this way refers to the content to be taught."

Whatever it is called, be it 'syllabus' or 'curriculum' it should be noted that the school programme requires more than just specifying new or revised content. Objectives, teaching methods and learning materials are equally important; and the list of topics to be taught form only one part of the total school curriculum. Since in practice therefore, curriculum in Cameroon means the prescribed subjects to be taught, all of which are included in the syllabi and text-books, in the literature relating to Cameroon, the word curriculum will be used in place of syllabus.

The term core curriculum and non-core curriculum are not used in Cameroon. However, there is evidence that certain subjects are given greater prominence than others. In the Anglophone system, the more prominent subjects are made obligatory, for example, Mathematics, English and French have to be studied for the full five years and must be entered for the GCE ordinary level examination. The less prominent subjects are usually optionally chosen as from form four. The Francophone system deals with the matter slightly differently. The more prominent subjects are given more hours in teaching time and a higher coefficient in the examination. As regards the coefficient system, each subject is marked out of 20 and then multiplied by the coefficient assigned to it. In the first cycle of secondary school, subjects like mathematics, English and French have a coefficient of 5 while others such as natural science, history, geography may have a coefficient of 2. In the second cycle, the coefficient assigned to the subject depends on the series or group subjects in which it belongs. For example, English for serie A or literary series is coefficient 5 while English for serie C or the mathematics series is coefficient 2. Similarly, mathematics for serie A is coefficient 1 while mathematics for serie C is coefficient 5. It is clear that in the group subject system of the Francophone, subjects with the highest coefficient represent the core subjects in the National Curriculum in England and Wales.

4.3: CURRICULUM TRADITIONS

The concept of the secondary school curriculum today is different from that of the former colonial rulers. In the colonial times, the curriculum was intended to create a cadre of administrative and clerical assistants to support their colonial masters. The present curriculum is intended to expand and enable education to get to the mass of the people, thus giving opportunities for more of them to get into higher education. The curriculum in Cameroon, be it pre-colonial or post-colonial is similar to that of the western type. Like the English curriculum, it reflects the occupational destinations of their clienteles. Hence, the grammar schools aimed at

preparing pupils for higher institutions and the technical schools at preparing pupils for working life. As is apparent from chapter 3, this tradition is as a result of the colonial legacy of both the British and the French. Until late, such a distinction gave a higher value to the grammar school curriculum than the technical school curriculum.

Though there has been little or no discussions about curriculum matters in Cameroon especially at the secondary level, an analysis of its educational system provides us with a basis on which we can classify the traditions. On that basis, we can therefore classify them under the labels of 'elitist' and 'utilitarian' curriculum.

4.3.1: Elitist Curriculum:

Educational systems, particularly the secondary and tertiary sectors, are seen by many critics as creating and perpetuating social stratification, thus dividing the society between the poor and the rich, the servant and the master, and the weak and the powerful. The earning differentials associated with education are developed excessively in developing countries where qualifications (i.e. certification) is seen as a ladder to upward social mobility. Such a situation helps to create the growing social distance between the elites and the masses. In the words of Thompson :

> "those who are successful in school and obtain positions of privilege and influence are inclined to feel that it is only right that they should have been rewarded in this manner"(1981 : 48).

Ivan Illich's (1981:39) view on schooling and social classification, revealed that this hidden curriculum of schooling inevitably adds prejudice and even quilt to the discrimination which a society practices against some of its members, and compounds the privilege of others with a new title based on educational achievement.

The elitist curriculum in Cameroon therefore is associated with the grammar schools. For teaching in the grammar schools is geared to the examination system which is seen as being of a higher value and closely tied to the university. The elitist

nature of this curriculum is not only seen from the subjects offered in the school but also from the selection procedure. Foster talks of selection as:

> "by selection we mean the rubrics governing what proportion of primary school pupils will be allowed to precede to secondary schooling and consequences of these procedures as they are reflected in the socio -economic another characteristics of the student population"(1969 : 79)

In the anglophone sector of Cameroon, selection into grammar schools is through the government common entrance examination. Successful candidates are placed in the grammar schools which may be either private or public. Mbeng (1985) remarks that although the elite classes constitute a minority of the population in Cameroon compared to the rural masses and the slum-dwellers, the percentage representation of their children in the elite secondary schools, particularly the government ones is more. He attributes this to the socio-economic power of the parents which places their children in advantageous positions for passing the entrance examination and through the rest of the selection process with ease. Besides, Mbeng argues further that some of these parents use the 'old-school tie' links in order to gain admissions for their children. There is no doubt that the children of the poor attend low status secondary schools and 'dead-end' post-primary vocational institutions.

In the francophone sector of Cameroon, on the contrary, there is no centrally-set competitive examination for selection in to secondary schools. Each school conducts its own examination in its own catchment area. While admitting that no system is perfect in its selection process, there is a lot to be desired in the francophone system. More to selection, there is the recruitment of people in the public service. It is an indisputable (though not possible to verify exactly) fact that those holding high positions come from grammar schools. Besides, the organisation of the public service which is based on qualification alone, provides a young graduate to be placed in category 'A', whereas a technician might remain in category 'B' or 'C' for life. The openings also into higher education, which leads to a high position in society, are to the advantage of those in grammar schools. Worse of it, the scholarship programmes that provide opportunities to study abroad for

people with advanced level from grammar schools, do not provide such opportunities for their counterparts from technical schools. Nonetheless, the elitist curriculum is prevalent in the both anglophone and francophone sectors.

4.3.2. Utilitarian Curriculum

The utilitarian curriculum is linked more to pupils in technical schools and the Rural Artisan Schools (SARs) who are tracked to immediate to work. But arguments have been advanced as to whether or not these schools do actually serve the purposes for which they are intended. Ayuk-Arrey had argued thus:

> "While as an example, the SAR/SM programme was initiated by ministerial secular to help in the development of the rural area, one would have expected the implementation of these institutions to be in the rural area than urban centres"(1980:4)

Although technical and vocational schools may be thought of as not fulfilling the purpose which they were set up to achieve (Forzie, 1990), this problem is said to be particularly acute in the anglophone than in the francophone sector. Fandio and Tchombe commenting on the poor development of technical and vocational educational provision in anglophone Cameroon had this to say:

> "Unfortunately, education in the anglophone sector has failed to accord anything approaching equivalent status to technical studies, which continue to have less prestige and lead to supposedly 'inferior' qualifications like RSA and City and guilds awards: this in turn mean that not only do technical subjects and those who teach them rank as second class citizens in the educational rankings, they also ensure that those qualified in these areas are seen as less qualified than their francophone counterparts. This led in many cases to a strong sense of inferiority in the anglophone sector------- and to a fear of domination by the more fully developed technical education system"(1988 : 6).

The utilitarian curriculum that existed during the French colonial rule in the francophone sector of cameroon consisted of three levels:

(i) At the higher level of the echelon were the training schools for technicians to work in industrialised areas;

(ii) vocational schools affiliated to departments for workers needing upgrading of their skills for employment in government departments. These have remained a

landmark on the technical and vocational educational system in Cameroon. Examinations are established to recruit and train future workers for government departments (MINUDUC :84);

(iii) at the lower level were vocational schools known as rural artisans training centres for the training in rural crafts.

However, the curriculum of technical schools, though described as utilitarian, also provides the pupils with opportunities in general education while catering for technical subjects.

4.4: THE CURRICULUM IN CONTEXT

Despite the fact that awareness of curricular issues is very limited, many people have firm ideas of what they expect the school to offer for their children and a number of criticisms have begun to be heard, especially of late. The fact that the misgivings about the curricula may not be expressed in educational or psychological jargon in no way invalidates the depth of their perception. The concern has been that of subsequent unemployment amongst the young people, lack of resources, administrative inefficiency and pedagogic inadequacy. Cignet and Haupt (1979), in their study on the educational situation in Cameroon revealed powerful evidence that there was inefficiency and wastage in Cameroon secondary schools. Mbeng gave his reaction to such a situation that:

> "-----is that a high percentage of the education budget is used for paying teachers' salaries and administrative costs. As a result, the provision of vital teaching resources in the schools apparently is neglected"(1985:42)

From the analysis of the writer's interviews and discussions with some officials in Cameroon, more than 60% pointed out that their curriculum has been static and needs a change. They felt that the secondary school curriculum in Cameroon is irrelevant because it has not been adapted to suit the demands of the labour market. Above all, they were some who hold the opinion that there should be harmonisation of the curriculum (a long standing problem which up till the

moment of writing, no solution has been sought). Shu examined this situation and remarked as follows:

> "until harmonisation is accomplished, the two systems will remain and it will not be possible to talk about a Cameroonain system of education"(1982 :41).

Not withstanding this lack of harmonisation, Cameroon is still said to have a National Curriculum (NC). So the main issue to be addressed in this thesis is what then do we consider as a NC? The extent to what is considered a NC will depend on the interpretations accorded it. If a NC means:

(i) Uniformity as suggested by some commentators;

(ii) agreeing upon the composition of knowledge as in England & Wales;

Then Cameroon may be said not to having a NC. But the mere fact that the curriculum in Cameroon is not school-based and springs from the centre, qualifies it to be called a NC.

Many of the criticisms of the Cameroonian system of education, are therefore criticisms that are typical of most African countries: a bias towards academic and a prejudice against vocational content; centralised planning which limits participation; and reliance on foreign inputs in terms of material and personnel.

4.5: CURRICULUM INITIATIVES.

As a result of post-independence educational crises, the need for retraining of teachers and a general reform of the educational system in Cameroon were obviously needed. Peculiar problems at all levels of the educational system emerged such as : inadequate training of teachers; under qualification of other state personnel in education; a low level of knowledge, skills and ideas on the culture of Cameroon and general curriculum issues; above all, the lack of adaptation of education to rural conditions. The government of Cameroon decided to eradicate these problems by:

(i) Preparing children with suitable abilities for continuation to secondary education;

(ii) preparing those with less opportunities for higher education to integrate themselves into the society and become useful instruments for the achievement of economic development.

Since Cameroon is 80% an agrarian state, the concept of reform was initially centred on the training of teachers with rural - based skills. The assistance of the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) was sought to establish the Rural Oriented Teacher Training Institute (ENIR) in Yaounde which became operational in 1967 and subsequently changed to be the Institute of Rural Oriented Pedagogy (IPAR). IPAR is supposed to be basically a centre for curriculum development for primary schools. There are two such institutes; one in the francophone and the other in the anglophone sector. IPAR has as one of it's objectives to train teachers who will give children the sort of education that will make it possible for them to have a better life after the primary school course. They lead the children to experiment and handle real issues thereby learning by doing. Although, at the time of the study, IPAR had ceased to train teachers, it still conducts INSET. The institute also provides in-service training for all its staff and in addition, sends its staff abroad for research training, evaluation, professional and academic up-dating sometimes with the aid of foreign governments through the approval of Cameroon government.

Various teaching aids/new materials are developed to accompany the teachers' guide in all subjects on the school time - table. The intention is not to produce and supply schools with curricula materials, but to show schools what can be done using local materials. Interestingly, in one of the writer's discussions , a school official remarked that the ministry of education would prefer to recommend books written by private authors than those written by the researchers in the centre to be used in the schools.

Thoughts of linking of the ruralisation concept of primary education to the whole educational system was seen as of paramount importance. This will create a forum for continuity of school leavers if such targeted strategies for reform of primary education are incorporated into secondary general, technical and higher education. The search for resources became a major problem. As a result of this, the Cameroon government in 1971, made a draft request to the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) to set up the Institute of National Education. This body which was created in 1974, was charged with the reconstruction of the anglophone and francophone systems of education into an integrated system to be styled Cameroon Educational System. As a higher national reform body, it was charged with the task of co-ordinating the work of the two lower institutes for the reform of primary education in the anglophone and francophone provinces to ensure conformity in the further educational advancement of pupils.

For a considerable number of years, educational reforms in Cameroon had failed to be effective. The government did not foresee early enough the implications of trying to merge two educational systems with two different colonial legacies. The major controversy that emerged and distorted the success of this innovation is the claim of both sectors that their cultural heritage is superior to the other. Certainly, the reforms have failed, they have failed at the level of secondary education, where very little or nothing has been carried out by CNE, whereas at the primary level, IPAR has undertaken several projects which have gone right through the dissemination stage.

4.5: NEGOTIATING THE CURRICULUM IN CAMEROON.

It is more difficult to determine the levels at which the curriculum is negotiated in Cameroon if the conditions put forth by Weston (1979 :42) have to be taken in to consideration. This does not mean that no negotiation is taking place. Negotiating the curriculum in Cameroon is in the form of pre-arranged bargaining

session by the 'specialist' at the national level. During the writer's field research in Cameroon, a professional had this to say:

> "we have quite alot of things going on in our system; the most serious and annoying is this question of some people who call themselves specialist, but who in the real sense of the word are not, but yet decide for us what has to be done in the classroom".(Interviewed on the 16th April, 1991)

Then there was another comment:

> "Most of this people have been out of touch with the pupils and can not possibly determine what should be implemented a classroom situation which they have only visual memories"(Interviewed on 27th February, 1991).

Another official had this to say:

> "There are times when they pretend to get our views but when the final decisions are made, our views are left out".(Interviewed on the 14th March, 1991)

Candlin (1984) and Breen (1984) both hold the idea that syllabuses which are designed before the teacher enters the classroom constitute an imposition on those who should have more to say about its design. Prospective syllabuses in their view are conceived as instruments to make those directly involved in the learning process conform to the status quo. To them, if syllabuses as educational instruments are to challenge the established order, they have to be negotiated in the classroom between the teacher and pupils. In this view, syllabuses, are restricted to a retrospective role since they constitute the teachers' record of what happened in the classroom.

While the writer agrees in this thesis that negotiation should take place within the parties concerned, she does not accept the idea that syllabuses or curricula should challenge the established order. Using the word 'challenged', makes it a more political than academic issue. furthermore, on practical grounds, a negotiable syllabus in which both content and methodology are decided in the classroom seems to be impossible. Firstly, teaching in general, would make it very difficult for teachers to accept such a syllabus. This type of syllabus would place demands on the average teacher which cannot be realised. It may generate a state of

insecurity among teachers and students. Secondly, there are practical considerations such as time constraints, discipline problems and formal final examinations . These cannot be disregarded and may make the use of a totally negotiable syllabus at such level unfeasible.

Lopes does not in any way consider negotiation at the classroom level:

> "If teachers operate from a prospective syllabus of whatever theoretical orientation, they are more likely to perceive what went wrong than if they work in total darkness at the sole mercy of content and methodology negotiated in the classroom".(1986 : 143)

Bacon (quoted in Kuhn, 1970 : 18) has also pointed out that: "Truth emerges more readily from error than from confusion".

4.6.1. Style of Curriculum Development in Cameroon.

Cameroon adopts the top-down approach to curriculum development. A point worthy of note is that the Minister of Education has overall responsibility for the curriculum development, curriculum control and the administration of technical and vocational schools. He has under his administration a trained cadre of inspectors to whom he delegates his curriculum duties. Forzie (1990) remarked that the Minister of education is responsible for their acts within the ministry, and to the public and above all to the politicians. The system takes an authoritarian approach, and views concerning any change can only be incorporated through direct suggestions to the Minister of Education. The system of education in Cameroon, like that of most countries, is bound up with the political system, such that any attempt by the Minister to effect changes to the system are likely to become political issues. The curriculum implementation is somehow one-sided, as classroom feedback is seldom incorporated into the curriculum development process.

4.6.2. The System of Curriculum Control

The control of curriculum is the task of the Minister of Education who executes this through his team of inspectors. When a curriculum is developed and endorsed, it becomes a binding document to all schools, teachers and parents. The curriculum guidelines indicate: the content to be taught; recommended teaching method; amount to be covered each week and possibly even at what time. This makes the curriculum control too rigid. The control is sometimes exercised through external examinations which are set and marked according to prescribed curriculum guidelines. This pattern of control places many constraints on the teacher and thus gives little room for manoeuvre of the curriculum guidelines during classroom teaching, marking and grading of examinations. Becher and Stuart (1974) have remarked that such a rigid control is a feature of French curriculum development, where people believe that the Minister of Education at any one moment of time knows precisely where all French pupils have reached on a particular page in a standard text-book, though this itself has always been somewhat mythical.

4.6.3. The Classroom Setting

The average Cameroonain school contains no more than what is basic for the teaching/learning situation; that is to say, pupils' chairs and tables, teacher's chair and table, a blackboard, a duster and chalk, with neither apparatus on the wall nor audio-visual aids. Such a situation is however typical of developing countries. Lopes (1986) in his study of the Brazilian school gives typical examples of this type of situation. The number of pupils per class ranges from 45 to 50. And in some schools, the numbers may exceed 50 in a class. In questioning why such a situation exists, a head teacher the writer interviewed had this to say:

> "the government regulation states that the classes should not be overcrowded; but quite often after the recruitment procedure is over, there is a lot of pressure on us to accept pupils we had initially turned down because they did not fulfil the selection requirements. Well in such circumstances we are obliged to admit the pupils".(Interviewed on the 13th February, 1991)

4.6.4. Mode of Instruction and Timetable .

The large number of pupils in the class does not permit of individualised teaching. Therefore, the usual mode of instruction is teacher-centred, as most of the time the teacher addresses the class as a group and all the attention of the class is focused on him. As regards, time allotted to various subjects, most of the lessons are single periods with an average 45 minutes duration and just a few double periods.

4.6.5. Performance and Achievement.

Examinations are part of institutionalised systems of education in most part of the world. Some examinations are for promotion to the next class at the end of the academic year, and some are for the award of certificates at the end of one stage in the system. Such is the situation in Cameroon. Parents and pupils see examinations as opening the way to more education and better jobs. Employers see them as giving some indication of whom to employ and what such employees will know. Examiners on the other hand, see them as testing knowledge, understanding, power of reasoning, originality and so on. Teachers may see examinations as offering powerful incentives for learning. Such are the reasons why examinations will continue to be dominant within the educational system in Cameroon.

Furthermore, besides being a measure of achievement and selection, examinations are incentives which may persuade indolent pupils to more strenuous effort through evaluation as an indicator of performance and achievement. The internal assessment and grading style of the curriculum differs in the various disciplines. All subjects are rated according to the degree of their official importance in the curriculum. A highly rated subject can be interpreted as one in which more emphasis should be placed in its teaching, as in the case of the core subjects (English, French and Mathematics) in grammar schools. In technical schools,

emphasis is placed in both the core and the area of speciality. For example, if a pupil intends to graduate as a shorthand typist, shorthand and typewriting will be rated highly as well as the core subjects by attaching a high coefficient of weighting to these two subjects.

Promotion:

Repetition is a common phenomenon in the Cameroon secondary schools. Promotion to the next class is not automatic. The weakest pupils face summary dismissal, the weaker ones repeat, whilst successful pupils are promoted. The results of the test at the end of the first and second terms, and the examination at the end of the third term, determine the child's fate for promotion or repetition. The ascent to a new class is therefore placed upon the progressive 'weeding out' of the academically poorer pupils. Conversely, the emphasis attached to educational liberty leads not only the least- talented but also the most deprived pupils to drop out or be eliminated at the end of the academic year. Mbeng (1985) noted that out of a class of 50 admitted in year 1, less than 35 sometimes reach the fifth year to take the general certificate of education (GCE) at the ordinary level.

4.6.6: Type of Syllabus and Text-books.

Teaching in Cameroonian secondary schools follows a structured syllabus, which is based on what is sent from the Ministry of Education and the text-books adopted. Despite the fact that in general terms, the official guidelines do not seem to recommend any particular kind of methodology, some teachers (through discussions) claimed the use of insights from different teaching approaches. The extent to which such claims can be accepted requires a further research. The text-books prescribed by the Ministry officials are adopted by all teachers, as they contain the syllabus the teacher usually follows. Teaching is very text-book oriented. This creates a situation where teachers tend to cover the contents in the book without taking into account whether or not pupils have understood the lesson.

4.7: STATISTICAL ANALYSIS OF PUPIL'S QUESTIONNAIRE.

In order to gain additional information about the Cameroon curriculum at secondary level and subject it to scrutiny, the writer undertook a piece of empirical work in a number of schools. After a general review of the curricula, it becomes necessary to analyse the pupil's questionnaires because not only will the analysis form a primary source of information in the study but also because the questionnaires are carefully framed to determine the extent of the breadth, balance and relevant of the curriculum. The empirical findings are presented at the critical value of P = <.05 level of significance. The analysis will be judged upon and will also reflect the average number of subjects offered in technical and grammar schools - 11 for technical and 9 for grammar schools.

4.7.1 :Whether lessons are done out of school.

Table 4.1 Contingency table showing observed and Expected frequencies of lessons done out of school.

Type of school	Response Category.		
	Yes	No	Total
Technical	114 92.5*	86 107.5*	200
Grammar	71 92.5*	129 107.5*	200
Total	185	215	N=400

X^2=18.8; df= 1;
P at < .05
C = 0.21
* Expected Frequencies

The null-hypothesis in table 4.1 was rejected since a significant chi-square value of 3.84 at 5% probability level indicates a significant differences between the type of school attended by the respondents and their responses. Considering the fact that the average number of subjects in technical schools is 11 as opposed to 9 in grammar schools, one would have expected a high percentage of the pupils to fall under the category of 'NO'. But the analysis revealed that 57% of the technical school pupils took lessons outside school while 64.5% in grammar schools did not.

4.7.2: Subjects done outside school environment

Table 4.2: Relationship between Type of School and the subjects studied out of School

Type of School	Subject Category					
	vocat.	Science	Arts	Lang.	Others	Total
Technical	51 34.3*	26 38.5*	8 15.4*	5 5.5*	13 9.5	103
Grammar	7 23.7*	39 26.5*	18 10.6*	4 3.7*	3 6.5*	71
Total	58	65	26	9	16	N=174

$X^2 = 38.4$: df = 4;

P at $< .05$

C =.42

*Expected frequencies

The significant X^2 in table 4.2 reveals a positive relationship between the type of school and the kind of extra-curricula subjects studied. Consequently, the null-hypothesis (Ho) which assumes no relationship has been rejected. Analysis of data in table 4.2. shows that in the technical schools 49.5% of the subjects were vocational while in grammar schools 55% were sciences.

Table 4.3: Overall % ranking of extra-curricula subjects offered.

Subjects	N	%	Rank
vocational	58	33.3	2
sciences	65	37.3	1
arts	26	15	3
languages	9	5.2	5
others	16	9.2	4
Total	174	100	

From table 4.3. above, the following facts can be noted.

(i) Science subjects occupy the first place in the rank-order of subjects with 37.3%;

(ii) Vocational subjects are ranked second place with 33.3%;

(iii) Arts occupy third position with 15%;

(iv) Others occupy fourth place with 9.2%;

(v) Languages take the last position with 5.2%.

4.7.3: Favourite Subjects.

Table 4.4: Relationship between Type 0f School and Pupil's Preferred subjects

Type of School	Subject Category					
	voc.	science	arts	lan.	others	total
Technical	100 71*	50 65.5*	20 32*	20 23*	8 6.5*	196
Grammar	42 71*	81 6.5*	44 32*	26 23*	5 6.5*	196
Total	142	131	64	46	13	N=396

*Expected frequencies

$X^2 = 41.4.1$; df=4;

P at $< .05$

C =.30

The X^2 in table 4.4 revealed a significant relationship between the type of school and pupil's subject preferences. 51% of the favourite subjects of the technical pupils are vocational subjects while 41.3 of the grammar school pupils prefer sciences.

Table 4.5: Overall % ranking of Preferred Subjects in both Schools.

Subjects	N	%	Rank
vocational	142	35.8	1
sciences	131	33.1	2
arts	64	16.2	3
languages	46	11.6	4
others	13	3.3	5
Total	396	100	

Table 4.5 indicates the following:

(i) Vocational subjects are ranked first with 35.8%';

(ii) sciences occupy second place with 33.1%;

(iii) arts are ranked in third position with 16.2%;

(iv) languages are placed in fourth position with 11.6% , and finally;

(v) Others are placed in the last position with 3.3%.

The result of this table should be treated with caution, for the simple reason that the number of technical school pupils offering vocational subjects, is far grater than that of the grammar school pupils offering sciences.

4.7.4: Reasons for subjects preferred

Table 4.6a: Relationship between type of subject and reasons for subjects preferences by technical school pupils

Subject category	Reasons for subject preferences		Total
	Teaching Style	Career Aspiration	
vocational	19 31.1*	65 52.9*	84
sciences	18 15.9*	25 27.1*	43
arts	10 5.9*	6 10.1*	16
languages	10 3.7*	15 9.4*	25
others	11 4.1*	5 10.1*	16
Total	68	116	N=184

* Expected Frequencies

X^2 =40.7; df=4;

$P < 0.05$

C =.42

Table 4.6b: Relationship between type of Subject and reasons for subjects preferences by grammar school pupils.

Subject category	Reasons for subject Preferences		Total
	Teaching Style	Career Aspiration	
vocational	11 9*	6 8*	17
sciences	51 53.6*	50 47.4*	101
arts	15 20.2*	23 17.8	38
languages	17 12.7*	7 11.2*	24
others	9 7.4*	5 6.5*	14
Total	103	91	N=194

* Expected Frequencies

X^2 = 7.5; df=4;

P < .05 =9.49

C =..19

Table 4.7: Overall relationship between subject type and reasons for subject preferences by pupils in both technical and grammar schools.

Type of School	Subject Category	Reasons for Preference		Total
		Teaching Style	Career	
Technical	Vocational	19 38*	65 46*	84
	Sciences	18 19.4*	25 23.5*	43
	Arts	10 7.2*	6 8.8*	16
	Languages	10 11.3*	15 13.7*	25
	Others	11 7.2*	5 8.8*	16
Grammar	Vocational	11 7.7*	6 9.3*	17
	sciences	51 45.7*	50 55.3*	101
	Arts	15 17.2*	23 20.8	38
	Languages	17 10.8*	7 13.1	24
	Others	30 *18	12 *24	42
TOTAL		171	207	N=378

* Expected Frequencies
X^2 =35.8;
df=8;
P <0.05
C =.29

The significant X^2 in table 4.6a shows that reasons given by comprehensive pupils for their favourite subject has a significant relationship with the subject category. Of the 100 who chose vocational subjects in table 4.4, 84 gave reasons for such preference. Of these number, 73.4% indicated career aspiration as their reason for choice.

In table 4.6b, the non-significant X^2 indicates that in the grammar schools, the reasons given for pupils subjects choices have no bearing upon the type of subject offered. Though this result is not significant, they still show that the grammar school pupils show more preferences for science subjects. Their reasons for such preferences are parity between teaching style and career aspirations. The compressed data of tables 4.66a and 4.6b reveals a significant X^2.(see table 4.7).

Apart from being significant, 54.7% of their reasons are linked up to career aspirations.

4.6.5: Least favoured subjects

Table 4.8: Relationship between type of school and least favoured subject in both Technical and Grammar Schools.

Type of School	Subject Category					
	voc.	science	arts	lan.	others	total
Technical	29 50*	72 49.5*	11 19.5*	63 58*	22 20*	197
Grammar	71 50*	27 49.5*	28 19.5*	53 58*	18 20*	197
Total	100	99	39	116	40	N=394

*Expected frequencies
$X_2 = 46.6$
df=4;
$P < .05$
C = .32

The significant X^2 in table 4.8 indicates a positive relationship between the least favoured subject and the type of school. Of the 197 pupils in technical schools who expressed dissatisfaction with some subjects, a greater percentage (36.5%) chose sciences. In the grammar school the majority (36%) showed a dislike for vocational subjects.

Table 4.9: Overall % ranking of least favoured subjects.

Subjects	N	%	Rank
vocational	100	25.4	2
science	99	25.1	3
arts	39	9.9	5
languages	116	29.4	1
others	40	10.1	4
Total	394	100	

Table 4.9 reveals the following:

(i) Languages comes first in rank with 29.4%;

(ii) vocational subjects second with 25.1%;

(iii) science subjects third with 25.1%;

(iv) other subjects fourth with 10.1%;

(v) arts in last place with 9.9%.

4.7.6: Reasons for negative attitudes.

Table: 4.10a: Relationship between reasons for negative attitudes and subject category in grammar schools.

Subject category	**Reasons for Negative attitudes**		**Total**
	Teaching Style	**Career Aspiration**	
vocational	64 57.5*	6 12.5*	70
sciences	15 21.3*	11 46*	26
arts	22 22.9*	6 5*	29
languages	45 41.9*	6 9.1*	51
others	10 12.3*	5 2.7*	15
Total	156	34	N=190

* Expected Frequencies

$X^2 = 18.5$;

df =4;

P <0.05

C =.29

Table: 4.10b Relationship between reasons for negative attitudes and subject categories in Technical schools.

Subject category	Reasons for Negative attitudes		
	Teaching Style	Career Aspiration	Total
vocational	19 16.9*	10 4.2	20
sciences	44 42.3*	6 10.5*	50
arts	10 13.5*	6 3.4*	16
languages	44 41.5*	5 10.5*	49
others	16 18.6*	6 4.6*	22
Total	133	33	N=157

* Expected Frequencies
$X^2 = 16.8$;
df =4;
$P < 0.05$
C = .31

Table 4.11:Overall relationship between reasons for negative attitudes and subject category in both schools.

Type of School	Subject category	Reasons for Neg. Attitudes		
		Teaching Style	Career Aspiration	Total
Technical	Vocational	19 16.6*	10 3.9*	20
	Sciences	44 41.3*	6 9.6*	50
	Arts	10 13.3*	6 3.1*	16
	Languages	44 40.8*	5 9.5*	49
	others	16 18.3*	6 4.2*	22
Grammar	Vocational	64 58.3*	6 13.5*	70
	Sciences	15 21.6*	11 5*	10
	Arts	22 23.3*	6 5.4*	26
	Languages	45 42.5*	6 9.8*	51
	Others	10 12.5*	5 2.9*	15
Total		289	67	N =347

* Expected Frequencies
$X^2 = 34.7$; df=9;
$P < 0.05$
C =.30

The result of the X^2 analysis in table 4.10a shows a positive relationship between the reasons for negative attitudes and subject category in grammar schools. Of the number who showed a dislike for vocational subjects, 91.4% gave lack of good teaching style as the main reason. The X^2 in table 4.10b also indicates that there is a relationship between reasons given for subject dislike and subject category in technical schools. Table 4.11 showing an overall picture of data in tables 4.10a and 4.10b indicates a significant X^2 which also reveals that the reasons for dislike of some subjects in both schools is more to do with lack of good teaching style. For instance, of the total sample of n=347, 83.3% attribute their responses to teaching style.

4.7.7: Extra subjects to be included in the curriculum

Table:4.12: Relationship between Type of School and need for Extra-Subjects.

Type of School	**Subject Category**					
	voc.	science	arts	lan.	others	total
Technical	15 22.1*	71 44.3*	7 9.5*	39 25.3*	42 72.8*	174
Grammar	27 19.9	13 39.7*	11 8.5	9 22.7*	96 65.2*	156
Total	42	84	18	48	138	N=330

*Expected frequencies

$X^2 = 83.5$; df=4;

$P < 0.05$

C =.44

Table 4.12 shows a significant X^2 due to the fact that of the 174 pupils who would prefer to have more subjects included in their curriculum, 40.8% would prefer science subjects. While for grammar schools pupils, 61.5% would want subjects that the writer classifies as 'others' to be included. Within this category, sex education and moral instruction were dominant.

Table 4.13a Relationship between reasons for needing extra-curricula subjects and subject category in Technical schools

subject category	Reasons Given		
	Career Aspiration	BM	Total
vocational	12 5.1*	5 11.9*	17
sciences	15 20.2*	52 46.7*	67
arts	5 3.6*	7 8.4	12
languages	11 10*	22 2.3*	33
others	9 13*	34 30*	43
Total	52	120	N=172

* Expected Frequencies
BM = Broaden the Mind
X^2 =17.7; df =4;
P < 0.05
C =.35

Table 4.13b: Relationship between reasons for needing extra-curricula subjects and subject category in grammar schools.

Subject category	Reasons Given		
	Career Aspiration	BM	Total
vocational	13 4.9*	5 13.1*	18
sciences	6 3.5*	7 9.5*	13
arts	5 2.7*	5 7.3*	10
languages	6 3*	5 8*	11
others	12 27.9	91 75*	103
Total	42	113	N=155

* Expected Frequencies
BM = Broaden the Mind
X^2 =39.9; df =4;
P < 0.05
C = .45

Table 4.13a and 4.13b both with a significant X^2 have revealed that the reasons of asking for additional subjects is more to do with broadening horizon. The total percentage that related their reasons to broadening the horizon was 71.2.

4.7.8: Psychological Reasons for Working Hard.

Table 4.14 Relationship between Type of School & Psychological Reasons for working hard.

Type of school	Psychological reasons			
	PG	CA	NA	Total
Technical	55 51.9*	134 137.5*	9 8.6*	198
Grammar	48 51.1*	139 135.4*	8 8.4*	195
Total	103	273	17	N=393

* Expected Frequencies
PG = Personal Gratification
CA Career Aspiration
NA = Need for Approval
X^2 =0.6; df=2;
P< 0.05
C = .03

Table 4.14 has shown that there is no relationship between psychological reasons for working hard at school and the type of school. In both schools, career aspirations (CA) has been singled as the main motivation for working hard at school. Of the 198 pupils in technical school and 195 in grammar schools, 67.7 in technical schools and 71.3 in grammar schools indicate that CA is their motivating factor.

4.7.9: Range of Subjects to be Dropped.

Table 4.15: Relationship between range of subjects to be dropped and the type of school.

Type of school	Range of subjects		
	1-3 (A)	3&above(B)	total
Technical	129 132.6*	48 44.4*	177
Grammar	146 142.4*	44 47.6	190
Total	275	92	N=367

X^2 =.8; df =1;
P < 0.05
C = .04
* Expected Frequencies

The non-significant X^2 in table 4.15 has revealed that the range of subjects to be dropped has no relationship with the type of school. Irrespective of these results and the average number of subjects offered in the schools, there is an indication form the table that the range of subjects to be dropped in both schools is between 1 -3(A).

4.6.10: Reason for dropping subjects

Table 4.16: Relationship between subjects to be dropped and the reason for dropping them in both schools

Type of School	**Range of Subjects**	**Reasons Given**			
		NE	LR	CA	Total
Technical	1-3	30 38.1*	50 44.7*	20 17*	100
	3 & above	17 25.6*	40 29.9*	10 11.4*	67
Grammar	1-3	50 42.1*	40 49.2*	20 18.7	110
	3& above	40 31*	30 36.2*	11 13.8*	81
Total		137	160	61	358

NE = not for examination purposes
LR = lack of resources
CA = career aspiration
X^2 =14.6;
df = 6;
$P < 0.05$
C = .19
* Expected Frequencies

The significant X^2 in table 4.16 indicates that there is a relationship between subjects to dropped and reasons for dropping them. Of the 100 in technical schools who were to drop 1-3 subjects, 50% of that number gave their reasons as lack of resources. In the grammar schools, of the 110 who will drop these same range of

subjects, 45,4% attributed it to the fact that these subjects are not offered at the final examinations.

4.7.11: Subjects to replace the dropped ones

Table 4.17: Relationship between type of school and the kind of subjects to replaced in both schools.

Type of School	Subject Category					
	voc.	science	arts	lan.	others	total
Technical	16 16*	26 20.2	8 8.4*	4 5.9*	7 10.5*	61
Grammar	22 22*	22 27.8*	12 11.6*	10 8.1*	18 14.5*	84
Total	38	48	20	14	25	N= 145

*Expected frequencies
$X^2 = 6$;
df=4;
$P < 0.05$
C = .19

Table 4.17 with it's non-significant X^2 reveals that of the total sample, only 36.2% feel that the dropped subjects could be replaced. Of those in technical schools who expressed a desire, 42.6% would want sciences while in grammar school, vocational and science subjects are top on the list with 26.2% each.

4.7.12: Attribution of Blame when there is Poor Performance

Table 4.18: Relationship between the respondents in both schools and the response category

Respon d- dents	Response Category					
	Parents	Teachers	Self	Govt	All	Total
Technical	10 7.8*	29 50.4*	120 98.7*	21 23.4*	18 23.4	198
Grammar	5 7.2*	68 46.5	70 91.2*	24 21.6*	21 18.7	183
Total	15	97	190	45	39	N=381

*Expected frequencies
$X^2 = 31.1$:
df=4;
$P < 0.05$
C =.27

The significant X^2 in table 4.18 rejects the null-hypothesis(H_o) of no relationship. However, the responses in both schools indicate clearly that the pupils attribute blame to themselves.

4.7.13: Reasons for Attribution of Blame

Table 4.19 Relationship between reasons for attribution of blame and the respondents in the two type schools.

Type of school	Reasons		Total
	Relevant	Not relevant	
Technical	190 176.7*	8 21.3*	198
Grammar	150 163.3	33 21.1*	183
Total	340	41	N= 381

$X^2 = 17$;
df = 1;
$P < 0.05$
C = .20
* Expected Frequencies

The reasons for attribution of blame were judged in both schools as being relevant. One pupil had this to say:

> "I pretend to be taking notes but will stop immediately the teacher's eyes are not on me".

Another pupil had this to say:

> "because I do not do my assignments, I tend to forget easily what the teacher teaches".

4.8: DISCUSSION OF STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

With the exception of tables 4.6b, 4.14, 4.15 and 4.17, the cross tabulations of Independent Variable (I.V) by the Dependent Variables (D.V) reveals a significant X^2 at $P < .05$. The cross-tabulations in table 4.1 which have been associated with breadth of curriculum, reveals that 57% of the technical school pupils do lessons outside the school environment while 64.5% in grammar schools do not. The results indicate that even with such a wide range of subjects, pupils still

have extra subjects after school. But our conclusion as to whether they consider what they are having as a broad curriculum is only when the results of the other tables are considered.

Tables 4.2 and 4.4 which we have to use to qualify their notion of breadth, has revealed results as expected: i.e.. technical school pupils in favour of vocational subjects, while grammar pupils in favour of the challenging academic subjects (sciences). The fact that the technical pupils are within the circle of the vocational subject and the grammar pupils within the sciences, can be interpreted as their own breadth. Tables 4.6a, 4.6b and 4.7 have indicated that the preference of some subjects in both schools ,is linked to career aspirations (CA). Such results could be interpreted that the pupils will consider a curriculum that fulfil their career aspirations as balance. Consequently, it is a relevant curriculum.

The findings in tables 4.8, 4.10a, 4.10b and 4.11 are seen to consolidate the pupils notion of a broad, balanced and relevant curriculum. Interestingly, in table 4.8, the technical pupils showed a dislike for the sciences (challenging subjects) while the grammar pupils showed a dislike for vocational subjects. The result of table 4.8 should not be seen to be against but rather for breadth. Tables 4.10a, 4.10b and 4.11 justify this in the sense that , their reasons for the dislike is attributed to the teaching style (TS). Though table 4.12 reveals pupil's urge for more subjects, it should be noted that the reasons for wanting them is more to do with what I call broadening the mind (see table 4.13a, 4.13b &). From the analysis of the questionnaire of the technical school pupils, a pupil had this to say:

> "we do not only need 'general sciences' but we also need to do subjects like physics in detail. Even if we do not need it for examination purposes, it may of help to us out of school environment".

A grammar school pupil had this to say:

> "we need subjects like sex education , not for the purpose of examinations but to guide us in life. For instance, we understand there is a disease called 'AIDS, but we have no idea of what it is all about and what to do"

The result of table 4.14 proves that our instrument is valid and reliable when compared with tables 4.6a,4.6.6b and 4.7. Despite the fact that the wordings of the questions were not the same, the results still showed that CA is a more powerful factor in assessing their curriculum. The results also revealed that not only are the pupils consistent in their judgement, but also that they understand what they are upto.It is interesting to note that irrespective of the range of subjects offered in both schools, pupils in both schools will opt for 1-3 subjects to be dropped. The expected trend would have been for the technical pupils to opt to drop more than three subjects, considering the fact that :

(i) They are offering many subjects,

(ii) they are considered as the less able pupils. But the results have proven that technical school pupils are capable and more willing to handle more work than what could be expected of them.

Table 4.17 reveals that of the total sample, 63.7% do not feel it necessary to replace subjects which have to be dropped. Of the negligible few who were for subjects to be replaced, the findings follow the pattern in table 4.2 & 4.4. The most exciting finding is that of table 4.18 were the pupils attribute blame to themselves. The reasons they gave were considered in table 4.18 as being relevant. Suffice it to say that though the pupils feel that the fault is theirs, the reasons they gave seem to suggest that the situation is out of their hands. Some of the reasons they gave were:

"I am not able to revise my work at home".

"I find it difficult to concentrate".

The importance of home environment on pupils performance cannot be under-estimated. Desai (1991) found out that educational supplies, parents income and level of their literacy has a significant influence on pupil's performance.

4.9: SUMMARY.

The findings in this chapter have revealed that in Cameroon as in England and Wales, education has been thought of as a privilege for the small select group of individuals ultimately with higher education. It is meant to nurture an intellectual and political elite who will pursue academic subjects while the majority go for the vocational subjects. The empirical data has revealed that such ill-conceived ideas have to be re-examined as the technical school pupils have shown their capability of coping with the same range of subjects as grammar school pupils if given a chance.

Notwithstanding the aspirations, hopes and expectations shared by some educationalists for curriculum reform at the secondary level, the results have always been abortive. The reasons for this have often been attributed to lack of resources and finance. But the result of this study have revealed that the cause of this static situation is more to do with the factor of 'inertia'; i.e.. the unwillingness to change from the colonial legacy which had re-inforced certain traditions and practices but which are being revised constantly in their respective countries of origin. A typical example of an unwillingness to change is seen is the cause of the results in table 4.9 where languages are seen as the least favourite subjects. Such findings are rather bizarre in a country that is bilingual and preaches bilingualism . To ameliorate such situations, matters and policies affecting education should not be seen as the concern of a limited few. Thus, entry into the educational market place should not be restricted.

Clearly, the teacher must play a crucial role in both making the official curriculum work and in effecting curriculum change. so the writer will now examine the teacher as deliverers of curriculum.

CHAPTER FIVE

TEACHERS AS CURRICULUM DELIVERERS IN CAMEROONIAN SCHOOLS

5.1: INTRODUCTION

In the chapters dealing with background issues in this study, the notions of balance and relevance of the curriculum were linked to the teachers as deliverers of the school curriculum. But the capability of the teachers in delivering the curriculum has a number of related factors. Luma in assessing the situation of African teachers asserted that :

> " If Africa will ever want to boast of viable and effective educational systems and processes, she must now begin to grapple, urgently with the fundamental problems of teacher training because the individuals we grumble about in our homes, offices, streets, schools, churches and other public places are the unfortunate products of the types of teachers we turn out from our teachers training institutions and who teach our children".(1983:1)

Nwalimu Julius Nyerere (quoted by Luma ibid) expressed a similar view in August 27, 1966 when inaugurating the Morogoro Teacher Training College. He then indicated that:

> "It is true that is teachers more than any single group of people who determine ------ attitudes and who shape the ideas and aspirations of the nation ----, those who have the responsibility to work with young, have a power which is second to none in relation to the future of the society--- ".

Statements such as these, reveal that the situation is due to inadequacies in the teaching profession. Luma (ibid) further explained that the primary school is the nursery ground for all our educational objectives, but regretted the fact that the least qualified teachers are found in the primary schools, which of course is due to no fault of theirs. This chapter will therefore review the literature relating to teachers, as well as analysing the teacher's questionnaire delivered by the writer as a component her empirical research.

From the literature and the analysis in chapter 4, there is evidence that much of what the pupils present merely replicates what their teachers provide. Though the educational system in Cameroon, as seen in chapter 3, is such as to virtually exclude the teachers at the classroom level within the circle of those concerned with design issues, it does not imply that at their own level , everything should be done in a haphazard way. At their level, there is a great deal of planning which can only be effective and efficient if curricula issues are understood. Peter considering this issue, stated that::

> "planning is an activity in which all teachers engage and thus constitute a large part of psychological context of teaching. Within this context, a great deal of school curriculum is understood; developed and acted upon"(1991:359-372).

Calderhead indicates that:

> "It is planning that teachers translate syllabus guidelines, institutional expectations and their own believes and ideologies of education into guidelines for action into classroom"(1984 : 69)

Clearly models of planning reflect conceptions of teaching (Bullough, 1987). Given this, how can teachers begin to make the process of planning more effective in a bid to achieve balance in the curriculum? In this thesis, I intend to argue that there is one answer to this problem, which is an understanding of what the curriculum is, and a positive attitudes towards work. Considering the fact that the effect of school experiences on the learning process involves a complex set of interactions between various elements of the training course, the classroom contexts and the individuals involved in the delivery and support process, it is the purpose of this chapter to analyse the teachers' questionnaire in order to determine whether the training given has succeeded in raising teachers who understand what they are doing. In the light of this analysis, it will then be possible to determine the extent to which the said curriculum is balanced.

5.2: PRE-SERVICE TEACHER EDUCATION

Pre-service teacher education in Cameroon has been under attack as most people attribute teachers inefficiency to the initial training received. This criticism, has led to the awareness that the expectations for teacher education are not fully realised by getting teachers and students into classrooms. Underlying the review of training programmes is the idea that permutations of both structural and methodological patterns can affect teaching competencies either positively or negatively. Turner (1976), however noted the fact that too little attention has been paid to questions of programmes content which are an integral part of the structural problems. Chale (1983) also indicated that it takes both time and research to determine which training pattern achieves better results which are not only quantitative but more significantly qualitative and cost effective. Training is meant to enable the teacher to behave or act in certain prescribed ways if effectiveness is to be attained (Bolam 1978). A trained teacher therefore should be able to demonstrate what has been achieved in both pedagogical and academic terms and to what extent. This should be visible and clear in areas like:

(i) Knowledge of subjects, preparation of lesson plans;

(ii) preparation and use of instructional materials;

(iii) accurate and clear use of instructional language;

(iv) self confidence and motivational devices;

(v) the setting of achievement tests;

(vi) grading and monitoring of pupil progress;

(vii) maintenance of discipline and good order in general.

That such competencies as the above are closely related to adequacy and appropriateness of training is found in most relevant studies such as Brophy (1973, Anderson and Burns (1989), Dunkin and Biddle (1974) and Wragg (1974). These authors contend that most instances of poor teaching including instances of grossly

not perpetuated deliberately or even consciously committed by the teachers involved. They demonstrate a combination of ineffective or inappropriate training, and conditioning processes which cause bad teaching habits to become established. The lack of a proper mechanism for giving teachers feedback and helping them change their behaviour is also significant. This is evident in observing and talking with teachers as Stubbs et. al. (1976) and Delamont (1974) have shown.

5.2.1: Recruitment and Selection of Student Teachers in Cameroon.

The training of teachers for secondary schools in Cameroon is carried out in the Advanced Teacher Training Colleges (ENS and ENSET). In a few instances, teachers trained in ENI or Grade 1 training colleges are posted to teach in the first cycle of secondary school. Recruitment into the Grade 1 training colleges is through a competitive examination. It runs two sets of courses:

(i) One year course for secondary school leavers with 2 GCE Advance level or equivalent;

(ii) two year course for secondary school leavers with 1 GCE A/L or probabtoire or those holding the grade 2 teachers certificate with teaching experience.

Both academic and professional or pedagogical courses form the course content.

The Ecole Normale Supérieure (ENS) and the Ecole Normale Supérieure de L'enseignment Technique (ENSET) train teachers for the first and second cycles of the secondary schools. Entrance to the first cycle of ENS or ENSET which is through a competitive examination is open to candidates with at least 2 GCE A/L or the equivalence. The course runs for three years. Holders of a first degree or graduates of the first cycle are admitted to do a two year post-graduate course to qualify as teachers in the second cycle of the secondary schools.

The academic component in the course is considered much more important than the professional component. In one of the interviews conducted by the writer, a teacher trainer had this to say:

> "we are much more concerned with the academic component because the professional component can always be developed while in the field"(interviewed on the 11th of March, 1991).

While some may accept that the professional component can be entirely developed while in the field, note should be taken that the two are, in practice inseparable.

5.3: IN SERVICE TRAINING OF TEACHERS (INSET)

In-service courses are for practising teachers. The content and scope of the in-service basic training are adjusted to the needs of teachers who have acquired a certain amount of teaching experience. The acronym INSET appears to be strange to teachers in Cameroon as they are more familiar with the term 'refresher courses'. INSET will be further discussed during analysis of the teachers questionnaire below.

5.4: TEACHING STYLE AND TEXT BOOKS

There is literature that suggest that text-books are a pervading aspect of secondary school life. According to Shannon (1982) text-books are used from 70 to 95% of the time students spend in the classrooms. Durkin (1983) found that up to 70% of student instructional time is spent on completing work books, dittos, and other text book-related activities. The situation in Cameroon is similar to the findings of Shannon (1982.) and Durkin (1983). Alverman (1987) studied the role that text books play in the likelihood of teachers making adjustments to discussions based on such books. Her findings were that there was considerable use of the text book to re-focus discussions; some use of the text book as an indirect reference, and to verify points of disagreement; but little use of the text book to prompt student answers that were not forthcoming. Alverman (1989) found that the teachers use

(i) an authoritarian view of content: such a teacher relied on recitation and used the text book as the sole authority on content;

(ii) an embellishment view of content: such a teacher added to the text book content because that content was perceived as being weak or incomplete;

(iii) a discussion mediated view of content in which the teacher focused on students' questions and experiences and elaborated on text book content from these perspectives.

The literature in this chapter and the next reveals that teaching style in Cameroon is closely related to the text books with the teachers having an authoritarian view of content. Zahorik's (1990, 1991) also found that teaching is closely related to text books. The authoritarian view of the content in which the teacher uses the book as the sole authority on content may prevent the teacher from exploiting other areas of knowledge which are not embedded in the content. A consequence of the authoritarian view of content by teachers in Cameroon is that, in most cases, they have as one of their objectives to go through the content of the book. In one of the writers interviews an official justifies why teachers should follow the contents in the text book. He had this to say:

> "If we provide guidelines rather than specify content for the teachers to follow, we may put ourselves in more difficult situations as the teachers may devise different content More so, we device our content with the final examinations in mind "7th February, 1991).

5.5: ANALYSIS OF DATA.

The discussion in this section is based on the analysis of the teachers questionnaire which solicited information concerning their qualification, perception of curriculum, working conditions and in-service training of teachers. Due to the many tables, we have therefore decided to have them at the back of the chapter for easy reference.

With respect to table 5.1, the non-significant result of the X^2 indicates that qualification of teachers is independent of the type of school. The individual analysis shows that 42.5% of the sample are those with diplomas followed by graduates with training (40%); the difference between the two being narrow. Those with diplomas are those who did their training in colleges whose certificates do not bear the title 'degree' (such as ENS & ENSET) but which has the same status in the Cameroonian civil service as those with degrees.

The next issue with which tables 5.2 to 5.19 are concerned is that of the general perception of the curriculum. The results of these tables will guide us in determining the breadth, balance and relevance of the curriculum. The importance of teachers' perception of education in general and curriculum in particular has been found to be of immense importance by Doherty and Travers (1984) and Hoffman et al (1991). Tables 5.2 to 5.4 though with it's non-significant chi-square, has demonstrated consistent findings in that the responses are similar. That is to say, a high percentage in all the tables agreed that an effective curriculum is one that enables pupils to be responsible, productive and creative.

The range of tables from 5.5 to 5.19 cover a range of issues. Seventy percent of the teachers in table 5.5 and 85.7% in table 5.17 accept the preposition that determining the efficiency of pupils' learning activities is their responsibility in the classroom. If this fact is acceptable by them, then there is every reason to attempt to assess whether or not they are actually capable of performing their task. It is with this same view that Lawton (1983), stated categorically that no book can achieve the work of teachers in the classroom. Thus one may not be wrong to conclude that teachers are still a powerful force to reckon with in Lawton's cultural analysis model of curriculum planning.

Tables 5.6 and 5.15 were both intended to tap the same information, and also to test for the reliability of the questions. With the non-significant result, tables

5.6. and 5.15 have shown that a much higher percentage of respondents agreed to the fact a more conducive environment will yield better results. The item which has given rise to table 5.7 was designed to discover the importance attached to examinations by teachers, especially in Cameroon where examinations exert quite a powerful influence on what is taught in schools. Alongside its significant chi-square, the responses show that teachers accept the item. But a similar item used by Abangma (1981) on primary school teachers was rejected. Such disparity shows that there may be a significant relationship between teachers opinions and the sector in which they teach.

The responses in tables 5.8 to 5.11 and 5.19 do indicate that the teachers doubt the relevance of the curriculum. In all the tables, a higher percentage of respondents agreed with the statements (see the questionnaire in appendix B). The argument for a broad curriculum is accepted by teachers in Cameroon as is evident from tables 5.12, 5.13 and 5.16. They seem to accept that the present curriculum, with it's many subjects, enables pupils to see the relationship that exists amongst subjects, thus indicating a conformity with the notion of breadth. Consequently, they reject the idea that a wide range of subjects will cause any form of strain on pupils. This is seen in table 5.13 confirming their strong feelings for curriculum breadth.

The non-significant result of showing no relationship between the type of school and the responses given does not apply in the case of table 5.18. For although 50% agree to the statement, a careful study of the table reveals that more grammar school teachers disagree than agree with the statement.

The next series of tables from 5.20 to 5.26 is concerned with relationship between the curriculum and aspects of working conditions. Tables 5.20 to 5.23 which aimed at getting teachers' views as to the level of their satisfaction with their job, reveals that in all the tables a higher percentage admit that dissatisfaction with

deal with the judgement of the level of their satisfaction with their job, reveal that in all cases a higher percentage of respondents indicate that there is a high level of job satisfaction.

Now we turn to the question of in-service training of teachers (INSET).In-service training of teachers is undoubtedly one way of improving on the professional knowledge of teachers. Tamir (1991) refers to professional knowledge as the body of knowledge and skills needed in order to function successfully in a particular profession. Such knowledge being determined by job or task analysis and consensus of community of the people who are recognised professionals in the particular field. Table 5.27 indicates that 56.8%of respondents have experienced INSET. Of this number, 66.7% (table 5.29) showed satisfaction with their activities. Surprisingly, the findings in table 5.30 reveal that the activities at INSET contribute very little to teachers performance in the classroom. In the table, 56.9% agree that their classroom performance is due to their initial training(IT), followed by 24.6% who say it is due to their own initiative and only 18.5% who attributed performance to INSET. Finally, in table 5.31, 74% indicate their reason for choosing teaching is because they had an urge to transfer knowledge to the younger generation.

5.6. SUMMARY

Not only do the findings reveal the teacher's knowledge in curriculum issues, but also their capability (in terms of qualification) to handle curriculum matters. In his seminal paper, 'A place called school', Goodlad (1984) appealed for improved pedagogy to increase both student thinking and learning. Implicit in this statement is the importance of teachers professional knowledge. Goddlad (1976) suggested that rather than concentrate on basic skills to improve performance on standardised tests, the school environment should provide a venue to develop fully, pupil's power of critical thinking. In this light, the professional component of

With qualification used as a criteria for efficiency and competence in developing countries in general and Cameroon in particular, we are therefore left with little room to doubt teachers' competence in making sound judgements relating to the curriculum. Therefore, one of the reasons given by an official (interviewed on 4th February, 1991) in respect of the fact that curriculum matters are handled by 'specialist' in the ministry because most teachers are not qualified to be involved at this stage is an unfair generalisation.

Furthermore, table 5.31 has shown that the reasons for most of them choosing teaching is such as to engender a high level of commitment to their work. Tamir (1991) also indicates that personal attributes affect the application of professional knowledge. Based on the notion of balance adopted in this study, which is a blend of different values (content) and teachers' capability in handling curriculum issues, we can therefore conclude that the curriculum is balanced. As regards the relevance of the curriculum, tables 5.8 to 5.11 and 5.19 reveals that the teachers have judged the curriculum to be irrelevant.

We have now finished the discussion on Cameroon. The next three chapters will be related to issues in England and Wales.

Table 5.1: Cross-tabulation of Qualification by School.

Class of Qualification	Respondents by Type of School		Total
	Technical	Grammar	
graduates plus training	14	18	32 40.0*
graduates minus training	2	6	8 10.0*
diploma	19	15	34 42.5*
others	5	1	6 7.5*
Total	40 50.0*	40 50.0*	80 100.0*

X^2=5.97701; df=3; P < 0.11273 (ns)

notes

Table 5.2. An Effective Curriculum is one that enables the Pupils to be Responsible.

Response category	Respondents by type of School		Total
	Technical	Grammar	
Agree	35	33	68 86.1*
Disagree	3	4	7 8.9*
Not Sure	1	3	4 5.1*
Total	39 49.4*	40 50.6*	79 100.0*

X^2= 1.23602 ; df=2; P < 0.53902 (ns)

notes

* expected frequencies in percentages

ns: not significant

Table 5.3. An Effective Curriculum is one that enables the pupils to be Productive.

Response category	Respondents by type of School		Total
	Technical	Grammar	
Agree	33	36	69 88.5*
Disagree	4	2	6 7.7*
Not Sure	1	2	3 3.8*
Total	38 48.7*	40 51.3*	78 100.0*

X^2 = 1.09858 ; df=2; P at < . 57736 (ns)

notes

* expected frequencies in percentages

ns: not significant

Table 5.4 : An Effective Curriculum is one that enables Pupils to be creative

Response category	Respondents by Type of School		Total
	Technical	Grammar	
Agree	37	35	72 90.0*
Disagree	3	3	6 7.5*
Not Sure		2	2 2.5*
Total	40 50.0*	40 50.0*	80 100.0*

X^2 = 2.82815; df=2; P < 0.24315 (ns)

notes

*

Table 5.5 : The real task of determining the efficiency of the pupils' learning activities is the responsibility of the teachers in the classroom.

Response Category	Respondents by Type of school		
	Technical	Grammar	Total
Agree	26	29	55 71.4*
Disagree	7	9	16 20.8*
Not Sure	4	2	6 7.8*
Total	37 48.1*	40 51.9*	77 100.0*

X^2 = 0.97705; df=2; P at < 0.61353 (ns)

notes

* expected frequencies in percentages

ns: not significant

Table 5.6 : A more conducive learning environment for Pupils will achieve better results

Response Response category	Respondents by Type of School		
	Technical	Grammar	Total
Agree	37	37	74 94.9*
Disagree	1		1 1.3*
Not Sure	1	2	3 3.8*
Total	39 50.0*	39 50.0*	78 100.0*

X^2 = 1.72609; df=2; P at < 0. 42187 (ns)

notes

* expected frequencies in percentages

ns: not significant

Table 5. : A teachers' competence is best achieved through the number of successful pupils at the examination

Response category	Respondents by Type of School		
	Technical	Grammar	Total
Agree	26	19	45 57.7*
Disagree	10	20	30 38.5*
Not Sure	2	1	3 3.8*
Total	38 48.7*	40 51.3*	78 100.0*

X^2 = 4.77982; df=2; P < 0.09165 (s)

notes

*

Table 5.8 : The search for paper qualification predominates because of the current system

Response category	Respondents by Type of School		Total
	Technical	Grammar	
A	30	34	64 81.0*
D	6	3	9 11.4*
NS	3	3	6 7.6*
Total	39 49.4*	40 50.6*	79 100.0*

X^2 = 1.25690; df=2; P < 0.53342 (ns)

notes

* expected frequencies in percentages

ns: not significant

Table 5.9 : Widespread unemployment is as a result of the current system

Response category	Respondents by type of School		Total
	Technical	Grammar	
Agree	25	27	52 66.7*
Disagree	9	8	17 21.8*
Not Sure	4	5	9 11.5*
Total	38 48.7*	40 51.3*	78 100.0*

X^2 = 0.19586; df=2; P < 0.90671 (ns)

notes

* expected frequencies in percentages

ns: not significant

Table 5.10 : Lack of sense of civic responsibility is as a result of the current system

Response category	Respondents by Type of School		Total
	Technical	Grammar	
Agree	17	24	41 56.6*
Disagree	19	12	31 39.7*
Not Sure	2	4	6 7.7*
Total	38 48.7*	40 51.3*	78 100.0*

X^2 = 3.42366; df=2; P at < 0.18053 (s)

notes

*

Table 5.11 : The Current System of Education alienates pupils from the norms and values of their Culture

Response category	Respondents by type of School		Total
	Technical	Grammar	
Agree	23	20	43 55.1*
Disagree	10	16	26 33.3*
Not Sure	6	3	9 11.5*
Total	39 50.0*	39 50.0*	78 100.0*

X^2 = 2.62605; df=2; P at < 0. 26901 (ns)

notes

* expected frequencies in percentages

ns: not significant

Table 5.12 : If Pupils are offered many subjects, they will see the relationship that exists amongst them

Response Category	Respondents by type of School		Total
	Technical	Grammar	
Agree	18	23	41 51.3*
Disagree	16	15	31 38.8*
Not Sure	6	2	8 10.0*
Total	40 50.0*	40 50.0*	80 100.0*

X^2 = 2.73653 ; df=2; P at < 0. 25455 (ns)

notes

* expected frequencies in percentages

ns: not significant

Table 5.13 : The present school curriculum put unnecessary physical and mental strain on pupils.

Response category	Respondents by type of School		Total
	Technical	Grammar	
Agree	15	9	24 30.0*
Disagree	19	25	44 55.0*
Not Sure	6	6	12 15.0*
Total	40 50.0*	40 50.0*	80 100.0*

X^2 = 2.33677; df=2 ; P < 0.31087 (ns)

notes

* expected frequencies in percentages

Table 5.14 : Providing all pupils with the same activities promotes equal opportunities

Response category	Respondents by type of School		Total
	Technical	Grammar	
Agree	21	25	46 59.0*
Disagree	14	12	26 33.3*
Not Sure	5	1	6 7.7*
Total	40 51.3*	38 48.7*	78 100.0*

X^2= 3.36201; df=2; P at < 0. 18619 (s)

notes

* expected frequencies in percentages

s: significant

Table 5.15 : A more conducive (relaxed, appealing) classroom for pupils will achieve better results than that paced with many activities (subjects)

Response category	Respondents by type of school		Total
	Technical	Grammar	
Agree	27	28	55 69.6*
Disagree	8	7	15 19.0*
Not Sure	5	4	9 11.4*
Total	40 50.6*	39 49.4*	79 100.0*

X^2 = 0.18358; df=2 ; P < 0.91230 (ns)

notes

* expected frequencies in percentages

ns: not significant

Table 5.16 : The more the number of subjects a pupil is expected to do, the more challenging it is for the pupils' and the better it is for the development of his intelligence

Response category	Respondents by Type of School		Total
	Technical	Grammar	
Agree	25	14	49 62.8*
Disagree	8	14	22 28.2*
Not Sure	6	1	7 9.0*
Total	39 50.0*	39 50.0*	78 100.0*

X^2 = 5.64012; df=2 ; P < 0.05960 (s)

notes

* expected frequencies in percentages

5.17 : Effective changes within the curriculum should reflect the views of the teachers in the classroom

Response category	Respondents by type of School		Total
	Technical	Grammar	
Agree	33	33	66 87.5*
Disagree	3	4	7 9.1*
Not Sure	3	1	4 5.2*
Total	39 50.6*	38 49.4*	77 100.0*

X^2 = 1.17685; df=2; P < 0.55520 (ns)

notes

* expected frequencies in percentages

ns: not significant

Table 5.18: For life after school Economics should be a compulsory subject for all pupils

Response category	Respondents by type of School		Total
	Technical	Grammar	
Agree	25	14	39 50.0*
Disagree	12	18	30 38.5*
Not Sure	2	7	9 11.5*
Total	39 50.0*	39 50.0*	78 100.0*

X^2 = 7.29514 ; df=2; P < 0.02605 (ns)

notes

* expected frequencies in percentages

ns: not significant

Table 5.19: In order to foster the pupils' understanding of the society, the curriculum should amongst other things include the culture (way and life) of the pupil

Response category	Respondents by type of School		Total
	Technical	Grammar	
Agree	30	35	65 81.3*
Disagree	7	1	8 10.0*
Not Sure	3	4	7 8.8*
Total	40 50.0*	40 50.0*	80 100.0*

X^2 = 5.59038; df=2; P < 0.06110 (s)

notes

* expected frequencies in percentages

5.20 : Insufficient responsibility and authority

Response category	Respondents by type of School		Total
	Technical	Grammar	
Always Applies	16	8	24 30.8*
Occasionally Applies	17	27	44 56.4*
Do not know	6	4	10 12.8*
Total	39 50.0*	39 50.0*	78 100.0*

X^2 = 5.41381; df=2; P < 0.06674 (s)

notes

* expected frequencies in percentages

s: significant

5.21 : Poor relationship between myself and educational administrators

Response category	Respondents by type of School		Total
	Technical	Grammar	
Always Applies	10	7	17 22.1*
Occasionally Applies	26	28	54 70.1*
Do not know	3	3	6 7.8*
Total	39 50.6*	38 49.4*	77 100.0*

X^2 = 0.59329; df=2; P < 0.74331 (ns)

notes

* expected frequencies in percentages

ns: significant

5.22 : Insufficient help from Inspectors

Response category	Respondents by Type of School		Total
	Technical	Grammar	
Always Applies	18	14	32 41.6*
Occasionally Applies	19	21	40 51.9*
Do not Know	2	3	5 6.5*
Total	39 50.6*	38 49.4*	77 100.0*

X^2 = 0.78972 ; df=2 ; P at < . 67377 (ns)

notes

* expected frequencies in percentages

ns: not- significant

5.23 : Insufficient time for my subject

Response category	Respondents by Type of School		Total
	Technical	Grammar	
Always Applies	12	12	24 32.4*
Occasionally Applies	23	25	48 64.9*
Do not Know	1	1	2 2.7*
Total	36 48.6*	38 51.4*	74 100.0*

X^2 = 0.02929 ; df=2; P at < 0. 98546 (ns)

notes

* expected frequencies in percentages

ns: not- significant

5.24 : My job gives me a chance to show my initiative

Response category	Respondents by type of School		Total
	Technical	Grammar	
Always Applies	28	29	57 75.0*
Occasionally Applies	8	9	17 22.4*
Do not Know		2	2 2.6*
Total	36 47.4*	40 52.6*	76 100.0*

X^2 = 2.63837 ; df=2 ; P at < 0. 26735 (ns)

notes

* expected frequencies in percentages

ns: non-significant

5.25 : My job gives me a sense of achievement

Response category	Respondents by type of School		Total
	Technical	Grammar	
Always Applies	31	33	64 85.3*
Occasionally Applies	4	4	8 10.7*
Do not Know	2	1	3 4.0*
Total	37 49.3*	38 50.7*	75 100.0*

X^2= 0.38897 ; df=2; P < 0.82326 (ns)

notes

* expected frequencies in percentages

ns: non-significant

5.26 : My job makes me use my intelligence

Response Category	Respondents by Type of School		
	Technical	Grammar	Total
Always Applies	31	34	65 89.0*
Occasionally Applies	5	3	8 11.0*
Total	36	37	73 100.0*

X^2 = 0.63015 ; df=1; P at < 0. 42730 (ns)

notes
* expected frequencies in percentages
ns: non-significant

5.27. : Have you been to INSET

Response category	Respondents by Type of School		
	Technical	Grammar	Total
yes	21	21	42 56.8*
no	16	16	32 143.2*
Total	37 50.0*	37 50.0*	74 100.0*

X^2 = .00000; df=1; P at < . 1.0000 (ns)

notes
* expected frequencies in percentages
ns: non-significant

5.28. : The time when INSET was attended

Response category	Respondents by Type of School		
	Technical	Grammar	Total
past year	6	11	17 42.5*
within 3 years	1	5	6 115.0*
over 3 years	12	5	17 42.5*
Total	19 47.5*	21 52.5*	40 100.0*

X^2 = .7.27344; df=2 ; ; P < 0.02634 (s)

notes
* expected frequencies in percentages
s: significant

5.29 : Rating of INSET activities

Response category	Respondents by type of School		Total
	Technical	Grammar	
satisfied	15	12	27 66.7*
dissatisfied	5	6	11 24.4.0*
not sure	2	2	4 8.9*
Total	22 53.3*	20 46.7*	42 100.0*

X^2 = 0.42581 ; df=2; P < 0.80823 (ns)

notes

* expected frequencies in percentages

ns: non-significant

5.30 : What contributes more to you performance in class

Response Response category	Respondents by Type of School		Total
	Technical	Grammar	
INSET	6	6	12 18.5*
IT	17	20	37 56.9*
own initiative	6	10	16 24.6*
Total	29 44.6*	36 55.4*	65 100.0*

X^2 = 0.49889 ; df=2 ; P < 0.77923 (ns)

notes

* expected frequencies in percentages

ns: non-significant

5.31 : Consideration in choosing teaching

Response category	Respondents by Type of School		Total
	Technical	Grammar	
transfer knowledge	31	23	54 74.0*
vacation	1	3	4 5.5*
advice from parents	2	3	5 6.8*
only job available	3	7	10
Total	37 50.7*	36 49.3*	73 100.0*

X^2 = 4.06937 ; df=3; P at < 0. 25407 (ns)

notes

* expected frequencies in percentages

ns: non-significant

CHAPTER SIX

THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM OF ENGLAND & WALES

6.1: INTRODUCTION

Most, if not all educational systems are a function of historical, political, social and economic factors that over the years have been in a state of flux within each nation. They are ongoing dynamic processes rather than fixed structural features. The systems in the world can be loosely classified by their general types: centralised, decentralised, co-operative (national and local), and systems regulated by a single political party. In practice, however, the educational systems are not sharply distinct from one another and rarely are they totally within one category. That of England and Wales is no exception. But whatever form it takes, the fate of the pupils is decided within the educational system in operation.

Against the background that was briefly sketched in above in respect of the issues of breadth, balance and relevance, it is important now to look at the educational system in England and Wales which will be discussed within the framework of some of the major acts that have sought to adapt the educational system of this nation to the changing structure of the British society. By so doing, it should be borne in mind that an educational system is not defined in its own terms, but rather by the functions it is designed to serve (Ryan 1984). This functions according to Ryan, operate at two levels:

(i) At the level of social class; that is to say,. the reproduction of social relations, social division of labour and class hierarchy;

(ii) at the national economic level, that is to say, the creation of a more productive and socialised labour force.

We will now consider some of the more recent and significant periods in the development of this system. Within this structure, the British educational system would be examined under two major historical periods ____ the period 1944-1965, and during the period of reflection (1965-1985).

6.2: THE PERIOD 1944-1965

The 1944 Education Act is said to have opened a most distinctive stage in the development of English education. The Act gave secondary education a universal operation, though the introduction of selective secondary education has been as a result of the 1902 Education Act. The 1944 Education Act, reorganised drastically the statutory system of the public education and laid down the main principle which has guided the provision of education up to 1988. In section 7 of the Act, it was stated that

> "The statutory system of public education shall be organised in three progressive stages to be known as primary education, secondary education and further education ; and it shall be the duty of the local authority for every area, so far as their powers extend, to contribute towards the spiritual, moral, mental and physical development of the community by securing that efficient education throughout those stages shall be available to meet the needs of the population of their area----".

In 1941, Mr. R.A. Butler, the champion of the 1944 Education Act, and then President of the Board of Education, appointed a committee to re-examine the curriculum and examination in secondary schools in the light of the proposed re-casting of the statutory system of public education. According to the Norwood Report of 1943, the committee asserted that the evolution of education has infact thrown up certain groups, each of which can and must be treated in a way appropriate to itself--. This committee saw the child as the centre of education thus:

> "the child is the centre of education, and that curriculum and the treatment of curriculum are to be fitted to his needs: that subjects exist for the child and not the child for subjects" (Board of Education, Educational Reconstruction 1943 :65).

Consequently, the Norwood committee confirmed the judgement of the Spens committee by advocating a tripartite organisation of secondary education. Their

'discovery' of the three distinct types of student has proven to be an enduring philosophy in respect of both the supposed nature of the children's minds, and also what the secondary curriculum should provide for those minds. In their view, a secondary education pupil of a particular type of mind should receive the training best suitable for them, and that training should lead them to an occupation where their capabilities would be suitably used. Thus, to the three types of minds would correspond three main types of curriculum. Drawing on this approach of the functional view of education which was to form and fashion the minds of the young.(to use Fisher's 1918 description); the report also states that some of the students must follow the 'technical minds' education. It is worth noting that although such a selective function may result from either indoctrination, instruction or training, these are not sufficient or even necessary constituents of education. Peters (1973) supported the role of education in developing critical reasoning as well as enabling the individual pupil to fulfil their personal potential behind a narrow specialisation or pre-determined perspective. Similarly, Phenix (1964) argued for a range of meanings in education to ensure that the individual's full scope of perceiving and understanding his or herself, and others, is developed.

6.2.1. The Tripartite System.

In view of the interpretation of aptitudes as expressed in the 1944 Education Act, it became necessary to provide an adequate secondary education in accordance with age, ability and aptitude. To achieve these objectives, separate schools with different programmes, to which children were recruited at 11 + by selection tests, were provided. They were grammar, secondary technical and secondary modern schools.

Grammar Schools:

Upto 1944, and since the creation by the 1902 Education Act of a state system of secondary education, albeit selective, the main role of the grammar school

was to provide a preliminary education for pupils aiming at professions or other occupations demanding highly trained intelligence, and who consequently, intended to continue their studies beyond the age of 16 (i.e. normally aiming at the university level). Owing to the fact that the passing of the 1944 act resulted in the creating of other types of secondary schools, especially to cater for pupils whose aptitude required a different kind of secondary education, the grammar schools needed no longer to organise modified courses and adapt the curriculum to meet the needs of pupils for whom secondary education of the grammar type was really suitable. As a result, only those pupils who in sitting the 11 + examination displayed an academic tendency, were to be sent to grammar schools. Thus, grammar school came to provide an academic curriculum for the most able pupils with the intention of preparing most of them for entry into university, some other higher education institution, or directly into a profession. It was seen as the academic `wing' of secondary education and a place for the intellectual elite.

The grammar school course was said to be progressive, from a broad base of general education covering the first four or five years, to a comparatively narrow platform or specialised studies ending at age 18. Within the first four or five years the pupils study a variety of subjects. Beyond this `academic' core, subjects such as religious instruction, physical education, music art, domestic subjects (for girls) and handicrafts found their place. Such a course according to the New Secondary Education (1947 :25-26) demanded disciplined thought and the capacity to wrestle successfully with intellectual questions. In this light, such school pupils must have a high measure of general intelligence, and must be readily drawn to abstract ideas and book based learning.

Secondary Technical Schools

Attempts to make the concept of secondary education much wider were generally frustrated at this time, proving unacceptable because of the ill-conceived notion of secondary education being regarded as purely academic. The secondary

schools established by the Education Act of 1902 were invariably an imitation of the existing grammar schools, although with an ever-widening curriculum. Indeed it was left to the junior technical schools and central schools to demonstrate the educative value of technical schools at the secondary level. The relationship of the junior technical school to other types of post-primary education was rather ill-defined and unsatisfactory. The tradition had been reluctant to admit such schools into the secondary education circle, especially as public opinion as well as parents tended to assume that a grammar school education was something intrinsically superior to that given in a junior technical school. This was of course true in terms of the social opportunities derived from attending a grammar school. Moreover, entry to the junior technical school at age 13, constituted a descriptive 'double break' in the pupil's career. The technical schools came to be regarded by many as something rather second best, a school for those children who failed to secure admission into a grammar school. The fact that such schools had a vocational bias meant that they were infact offering a truly liberal secondary education, because the academic side was not absent, but this was overlooked by the critics.

It might well be true that establishment of such a school arose from a dominating feeling that there ought to be an equivalent of grammar school with a strong technical tendency, a school that would draw upon the same range of intelligence as did the grammar schools, but would cater for children with a marked technical aptitude. There were however, many features which from the start distinguished the technical schools from the grammar schools. Firstly, the technical schools did not constitute a homogeneous unit. There were several types of technical school: junior technical, junior commercial and junior art departments. Secondly, these schools had different lengths of course. For many years after 1945, technical schools continued to recruit their pupils at age 12 or 13 instead of 11 + as did the other secondary schools. Thirdly, some, especially among the junior art departments, were in actual fact little more than trade training schools, instead of being schools of general education. Fourthly, few of the technical schools had their

own buildings. These handicaps according to Musley (1967) contributed to the failure of the original aim that the secondary technical school should be the second strong pillar of tripartite pattern of secondary education.

It should be noted however, that despite these handicaps, many secondary technical schools did establish a good reputation and a remarkable standing, although only in exceptional circumstances did they successfully manage to receive pupils of equal intellectual calibre to those entering grammar schools. Supporters of these schools believed that they were essential and not merely desirable. Their importance did however, receive official support from the then Minister of Education, Mr. Geoffrey Lloyd, who declared that there was a great future ahead for the technical schools, and that their influence was vastly out of proportion to their numbers (Education, 1958:409). This belief is said to run in the minds of the policy makers in England in the 1990s.

Secondary Modern Schools

The secondary modern schools in accordance with the 1944 Education Act, officially came into existence on 1st April 1945 as a result of the development from the previous experimental work which had been done in senior elementary, higher-grade and central schools. This school was intended to build up the third section, the modern non-academic wing of the tripartite system of secondary education . Although the other types of schools were taking their own share of the burden in terms of the increasing number of pupils resulting from universalisation, the fact remains that their share was small. The main burden was infact being shouldered by the secondary modern schools.

These schools were intended to provide a good all-round secondary education not focused primarily on the traditional subjects of the school curriculum, but developing out of the interest of the children. Though it appealed to their interests, it was supposed to stimulate their ability to learn and teach them to pursue

quality in thought, expression and craftsmanship. It would interpret the modern world to them and give them a preparation for life in the widest sense, including a full sense of leisure. It would aim at getting the most out of every pupil, at making him adaptable and teaching him or her to do a job properly and thoroughly (New Secondary Education 1947:29-30).

Such broad outlooks and objectives constituted the main difference between the modern schools and the two other type of schools. Nonetheless, these schools in practice contained pupils who were above average but had not been selected at 11+. They were capable of covering the kind of work and reaching the kind of standards of many grammar school pupils. They also included `average' pupils in terms of intellectual ability, late developers and really backward pupils who had to struggle to attain an elementary mastery of reading, writing and arithmetic.

The theory behind the secondary modern schools was indicated by the New Secondary Education pamphlet as being based on certain assumptions :

(i) that the non-academically minded child could be educated in less time than the academically minded pupils in grammar schools;

(ii) that the modern school education should be based on activity and experience rather that on `bookish' study;

(iii)that curriculum should be 'unsystematic' in that it would not be concentrated on the traditional subjects of the school curriculum but developing out of the interest of the children.

The Ministry of Education at the time indicated that although such schooling may differ from that given in the two other types, it should not be seen as inferior to either. These schools infact must differ in what they teach and how they teach it, just as pupils differ in taste and abilities. This of course meant that the secondary modern school were to offer their own secondary education which was supposed to be

suitable for pupils who had neither the taste nor the ability and will to profit from the more academic or technical secondary education. Unlike the other two, the secondary modern school had to undertake its function with no collective tradition or established reputation to support it. Thus from the start, it was regarded as the 'poor-relation' of secondary education, and suffered from:-

(i) Unsuitable buildings;

(ii) crowded classes with forty pupils or more;

(iii) instability in staffing;

(iv) lack of specialised teachers.

By 1951 there had emerged a rather new pattern of secondary modern education due both to the readiness with which some of these modern schools have grasped the opportunity given them to experiment, but also to public pressure to make secondary modern schools capable of competing with other types of secondary schools in the field of occupational employment. This new pattern provided, besides the basic curriculum, courses, with a vocational or semi-vocational bias under a variety of names such as: `biased', `advanced', `special' and `extended'. These tended to be used interchangeably. In his work on Secondary Modern Schools, Dent (1958), as a result of visits to hundreds of modern schools all over the country; and a questionnaires to Chief Education Officers, gave the following picture of the secondary modern as of 1956:-

(i) 16% of the schools were carrying out original work;

(ii) 36% sound work showing touches of originality;

(iii) 43% sound but unremarkable work;

(iv) only 5% had not moved far beyond the standards of the pre-1944 senior elementary schools.

6.3: THE PERIOD OF REFLECTION(1965-1985)

This period is what can be alternatively known as the period of curricula enlightenment. It gave an opportunity for reflection in the educational system and a chance to see what could be offered in the future. We have seen that secondary education existed before this period in the form of grammar, technical and secondary modern schools which were approved under the 1944 Education Act. To argue that there existed only the tripartite system of secondary education, is to lose track of the educational changes and events that occurred. For, throughout the country, there were schools which in one way or the other did not conform to any of the three main types discussed. These came to be known as bilateral or multilateral schools. That is to say, schools that had under one roof two, or three, streams: for example grammar - modern; grammar - technical; technical - modern or grammar - technical - modern. Though comprehensive schools might have officially been established during this period, there is an indication that the idea had long been perceived. Cobden (1854:22) remarked:

> "Notwithstanding the great gulf that separates the middle from the working classes, and the middle from the higher classes in this country, nothing would tend so much to break down that barrier as to erect common schools of so superior a quality that people should find nowhere in their vicinity an opportunity ___ what ever the class might be __ of giving the children a better opportunity that by availing themselves of the facilities accorded by the common schools"

This comment, attributed to Richard Cobden (1854) proves that the idea of a common school had been in existence for many years yet, it took a hundred years or so before the lobby for comprehensive schools achieved its aim.

The criticisms of the selection system, especially the very concept that children were categorised into fixed minds had become too sustained to resist. So the educationalists and politicians postulated equality of access, not to an appropriate secondary school but to an appropriate education within a common comprehensive school. They rejected the selective system which fostered inequality and hindered

social mobility among classes. These views might have been given strength by a report from the National Foundation of Education Research (1957) which indicated that about 12% of children had been allocated to wrong schools at the age of 11+ and not even the most stringent methods of allocation could reduce the error to 10%. The examination success of the children was also a factor to reckon on. The statistics before the abolition of the 11 + examination showed that about 75% of children were deprived at eleven of the chances to take GCE, to embark on higher education, or to enter the high status professions. This unfairness was compounded by the fact that the proportion of places in selective schools varied greatly from area to area. Some authorities placed only 10% of children in grammar schools, some 40% with a wide range in between. There had been some confusion amongst psychologists in the early 1950s as to the reliability of the tests in measuring innate abilities and as to the validity of tests, when it was realised that performance in them could be influenced by many factors (such as social background, previous learning experience and rate of physical and mental growth). Linked with the philosophy of equality and social justice were views about societal prosperity.

To meet all these criticisms, a large section of opinion was in favour of a new educational experiment of some form of secondary school in which the three (or more) types of school are combined in the same institution, but without rigidly separated or parallel sides, streams or departments, as had been the case in bilateral or multilateral schools. The new experiment which took all children from the primary schools of a given area or neighbourhood, provided the kind of education considered as the best to suit each individual because there are not in reality three types of children, but only categories of children with different needs. Hence, there emerged the opposite to tripartism: the so-called Comprehensive School.

Pedley defines the comprehensive school in the following terms:

> "The comprehensive school caters for all children through a system on a central core of subjects common to all, from which branches classes in specialised subjects taken according to the desires, aptitudes and capacities of the children"(1978 :26).

Owing to its having from the start been a political issue, the controversy over the comprehensive school has infact evoked a great deal of educational dispute between the major political parties (Holt 1978:19). Some argued that the comprehensive schools took shape not from a clear educational vision but from a political solution to the problems of pupil selection. Nonetheless, the comprehensive view of equal opportunity was favoured by the labour government in office from 1964 to 1970. In the words of Silver :

> " a full system of comprehensive schools with the abolition of grammar schools and of selection, matched in practice with the principle of equal access to an appropriate education"(1975 : 23).

But the major opposition party at the time, the Conservative Party, consistently held to the principle of retaining the grammar schools and ensuring the independence of the public schools which they contended had an important contribution to make to the supply of first-rate talent and leadership. So they, naturally, favoured a segregated secondary school system and the retaining of selection.

In 1964, there was a government declaration of policy in favour of a universal pattern of comprehensive secondary school education, and in July 1965 the DES issued circular 10/65 declaring that the government was to end selection. The circular listed six main forms of organisation, although not all of them met the general comprehensive school's criteria. The most popular was the `orthodox comprehensive school' which catered for all students between the ages of 11 to 18. In other types, the age range was limited and pupils could attend junior or middle schools to 13 or 14, then move to senior schools. Other variations included schools for all pupils upto 13 or 14 and then the transfer of some pupils to senior schools or a choice at that age between senior schools which conducted examination courses to 16 or 18 and those which did not. There was no unified system or specific form requested by the central authority. Some educational authorities operated two or more of the systems side by side, offering a choice to some children.

Circular 10/66 latter on declared that no funds would be available for secondary building projects other than those compatible with re-organisation of the criteria mentioned in circular 10/65. This immediately caused the Conservative Party to withdraw circular 10/65 when they won the election of 1970 by introducing circular 10/70 which left re-organisation decisions to the discretion of Local Authorities. But in 1974, the labour party returned to power and restored circular 10/65. In addition they also gave a firm approval to all-through schools (11 - 18 age range) and to two-tiered arrangements where all pupils transfer at 13 or 14. Despite the opposition to comprehensive policy, the 1960's marked the point of high support for re-organisation of secondary education by many LEAs. Jenkins (1968) indicated that the number of schemes for comprehensive re-organisation that were either implemented or approved for implementation by the DES covered 100 out of the 162 LEAs. Of these, about 70 schemes were for the whole or major part of an area of an LEA. He added that a further 22 schemes were actually under consideration by the DES and 23 LEAs had not at the time submitted schemes. Only 12 schemes were actually rejected by DES as being incompatible with comprehensive principles and just four LEAs had refused to submit schemes at all. To sum up, comprehensive re-organisation policy has achieved only partial success because it depended on the party in power, the way the government circulars are interpreted by LEAs, and individual school responses to the concept of re-organisation (Issan 1986).

Institutional Pattern of comprehensive Schools

The English comprehensive school aims at providing all the secondary educational facilities needed by the children of a given area. Building on what has been mentioned above, in respect of comprehensive ideology, the following objectives of the school as identified by a working party of educationists were given by Monks (1970).

(i) To eliminate segregation in post-primary education by gathering pupils of the whole ability range in one school so that by their association, pupils may benefit from each other, and that easy re-adjustment in grouping and in subjects studied may be made as pupils themselves change and develop;

(ii) to collect pupils representing a cross section in one school so that academic and social standardisation may be achieved; an integrated school society and a gradual contribution to an integrated community beyond the school may be developed out of amalgamation of varying abilities and social environment;

(iii) to concentrate teachers, accommodation and equipment so that pupils of all ability groups may be offered a wide variety of educational opportunity and scarce resources may be used economically.

Ford (1969) perceived that comprehensive schools would cause the following:

(i) a greater development of talent;
(ii) a greater equality of opportunity for those with equal talent;
(iii) the widening of children's occupational horizons;
(iv) a relative decline in social interaction in school which normally take place within the boundaries of anticipated occupational categories and a relative increase in interaction across such categories.

So far, the objectives that have been discussed in the preceding sections manifest the ideas of integration in education, equality of access to educational opportunities and utilisation of educational resources, in addition to preparing students for work. How then can the internal organisation of the school contribute to achieving these objectives? The ideal internal organisation of the English comprehensive school is based on differentiation and calls for mixed-ability grouping at all stages. There is however a difference between what 'ought' to happen and what is happening inside the comprehensive school. Unstreaming or total ability grouping has not been achieved. Grouping of pupils either takes the

form of streaming or setting or banding, plus mixed ability. Although the streaming method has been criticised because it works against the comprehensive school ideal, some schools still provide homogeneous classes of the same level of ability in specific subjects of their curriculum especially in the fourth and fifth years when the influence of public examinations clearly begins more directly to dictate the choice of curricula (Issan 1986). Davies (1977) argues that this method segregates pupils in their school. He states that if a pupil sees himself weak, he/she will seek to act accordingly and resist any attempt to convince him that he is anything different. The social effect of streaming, he asserts, results in the formation of low self concept among those who fail to meet their teachers' demands.

Setting has the same objectives and is based on the same principles as streaming but is a more refined process because pupils are grouped into homogeneous classes based upon ability in a specific subject. Setting is often organised for pupils who are supposed to be preparing for different public examinations. The broad ability bands systems used by some schools is seen as trying to avoid the weaknesses of streaming. It is regarded as a transitional stage towards non-streaming. With the band system, students in each band are arranged in classes, each of which reflects the spread of ability as a whole. The pupils are only unstreamed within the band. As far as mixed-ability grouping is concerned, the class theoretically contains an equal proportion of high, medium and low intellectual level students.

From the foregoing discussions, the kinds of grouping operating in comprehensive schools reflect the notion that all pupils should be taught in the same school, but in accordance to their abilities. In lieu of the fact that these schools are under the pressure of external examinations, they are left with no alternative other than to employ arrangements of teaching groups that run contrary to its objectives.

6.3: NEW INITIATIVES (From 1986 to date)

The new initiative has come about as a result of the dissatisfaction of the existing system in education. The Black Papers published in 1969-1977 criticised the education system in general and in particular, progressive methods of teaching, comprehensive schools, private education and students revolt. Cox and Dyson (1971) attacked the ideology of comprehensive schools and 'progressive' education in general. Maude (1971) in his paper `The Egalitarian Threat, contended that the most serious danger facing England at that time was the threat to equality of education at all levels. The motivating force behind this threat, he concluded was the ideology of egalitarianism. To him this ideology destroyed those schools (grammar) which made special efforts to bring out the best talent in children. As a matter of fact the ideal model of comprehensive school is based on the socialist ideology; but the English national ideology also recognises inherent differences of talent and elitism. Thus, the institutional pattern and the internal organisation that have emerged within the English model have not been without controversies.

6.4.1: The Education Act of 1988

Unlike the 1944 Education Act, that of 1988 aimed at striking out at new directions: primarily to break the monopoly of local authorities, to substitute competition for co-operation as the motivating force of change and to subject all schools to the free play of the market. The act has introduced reforms in schools as well as further and higher education. This study, however, will discuss only the reforms in the secondary education.

The National Curriculum

The Education Act which was passed in July 1988, provided for the establishment of a NC in all state schools. It also made arrangements for testing and assessment and the approval of qualifications. The general aims of the curriculum

were to promote the development of pupils and society and to prepare school children for entry into adult life. This was said to be achieved through a broad and balanced curriculum. A system of school reporting of individual pupils' achievement in the NC was also introduced whereby parents will receive progress reports each year.

Religious Education and Collective Worship

Religious education had long been recognised as being an important aspect in pupils' formation. Its importance dates as far back as the 1944 Education Act when it was made the only compulsory subject to be taught in schools. The 1988 Act amends requirements for daily collective worship in state-maintained schools so that it can be organised at times other than at the beginning of the day. It gives opportunities for non-Christians to have a separate assembly if there are sufficient numbers to justify it, and where schools have pupils of different religious faiths, a multi-faith assembly may be held.

Admission of Pupils to state-maintained Schools

State-supported schools were required from September 1990 to admit pupils up to the limit of their available physical capacity so as to increase the chances of children being given places in the school of their parent's choice.

School Financing and Management

There is provision for the annual determination by local education authorities (LEAs) of the financing of each state-maintained school, and for delegating to governing bodies responsibility for important aspects of financial management and appointment of staff. LEAs are to submit to the Secretary of State for Education for approval, a scheme outlining the means to be used each year for allocating expenditure between schools under their control. Governing bodies of schools with delegated budgets were to be responsible for deciding how many teaching and non-

teaching staff should work at their schools. Their powers have been greatly increased in respect of appointment, suspension and dismissal of teachers, headteachers, and non-teaching staff.

Grant-Maintained Schools

It has been possible since July 1988, for schools to withdraw from LEA control and to be directly funded. These are known as grant-maintained schools. Governing bodies of all local authority - maintained secondary schools and primary schools with more than 300 pupils are empowered to apply to the Secretary of State for grant-maintained status. The governors of the newly constituted schools were to receive, on approval, an annual maintenance grant to pay for their school's running costs. The new governing bodies of such schools were to have five elected parent-governors, one or two teacher governors, and a headteacher as an ex-officio member, plus an equivalent number of governors representing the local community.

The City Technology Colleges

Under the 1988 Act, the Secretary of State for Education may enter into agreements for funding of City Technology Colleges. These colleges, which are to be set up in urban areas, will provide broadly based secondary education but with a strong technological element. They are to be independent of LEAs but be part of the public system of education. Normal school running costs are to be met by the Secretary of State for Education, while capital costs are shared with the bodies responsible for managing the colleges.

Teacher Training

Measures to strengthen initial teacher training have included the issue of criteria on which courses must meet and the establishment of the Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (CATE) to review courses against the criteria. The government considers the regular and formal appraisal of the performance of all

teachers as essential if LEAs are to have the information necessary to support and deploy staff to the best advantage. Appraisal would also help teachers to realise their full professional potential by offering them more job satisfaction and appropriate INSET and better planned career contribution. Since the government feels that resources devoted to INSET have not been used efficiently, it now requires a more systematic planning by schools and LEAs to match training better to the career needs of teachers and to the curricula needs of schools.

Examinations

The GCSE, taken after the first five years of secondary education, has a seven-point scale of grades denoted by the letters A to G. The government intends that the GCSE will be the main vehicle for assessing attainment at key stage 4 of the NC. GCSE courses were introduced in 1986 with a view to improving the examination syllabus and raising levels of performance. Syllabuses and assessment procedures comply with nationally agreed guidelines known as national criteria. The objective of this, at least to the level achieved by pupils of average ability in individual subjects (CSE 4),and to do this over a broad range of skills and competence in a number of subjects. A government report published in October 1988 (Education Reform in Britain) concluded that the introduction of the GCSE had led to a marked improvement in both oral and written work; more and better practical and investigative work; and pupils are better able to demonstrate what they knew, understood and could do. But, following the achievement of superficially higher GCSE and GCE 'A' level in the summer of 1992, the government is to investigate to see whether or not there has been a fall in standards.

6.5: THE ORGANISATION AND MANAGEMENT OF THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

The educational system in England and Wales had always been described as a discentralised system before the introduction of the 1988 Education Act. The following were some of it's unique features:

(i) Existence of strong and influential private sector alongside state sector;

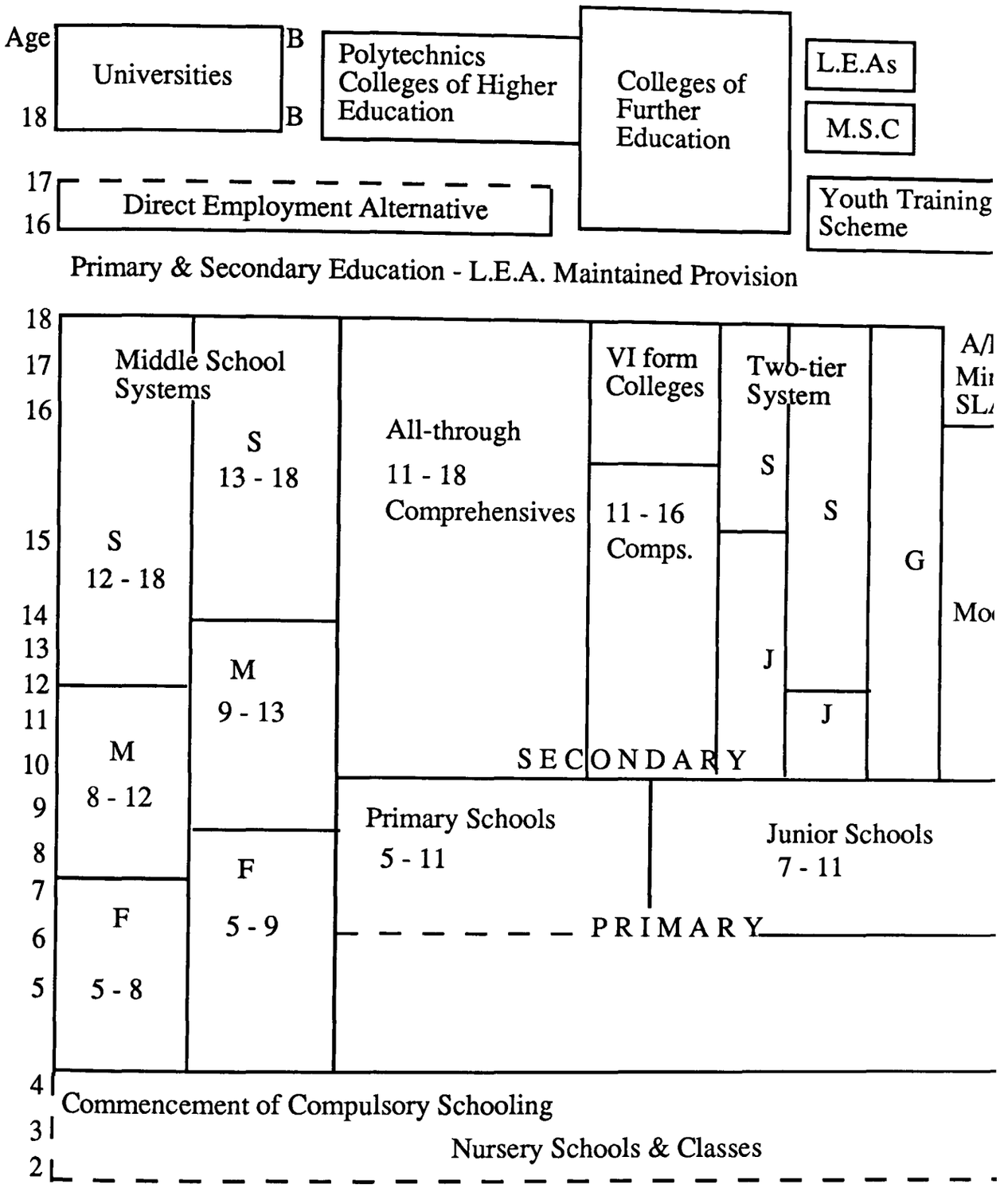
(ii) contributions played by churches and voluntary organisations which influenced all major educational legislature;

(iii) checks and balances on the distribution of power and responsibility;

(iv) enormous amount of professional freedom and autonomy.

Some of the features above have however, been challenged or said to have been undermined as a result of the 1988 Education Act. For instance, the place of the church's' control being weakened in favour of parental power; teachers' freedom being curtailed by NC; very detailed legal requirements being enshrined in law. However, the act has maintained the institutional pattern of the educational provision as seen in fig.6.1 below.

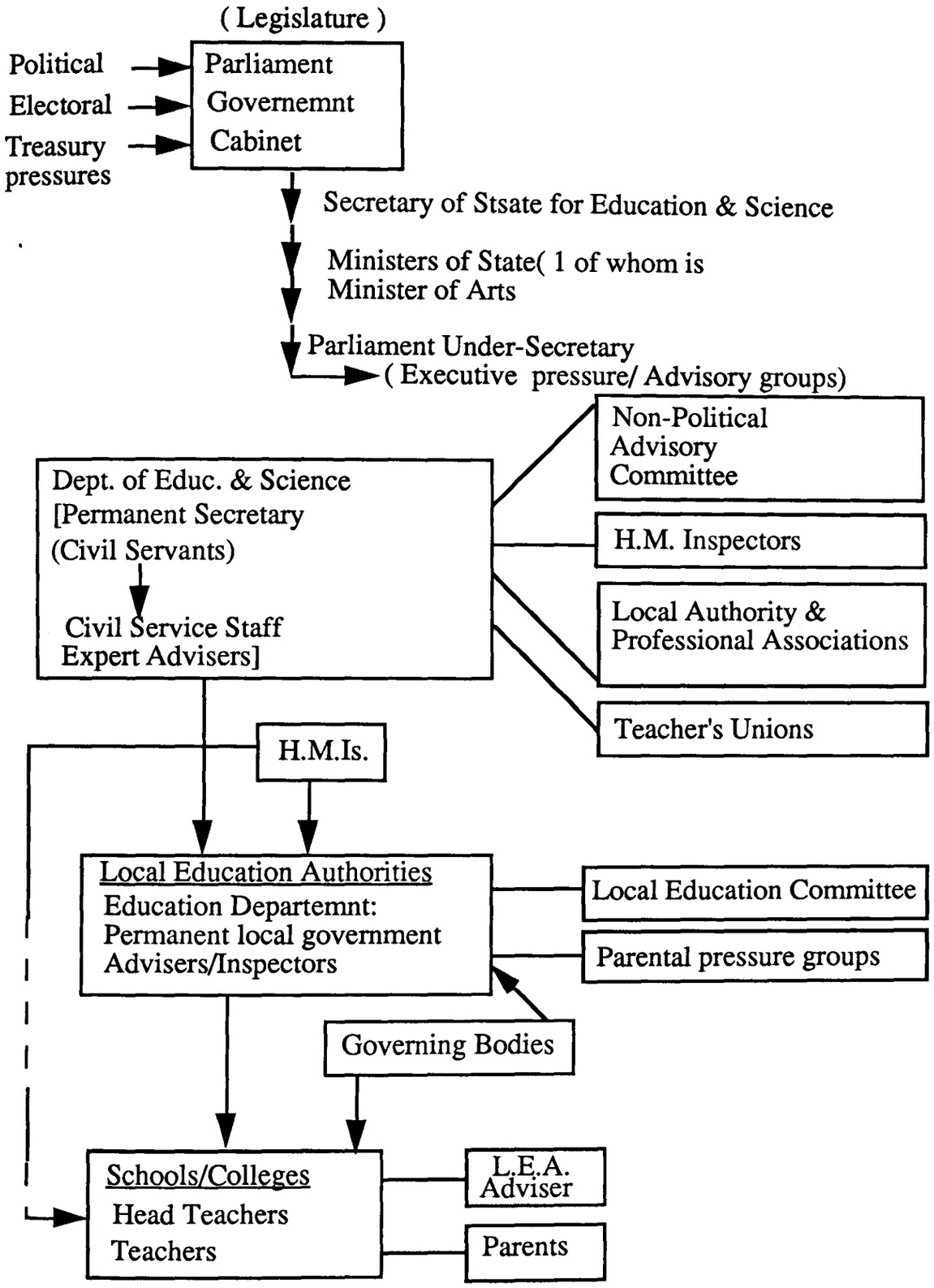
Fig. 6.2: The Institutional Pattern of Educational Provision for Higher and Further Education



B -B= binary line; MSC=Manpower Service Commission;
S=Senior Comprehensive School;J=Junior comprehensive school;
M=Middle school;F=First school;G=Grammar school
mod=Modern school; Min.SLA=Minimum school leaving age

SOURCE: Handout from School of Education, University of Reading.(1991)

Fig.6.2: The Structure of Educational Administration in England and Wales.



Source: Handout from School of Education, University of Reading.

The introduction of the NC by the 1988 Education Reform Act has not in itself changed the structure of educational administration in England and Wales but separate structural changes have in any case been enacted. Furthermore, the NC

does not have to be followed by Independent Schools. The administration is still in the hands of the Central Government, Local Government and other pressure groups (see figure 6.2), but the balance of power is becoming more central.

Centrally, educational matters are handled by the parliament, ministers and the civil service. Although parliament may conduct much of the business, the one thing that does stand out is that the only person with formal responsibility for education who is a member of all these groups is the Minister of the day. He or she is apparently well placed to make the major contribution to the nations' educational policies (Mann 1979).The Secretary of State for Education presides over issues and is assisted by one of the smallest government departments, the Department of Education and Science (DES). Locally, the administration of the schools is in the hands of the LEAs. They have many statutory duties and powers , and have to ensure that local services are maintained at an acceptable level. Local authorities have to appoint a Chief Education Officer, though there is no requirement for any specific qualifications, experience or training. The Chief Education Officer needs good ideas and he or she needs even more of the skill to present these ideas convincingly to members.

The 1988 Act which is described as the most radical shake up of education since 1944 requires that LEAs do not stipulate or impose the curriculum, syllabuses, methods of teaching and teaching materials. Neither will they set or mark examinations. Decisions on all these areas are to be taken by the headteachers and school staff in accordance with criteria laid by NCC. Headteachers, together with LEA and representatives of their board of governors appoint new members of staff, plan overall policy for the school and issue annual reports. While the responsibility for deciding syllabuses, materials, equipment, allocation of grant, internal organisation and relations with parent, is jointly shared by headteachers and teachers. So educational administration in England and Wales operates in three

layers, which can be distinguished at both central and local levels as shown in figure 6.3.

Fig. 6.3. Basic Structure of Post-War Educational Administration

LAYERS OF OPERATION	CENTRAL STRUCTURE	LOCAL STRUCTURE
POLITICAL concerned with policy and decision making; carries ultimate public responsibility for educational matters. Personnel involved subject to political change both central and local.	DES Secretary of State (general policy, science & research, allocation of resources and other sensitive areas). Parliamentary Secretary (assists above). under- minister I (higher & further) (all political figures) under- II (schools)	LOCAL EDUCATION COMMITTEE Consisting of chairman & vice-chairman, majority of council members, minority of co-opted people. The LEC undertakes the duties and exercises the powers of the multi-purpose local authorities in the field of education.. They operate a sub-committee structure and delegate limited powers to schools. Managers (Governors (primary) (secondary
ADMINISTRATIVE Concerned with the provision of information and advice to the political layer, and with the execution of decisions and the day-to-day working of the educational system. Personnel involve give continuity and stability to educational system.	Permanent CIVIL SERVICE staff serving the DES at Whitehall. PERMANENT SEC. Deputy Branch under secretaries assisted by many other lower grades.	Permanent LOCAL GOVERNMENT officers. Administrative and clerical staff serving the local authority in the field of education. CHIEF EDUC. OFFICER Deputy Asst. education officers (variable division of responsibility)
ADVISORY Links the administrative layer with the staff and institutions operating in the field and provides a means through which information and advice can be masses, sifted and communicated.	HER MAJESTY'S INSPECTORATE CENTRAL ADVISORY COUNCILS (for E&W) standing committees(e.g. N.A.C.E.I.C., N.A.C.T.S.T., student grants), special committees, DES consultation with other interested parties	LOCAL INSPECTORATE (includes Advisers/organisers) AD HOC sub-committees of L.E.C. Consultation with teachers, churches, universities and other voluntary bodies and interested parties. But the chief E.O. acts as both filter and power house for passage of information and advice to the L.E.C.

SOURCE: Handout from School of Education, University of Reading (1991).

6.6: SUMMARY

The findings made by Ryan (1984) that the inequalities in the British Educational system arise not only from distinctions made on natural ability, but also due to race, class and gender biases can be supported in this study. Although race and gender as variables were not considered in the study, the class variable which was represented by the type of school has, through the literature, shown that the different type of schools are intended to serve different classes. Tawney (1964) wrote that the hereditary cause upon English education is its organisation upon lines of social class.

It is the writer's contention that, the Education Reform Act (ERA) with its policy of a broad and balanced curriculum, which has been the reasons behind the creation of the NC will help to diffuse the reproduction of social relations, social division of labour and class hierarchy. Its policy of achieving a relevant curriculum is also intended to create a more productive force to stimulate the economy. However, the extent to which the educational activities has produced a broad, balanced and relevant curriculum will be determined further in chapters 7 and 8, below. First, we must examine in more detail the secondary school curriculum in England and Wales.

CHAPTER 7

SECONDARY SCHOOL CURRICULUM IN ENGLAND AND WALES

7.1: INTRODUCTION:

What ever may be the ultimate fate of Education Acts , they will always have a variety of effects on the curriculum because different people will give different interpretations to them. The previous chapter has given us an insight on the various educational Acts that have developed a basis on which to review the current curriculum based on the notions of breadth, balance and relevance. In the section on background issues in this study, it was argued that such concepts cannot be discussed without ascertaining the views of the pupils who, after all, are the recipients of the curricula and the main concern of any nation's educational system. In view of that, it is the purpose of this chapter to review the evolution of English secondary school curriculum against which it will be possible to measure the breadth, balance and relevance of the contemporary curriculum and more in particularly as perceived by the pupils experiencing it.

7.2: CURRICULUM TRADITIONS IN ENGLAND AND WALES

The historical background and the studies of historical elements in curriculum point to the existence of several traditions. Goodson (1983) indicates that often these traditions have been related to the social class origins and the occupational destinations of their clienteles. Hence, the curricula of public and grammar schools aimed at middle and upper-class children preparing for professional life were primarily academic, whilst the elementary schools educating the majority stressed utilitarian training.

Blyth (1965), discerned three different kinds: the preparatory, the elementary and developmental. The preparatory tradition was almost exclusive to

what we now call grammar school education, which developed in its turn mainly as an upper middle-class phenomenon. Conversely, the elementary tradition with its characteristic emphasis on the basic skills was aimed at the lower class. The third tradition was for those who were unfortunate, enough to be poor and for whom the minimum education was thought to be proper and sufficient. This tradition based its principles on concern with developing each child's interest in learning along the lines recommended by Rousseau and Pestalozzi. Goodson (op.cit) equates Blyth's (1965) primary traditions with three leading traditions within secondary education:

(i) the preparatory with academic;

(ii) the elementary with utilitarian;

(iii) the developmental with pedagogic traditions.

7.2.1: Academic, Utilitarian and Pedagogic traditions:

The 1944 Education Act marked the beginning of the modern era of curriculum conflict, not so much because of it's details but because from this time onwards, curriculum conflict became more visible, public and national. Glass (1971) in this respect noted that there was no pre-war parallel for there was now a recognition that secondary education is a proper subject for discussion and study. This is in striking contrast to the pre-war position when attempts to investigate access to the various stages of education tended to be viewed by governments as attacks on class structure. This evolution in education gives an insight into certain groups, each of which can and must be treated in a way appropriate to itself.

The pupils who form the continuing clientele of the traditional subject-based curriculum were those who were interested in learning for its own sake and who could grasp an argument or follow a piece of connected reasoning, and

who cared to know how things came to be as well as how they are. Norwood (1943:2) states:

> "such pupils educated by the curriculum commonly associated with the grammar school, have entered the learned professions or have taken up higher administrative or business posts".

The academic which adapted to teaching from a pool of factual knowledge was geared to a system of external examinations and closely tied to the universities. The needs of the intermediate category- the pupil whose interest and ability lie markedly in the field of applied science or applied art, were to be fulfilled by the technical schools. Finally, the third group provided clientele for secondary modern schools. The pupils in this group were to deal with concrete things rather than with ideas. The more instrumental curricula in the technical schools were for the pupils destined to work in manufacturing whilst for future manual workers, in the secondary modern schools, the emphasis was on utilitarian and pedagogic curricula.

Initially, within the emerging secondary schools, the curriculum was free from the consideration of external examinations. This freedom allowed many of the schools to experiment with their curricula and to pursue vocational and child-centred objectives. Gibberd (1962) argued that the secondary modern school as conceived in the 1944 Education Act was never intended to work to any universal syllabus or take any external examination. However, Ivor Goodson (1991) contends that the period during which secondary modern schools were a field for experiment with vocational, child- centred and integrated curriculum was limited. More parents began to realise that certification led to better jobs, teachers found examinations a useful source of motivation and heads began to use examinations as a means of raising their schools standards and visibility.

The rapidity with which examinations came to dominate secondary modern school curricula meant that many of the characteristics of grammar school curricula were reproduced. Paradoxically, it was the growth of the public debate

about education which produced this pressure for convergence of educational patterns. But the public debate also identified considerable objections to the whole tripartite philosophy. Evidence of the 11+ was often arbitrarily and unfair. As a result, support grew for a more comprehensive system.

7.2.2: The Comprehensive Curriculum

Pidgeon (1969) commenting on philosophies of education, has pointed out that in contrast to the `elitist' approach, the comprehensive philosophy rejects all aspects of selection and demands that the resources of education are more equally shared by all children. Defining what is meant by, or accepted as, equality of opportunity is by no means easy. Crosland (cited in Vaisey 1962) suggests both a weak and strong definition. The weak one states that all children equal in ability should have an equal start in life, while the strong definition proposes that all children should have the same opportunity for developing their potential. Halsey (1961), on the other hand, suggests that the influence of social factors on measured intelligence and on educational attainments are such that the moral conclusion is drawn that equality of opportunity must be redefined in a strong sense to include also the opportunity to overcome obstacles to the development of one's ability. Fielding (1987) contends that a complementary egalitarian challenge to curriculum development has come from those who wish to rid comprehensive school of the cognitive academic model which dominated the thinking in secondary education for so long. The egalitarian nature of the argument lies in its stress on the importance of the dignity of all students and the resulting need to offer a curriculum appropriate to a comprehensive school rather than a grammar school. So the curriculum provides popular education which is appropriate to the culture and lifestyle of the pupils: oral rather than written; practical rather than theoretical. Such a curriculum therefore whatever its content, can be considered as being broad, balanced and relevant in that it provides equal opportunities for the pupils.

Providing for the individual differences is a major challenge for schools and teachers. Students come to school with a vast range of inherent individual differences and note should be taken that it is these differences in the ability to learn that cause difficulties and put pressures upon both students and teachers. Pedley (1963), when discussing comprehensive schooling during its formative years, considered the full development of everyone's talent as a fundamental principle. Bullivant (1973) ten years later, was also of the view that comprehensive schools were able to meet the academic needs of all students. He stated :

> "comprehensive schools will provide for the development of a liberated, -and there are no failures. The highly advantaged find surprise them and the slow learners blossom and emerge as people of value"(p.21).

However, Shaw (1983), Weeks (1986) and Stevens (1980), amongst others, saw the practice of mixed ability grouping as not being in the interest of most students in these schools. The concern of such writers is that teaching is directed to the middle of the class and, therefore the most able and the least able do not benefit (Harslett 1987). Studies by Kerry (1982 and 1984) on the level of questions asked and type of tasks set by teachers for students in mixed ability classes, found that both were pitched at low cognitive levels and focused on the acquisition of knowledge rather than on high order thinking tasks. The relative merits of mixed ability as compared to streaming as modes of pupils organisation is controversial. Evidence seems to be inconclusive. Harslett (1987), after examination of the work of Tilsly (1980), concludes that mixed ability is the preferred pattern of grouping students in lower secondary schools. This is supposed to have disadvantaged gifted and talented pupils. Such is the opinion shared by Shaw in the conclusion to his book when he says:

> "we cannot afford to neglect our most able children whatever their social background, and leave them to waste their time and energies in mixed ability classes in schools desperately coping with the needs and interest of children differing widely in abilities and attitudes."(1983:162)

Even when pupils have been grouped in the form of streaming, setting, banding or grammar school selection, it does not necessarily mean that the gifted and talented will be properly provided for. However, it is often assumed that this will be the case. Harslett (1987:67) quotes the words of the Head of English Department in a grammar school: "they are all bright here we have no need to do anything special." The decision not to do anything special was discovered by the HMIs to be widespread (DES 1977). An obvious reason for this tension is the conflict between notions of equality and elitism within the comprehensive model. Harslett (op.cit) quotes the words of a experienced teacher"

> "you have the equality and you have the individual needs for each child to realise their potential------, how do you reconcile that with the first?"

Elliot (1974) and Hargreaves (1984) saw the cause of this tension as a dilemma. The former proposed that educational equality is a complex idea and is made up of the inter-related principles as follows:

(i) equality of respect by virtue of the common humanity of people;

(ii) equality of right of opportunity for self development;

(iii) equality of right to opportunity of achieving certain social goods.

The dilemma, as discussed by Elliot (1976), is most acute in respect of provision for academically talented students. To make special provision through streaming, or extra assistance for examination preparation emphasises inequality and produces tension between sections of the school population. This is because it favour equality of opportunity for students to develop their individual talents to the full, with no regard for equality. This being based on the assumption that those not identified as 'talented' will perceive themselves as lesser persons and achieve in accord with this low esteem. This seems especially to operate in such subjects such as mathematics and science, which provide access to elevated social positions with high pay as well as status. Elliot proposed that it was the desire to avoid selection

that caused schools to maintain mixed ability grouping as long as possible and so post-pone such practices as streaming, banding or setting until late in their schooling. It is this which prompted Elliot to assert that mixed ability teaching has a diagnostic function and value.

7.3: THE CURRICULUM IN CONTEXT

The secondary school curriculum inevitably continues to change, and for several very valid reasons. There are significant weaknesses in the system which have been expressed both in written and verbal form. In one of the writer's interviews, a headteacher had this to say:

> the government should not concern herself with the range of subjects and call that a balanced curriculum. Their main concern should be whether the changes can be implemented with the minimum disruption of what had been in existence (22nd January, 1992).

On the other hand, even if all schools were equally updated in all curricula areas and activities, there would be a tendency to effect changes for new research. This would expose valuable curriculum content as well as innovative theories for appropriate curriculum organisation and instruction. Before the Ruskin college speech of James Callaghan that provoked the Great Debate, the curriculum was likened to a secret garden into which only educationalists were permitted entry (Lawton 1989). Callaghan identified a number of concerns which have been returned to by politicians during the subsequent years (for example: standards, core curriculum, meeting the needs of industry, etc).

7.3.1: The Move Towards a National Curriculum

With the appointment of Kenneth Baker as Secretary of State of Education in 1986, perceptions as to how far there should be prescription by the central government changed. Emerson and Goddard (1989) stated that for the first time a nationally determined core curriculum became a real issue. The Conservatives party promised in their election manifesto of June 1987 that should it be returned to

power, it would establish a National Core Curriculum. After their election victory, the conservative government published a consultative document: The National Curriculum 5-16. In it there was support for the aims of education as set out in the white paper Better Schools. The consultation document claimed that the National Curriculum backed by clear assessment arrangements would raise standards of attainment by:

(i) ensuring that pupils study a broad and balanced range of subjects throughout their compulsory schooling;

(ii) setting clear objectives for what children over the full range of ability should be able to achieve;

(iii) ensuring that all pupils have access to broadly the same good and relevant curriculum and programmes of study;

(iv) checking on progress towards those objectives and performance achieved at various stages, so that pupils can be stretched further when they are doing well and given more help when they are not.

In addition to raising standards, the consultating document indicated that the national curriculum would:

(a) ensure that the curriculum offered in all maintained schools has sufficient in common to enable children to move from, one area of the country to another with minimum disruption to their education. It will also help children's progression within and between primary and secondary education and will help to secure the continuity and coherence which is too often lacking in what they are taught.

(b) enable schools to be more accountable for education they offer their pupils, individually and collectively. It will help alert teachers to problems experienced by individual children so that they can be given special attention. Employers too will have a better idea of what a school leaver may have studied and learnt at school.

The document continued to state that the government considered that the advantages and consistent improvement in standards can be guarantied only within a national framework which must be backed by law. But this law provides a framework not a strait jacket.

7.3.2: Requirements of the National Curriculum

The requirement of the NC discussed here are not claimed to be definite. This is as a result of the debates still going on as to what constitute a NC. As a result the NC is a more vulnerable to political opinion and subject to amendments at any time.

What is a NC?

In the case of England and Wales, the NC is the curriculum laid down by the government to be studied by all pupils in the state sector during the period of compulsory schooling (i.e. age 5-16). It also applies to grant maintained (opted out) schools but does not include nursery schools, classes in primary schools, city technology colleges (CTC) and schools in the independent sector. It is, however, expected that schools will choose to arrange their curriculum in accordance with the NC provisions and to submit their pupils for national assessment at the prescribed ages.

The NC in England and Wales consists of five components:

(i) Core subjects;
(ii) Foundation subjects
(iii) Attainment Targets
(iv) Programmes of Study, and
(v) Assessment.

The relationship between these subjects is shown in table 7.1.

Table. 7.1: The core and foundation subjects

Core Subjects	Foundation Subjects
Mathematics	History
English	Geography
Science	Technology
Welsh (for schools in Wales which are Welsh-speaking	Music
	Art
	Physical Education
	A modern foreign language (for pupils 11-16)
	Welsh (for schools which are non-Welsh in Wales)

*Although Technology is the subject name used in the Act, the title Design and Technology is the one likely to be adopted for this curriculum area.

Source: D. Lawton (1989:45); Education, Culture and the National Curriculum.

Foundations Subjects

Within the list of the foundation subjects, Mathematics, English Science and Welsh form the core of the curriculum. Foundation subjects are to be followed by all pupils for the full length of compulsory schooling. It is not however intended to allocate time as indicated by Lawton (1989). It is a mere suggestion that core and foundation subjects take up to 80-90% of the curriculum in schools where there is a good practice. In addition there are cross-curricula themes which are expected to be encompassed within the NC but to be taught through other subjects. Though the NC is described in the Education Reform Act of 1988 purely in terms of subjects, it is the wish of the government that opportunities be created for working across the curriculum where this is appropriate. The report : The National Curriculum: 5-16: A Consultation Document indicated that there are a number of subjects or themes such as health education and use of information technology, which can be taught through other subjects. Such subjects or themes should be taught through the foundation subjects, so that they can be accommodated within the curriculum but without crowding out the essential subjects. Chris and Ivo (1989) mentioned that the national curriculum is likely to have two aspects of cross-curricula activities. The

first aspect seeking to identify the commonalty and inter-relationships between subjects. Here pupils will be shown how the skills learnt in one subject applies to other parts of the curriculum. Thus the skills associated with measure or manipulation and interpretation of data, first learnt in mathematics classroom could be applied in the sciences, geography and history. This aspect may be reinforced by the introduction of records of achievement which will identify five general skills:

(i) information handling;
(ii) organising work;
(iii) communication skills;
(iv) working with others;
(v) personal qualities.

The second aspect concerns the identification of themes which straddle the curriculum and to which many of the individual core and other foundation subjects can contribute. The following are a number of themes which have been identified at the time of writing, though the list is likely to be exhaustive:

(i) economic awareness;
(ii) consumer affairs;
(iii) health education;
(iv) information technology;
(v) media studies;
(vi) career education;
(vii) environmental issues.

Attainment Targets. (AT)

In the section 2 of the Education Reform Act (1988), ATs are defined as the knowledge, skills and understanding which pupils of different abilities and maturities are expected to have by the end of each key stage. As well as knowing and understanding what pupils can do at ages 7, 11, 14 and 16, ATs will enable the progress of each child to be measured against established national standards. Targets are said to have provided specific enough objectives for pupils, teacher, parents and others to have a clear idea of what is expected and to produce a sound basis for assessment and testing. Some examples of ATs produced so far are:

(i) In algebra: recognition and use of functions, formulae, equations and inequalities.

(ii) In science: making new materials: pupils should develop their knowledge and understanding of the process of changing materials by chemical reaction and the way this is used in the manufacture of new materials.

(iii) In English: speaking and listening: pupils should demonstrate their understanding of the spoken word and their capacity to express themselves effectively in a variety of speaking and listening activities, matching style and response to audience and purpose.

The process therefore, by which ATs and programmes of studies are specified allows for considerable flexibility with regard to the degree of detail prescribed. ATs and Programmes of Study (PS) are said to be for pupils of different abilities and maturities. The Task Group on Assessment and Testing (TGAT) recommended assessment on a ten level scale covering the full period of compulsory education(5-16). Progress from one level to the next will reflect development according to age and time in schooling and also different abilities and aptitudes of pupils. The writer's paper titled' The National Curriculum and the Setting of Attainment Targets'(1991) was intended to create an awareness of the importance of ATs within the National Curriculum in Cameroon.

Programmes of Study (PS)

PS are defined in section 2 of the 1988 act as matters, skills and processes which are required to be taught to pupils of different abilities and maturities during each key stage. The Secretary of State in a supplementary guidance to the subject working groups, demanded that programmes of study should provide a detailed description of the content, skills and processes which all pupils need to be taught so that they can develop the knowledge and understanding they will need to progress through school and eventually to adult life and employment. In spite of the upheaval

in the system, teacher autonomy has been given a high profile within the PS . Chris & Ivo reassert this as they quote a paragraph in the 1988 act:

> "Within the overall programme of study, the government's intention is that there must be space to accommodate the enterprise of teachers, offering them sufficient flexibility in the choice of content to adapt what they teach to the needs of the individual pupils."(1989:26)

Assessment

The ATs provide standards against which pupils progress, and the assessment is intended to be carried out by teachers as an integral part of the normal classroom work. Pupils are to be assessed in each core and foundation subjects at or near the end of each key stage. The term 'assess' is defined in the Act as including 'examine' and 'test'. Any relevant technique could therefore be used - written examinations, oral or practical tests and extended coursework projects. There are two main assessment components:

(i) Standard Assessment Tasks (SAT), which will be externally set and available on a national basis;

(ii) Moderated Teacher Ratings, which will be based on teachers' assessment of pupils' achievement as evidence during the course.

SAT will comprise a mixture of standardised assessments including tests, practical tasks and observations. It is thus hoped to minimise any possibility that the national assessment system will cause curriculum distortion. There will however be differences in style of SATs used at the various key stages which will reflect both the maturity of the pupil and the way in which the curriculum is likely to have been delivered. The production of SATs at the various key stages is the responsibility of the Schools Examination and Assessment Council (SEAC).

Moderated Teacher Rating is the process of checking the assessment of individual teachers to bring them into line with national standards. It is necessary since teachers may only have experience of the standards of achievement of pupils

in their own school or locality. Since school catchment areas differ, such experience is rarely representative of the whole population of pupil throughout the country. Moderation therefore, places the assessments of the individual teacher into the national context.

7.4: SOME CURRICULUM INITIATIVES

7.4.1: DES Initiatives

The bureaucratic technicist ideology that greater control in DES moves to effect greater control over the educational system in the late 1970's led to a number of DES publications on the curriculum. The Yellow Book had commented as early as 1976 that to be successful, -----teaching of a high quality is needed with careful planning and clear understanding of aims. The structure and balance of secondary school curriculum centred on the requirements for a common core curriculum in order to support the DES beliefs about individual needs and the economy. This argument reaffirmed in the 1977 paper 'Educating our Children' was echoed again in the Green Paper of July, 'Education in Schools". This document invited the local education authorities to carry out a review of the curriculum arrangements within schools.

The documents 'A Framework for The School Curriculum' shows the DES at the forefront in establishing documents that set out its aims and against which LEA's could evaluate their provision at a local level. The documents 'Curriculum 11-16' (Dec.1977) and 'Secondary Schools Survey' - Aspects of secondary Education in England' (Dec.1979) stated in its introduction that there is no intention of advocating a centrally controlled or directed curriculum: It goes on to say that 'what has so often been implicit may well have to be explicit, including the definitions of roles, duties and responsibilities at the many different operational levels'.

The HMI paper 'Curriculum 11-16' (1977) argued for a common curriculum for all pupils up to the age of 16 which should comprise eight areas of experience:

(i) the aesthetic & creative;
(ii)the ethical;
(iii) the linguistics;
(iv) the mathematical;
(v) the physical;
(vi) the scientific;
(vii) the social and political;
(viii) the spiritual.

Subject areas should define their relevance to the curriculum to the extent to which they contributed to the above areas of experience. Dr. Kay (1983) discussing how HMI influence in expressed what he claims to be the view of the HMI, deploys what he calls 'the super-market approach of maximum consumer choice, the most damaging factor of the century. A second major approach to the curriculum he says, has been the meritocratic one, and a third the egalitarianism of the Scandinavian schools. Of their influence on the curriculum, the question of the whole curriculum balance in terms of the eight areas of learning as has been indicated is most preferred, as compared to the super- market approach of single subjects.

7.4.2: The role of the Manpower Services Commission (M.S.C)

This section deals with the challenge to DES control of education posed by the Manpower Service Commission; and will show how its flexible approach and more direct accountability to the cabinet via the department of employment has increasingly led to its use by government to intervene quickly and directly in the area of curriculum development. The MSC was formed by the Employment and Training Act of 1973. The role of the MSC was to initiate measures aimed at alleviating the problem of unemployed people generally, and increasingly of the

young unemployed in particular. The MSC operates through two executive agencies - the Employment Service Agency(ESA) and the Training Services Agency(TSA). The District Manpower Committees which were also set-up composed of people with special interest and knowledge of local employment and training questions. These included nominated representatives of employers, trade unions, local authorities and educational interests (MSC 1983: July 15). The growth in youth unemployment demanded a rapid, flexible response from the government. The first national scheme to alleviate the problem was the Youth Opportunities Programme(YOP) introduced in 1977 following the recommendations of the Holland Report 'Young People at Work"(ibid).

The DES and LEA's expressed disquiet at the expanding role of the MSC in measures aimed at assisting young people in particular. There were accusations of encroaching on local responsibilities. Arguably YOP could have been administered by LEA's but there were worries that the ability to respond quickly would be lacking and unless it was introduced using a closely monitored specific grant, the use of monies directly for this given purpose could not be guaranteed. The DES moreover, gave no leadership at this time in encouraging LEA's to arrange special courses in colleges for the unemployed. The direct lines of control and financing capability enabled the MSC to respond directly in the interest of the economy. The DES during this period was engaged in the Great Debate and attempting through its curriculum documents to change the ideology of education and raise the level of accountability of schools. Moreover, at this time it did not have the capacity to allocate monies for particular projects but could only make recommendations via the Rate Support Grant. In this way the MSC was able to undermine the central decision-making role of the DES in articulating proposals. However, the DES did manage to respond to the challenge to some degree through the LAPP programme for 1984.

The DES carried out a review of its provision for the 16 -19 years old range in 1979 detailed in the ManFarlane Committees Report (DES 1981). There was a need from a strong lead from the DES. Pronouncements on the nature of such a 16+ programme had been made by the Schools Council's Skills for Employment Project (1980), funded by the department of Industry which emphasised the skills, knowledge and attitudes all children need to equip themselves with for adult life. The education press likewise at the time noted the worsening situation on the employment front for young school leavers.

Against this background the report was disappointing, a result of the constraints imposed by statutory arrangements binding the DES. It recommended: that LEA's review the pattern of 16-19 provision in every area and in so doing treat it as a whole; that they implement an effective and co-ordinated system of careers education guidance; that they engineer the extension of choice by the development of a new pre-vocational course in schools and colleges; and that they would ensure more co-operation between LEA's. The main new proposal to emerge from the Report was then the establishment of the Certificate of Pre-Vocational Education(CPVE), the rest amounting to little more than a call for further review by LEA's of existing provision. In contrast to the slow response by the DES, the MSC in 1981, published 'A New Training Initiative" outlining a new system of education and training for all school leavers.

7.4.3: F.E.U and the Development of The Certificated of Pre-Vocational Education

While the MSC was expanding to meet the demands for youth training and take the initiative in curriculum innovation in schools, the DES focused on examination reform, and notably the introduction of CPVE, as a direct means of leading reform in schools. Seventeen Plus A New Qualification (May 1982) was announced by Sir Keith Joseph as the Education Service counterpart of the New Training Initiative' scheme for school leavers. The certificate was to cover a year of

broadly related studies for so called 'non-academic' sixth formers based on the recommendations of the F.E.U. The nature of the CPVE course programme strongly emphasises the need for skill acquisition related to the world of work, again emphasising the DES commitment to the economic ideology of education.

Three quarters of the programmes were envisaged to be taken up by the core and vocational studies; the core elements being defined as personal and career development; communication, numeracy, science and technology, industrial, social and environmental studies, information technology, skills for learning decision-making and adaptability, practical skills, social skills and creative development. The vocational studies element of the course should be designed locally to provide a focus for the development of the core skills (paragraph 22 (ii) CPVE Consultative Document 1984) and provide an important basis for progression into employment, further education and training (para.22 (iv)).

The final component, the additional studies should provide a natural extension to the core and vocational studies and/or lead on to possible additional qualifications. The aim is for this component to be negotiated with individuals as would the focus of the vocational elements so as to devise appropriate objectives for each student. The student at the end of the one year course receives a summative profile detailing his/her competence according to set criteria provided by the Joint Board and based on assessment by the teaching staff.

7.4.4: The Advent of Technical and Vocation Education Initiative (TVEI)

The Technical and Vocational Education Initiative (TVEI) was launched by the Prime Minister in 1982, the aim being to provide the option of starting vocational and educational courses at 14 instead of the existing minimum age of 16. The pilot scheme covering ten thousand pupils was envisioned for ten projects based in England and Wales, where possible in association with LEA's. The MSC

was prepared to set up its own colleges to initiate the pilot scheme should the LEA's fail to co-operate.

7.4: NEGOTIATING THE CURRICULUM

The idea of negotiation seems to fit readily into the context in which curriculum has been used in the study. Negotiation here is not in the sense of pre-arrangement, or bargaining session as Weston (1979) sees it, but in a more provisional sense of probing for common ground by groups and individuals with divergent interests, but having as their main objective developing the pupil intellectually, physical and morally. When people negotiate within a system, for instance between departments, the negotiation is carried on within boundaries and according to some assumptions. Weston (1979) puts forth the following conditions which are necessary if negotiation is to be met:

(i) First, it must be recognised that all parties to a negotiation have power of some sort which could be invoked if necessary.

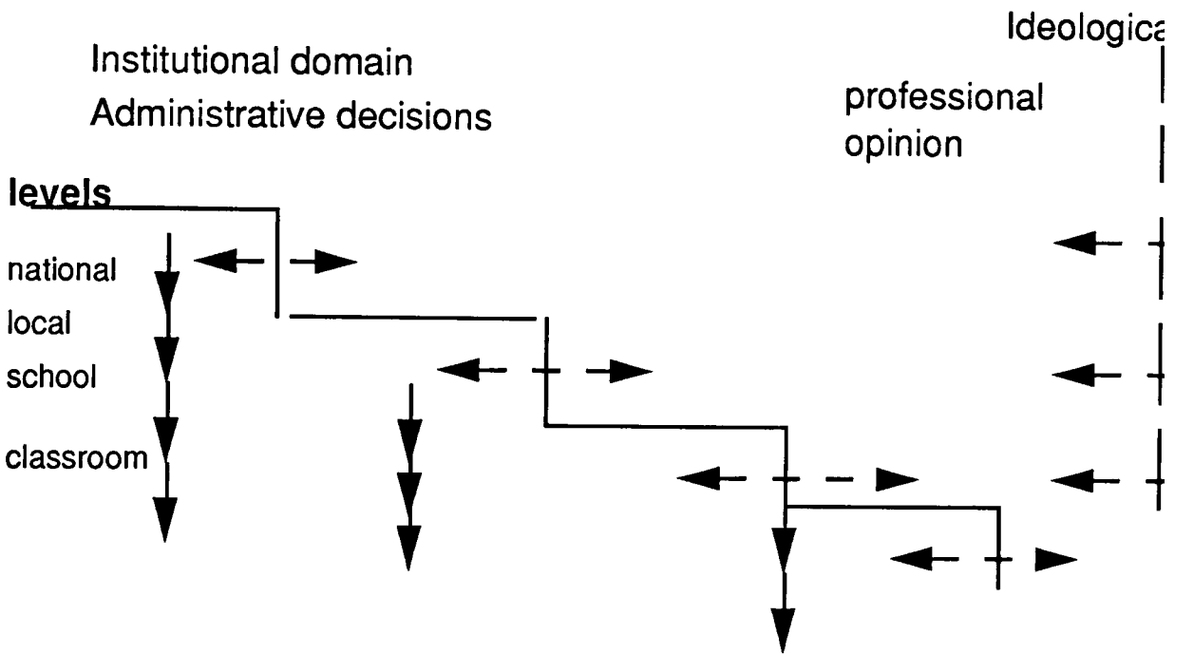
(ii) Secondary, the fundamental inter-dependence of the parties in relation to their common interest must be acknowledged, with a recognition that actually to invoke force is to risk a slide into confrontation which would be against the common interest.

(iii) Thirdly, there must be some degree of flexibility, a readiness to make concessions in order to achieve a desired end. Lastly, there must be commitment to the task, since negotiation calls for voluntary effort by all the participants.

In England and Wales, it is not easy to say where negotiation and control of curriculum lies. Barnes (1982) saw the state of affairs as an inter-play between two sets of events,(administrative decisions and shifts of opinions) which can be labelled as 'institutional' and 'ideological' domains respectively. Barnes remarked that administrative decisions can be made at four levels: national, local, school and

classroom. Within the ideological domain, there should be a distinction between professional opinion (amongst teachers and others within educational system) and from public opinion about educational matters. This can be represented spatially in the following figure.

Figure 7.1.: Negotiating and Control of curriculum at various levels and domains



Source: Barnes D. 1982. Practical Curriculum Study:251.

Figure 7.1 above indicates that the institutional domain, the unbroken arrows represent administrative decisions made at various levels which influence the school curriculum, such as decisions about open-plan patterns of school architecture made at national level affect local and school action, and eventually influence what teachers do in the classroom. Local decisions such as the building of middle schools may also limit what curriculum choices can be at school and classroom level. Similarly, a headteacher's decision about the allocation of time, pupils or resources set the conditions within which teachers make their decisions about teaching. But all this is only within the institutional domain and the educational system of England and Wales is far from impenetrable by outside opinions, whether of teachers or of various public groups. The broken arrows

represent the interplay of opinion. Not only is there an interchange at different levels between professionals and public (though perhaps not as much as it ought to be), but the decisions made at different levels are sensitive to public pressure. For example, though the NC can be said to have been introduced at the national level, the Secretary of State was most circumspect in his moves, carefully consulting opinion within the profession and outside. This is the point of including the ideological domain in a model of negotiating and control of curriculum. Barnes (1982) remarked that the institutional domain is highly sensitive to opinion in certain areas of decision-making, even though the professionals in the past managed to obtain considerable autonomy in controlling the details of the curriculum content. Because of this sensitivity, Becher and Maclure (1978) in discussing control of the curriculum use the phrase 'the politics of acceptability' to represent the way in which major curriculum changes have to be set against various interest groups to find whether they will be acceptable.

7.5.1: Logistico-Administrative Conditions

Lopes (1986) talks of logistico - administrative conditions as local situational features which are determined by decisions at the national level, and are guided by a particular view of the educational process. Thus this section will examine the following features:

(i) Classroom setting;
(ii) Mode of instruction and time-table;
(iii) Syllabus and text-books.

Classroom Setting:

The average classroom contains quite a lot of material for the teaching/learning process. Apart from the traditional blackboard and chalk, there are also apparatus some in the form of posters (see plates 1a & 1b) and audio-visual materials. Overcrowding is not typical in English schools as the average number of

pupils in the class is 30 except in rare cases where two classes may be combined for a single lesson.

Mode of Instruction and Time-table

Though instruction cannot be described as being individualised nonetheless, the relatively small numbers in the classroom creates conditions for a closer teacher-pupil relationship. Teaching\learning aids on display on the wall (see plates 2a & 2b) are designed by both pupils and teachers. This is an indication that the mode of instruction is not totally teacher-centred. It is evident from the drawing on the wall that some of the important skills which pupils and human beings in general need as creative and imaginative skills are developed and re-re-enforced in the pupils. The learning aids on display in most schools were neatly and artistically arranged (see plate 3 &4). During some of the writer's observation periods in some schools, there were a few instances when the teacher took a piece of display to use in teaching or referred to some information on the display while in the process of teaching. As regards the time allotted to the subjects, there were subjects that had single periods of 45 minutes and double-periods subjects of 90 minutes. Allocation of time is flexible as each school determines which subjects should be single and which to be double.

Syllabus & Text-books

Until recently, the long standing tradition in the English secondary schools had been of a school-based curriculum. But even with the introduction of the NC, the guide lines are so flexible as to allow schools to carry on what is deemed to be relevant. Though the guide lines may give schools a free hand in choosing what to teach, nonetheless, the NC requires that certain cross-curricula themes be catered for.

Plate 1a: Teacher and Pupils during an Information Technology lesson(IT)

Plate 1b: Apparatus and posters on the wall

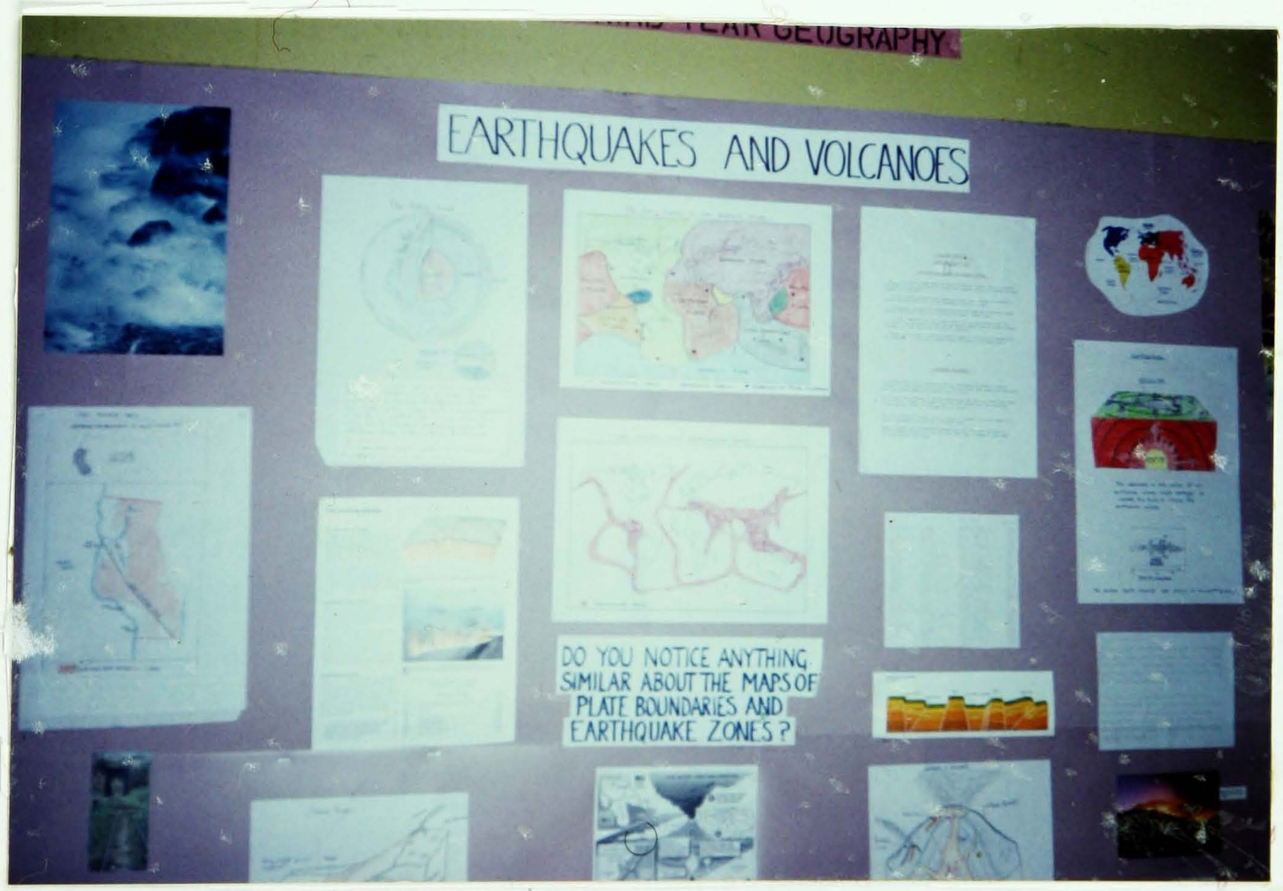


Plate 2a: Learning materials designed by pupils

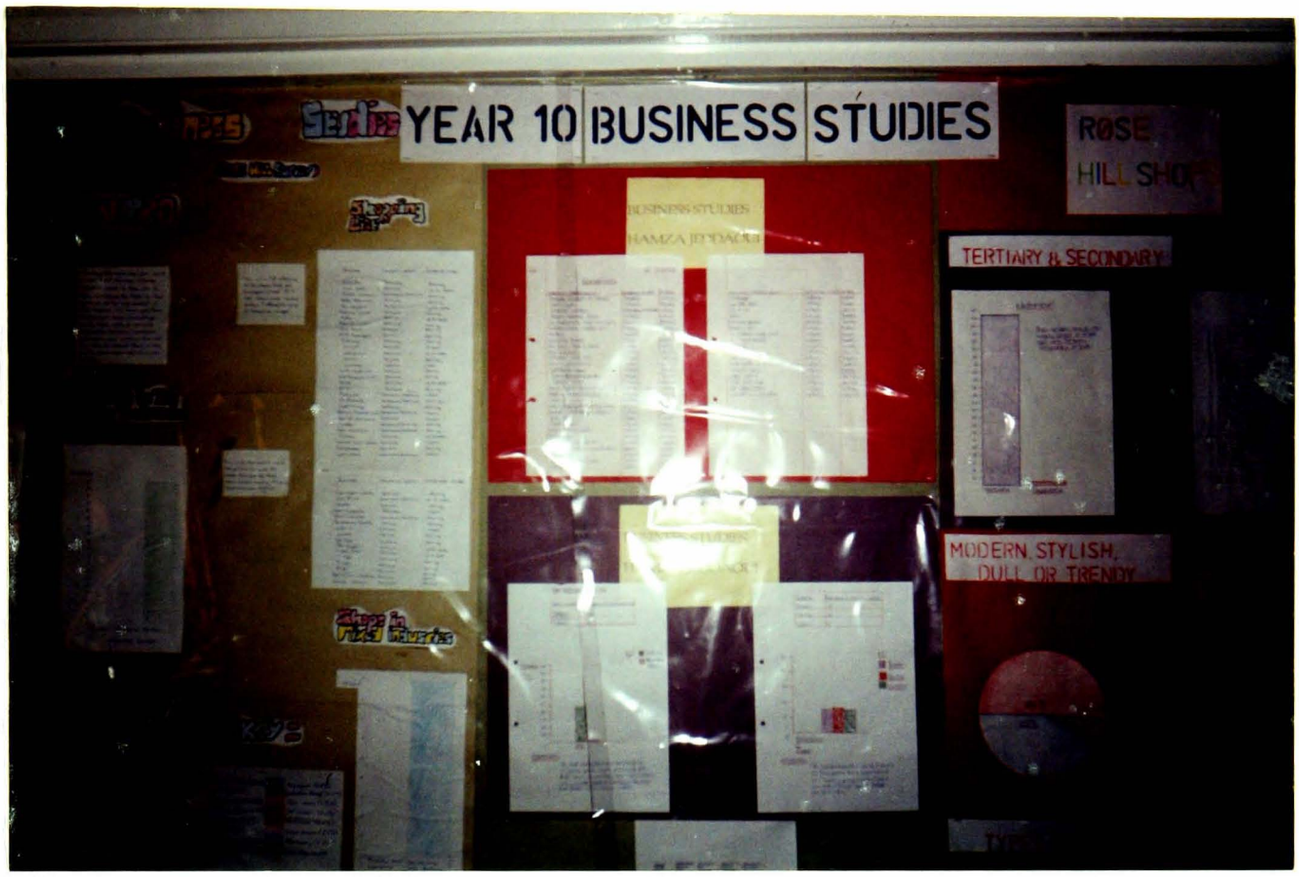


Plate 2b: Instructional materials designed by teachers

Plate 3

Plate 4

Plates 3 and 4 arranged to captivate pupils interest.

7.6: STATISTICAL ANALYSIS OF PUPIL'S QUESTIONNAIRE

From a review of the literature on secondary school curriculum above, it is necessary to describe and discuss the findings of the writers empirical work that was the primary source of information from the pupils. The pupils questionnaires to be analysed here, like those in chapter four, was intended to get the pupils views in relation to their curriculum. Their perception of the curriculum is seen in this study as one of the determinant factors in measuring the breadth, balance and relevant of the curriculum. As a result in both chapters four and seven, the analysis opens with a review of the range of subjects offered in the school. The analysis in this chapter is based on the 10 and 9 average number of subjects offered in comprehensive and grammar schools respectively.

7.6.1: Whether or not lessons are done after school?

Table:7.2 Contingency table showing observed and expected frequencies of lessons received out of school.

	Responses		
Type of school	Yes	No	Total
Comprehensive	150 165.7*	50 34.3*	200
Grammar	140 124.3*	10 25.7*	150
Total	290	60	N=350

$X^2 = 20.3$;
df= 1;
$P < 0.05$
C = .23
* Expected Frequencies

The chi-square in table 7.2 indicates that the number of extra-curricula subjects is dependent on the type of school. This significant difference therefore warrants the rejection of the null-hypothesis (Ho) which assumes that there is no relationship between the two variables. Following the findings of the average number of subjects offered in each school, we would have expected the number of pupils in comprehensive schools taking lessons outside school to be less. Notwithstanding this significance, there is still a variation as to the percentage - 75% of comprehensive pupils as opposed to 93.3% elsewhere.

7.6.2: Subjects done outside school environment

Table:7.3: Relationship between Type of School and the subjects done out of School.

Type of School	Subject Category					
	vocat.	Science	Arts	Lang.	Others	Total
compre-hensive	90 *67.2	30 *51.7	8 *9.3	5 *5.8	17 *13.4	150
Grammar	40 *62.7	70 *48.3	10 *8.7	11 *7.7	9 *12.5	140
Total	130	100	18	16	26	290

$X^2 = 38.6$;
df = 4;
$P < 0.05$
C =.34
*Expected frequencies

The Chi-square in table 7.3 reveals a significantly high degree of association between extra-curricula subjects and type of school thereby rejecting H_o. Thus the evaluation of subjects done out of school is not independent of the school. From table 7.3 it is clear that 60% of the subjects done outside school by comprehensive pupils fall within vocational subjects while 50% of those done by grammar school pupils are sciences.

Table 7.4: Overall % ranking of extra-curricula subjects offered

Subjects	N	%	Rank
vocational	130	44.8	1
science	100	34.5	2
arts	18	6.2	4
languages	16	5.5	5
others	26	9	3
Total	290	100	

From table 7.4 above, the following facts can be noted.

(i) Vocational subjects hold first place in the rank of subjects with 44.8%;

(ii) Sciences come second with 34.5%;

(iii) Others: this includes subjects such as music, singing, dancing, sex education ect. come third with 9%;

(iv) Arts in the fourth position with 6.2%;

(v) While languages is the last with 5.5%.

7.6.3: Favourite subjects

Table: 7.5 Relationship between Type of School and Pupils' Preferred subjects

Type of School	Subject Category					
	voc.	science	arts	lan.	others	total
Compreh - hesive	100 *61.9	10 *45	20 *15.7	15 14.1	35 *43.3	180
Grammar	10 *58.1	70 *35	8 *12.2	10 *10.9	42 *33.7	140
Total	110	80	28	25	77	N=320

*Expected frequencies

$X^2 = 122.1$;

df=4;

$P < 0.05$

C = .52

The X^2 in table 7.5 indicates that preferences in the subjects chosen is influenced by the type of school. From the table it can be seen that in the comprehensive schools, 55.5% of their favourite subjects fall in the vocational category while 50% in the grammar school fall in within the sciences.

Table:7 6: Overall % ranking of Preferred Subjects in both Schools

Subjects	**N**	**%**	**Rank**
vocational	110	34.4	1
science	80	25	2
arts	28	8.7	4
languages	25	7.8	5
others	77	24.1	3
Total	320	100	

Table 7.6 reveals the following

(i) Vocational subjects being first in rank with 34.4%;

(ii) Sciences being second with 25%;

(iii) Others in third position with 24.1%;

(iv) Arts with 8.7% in the fourth position;

(v) Languages in the last position with 7.8%.

7.6.4: Reasons for Subjects Preferred.

Table :7.7a: Relationship between type of subjects and reasons for subject preferences by comprehensive school Pupils.

Subject category	Reasons for preference		
	Teaching Style	Career Aspiration	Total
vocational	15 *39.4	85 *60.5	100
sciences	6 *3.9	4 *6	10
arts	12 *7.9	8 *12.1	20
languages	10 *5.9	5 *9	15
others	30 *15.8	10 24.2	40
Total	73	112	N=185

X_2 =56;
df=4;
$P < 0.05$
C=.48

Table 7.7b: Relationship between type of subjects and reasons for subject preference by Grammar School pupils.

Subject category	Reasons for Preference		
	Teaching Style	Career Aspiration	Total
vocational	5 *4.7	5 *5.3	10
sciences	20 *33	50 *36.9	70
arts	5 3.7	3 4.2	8
languages	7 *5.6	5 6.3	12
others	30 *19.8	12 22.1	42
Total	67	75	N=142

X_2 = 20.8;
df=4;
$P < 0.05$
C =.36

Table 7.8: Overall Relationship between Subject type and Reasons for subject preference by pupils in both Comprehensive and Grammar school.

Type of School	Subject Category	Reasons for Preference		
		Teaching Style	Career Aspiration	Total
Comprehe-hensive	Vocational	15 *42.8	85 *57.1	100
	Sciences	6 *4.3	4 *5.7	10
	Arts	12 *8.6	8 *11.4	20
	Languages	10 *6.4	5 *8.6	15
	Others	30 *17.1	10 *22.9	40
Grammar	vocational	5 *4.3	5 *5.7	10
	sciences	20 *30	50 *40	70
	Arts	5 *3.4	3 *4.6	8
	Languages	7 *5.1	5 *6.9	12
	Others	30 *18	12 *24	42
TOTAL		140	187	N=327

X^2 =78.2;
df=8;
$P < 0.05$
C =.44

The significant X^2 in table 7.7a shows that reasons given by comprehensive pupils for their choice of favourite subjects has a positive relationship with the subject category. Of the 100 pupils who chose vocational subjects, 85% indicated career aspirations as their reason for such choice. Similarly, in table 7.7b, the result of the significant X^2 indicates that the reasons given by the grammar school pupils has a relationship with the subjects category. Of the 70 who chose sciences, 71.4% attributed their reasons of choice to career aspirations. The combined data of table 7.7a and 7.7b is seen in table 7.8 with a high significant X^2. The results therefore confirm that even when the two schools are treated as one, there is still a relationship.

7.6.5: Least Favoured Subjects

Table 7.9 Relationship between type of school least favoured subjects in both Comprehensive and Grammar Schools.

Type of School	Subject Category					
	voc.	science	arts	lan.	others	total
Compreh - hesive	10 *61.2	66 *43.1	14 *14.7	10 *13.6	90 *57.2	190
Grammar	98 *46.7	10 *32.9	12 11.2	14 *10.4	11 *43.7	145
Total	108	76	26	24	101	N=335

*Expected frequencies
$X_2 = 172.6$;
df=4;
$P < 0.05$
C =..58

The significant X^2 in table 7.9 reveals a positive relationship between least favoured subjects and type of respective schools. Of the 190 pupils in comprehensive schools who expressed dissatisfaction with some subjects, 47.4% fall under the category 'others'. In grammar schools, the trend is different. Amongst the least favoured subjects, 67.7% were vocational subjects.

Table 7.10: Overall % ranking of least favoured subjects.

Subjects	N	%	Rank
vocational	108	32.3	1
science	76	22.3	3
arts	26	7.7	4
languages	24	7.2	5
others	101	30.2	2
Total	335	100	

Table 7.10 reveals the following:
(i) Vocational subjects first in rank with 32.2%;
(ii) Others second with 30.2%;
(iii) Sciences third with 22.7%;
(iv) Arts fourth with 7.7%;
(v) Languages last with 7.2%.

7.6.6: Reasons for Negative Attitudes

Table 7.11a: Relationship between reasons for negative attitudes and subject category in grammar schools.

	Reasons for Negative attitudes		
Subject category	Teaching Style	Career Aspiration	Total
vocational	72 64.9	26 *33.1	98
sciences	6 *6.6	4 *3.4	10
arts	5 *7.9	7 *4	12
languages	7 *9.3	7 *4.7	14
others	6 7.3	5 3.7	11
Total	96	49	N=145

$X2 = 8$;
$df = 4$;
$P < 0.05$;
$C = .23$

Table 7.11b: Relationship between Reasons for Negative Attitudes and Subject categories in Comprehensive Schools.

	Reasons for Negative attitudes		
subject category	Teaching Style	Career Aspiration	Total
vocational	5 *5.1	5 *4.9	10
sciences	46 *33.7	20 *32.3	66
arts	8 *7.1	6 *6.8	14
languages	5 *5.1	5 *4.9	10
others	33 *45.9	57 *44	90
Total	97	93	N=190

*expected frequencies
$X_2 = 16.8$;
$df = 4$;
$P < 0.05$
$C = .28$

The non-significant result in table 7.11a indicates that there is no relationship between the reasons given for subjects dislike and subject categories in grammar schools. Of the total N of 145, 67.6% showed a dislike for vocational

subjects. Of this number, 73.5% gave their reasons as lack of good teaching style. While table 7.11b revealed a significant X^2. The comprehensive pupils showed more discontent for other subjects. 63.3% of that number felt that such subjects had little or nothing to do with their career.

Table 7.12: Relationship between Reasons for Negative Attitudes and Subject category in both Schools.

Type of School	Subject category	Reasons for Negative Attitudes		
		Teaching Style	Career Aspiration	Total
Compreh-ensive	Vocational	5 *5.8	5 *4.2	10
	Sciences	46 *38	20 *24.4	66
	Arts	8 *8.1	6 *5.9	14
	Languages	5 *5.8	5 *4.2	10
	others	33 *51.8	57 *38.1	90
Grammar	Vocational	72 *56.4	26 *41.5	98
	Sciences	6 *5.8	4 *4.2	10
	Arts	5 *6.9	7 *5.1	12
	Languages	7 *8.1	7 *5.9	14
	Others	6 *6.3	5 *4.7	11
Total		193	142	335

*expected frequencies
X_2 =31.5;
df=9;
P < 0.05
C =.29

But in table 7.12, where table 7.11a and 7.11b have been compressed, there is a significant X^2 which shows that there is a relationship between the reasons given and subject category. Of the sample N = 335, 57.6% associate their negative attitudes towards some subjects because of the teaching style.

7.6.7: Extra Subjects to be Included in the Curriculum

Table:7.13: Relationship between Type of School and need for Extra-Subjects.

Type of School	Subject Category					
	voc.	science	arts	lan.	others	total
Compreh -ensive	20 *26.7	15 *25.1	10 *16	40 *26.7	75 *65.6	160
Grammar	30 *23.3	32 *21.9	20 *14	10 *23.3	48 *57.4	140
Total	50	47	30	50	123	N=300

*Expected frequencies

$X^2 = 34.1$;

df=4;

$P < 0.05$

C =.32

In table 7.13 it is evident that pupils in both schools will advocate for subjects that I place under the category 'others' to be included in their curriculum. Both the reasons given for this is more to do with the writer calls 'widening the horizon'. Evident of this is seen from the significant X^2 in table 7.14a and 7.14b.

Table 7.14a Relationship between Reasons for Needing Extra-subjects and Subject category in Comprehensive Schools

Subject category	Reasons Given		
	Career Aspiration	BM	Total
vocational	12 *6.5	8 *13.5	20
sciences	10 *4.9	5 *10.1	15
arts	5 *3.2	5 *6.7	10
languages	10 *13	30 *27	40
others	15 *24.4	60 *50.6	75
Total	52	108	N=160

BM = Broaden the Mind

$X^2 = 22.4$;

df =4;

$P < 0.05$

C =.35

Table 7.14b Relationship between reasons for needing extra-subjects and subject category in grammar schools.

subject category	Reasons Given		
	Career Aspiration	BM	Total
vocational	20 *15.6	10 *14.3	30
sciences	22 *16.7	10 *15.3	32
arts	8 *10.4	12 *9.6	20
languages	5 *5.2	5 *4.8	10
others	18 *25.2	30 *23	48
Total	73	67	N=140

BM = Broaden the Mind
X_2 =11.2.4;
df =4;
$P < 0.05$
C =.27

7.5.8: Psychological Reasons for Working Hard

Table 7.15: Relationship between Type of School and Psychological reasons for working hard.

Type of school	Psychological reasons			
	PG	CA	NA	Total
Compreh-ensive	40 *41.1	150 *142.8	10 *16	200
Grammar	32 *30.8	100 *107.1	18 *12	150
Total	72	250	28	N=350

PG = Personal Gratification
CA =Career Aspiration
NA = Need for Approval
X^2 =6.1;
df=2;
$P < 0.05$
C = .13

Psychological reasons for working hard at school has no relationship with the type of school as is evident from table 7.15. Not. withstanding this non-significant result, there is still an indication from pupils of both schools that their reasons for working hard at school is more to do with career aspiration- 75% in comprehensive schools while 66.7% of pupils in grammar schools feel that career aspiration is their motivating factor.

7.6.9: Range of Subjects to be Dropped

Table 7.16: Relationship between range of subjects to be dropped and the type of school.

Type of school	Range of subjects		
	1-3 (A)	3&above(B)	total
Comprehensive	110 *113.7	80 *76.2	190
Grammar	90 *86.2	54 *57.8	144
Total	200	134	334

X^2 =.7;
df =1;
P < 0.05
C = .04
* Expected Frequencies

The X^2 in table 7.16 is not significant. Irrespective of the number of subjects offered in both schools, the pupils are all of the opinion that the range of subjects to be dropped should be between 1-3.

7.6.10: Reasons for Dropping Subjects

Table 7.17: Relationship between subjects to be dropped and the reason for dropping them in both schools

Type of School	Range of Subjects	Reasons Given			
		NE	LR	CA	Total
Compreh-ensive	1-3	80 *64.2	10 *18.4	20 *27.3	110
	3 & above	55 *46.7	11 *13.4	14 *19.9	80
Grammar	1-3	45 *44.5	15 *15.1	30 *23.4	90
	3& above	15 *31.5	20 *9	19 *13.4	54
Total		195	56	83	334

NE = Not for Examination purposes
LR = Lack of resources
CA = Career Aspiration
X_2 = 37.9;
df = 6;
P < 0.05
C .32

The significant X^2 in table 7.17 indicates that there is a relationship between subjects to dropped and reasons for dropping them in both schools. The reasons given relate to the fact that these subjects are not examination-oriented. The

connection between subjects and examinations has a long standing history. This strong connection is explained by Ivor Goodson (1983) as the need to teach these subjects in such a way and to such a standard as will ensure success in the examination. Godson (1983) quotes the Norwood Report of 1943 which summarised the position by saying that subjects seem to have built themselves vested interest and rights of their own. In explaining such connections between external examinations and academic subjects, the part played by the vested interests of the subject groups needs to be analysed.

7.6.11: Subjects to Replace the Dropped Ones

Table 7.18: Relationship between type of school and the kind of subjects to be replaced in both schools.

Type of School	Subject Category					
	voc.	science	arts	lan.	others	total
Compreh -hesive	26 *22.7	20 *22.7	18 *17.4	15 *16.7	15 *13.4	93
Grammar	8 *11.2	14 *11.2	8 *8.6	10 *8.3	6 *6.6	46
Total	34	34	26	25	20	N= 139

*Expected frequencies

$X^2 = 2.9$;

df=4;

$P < 0.05$

C =.14

Table 7.18 with it's non-significant X^2 reveals that of the total number of pupils, (N=350) only 37.7% feel that they might hope for replacement if they drop any subjects. Of the total number (N=93) in comprehensive schools who expressed such views, 27.9% were for vocational subjects, while in grammar schools 30.4% were for the sciences. Ranking the overall frequency, (N=139), vocational and science subjects both were in the first position with 24.5%.

7.6.12: Attribution of Blame when there is Poor Performance

Table 7.19: Relationship between the Respondents in both Schools and the response Category

Respon-dents	Response Category					
	Parents	Teachers	self	govt	All	total
Compreh - hesive	20 *20.2	49 *39.8	100 *103.9	10 *20.2	19 *13.8	198
Grammar	15 *14.8	20 *29.2	80 *76.1	25 *14.8	5 *10.1	145
Total	35	69	180	35	24	N=343

*Expected frequencies

$X_2 = 21.9$;

df=4;

$P < 0.05$

C =.24

The significant X^2 in table 7.19 rejects the null-hypothesis(H_o) of no relationship. However, the responses in both schools indicate clearly that the pupils attribute blame to themselves.

7.6.13: Reasons for Attribution of Blame

Table 7.20 Relationship between Reasons for the Attribution of blame and the respondents in the two type of Schools

	Reasons		
Type of school	Relevant	Not relevant	total
Comprehensive	180 *161.6	18 *36.4	198
Grammar	100 *118.4	45 *26.6	145
Total	280	63	N= 343

$X_2 = 26.9$;

df =1;

$P < 0.05$

C = .04

* Expected Frequencies

The test of comparison in table 7.20 shows that there is a relationship - X^2 greater than critical value. The data also shows the reasons given were considered by the researcher as being relevant.

7.7: DISCUSSION

With the exception of tables 7.16 and 7.18, the cross-tabulations of the independent variables (I.V) by the dependent variables (D.V) reveals a significant chi-square at $P< .05$. It is worth commenting briefly on these results. The result of the X^2 may be significant; it does not imply that the views of the pupils are in conformity with the notions under study. Cross-tabulation on table 7.2 show a high percentage of both comprehensive and grammar school pupils doing lessons out of school. The normal trend would have been for the grammar school pupils to do lessons outside school hours because they have fewer of subjects to do in school.

Table 7.3 and 7.5 which intends to tap similar information, shows the results as would be expected: That is to say, comprehensive pupils going in for vocational subjects while grammar school pupils for sciences or in other words more challenging academic subjects. Comprehensive and grammar school education are to represent two social strata. Vocational education which is typical of working class with a view to entering the job market and academic tradition typical of middle-class with a view to university qualification. Byan (1969) made reference to the study of McClelland and Rosen in which they suggested that the 'achievement syndrome' is related to social class. From the literature, it is clear that the comprehensive schools are for all ability range and grammar schools for a selected few. In such a situation, it is obvious that pupils in grammar schools will do better. The point of achievement syndrome related to social class was also remarked on by a head-teacher in one of the writer's interviews:

> "it is wrong for any one to equate the performance of our pupils with those in grammar schools-------,as the pupils we admit are those who cannot be admitted into grammar schools."(14th May, 1991)

Another point worthy of note is that the instruments used have proven to be reliable and valid because in both tables the results are similar. The point as to whether pupils are complacent with the breadth of their curriculum, can be can be

interpreted as true. It is implied in tables 7.7a, 7.7b 7.8 that pupils will consider any curriculum that falls short of providing them with career opportunities as imbalanced. Consequently, such a curriculum will also be regarded as not being relevant.

Tables 7.9 through to 7.11 present findings to which attention must be drawn. In 7.5.9b, the reason given for negative attitudes towards other subjects by comprehensive pupils was as a result of not being career oriented. While in 7.8b grammar school pupils attribute a dislike for vocational subjects to the teaching style. The compressed data in table 7.12 reveals that negative attitude to some subjects is more to do with teaching style. Some of the pupils had this to say:

> "The teacher is always telling me that am not fit to be in that set----- because he does not seem to realise my efforts, I then developed a dislike for the subject especially as he is the same person teaching the set he recommended for me."

Another pupil said,"----because I am not allowed to do what I want".

Though table 7.12 reveals pupils urge for more subjects, it should be noted that their reasons for this is more to do with what I call broadening the mind(see table 7.13) The results of the psychological reasons in table 7.14 tally with the findings in table 7.7a, b, and 7.8. The findings reveal that not only is the X^2 significant and the instrument reliable and valid, but also that the pupils actually understand and know what they want. Such findings serve as a warning that pupils, after a certain level in secondary schools, should not be seen as tabula-rasa. It is interesting to note that in both schools, pupils will not want more than three subjects to be dropped. One would have expected comprehensive pupils who are considered as average ability to advocate for more subjects to be dropped. The fact that the result is what it is, does not only indicate their acceptance of the breadth, but also their ability to do rigorous work.

Table 7.17 in my opinion, does not need any further discussion as it is evident from the data that 60.3% did not feel it necessary to replace subjects. Of the

negligible few who wanted more subjects, the findings follow the pattern in table 7.3 and 7.5. Cross-tabulations in table 7.18 has revealed the most astonishing results. Interestingly, pupils in both schools attribute blame to themselves. Such findings suggest that there had been a reinforcement of knowledge but not of learning. Hamblin (1990) suggests that we should reinforce active learning in the pupils.(more on this will be found in the last chapter).

7.8: SUMMARY

The traditional model of the secondary curriculum at the starting point of the study could be seen to be elitist in nature and subject based. Basically, subjects were studied to varying levels depending upon the type of school. The general theory of society has been elitist in nature, with the people seen as having learning capabilities needed to be educated in essential forms of knowledge according to aptitude and ability which would allow him take up his role in society. Essential subjects in the case of grammar schools, prepared this elite for positions of leadership whilst for the rest, essential meant practical instruction. This could be the cause of the many changes that have taken place.

The many changes are an indication of the growing awareness in both professional educational circles and amongst the wider public that all is not well with secondary schools. The concern throughout the century, until the 1988 Act seemed to have been for equality of opportunity in education, which has been seen in terms of reorganisation of the school structure; for which the labour government in 1965 saw comprehensivation as a solution which would obviate the need for pre-mature selection at 11+, thus closing option for the majority. But the literature has revealed that it has not worked out quite like that because of the streaming and banding within comprehensives which reflect the barriers between schools in the tripartite system. Thus, the remedies for under achievement, disaffection and indiscipline in secondary schools were seen to lie not in yet more re-organisation of the schools, but in a radical rethink of the curriculum. Hence the introduction of the

national curriculum which represents a radical break with the British traditions; giving any future government the power to make rapid and radical changes in the curriculum without the need to wait for consensus.

The National curriculum thus seem to break the elitist spell by providing everyone with opportunities of studying a wide range of activities. By insisting on cross-curricula themes it has made a move towards a more realistic approach to curricula issues. But the existence of grammar schools and comprehensive schools, is still an indication that some subjects and certain amount of work load is suitable for the 'able' pupils while others are not. This study indicates that comprehensive pupils are capable of doing the same amount of work as grammar school pupils given a chance. Hamblin (1990:) remarked:

> "every pupil, whatever his aptitudes and background, has the right to do something well. This can be accomplished at least to a large degree, by the inclusion of carefully selected experiences in tutorial periods which reinforce the pupils sense of mastery and strengthen his desire to be competent, by helping him develop a learning style which reflects his personality and interest"

In analysing the pupils questionnaire, the findings have indicated that the pupils have accepted that content-wise the curriculum is broad and balance. The inclusion of the cross-curricula themes as a component of the NC is a move towards a more realistic approach to curricula issues. The underlying assumption being to provide a broad, balance and relevant curriculum. More discussion on the balance of the curriculum will be done in the next chapter when the teacher factor is considered. An interesting finding also is the fact that pupils in both schools identify 'career aspiration' as a tool for assessing the balance and relevant of their curriculum.

We will now turn to an examination of teachers as deliverers of the curriculum in England and Wales.

CHAPTER EIGHT

TEACHERS AS DELIVERERS OF CURRICULUM IN ENGLAND AND WALES

8.1: INTRODUCTION

The increasing concern for the quality of teacher education in England and Wales in the 1990's could be well illustrated by the recent comments of the national curriculum (NC). Duncan (1992:) amongst others, warns against over hasty changes by questioning what has happened as to how teachers teach. Boyson (1992) claims that one result of educational mismanagement has been a drop in teaching standards. Jane Warwick (1992) in her article ` An Inspector Calling: Quality, Advice Service and Standards', expresses her fear that the changes proposed by the Secretary of State for Education may reduce the role of inspectors as she asks: "will there be any inspection in the middle? (p.10)

Issues such as this indicate that there is a growing concern about the capability of teachers in delivering the NC. Besides criticism and proposals made by non-government officials, the Secretary of State for Education has also proposed changes within teacher education. He intends to overhaul the main routes into teaching by cutting most of the theory from teacher training and to return to emphasis on classroom discipline and the three R's. This will eventually reduce the role of training departments in universities and colleges, which have come under fire for supposedly concentrating on liberal educational theories instead of on practical classroom skills. His concern and others for the quality of teacher education is a clear indication that the quality of teachers is a pre-requisite in achieving a broad, balanced and relevant curriculum, in that whatever is defined on paper still has to be put into practice.

The literature reveals that teachers in England and Wales (E&W) have always had a strong influence on curricula issues. This position does not seem to have been changed even with the introduction of the NC. For as Duncan states :

> "A merit of the Act was that it did not prescribe teaching methods - the birthright of the profession"(1992 : 10).

The review of selected literature on teacher education, and the analysis of the teachers' questionnaire delivered by the writer will give an indication as to the capability of the teachers in implementing a 'broad', 'balanced' and 'relevant' curriculum.

8.2: PRE-SERVICE TEACHER EDUCATION

Since 1944, initial teacher training (ITT) has been divided between the university and non-university sectors of higher education. In the former, the universities mostly have provided one-year Post Graduate Certificate of Education (PGCE) courses. In the latter, the former teacher training colleges (now subsumed within polytechnics, colleges of higher education and even universities) provided at first, two year concurrent certificate courses. These were administratively controlled by the providing bodies and academically controlled by the universities through Area Training Organisations (ATOs) each based upon one of them and within which universities , LEAs and colleges were represented.

In 1961, the certificate was extended to three years. After the Robins Report on HE in 1963, the B.Ed degree course was introduced with one year added to the 3 year certificate course if it was to be offered as an honours degree. Subsequent changes led to the disbandment of ATOs in 1972. Validation then was being either through the Council for National Academic Awards (CNAA) or the individual universities. From 1972, two A-levels were required for entry into teacher education courses and so all teacher education was operated at degree level, either through a 3-year B.Ed. (ordinary) course, a 4-year B.Ed. (honours) course, or the PGCE route. With the demise of ATOs, there was no academic co-ordinating

body. Consequently, ITT courses, both B.Ed and PGCE became more diversified. In South East England, the regional Advisory Council (RAC) and Teacher Education Advanced Courses body (TEAC) , took responsibility for the distribution and rationalisation of courses in the public sector, but not for their educational content. B.Ed courses, mostly validated by the CNAA in the public sector, and PGCE courses by the universities has resulted in the latter having little experience of B.Ed programmes and therefore mostly preferring consecutive courses (Plaster 1986). She went on to say that there has also been a conflict between the two validating bodies, CNAA not particularly favouring 'subject' content. Of course since then several universities have taken on B.Ed programmes by subsuming former teachers colleges, and some have also, or alternatively, developed concurrent integrated BA or BSc degrees which incorporate professional training within a four year programme.

The courses now organised for the student teachers take into account the requirements of the NC. Student teachers are made aware as to how cross-curricula themes can be integrated into their various specialists disciplines and the relationship that may exist between them. This is done by the tutors in the schools themselves or by visitors from commerce and industry. The writer witnessed a session in one of the schools of education in which a visitor from commerce and industry gave lecture to the student teachers. He opened up his lecture with the following words: " it is necessary that you understand how these cross-curricula themes can be incorporated into your respective disciplines".

8.3: IN-SERVICE TEACHER EDUCATION (INSET)

In-service training and education of teachers has long been a part of updating practising teachers knowledge in England and Wales. With the introduction of the NC with it's cross-curricula themes on the programme, a new form of INSET has emerged. That is to say, alongside the traditional form of INSET where teachers may have for example a one day workshop, there has been

the introduction of placement in industry and commerce for some. Teacher placements are usually short five-day secondments to a local work place. They may however, be longer, even spread over several weeks. It is hoped that teachers can learn from direct experience of industry and commerce about the impact of technology on work, scientific processes of production or the use of modern foreign languages in business. Such experiences can help meet certain requirements of the 1988 Education Act. Placement can also be an effective way of promoting the professional development of teachers. More and more schools are said to be using their control of INSET to help to prepare staff to implement the NC.

The document Teacher Placement and the NC revealed that well-planned placements can contribute to :

(i) professional development of teachers;
(ii) Institutional development of schools, broadening school perspectives on commerce and industry;
(iii) the teaching of NC subjects and cross-curricula themes, particularly economic and industrial understanding (EIU);

It is also alleged that placements can lead to:

(i) more adults from the work force being involved in the life of the school;
(ii) more pupils visiting work places as part of their curriculum;
(iii) greater opportunities for work experience for pupils;

Placements are usually planned with the local teacher placement organiser who:-

(i) helps teachers identify personal objectives before seeking an appropriate host organisation for the placement;
(ii) arranges meetings between teachers and host organisation to agree objectives, timing scope of placement;
(iii) supports teachers during placement (usually by visiting them at the workplace);
(iv) helps teachers review and evaluate their experiences and plan how to make use of them at school.

On placements, teachers may plan the programme for a class visit, or prepare materials about work place for use of local schools. The extent to which teacher placements contribute to the curriculum depends on careful planning. Some INSET should depend on the dissemination of experiences on placement. The possibilities are collated in the form of table 8.1.

Table 8.1. Possible contribution of teacher placements to the curriculum

Subject	Placement	cross-curricula
English	A placement at a local newspaper can contribute to work on pupil's skills in speaking, listening, writing and spelling through the production of a school newspaper. This might involve visits to the newspaper by pupils and visits to the class-room by workers	Career Citizen
Science	A placement at a pharmaceuticals firm might facilitate pupil visits to learn about the application of chemical processes, uses of raw materials and information technology	Environmental Health
Mathematics	A placement at the local branch of a chain-tore store might lead to a statistical survey by s of pupils of customer flow. Useful links for work experience and careers information could be made.	Careers
Technology	A placement in a small packaging factory be might be included in an enterprise week at at the end of the autumn term, when pupils design, make box and sell cards for Christmas with employees from the factory	EIU
Modern foreign languages	A placement in an export company might lead to the development of materials for a simulation based on the workplace. Visits from company staff might provide pupils with professional feedback on tasks, such as accepting an order by phone	EIU Careers
History	A placement at a museum might provide the opportunity to develop the school's use of the museum. INSET might be organised in the museum, for example on methods of conservation and the historical significance of particular artefacts	EIU Careers
Business Studies	Placements in local business, industries and other workplaces could lead to partnerships for TVEI related activities	Careers EIU

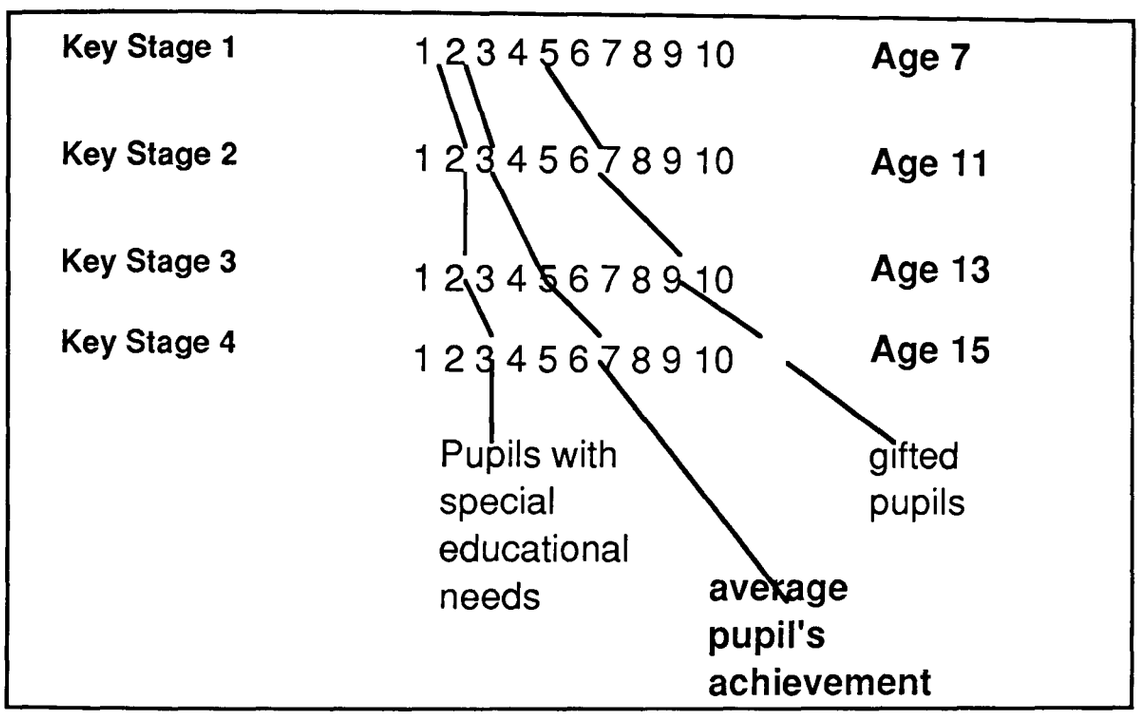
note: the table does not include all the subjects as it is only intended to illustrate what contributions subjects can make.

Source: **EIU (1991)** Teacher Placements and the National Curriculum, p.3-4. NCC

8.4: TEACHING STYLE AND RESOURCES

The framework which defines pupils learning targets at different ages and abilities enables the teacher to vary the teaching style. There is the assumption that the ability spread, as measured in the attainment targets (ATs), will widen as the pupils become older. The figure below illustrates this.

Fig.8.1: Pupil's Abilities at different Key stages.



Source: Special Children: January 1991, no.44

With teachers working within a broad framework, it is not possible to prescribe a standard textbook as is the case in Cameroon. Consequently, the teachers adopt textbooks that they consider suitable. Hichman (1987) in studying the use of textbooks by three secondary school teachers, revealed that there are three types of textbook use.

(i) Methodological coverage: where the student's task is to acquire explicit facts;

(ii) textbook based activities: where the book serves as an information source;

(iii) higher levels of interpretation: where the textbook is used as a reference in class discussions.

From the review of information relating to the teaching/learning resources available in the schools, it is evident that though textbooks may be used as a methodological coverage in some disciplines, its extensive use is more as a reference in class discussions.

8.5: ANALYSIS OF DATA

The discussion in this section like that of 5.5, is based on the analysis of the teachers' questionnaire which solicited information concerning their qualification, perception of curriculum, working conditions and in-service training of teachers. For the same reason given in 5.5, we have therefore decided to have the tables put at the back of the chapter for easy reference.

The non-significant result of the X^2 in table 8.2 has shown that qualification of teachers is independent of the type of school in which they teach; hence no relationship between the two variables. But it also reveals that unlike table 5.1 in chapter 5 where there were four dependent variables, the findings in this table has produced only two dependent variables. This implies that within secondary schools in E&W, there are only two grades of teachers. The overall analysis reveals that 82.4% are graduates with teaching qualification. The next issue which tables 8.3 to 8.20 are concerned is that of the general perception of the curriculum. Tables 8.3 to 8.5 though with non-significant results, have demonstrated consistent findings in that higher percentage in all the tables have agreed to the preposition that an effective curriculum enables pupils to be responsible, productive and creative. The results also revealed that there is no uncertainty in the responses as the category of `not sure' did not appear. Where the category of 'not sure' does not appear, there is every indication that the teachers are confident in their responses.

The range of tables from 8.6 to 8.20 cover a range of issues, one of which relates to the efficiency of the pupils in the classroom. It is evident in table 8.6 and 8.18 that 85.3% and 95.6% respectively, accept the proposition that teachers are responsible in determining how efficient the pupils are. Tables 8.7 and 8.16 have both revealed the uncertainty as to whether a conducive environment will yield better results. While the X^2 in table 8.7 shows a non-significant result, table 8.16 has a significant X^2 which indicates that the responses given are not independent of the type of school. The analysis in table 8.16 reveals that though 50% in both comprehensive and grammar schools are not sure of the statement, a higher percentage of grammar school teachers are not sure than they disagree, while a higher percentage of comprehensive school teachers disagree more than they are uncertain. These findings tally with one of the responses obtained by the writer from an interview in which a headteacher remarked that:

> "you may provide a conducive learning environment for pupils but may not achieve positive results if the pupils are unwilling to learn"(26th November, 1991)

She went on to say that some of the pupils in school are just waiting for the compulsory school period to come to an end, so that they can leave school. The findings and the headteachers remark qualifying that a conducive environment may not achieve positive results does not reject the whole idea but rather exposes the weakness of the system.

The highly significant results in table 8.8 show that though 60.3% disagree with the statement, more comprehensive teachers are uncertain than they disagree while a higher percentage of grammar school teachers disagree. Tables 8.9 to 8.12 and 8.20 intended to assess the relevance of the secondary school curriculum reveals in all the tables, the teachers disagreed with the statements. It therefore implied that they see their curriculum as relevant. Some of the reasons justifying the inclusion of many subjects in the curriculum have been rejected as shown in tables 8.13 and 8.17. Irrespective of their views in relation to the breadth of

curriculum, and the many subjects in the curriculum, they still rejected statement that the school curriculum puts unnecessary strain on the pupils (see table 8.14).The significant X^2 in table 8.19 has shown that though 48.5% of the sample disagree with the statement, individual findings in the cells justify that more comprehensive teachers disagree while more grammar school teachers are not sure of the statement.

The next issue that will appear in tables 8.21 to 8.27 is concerned with the effects that their working conditions may have on their job. Tables 8.21 to 8.24 reveals that dissatisfaction with their jobs occurs occasionally. Ironically, tables 8.25 to 8.27 which have to do with the level of satisfaction on their jobs, indicates that a much higher percentage doubt their level of satisfaction. These findings are not surprising as in almost all the writers' interviews, teachers and headteachers alike have indicated that the introduction of the NC has increased their work load.

The last section of the questionnaire relates to the in-service training of teachers. There has been increased pressure on teachers to attend in-service training especially with the introduction of the NC. The importance attached to INSET is evident in table 8.28 where 82.4% accepted to have attended INSET. Of this number who attended INSET, 83.3% in table 8.29 say they attended it most recently, while 16.7% say it is within the period of three years. The satisfaction of the activities in INSET as shown in table 8.30 (79.6%) may have contributed to the findings in table 8.31 which revealed that 45.5% of those who attended INSET indicate that their performance in the classroom is as a result of INSET. These findings justify that there is a correlation between INSET activities and classroom performance. Finally, 65.7% in table 8.32 indicate that transfer of knowledge to the younger generation is a priority to them in choosing teaching as a profession.

8.6: SUMMARY

The findings of the teacher's survey in England revealed that teachers are competent to handle curriculum issues, in terms of their qualification and the methodology they employ within the teaching/learning environment. In a few instances in which the writer was opportuned to observe the teachers in the classroom situation, she realised that the method used by the teachers was that which develops critical skills in the pupils. The importance of having pupils to think critically, had been expressed by Bruner (1966). Rogers (1983) sharing similar views, remarked that an educated man is one who has learned how to learn; realises that no knowledge is secure, and that only the process of seeking knowledge gives a basis for security.

The teachers competence in handling curriculum issues is being enhanced by the regular INSET. More so, table 8.31 has shown that the reasons given for entering into teaching is such that commits them fully to their job. On the basis therefore of our notion of balance adopted in the study, which is more to do with the capability of handling curriculum matters (minimum competence), and the findings in 8.9 to 8.12 and 8.20, we can then be right to conclude that the curriculum is balanced and relevant.

Table 8.2 Cross-tabulation of Qualification by School.

	Respondents by type of school		
Qualification	Comprehensive	Grammar	Total
graduates plus training	29	27	56 84.4*
diploma	5	7	12 17.6*
Total	34 50.0*	34 50.0*	68 100.0*

$X^2 = .40634$; df : 1; P < 0.52383 (ns)

notes

*: expected frequencies

ns: not significant

Table 8.3. An Effective Curriculum is one that enables the Pupils to be Responsible.

Response category	Respondents by type of school		Total
	Comprehensive	Grammar	
Agree	25	27	52 78.8*
Disagree	7	7	14 21.2*
Total	32 48.5*	34 51.5*	66 100.0*

X^2= 0.01633 ; df=1; P < 0.89832 (ns)

notes

* expected frequencies in percentages

ns: not significant

Table 8.4. An Effective Curriculum is one that enables the pupils to be Productive.

Response category	Respondents by Type of School		Total
	Comprehensive	Grammar	
Agree	29	28	57 83.8*
Disagree	5	6	11 16.2*
Total	34 50.0*	34 50.0*	68 100.0*

X^2 = 0.10858; df=1; P< 0.74176 (ns)

notes

* expected frequencies in percentages

ns: not significant

Table 8.5 : An Effective Curriculum is one that enables Pupils to be creative

Response Response category	Respondents by type of School		Total
	Comprehensive	Grammar	
Agree	28	29	57 83.8*
Disagree	5	6	11 16.2*
Total	34 50.0*	34 50.0*	68 100.0*

X^2 = 0.10858 ; df=1; P < .0 74176 (ns)

notes

* expected frequencies in percentages

ns: not significant

Table 8.6: The real task of determining the efficiency of the pupils' learning activities is the responsibility of the teachers in the classroom.

Response category	Respondents by Type of School		Total
	Comprehensive	Grammar	
Agree	31	27	58 85.3*
Disagree	3	6	9 13.2*
Not Sure		1	1 1.5*
Total	34 50.0*	34 50.0*	68 100.0*

X^2 = 2.68177; df=2; P < 0.26161 (ns)

notes

* expected frequencies in percentages

ns: not significant

Table 8.7: A more conducive learning environment for Pupils will achieve better results

Response category	Respondents by Type of School		Total
	Comprehensive	Grammar	
Disagree	5	6	11 16.2*
Not Sure	29	28	57 83.8*
Total	34 50.0*	34 50.0*	68 100.0*

X^2 = 0.10858; df=1; P <0.74176 (ns)

notes

* expected frequencies in percentages

ns: not significant

Table 8.8 : A teachers' competence is best achieved through the number of successful pupils at the examination

Response category	Respondents by Type of School		Total
	Comprehensive	Grammar	
Disagree	13	28	41 60.3*
Not Sure	21	6	27 39.7*
Total	34 50.0*	34 50.0*	68 100.0*

X^2 = 14.44311; df=1; P < 0.00014 (s)

notes

* expected frequencies in percentages

s: significant

Table 8.9 : The search for paper qualification predominates because of the current system

Response category	Respondents by type of School		Total
	Comprehensive	Grammar	
Disagree	5	7	12 17.6*
Not Sure	29	27	56 82.4*
Total	34 50.0*	34 50.0*	68 100.0*

X^2 = 0.40634 ; df=1; P < 0.52383 (ns)

notes

* expected frequencies in percentages

ns: not significant

Table 8.10 : Widespread Unemployment is as a result of the current system

Response category	Respondents by Type of School		Total
	Comprehensive	Grammar	
Agree	6	6	12 17.9*
Disagree	23	22	45 67.2*
Not Sure	5	5	10 14.9*
Total	34 50.7*	33 49.3*	67 100.0*

X^2 = 0.00730; df=2; P < 0.99636 (ns)

notes

* expected frequencies in percentages

ns: not significant

Table 8.11 : Lack of sense of civic responsibility is as a result of the current system

Response category	Respondents by Type of School		Total
	Comprehensive	Grammar	
A	6	5	11 16.2
D	24	22	46 67.6*
NS	4	7	11 16.2*
Total	34 50.0*	34 50.0*	68 100.0*

X^2 = 1.00666;df=2 ; at P < 0.60451 (ns)

notes

* expected frequencies in percentages

ns: not` significant

Table 8.12 : The Current System of Education alienates pupils from the norms and values of their Culture

Response category	Respondents by Type of School		Total
	Comprehensive	Grammar	
Agree	5	5	10 14.7*
Disagree	24	23	47 69.1
Not Sure	5	6	11 16.2*
Total	34 50.0*	34 50.0*	68 100.0*

X^2 = 0.11231 ; df=2; P < 0.94539 (ns)

notes

* expected frequencies in percentages

ns: not significant

Table 8.13 : If Pupils are offered many subjects, they will see the relationship that exists amongst them

Response category	Respondents by Type of School		Total
	Comprehensive	Grammar	
Agree	6	8	14 20.6*
Disagree	24	26	50 73.5
Not Sure	4		4 5.9*
Total	34 50.0*	34 50.0*	68 100.0*

X^2 = 5.91189 ; df=2 ; P < 0.05203 (ns)

notes

* expected frequencies in percentages

ns: not significant

Table 8.14 : The present school curriculum put unnecessary physical and mental strain on pupils.

Response category	Respondents by Type of School		Total
	Comprehensive	Grammar	
Agree	2	6	8 11.8
Disagree	6	8	14 20.6*
Not Sure	26	20	46 67.6
Total	34 50.0*	34 50.0*	68 100.0*

X^2 = 3.16453; df=2; P < 0.20551 (s)

notes
* expected frequencies in percentages
s: significant

Table 8.15 : Providing all pupils with the same activities promotes equal opportunities

Response category	Respondents by Type of School		Total
	Comprehensive	Grammar	
Disagree	4	6	10 14.7
Not Sure	30	28	58 85.3
Total	34 50.0*	34 50.0*	68 100.0*

X^2 = 0.47169 ; df=1; P < 0.49221 (ns)

notes
* expected frequencies in percentages
ns: not significant

Table 8.16 : A more conducive (relaxed, appealing) classroom for pupils will achieve better results than that paced with many activities (subjects)

Response category	Respondents by Type of school		Total
	Comprehensive	Grammar	
Agree	4		4 5.9*
Disagree	20	10	30 44.1*
Not Sure	10	24	34 50.0*
Total	34 50.0*	34 50.0*	68 100.0*

X^2 = 14.88294; df=2; P < 0.00059 (s)

notes
* expected frequencies in percentages
s: significant

Table 8.17 : The more the number of subjects a pupil is expected to do, the more challenging it is for the pupils' and the better it is for the development of his intelligence

Response category	Respondents by type of School		Total
	Technical	Grammar	
Agree	6	7	13 19.1*
Disagree	22	27	49 72.1*
Not Sure	6		6 8.8*
Total	34 50.0*	34 50.0*	68 100.0*

X^2 = 8.90586; df=2; P < 0.01164 (s)

notes

* expected frequencies in percentages

s: significant

Table 8.18 : Effective changes within the curriculum should reflect the views of the teachers in the classroom

Response category	Respondents by type of School		Total
	Comprehensive	Grammar	
Agree	31	34	65 95.6*
Disagree	3	3	3 4.4*
Total	34 50.0*	34 50.0*	68 100.0*

X^2 = 4.29740; df=1; P < 0.03817 (s)

notes

* expected frequencies in percentages

s: significant

Table 8.19 : For life after school Economics should be a compulsory subject for all pupils

Response category	Respondents by Type of School		Total
	Comprehensive	Grammar	
Agree	5	5	10 14.7*
Disagree	26	7	33 48.5*
Not Sure	3	22	25 36.8*
Total	34 50.0*	34 50.0*	68 100.0*

X^2 = 27.95305; df=2; P < 0.00000 (s)

notes

* expected frequencies in percentages

s: significant

Table 8.20 : In order to foster the pupils' understanding of the society, the curriculum should amongst other things include the culture (way and life) of the pupil

Response category	Respondents by Type of School		Total
	Comprehensive	Grammar	
Disagree	6	7	13 19.1*
Not Sure	28	27	55 80.9*
Total	34 50.0*	34 50.0*	68 100.0*

X^2 = 0 .09518; df=1; P < 0.75769 (ns)

notes

* expected frequencies in percentages

ns: not significant

8.21 : Insufficient responsibility and authority

Response category	Respondents by Type of School		Total
	Comprehensive	Grammar	
Always Applies	3	5	8 11.8*
Occasionally Applies	29	25	54 79.4*
Do not Know	2	4	6 8.8*
Total	34 50.0*	34 50.0*	68 100.0*

X^2 = 1.48150 ; df=1; P < 0.47676 (s)

notes

* : expected frequencies in percentages

s: : significant

8.22 :Poor relationship between myself and educational administrators

Response category	Respondents by type of School		Total
	Comprehensive	Grammar	
Always Applies	3	6	9 13.3*
Occasionally Applies	31	5	36 52.9*
Do not Know		23	23 33.8*
Total	34 50.0*	34 50.0*	68 100.0*

X^2 = 53.79899 ; df=2; P < .0 00000 (s)

notes

* expected frequencies in percentages

s: significant

8.23 : Insufficient help from Inspectors

Response category	Respondents by Type of School		Total
	Comprehensive	Grammar	
Always Applies	5	6	11 16.2*
Occasionally Applies	8	5	13 19.1*
Do not Know	21	23	44 64.7
Total	34 50.0*	34 50.0*	68 100.0*

X^2 = 0.88056 ; df=2 ; P < 0.64386 (ns)

notes
* expected frequencies in percentages
ns: not significant

8.24 : Insufficient time for my subject

Response category	Respondents by type of School		Total
	Comprehensive	Grammar	
Always Applies	2	5	7 10.4
Occasionally Applies	23	8	31 46.3*
Do not Know	9	20	29 43.3*
Total	36 48.6*	38 51.4*	74 100.0*

X^2 = 13.16379; df=2; P < 0.00139 (s)

notes
* expected frequencies in percentages
s: significant

8.25 : My job gives me a chance to show my initiative

Response category	Respondents by type of School		Total
	Comprehensive	Grammar	
Occasionally Applies	6	6	12 17.6
Do not Know	28	28	56 82.4
Total	34 50.0*	34 50.0*	68 100.0*

X^2 = 0.00000; df=2; P < 1.00000 (ns)

notes
* expected frequencies in percentages
ns: non-significant

8.26 : My job gives me a sense of achievement

Response category	Respondents by Type of School		Total
	Comprehensive	Grammar	
Occasionally Applies	4	5	9 13.2*
Do not know	30	38	59 86.8*
Total	34 50.0*	34 50.0*	68 100.0*

X^2 = 0.12829; df=2; P at <0.72021 (ns)

notes

* expected frequencies in percentages

ns: non-significant

8.27 : My job makes me use my intelligence

Respondents category	Respondents by Type of School		Total
	Comprehensive	Grammar	
Always Applies	1	34	1 1.5*
Occasionally Applies	5	5	10 14.7*
Do not Know	28	29	57 83.8*
Total	34 50.0*	34 50.0*	68 100.0*

X^2 = 1.40384 ; df=2; P < 0.49563 (ns)

notes

* : expected frequencies in percentages

ns : non-significant

8.28. : Have you been to INSET

Response category	Respondents by Type of School		Total
	Comprehensive	Grammar	
yes	27	29	56 82.4*
no	7	5	12 17.6*
Total	34 50.0*	34 50.0*	68 100.0*

X^2 = 0.40634; df=1; P < 0.52383 (ns)

notes

* expected frequencies in percentages

ns: non-significant

8.29. : The time when INSET was attended

Response category	Respondents by Type of School		Total
	Comprehensive	Grammar	
past year	24	21	45 83.3*
within 3 years	3	6	9 16.7*
Total	27 50.0*	27 50.0*	54 100.0*

X^2 = 1.21955 ; df=2 ; P < 0.26945 (ns)

notes

* expected frequencies in percentages

ns: not-significant

8.30 : Rating of INSET activities

Response category	Respondents by type of School		Total
	Comprehensive	Grammar	
satisfied	22	21	43 79.6
dissatisfied	5	6	11 20.4*
Total	27 50.0*	27 50.0*	54 100.0*

X^2 = 0.11429 ; df=2 ; P < 0.73531 (ns)

notes

* expected frequencies in percentages

ns: non-significant

8.31 : What contributes more to you performance in class

Response category	Respondents by Type of School		Total
	Comprehensive	Grammar	
INSET	19	11	30 45.5*
IT	7	7	14 21.2*
own initiative	6	16	22 33.3*
Total	32 48.5*	34 51.5*	66 100.0*

X^2 = 6.81531 ; df=2 ; at P < 0.03312 (s)

notes

* expected frequencies in percentages

s: significant

8.32 : Consideration in choosing teaching

Response category	Respondents by Type of School		Total
	Comprehensive	Grammar	
transfer knowledge	22	22	44 65.7
vacation	4	5	9 13.4*
advice from parents	7	7	14 20.9*
Total	33 49.3*	34 50.7*	67 100.0*

X^2 = 0.9642 ; df=2; P < 0.95294 (ns)

notes

* expected frequencies in percentages

ns: non-significant

CHAPTER NINE

COMPARISONS, DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

9.1: INTRODUCTION

This research was motivated by the question as to "whether or not secondary school curricula in Cameroon as compared to that of England and Wales are based on the principles of breadth, balance and relevance". This chapter therefore presents a comparison between the two educational systems under study, with a view of providing an answer to our central research problem above. In addition, the main findings from the empirical work that was carried out in Cameroon and England/Wales are discussed as well as the main conclusions emanating from the entire study. The writer will begin by saying that there is no intention of attempting to show that one system is better than the other especially as one is a fully developed country and the other is still developing. But in as much as they may be different, they may also have similarities. In making any comparison, it is necessary to begin with the economic situation of the two countries which may have an influence in the way the curriculum is structured. Britain being an industrialised country, is more concerned with having a curriculum which is related to industrial occupations. It is also more concerned with the maintenance of the society. The policy of education in Cameroon is to expand education to meet the needs of the rapidly expanding population and to give opportunity to proceed to higher education. So, the two systems grew in response to very different pressures and needs. It is evidently not surprising then that there will be more dis-similarities than similarities.

9.2: COMPARISONS

There is the conception in both societies of early selection as between `academic' and `less academic' secondary education. Those selected fit for the academic exercise are placed in grammar schools while the so-called less able in both countries

go to the comprehensive, secondary modern and technical schools respectively. This attitude of providing two types of curriculum for two categories of pupils is what makes stratification in the two cultures a fundamental feature. The main objective behind selection into secondary education in the two cultures under study seems to be rather more social and political than educational. This is especially so, in Cameroon where qualification determines the status in society. That is to say, people holding high positions in government are mostly those who have attended grammar schools. The justification behind selection is that it is in the best interest of the society at large for a meritocracy to be identified.

It is quite clear that the structural and organisational patterns in Cameroon and England/Wales are different. In E & W, most of the schools are run by the local authorities, albeit through LMS which gives more power to individual school boards. Most of the money, however, about 70% of the expenditure of the LEAs is met by grants from the central government. In the case of opted out schools, it is 100%. Even with the NC, the system can be described as a national system locally administered, though it is moving towards centralisation. In Cameroon, the education system is already centralised with directives from the Ministers of National Education and Higher education.

The smaller numbers in the classes in schools in E & W allows for a much closer pupil-teacher relationship, and makes the organisation and management of the classroom much easier for the teacher. The reverse is true of the Cameroon situation, where there are large number of pupils in each class. Though classroom environment may not be related to academic performance, it may have a link with classroom disturbance. MacAulay (1990) concluded that the degree of classroom disturbance and achievement anxiety shown by certain groups, particularly boys, was sufficiently high that it could interfere with optimal learning.

The difference between the two cultures under investigation in educational method is another cause for concern. This lies in the relative position of the teacher as regards to the choice of the textbook. The textbooks used in E & W are selected by the teachers, though the headteacher or head of department may suggest the use of a particular textbook. A teacher will often recommend a book as covering the subject adequately and as being useful for reference but will not necessarily go through it chapter by chapter. This system places much greater responsibility on the individual teacher, especially as the teachers try to make their own apparatus in the form of charts, tables and diagrams out of the text to make the lesson clearer and more attractive to the pupils. These are then placed on the wall for both pupils and teachers to use as a source of reference and clarification. Quite clearly, such a system may not work well unless the average standard of attainment, knowledge and teaching competence is high. The discovery and project methods often used, develop in the pupils the important skills of creativity and imagination which are used in every day life. By contrast, the system of education in Cameroon attaches more importance to the use of textbooks, which are seen there as the only accepted source of factual knowledge and criteria for worthwhile knowledge. Crowther commented on this approach thus:

> "The acquisition of factual knowledge is by itself a poor test of any education and lamentably poor test of the education----------. It has been said that the process of education is not to be compared to that of filling up an empty pot, but rather to that of lighting a fire".(1967 :46)

9.2.1: Comparisons of Teachers' Responses in Cameroon and England/Wales

If Crowther's (1967) argument is to be of any use to the present study, then it could be hypothesized that the educational system of Cameroon which is more textbook oriented may be considered inferior to that of E/W which is not. From this premise, the teachers' questionnaire was designed to tap information that could enable a more clear and objective evaluation of the two educational systems. The teachers

questionnaire delivered by the writer was therefore intended to tap the following information:

(i) Teacher qualifications;
(ii) perception of the curriculum;
(iii) working conditions;
(iv) INSET activities.

Cross tabulations of qualification by school for teachers in Cameroon revealed that 42.5% of the teachers sampled were those with diplomas followed by 40% of graduates with professional training. It is noted that the teachers with diplomas in Cameroon are equally qualified as most of them trained in the Advance Teacher Training Schools (ENS & ENSET). However, they may not consider themselves as graduates because their qualifications are more professional and do not bear the word `degree'. They have the same status in the civil service. These two groups combined will give a percentage of 82.5%. Similarly, cross-tabulations of qualification by school in E & W reveals that 100% of the teachers possess professional training.

The findings of the teacher's questionnaire revealed that in both societies, their qualifications permit them to handle curricula issues. Yates and Yates (1990) appreciate that curriculum knowledge is a measurable teacher variable which influences the major classroom variable of opportunity to learn. Hashweh (1987) also found that teachers who possessed a high level of relevant curricula knowledge planned their lessons in ways that transformed their students' textbook readings. But while this sound knowledge of curricula issues in E & W is being enhanced by regular INSET activities, their counterparts in Cameroon attribute their sound knowledge more to their initial training(ITT).

The responses of the perceptions of the curricula in the both cultures (see tables 5.2 to 5.19 and 8.3 to 8.20 in chapters 5 & 8 respectively) are similar and where there is disparity, it is found to be as a result of cultural differences and no differences in kind of school, which is reflected in the educational policy.(see 9.1) But these

perceptions were not jointly influenced by the two factors combined as shown by the lack of an interaction between culture and school.

Table 9.1: Summary of a 2 x 2 factorial ANOVA showing differences in teacher qualifications as a function of differences in their cultural origins (E & W Vs Cameroon) and institutions (e.g. technical/comprehensive and grammar).

Source of Variation	SS	MS	df	F-test	P<
Between					
Culture	24.840	24.840	1	28.929	0.01*
School	0.973	0.973	1	1.133	0.289ns
Within					
School	28.275	9.425	3	10.977	0.01**
Culture x School:	2.462	2.462	1	2.868	0.093ns
Error	123.644	0.854	144		

Notes:
Between factor: Culture (England/Wales Vs Cameroon)
: School (Technical/Comprehensive Vs Grammar)
* Significant at $P < 0.01$
**: Significant at $P < 0.05$
ns not significant at both P , 0.01 and $P < 0.05$.

Though the ANOVA table also reveal the within effect comparison, it should be noted that the implication of such finding is beyond the scope of this study, as the writer is more concerned with the between effects. Consequently, the significant result of the between effects indicates cultural influence. The working conditions also in both cultures can be said to be fair, as all items that could cause discontent are said by the respondents to be something that occurs occasionally.

9.2.2: Comparisons of findings from pupils questionnaires

The pupil's questionnaire as has been expressed earlier, are intended to get pupil's views in relation to their curriculum. Such views, will enable the writer to determine the extent to which their curriculum is broad, balanced and relevant. It is the intention of this section therefore, to present the data from the two countries in the form of bar diagrams, which are based entirely on the tabled data in chapters 4 and 7. Bar diagram appears suitable for presenting categorical data and expresses visual comparison clearly (Minium, 1978); hence, the choice to use it in presenting this data.

Figure 9.1: Average Number of Subjects

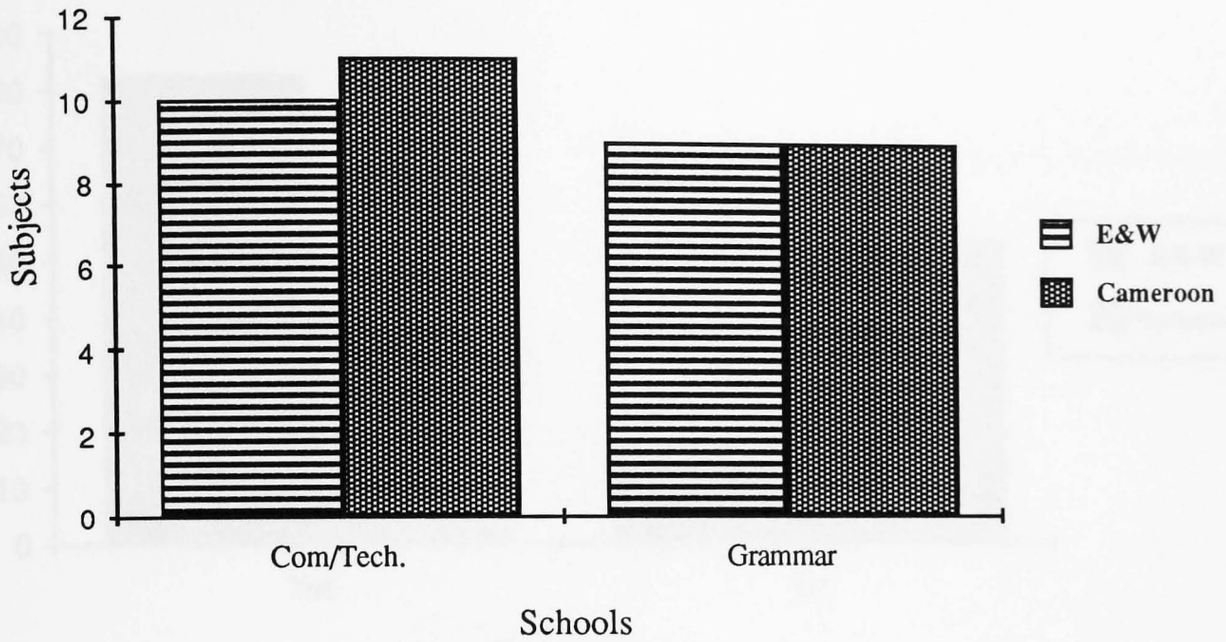


Figure 9.2: Are lessons done after school? Percentage responses

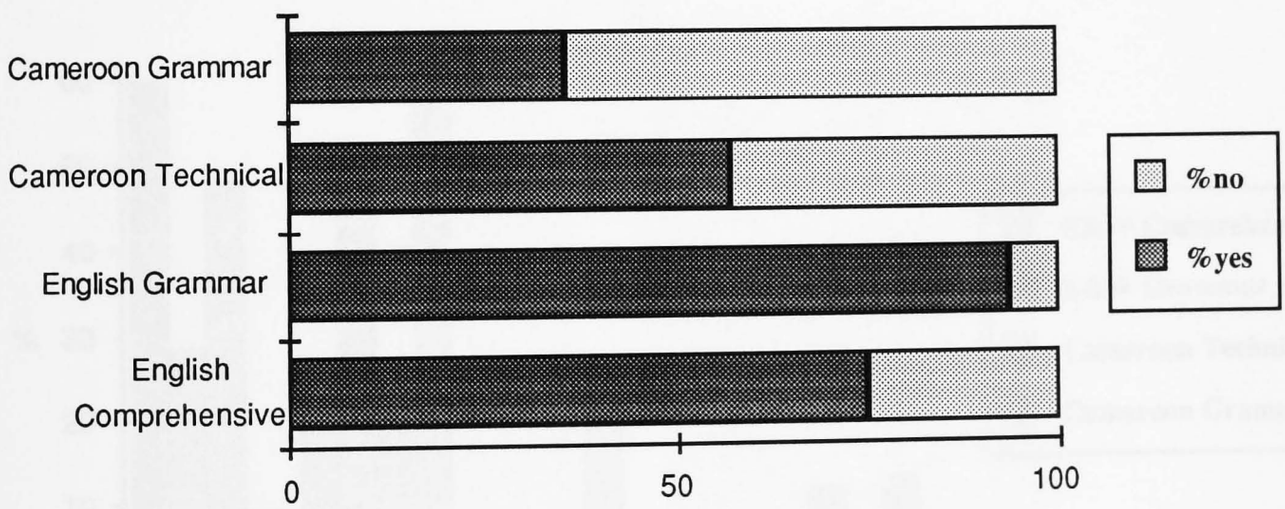


Figure 9.3: Overall % respones as to whether lessons are done after school

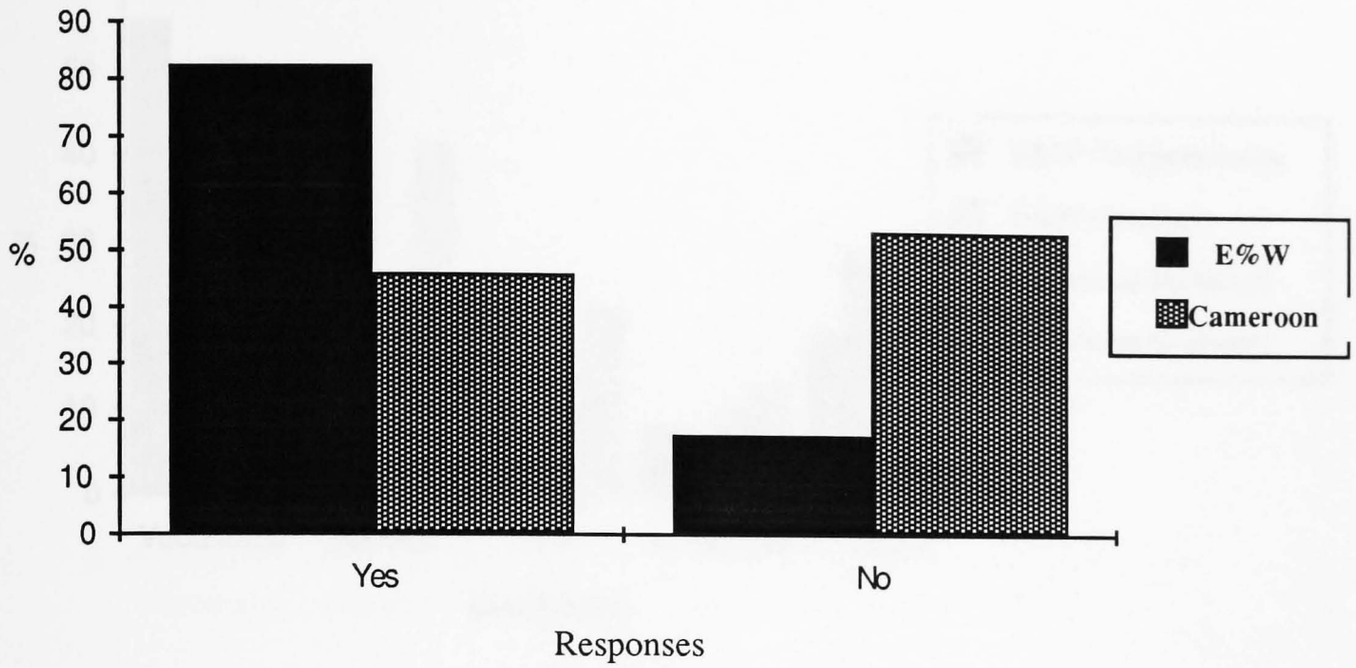


Figure 9.4: Subjects done after School

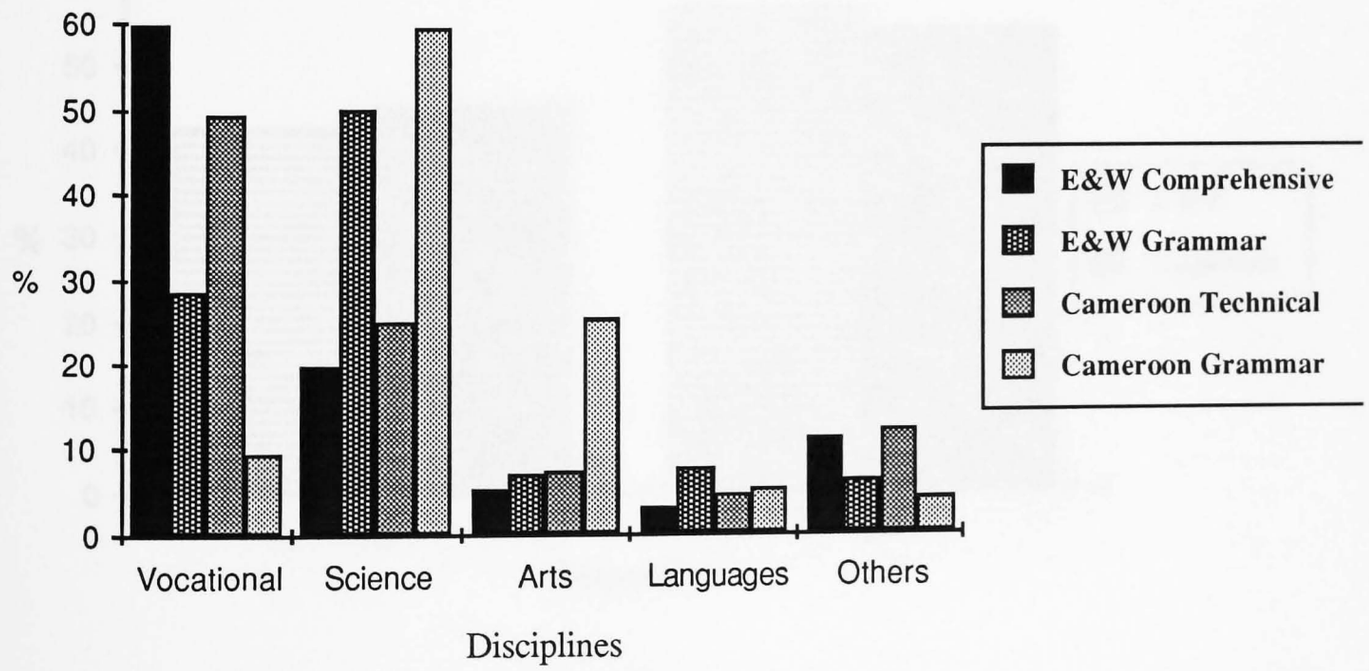


Figure 9.5: Favourite Subjects

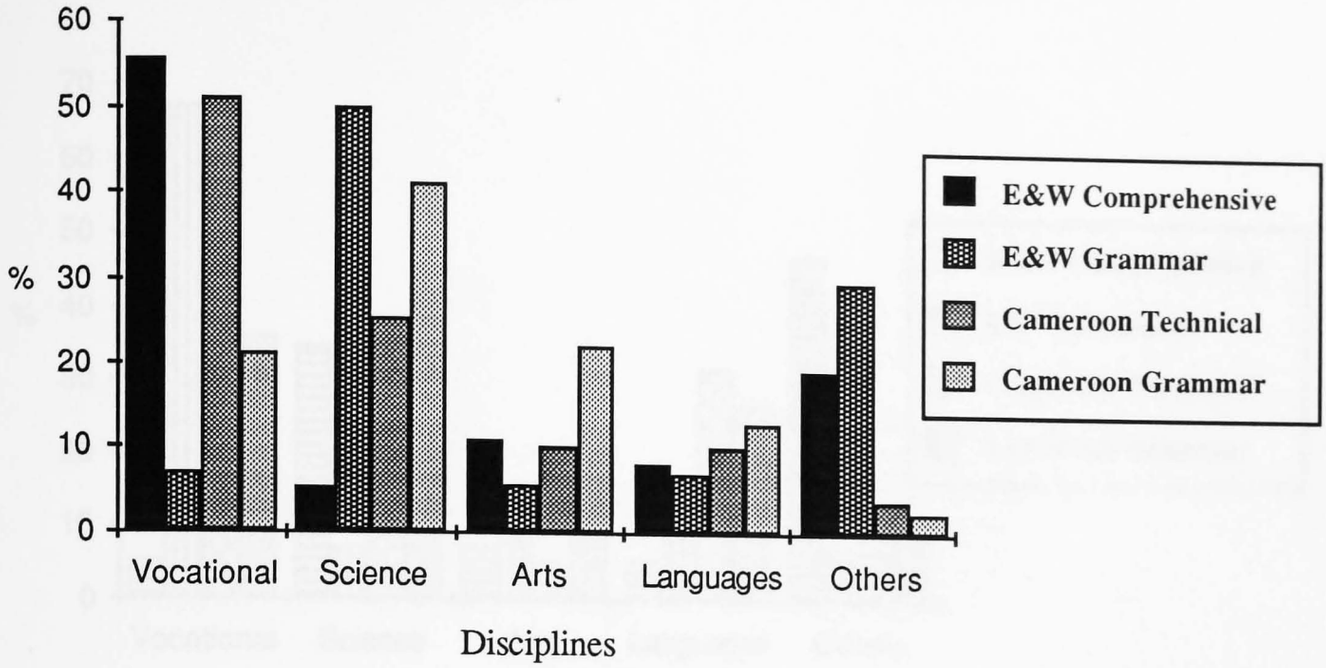


Figure 9.6: Reasons for Subject Preference

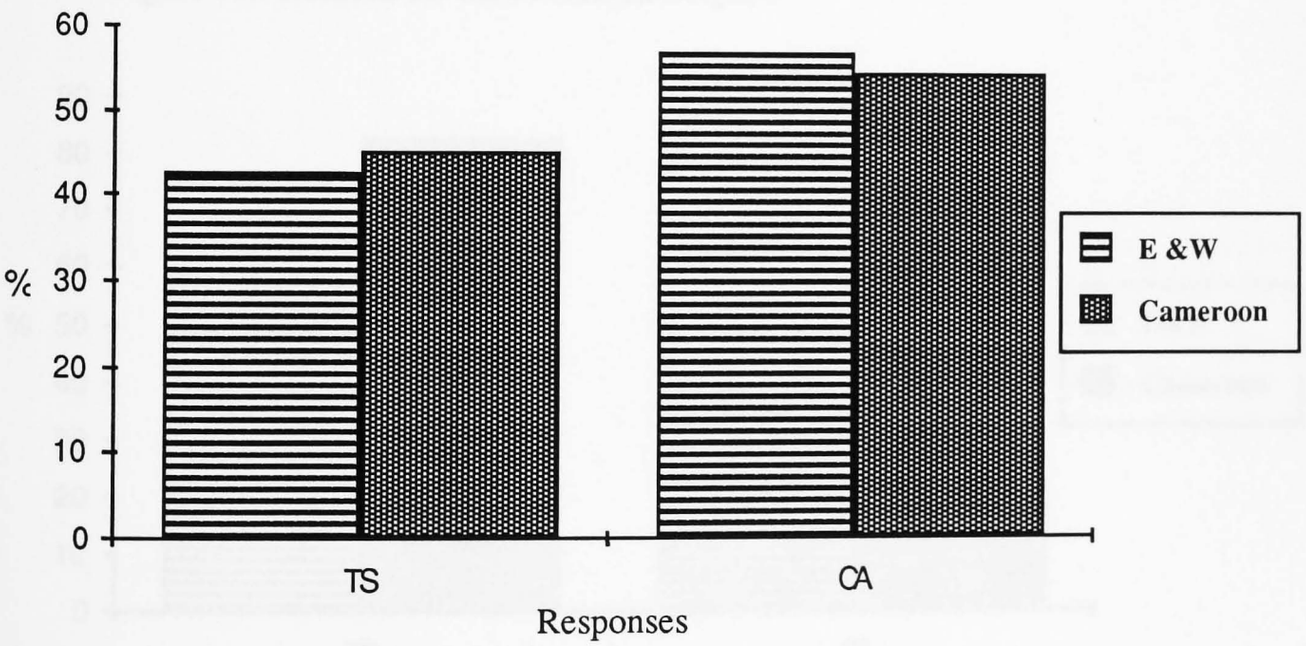


Figure 9.7: Least Favoured Subjects

Figure 9.8: Reasons for least Prefered Subjects

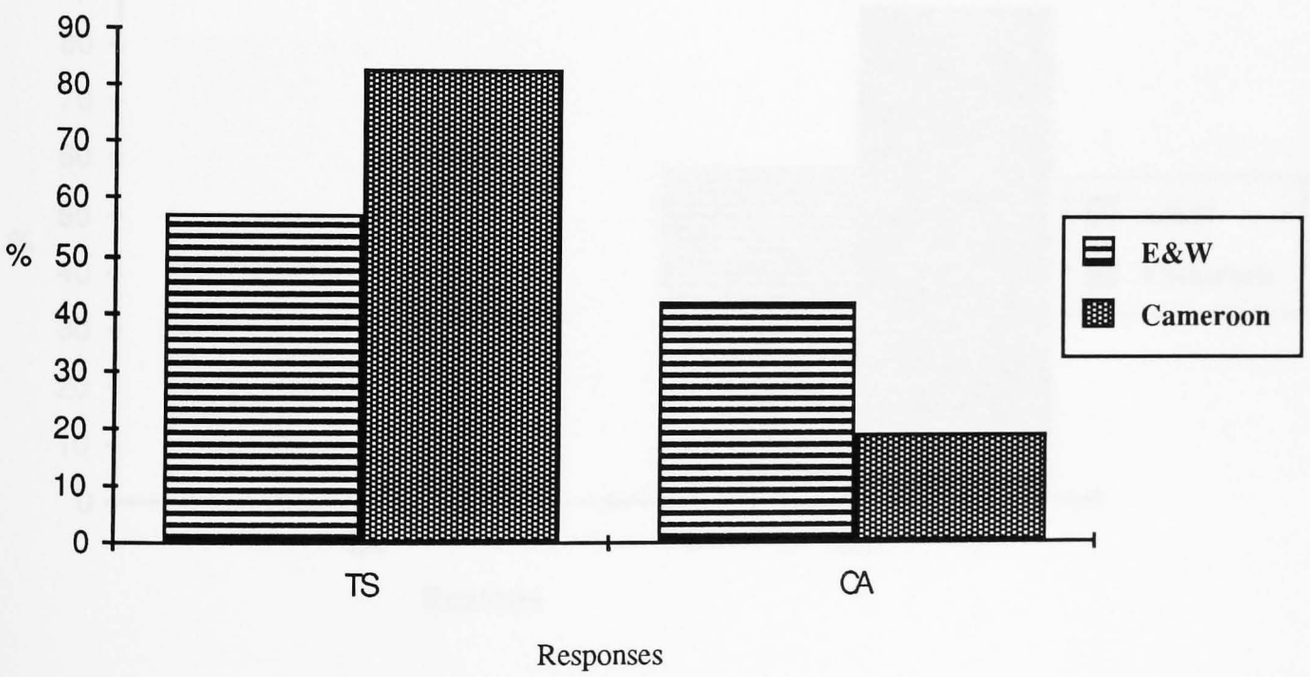


Figure 9.9: Additional Subjects to be Included in the Curriculum

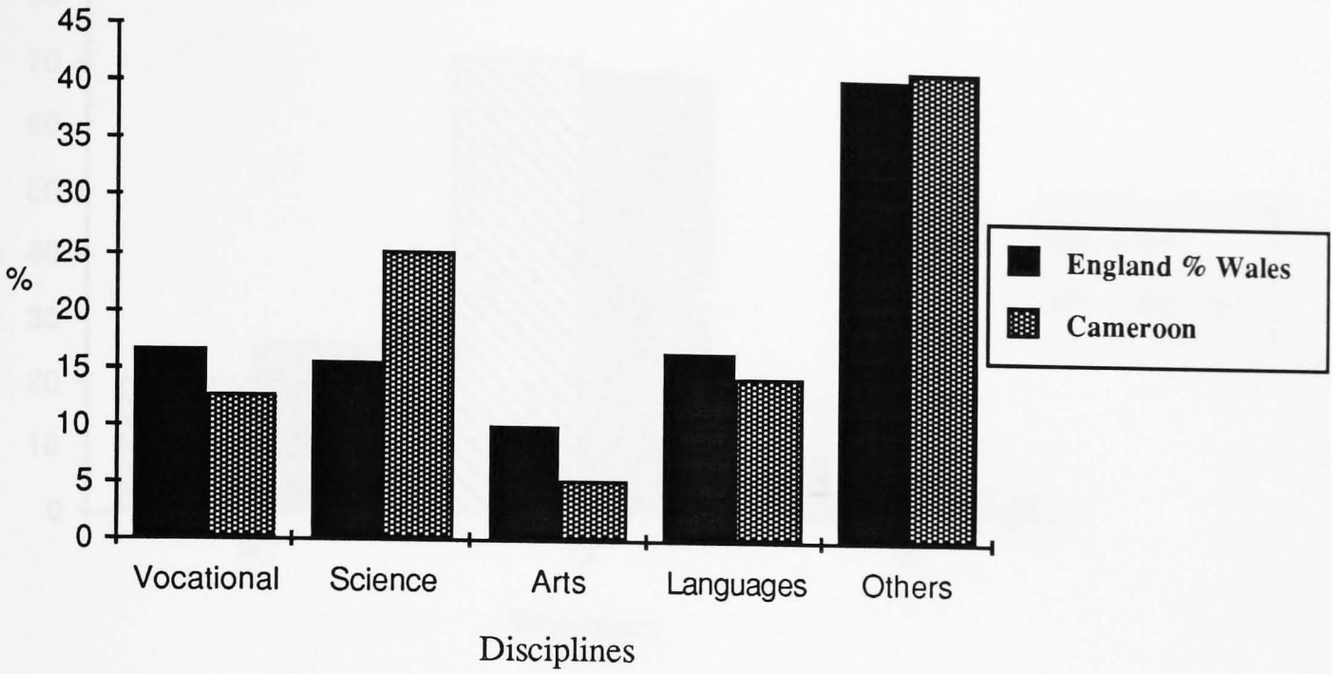


Figure 9.10: Reasons for additional Subjects

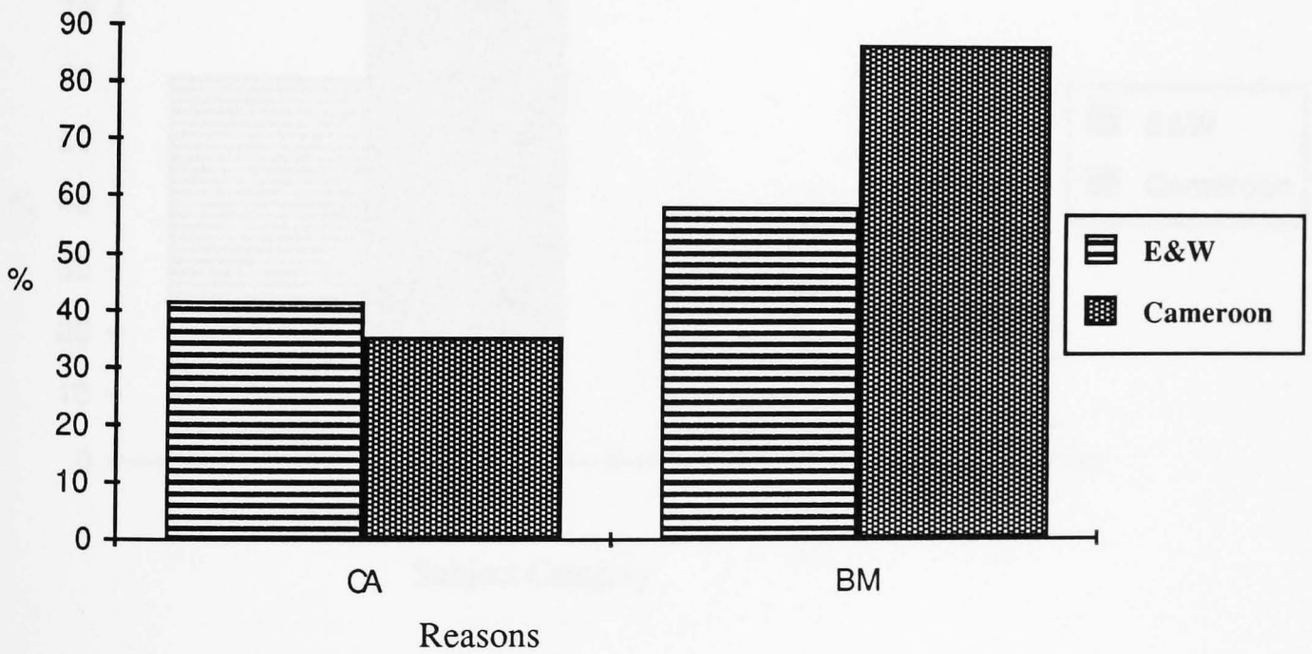


Figure 9.11: Psychological Reasons for working Hard

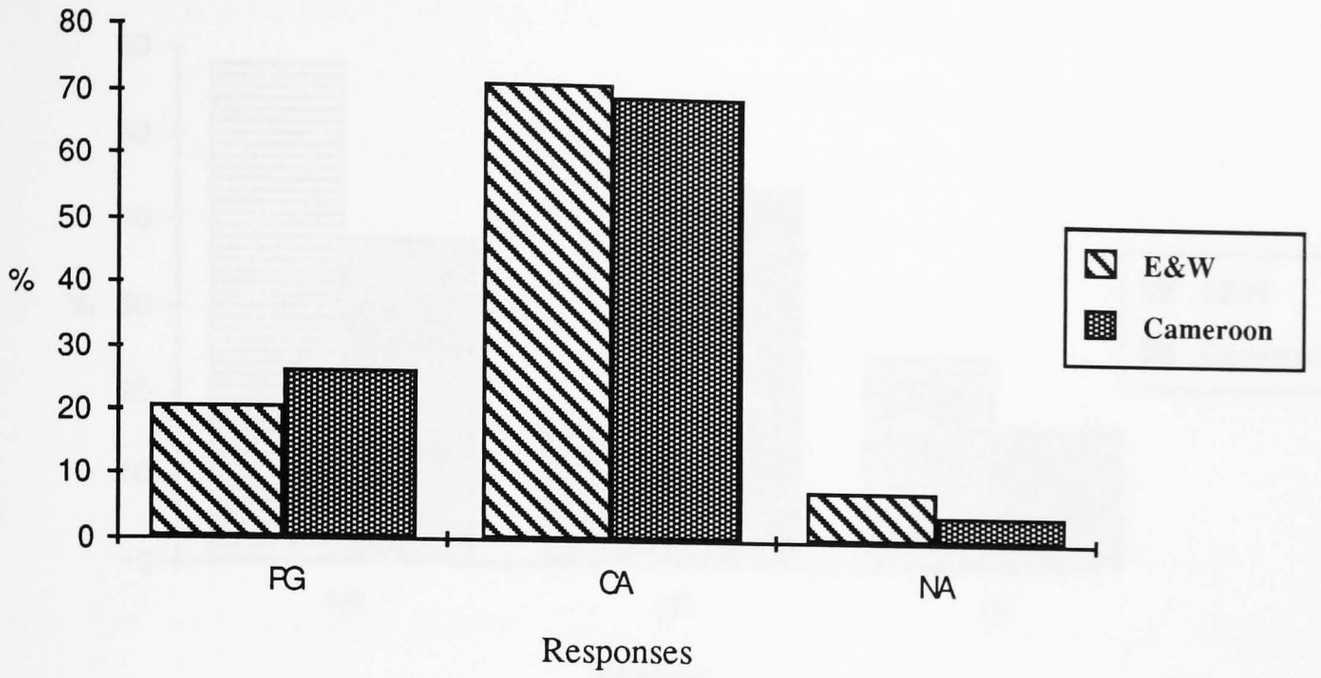


Figure 9.12: Range of Subjects to be dropped

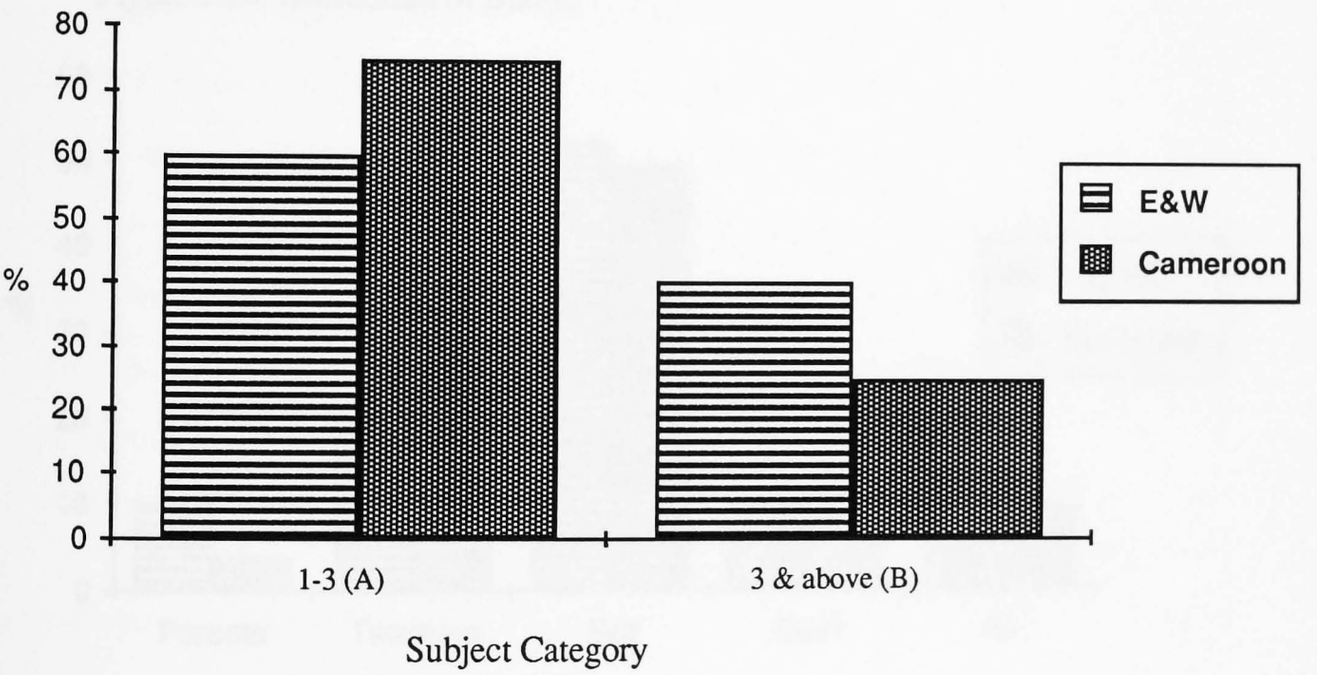


Figure 9.13: Reasons for dropping Subjects

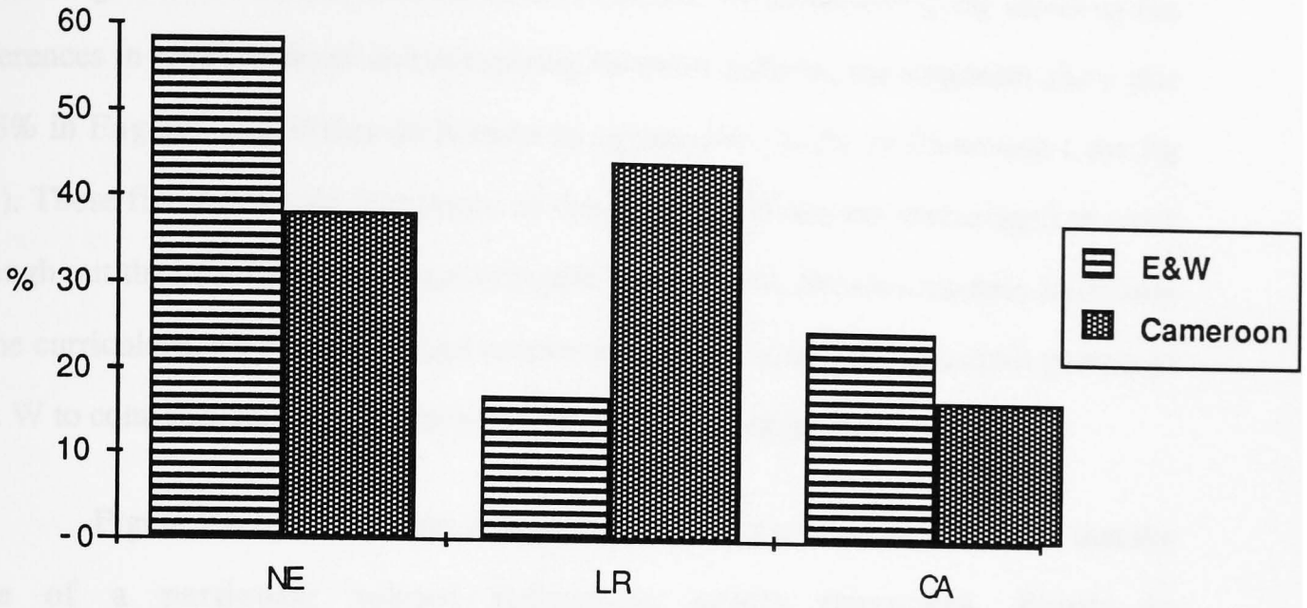
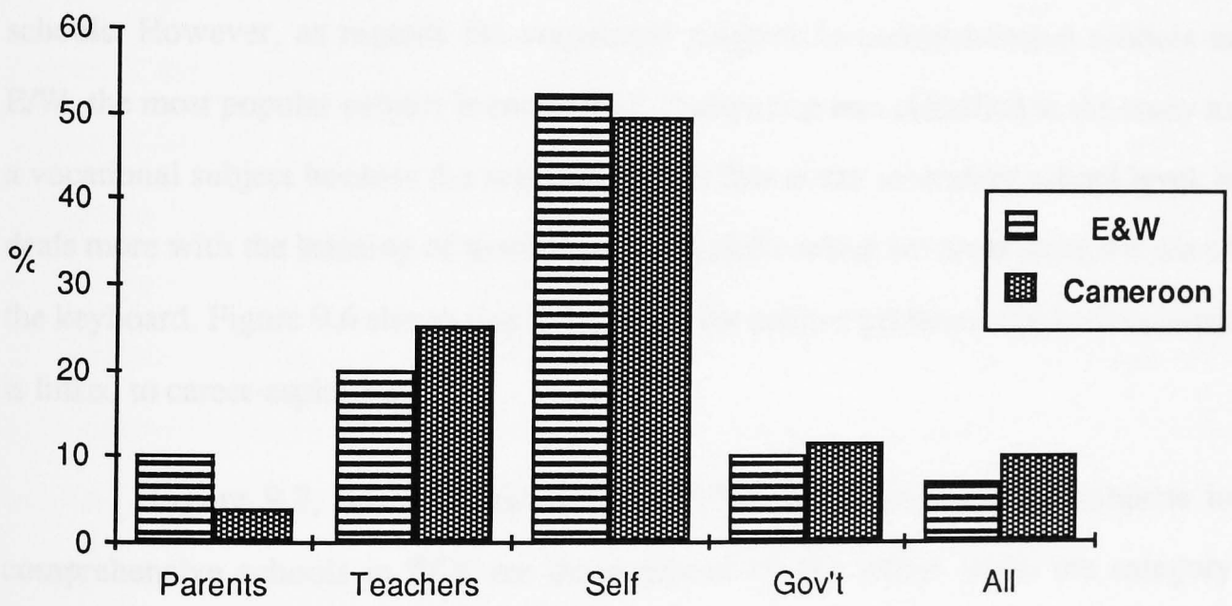


Figure 9.14: Attribution of Blame



Very apparent from the analysis from the two cultures are variations in results between the schools. Figure 9.1 reveals that in both cultures, the average number of subjects in technical/comprehensive school is higher than those in grammar schools. In determining whether lessons are done after school, fig 9.2 indicates that in E & W, a much higher percentage of pupils in both schools do lessons out of school. In

Cameroon, the situation is slightly different as only 57% in technical schools and 35.5% in grammar schools do lessons after school. By neutralising the effect of the differences in type of school and comparing between cultures, the responses show that 82.5% in England and Wales do lessons as opposed to 46.2% in Cameroon (see fig 9.3). These findings imply that pupils in England and Wales are encouraged to work through out the year by giving them constant assignments. Besides teachers initiatives in the curriculum, the active parental involvement in curricula issues enables parents in E & W to continue from where teachers end at the close of the day.

Figure 9.4 and 9.5 shows that pupils responses are a clear indication that the type of a particular school influences pupils responses. Pupils in technical/comprehensive school are more in favour of vocational subjects while those in grammar schools go more for the sciences because of the belief that sciences are for the more academically talented pupils which is the reason why they are found in grammar schools. However, as regards the vocational subjects in comprehensive schools in E/W, the most popular subject is computing. Computing was classified in the study as a vocational subject because the researcher feels that at the secondary school level, it deals more with the learning of word-processing skills which involves more the use of the keyboard. Figure 9.6 shows that the reasons for subject preference in both cultures is linked to career-aspiration (CA).

Figure 9.7, however, reveals that while the least favoured subjects in comprehensive schools in E/W are those placed by the writer under the category 'Others', the technical school pupils in Cameroon chose sciences as their least favoured subjects. The subjects in this category 'others' are subjects like swimming, dancing and moral instruction (i.e. extra curricular). But the grammar school pupils in both E & W and Cameroon selected vocational subjects as their least favoured subjects. This response from the grammar school pupils could be due to the misconception that such subjects are meant for those supposed to be unable to do rigorous academic exercise. Technical school pupils in Cameroon, on the other hand, chose languages as their least

favoured subjects. These findings are a little bit disturbing for a country that is bilingual and preaches the learning of more foreign languages. The reasons given for the dislike of these subjects as portrayed in fig 9.8 is due to the teaching style (TS).

Figure 9.9 indicates that in both cultures, the extra subjects need to be included in the curriculum should be those that the writer placed under the category of 'Others'. But while in E & W pupils preferred dancing, in Cameroon, majority of the pupils preferred moral instruction. Some of their reasons have been given in above chapter 4. For example the reasons behind this choice as displayed in fig 9.10 is to do with broadening the mind. Figure 11 illustrates that the pupils seemed consistent in their responses. Though the questions were framed a little bit different, career aspirations excelled as a determinant factor in guiding pupils' choice of subjects. In both countries, CA is also the reason behind their hardwork..

Within the range of subjects to be dropped, figure 9.12 shows that in both countries, the range is between 1-3(A). But while figure 9.13 illustrates that the reasons of pupils in E/W is due to the subjects not being examination oriented, pupils in Cameroon gave their reasons as due to lack of resources. The most surprising result here is the outcome in figure 9.14 which indicates that in both countries, pupils blame themselves for failing their examinations; but the reasons they gave are associated with their attitude towards learning. The writer feels that, this is partially the fault of the teachers in that they might have under-estimated the effects learning skills could have on pupils achievements.

9.3:TEST OF RESEARCH HYPOTHESIS.

From the foregoing, it is possible to test the initial hypothesis of this study as stated earlier in chapter 1. This could be done in the light of empirical data that is now available.

Hypothesis 1: The secondary school curriculum is not based on the principle of breadth.

Breadth had been identified in this study to have two aspects:- the range of activities to be learned and pupils responses. Breadth within the range of activities in E & W is all what is compulsory as set by the NC, and what is optional by the schools. Relatively, the range in E & W is wider in terms of variety because it includes such learning activities as recreational exercises (swimming, music, dancing), and creative activities (arts, craft & design), which are clearly absent from the Cameroon curriculum. The second type of breadth which is pupils' perception of their curriculum contents is exemplified more in the type of subjects they offer, the range of subjects they wish to drop, and the reasons behind that. The analysis of data pertaining to this subject has shown that in both cultures, the pupils concentrate their efforts more within the disciplines which their respective schools were made to serve. More to the justification of breadth is found in the range of subjects to be dropped, where pupils in both cultures will want to drop between 1-3 subjects; and their reason for this fall in the category of lack of resources(LR) and not for examination purposes(NE). The items in table 5.13 and 8.14 in chapters 5&8 respectively, which sought teachers views is in accordance with the breadth of the curriculum as it refutes the statement that the curriculum puts unnecessary strain on the pupils. The empirical findings therefore agree with the views of the administrators in both cultures.

Hypothesis 2: The secondary school curriculum is not based on the principle of balance.

Balance is said to be the different values which the curriculum attaches to the various activities, and the extent to which these activities are related to teacher competence. The curriculum in E & W attaches different values in school subjects by making a distinction between the core and the foundation subjects. The core subjects receive the greatest emphasis, followed by the foundation subjects, with optional

subjects in the last position. In Cameroon, however, subjects receive emphasis in terms of the number of teaching hours assigned to each of them and this is also reflected in the way subjects are examined (co-efficient and time). But of importance in determining balance as identified in the study, is the minimum teacher competence. This study has revealed that in both countries, the teachers are capable of handling curriculum issues in terms of qualification and regular INSET activities. This rating of minimum competence is also reflected in their favourable attitudes towards work. Such favourable attitudes will ensure that the curriculum is discharged more efficiently. Coombs (1985) indicated that the quality of education and learning achievement of students depend heavily on the competence, personality and dedication of the teacher and also the condition under which the teacher and students are working. Chapman (1983) and Duke (1984) also suggested that a high quality of professional life for the teacher contributes to an increase in student achievement. More so, the reasons given in table 5.31 and 8.32 in chapters 5&8 is such that commits them fully to their jobs.

Hypothesis 3: The secondary school curriculum is not based on the principle of Relevance

Relevance has been identified as having meaningful activities, satisfying needs of the child and values of the community with a view to solving the problems of the society at any one time. The structure of the secondary school curriculum in E & W is such that it takes cognisance of the industrial nature of the country. Both the activities of the teachers and pupils are structured in a bid to achieve relevance. More meaningful activities are presented to the pupils by relating teaching to their cultural experiences and enabling them to link up with the world of science and technology. Besides, the needs of the pupils which have been identified in the findings as career aspirations(CA) are taken care of by not only preparing them for future employment, but also by placing them in works of life in their various interest in relation to some work experience while still in school. More to the point, is the rejection of the statements in tables 8.9 to 8.12 of the teachers' questionnaire in E & W which suggested that the curriculum is

irrelevant. In contrast to the findings in E & W, the data from Cameroon suggests that the curriculum is irrelevant. The findings in tables 5.8 to 5.11 in chapter 5 clearly demonstrate this. The literature review on the curriculum in Cameroon does not seem to lay emphasis on the agrarian nature of the country. It should be noted that the curriculum in Cameroon may be said to be relevant in the sense that it enables the pupils to understand the problem of their society, but not to solving the problems which should be the principle behind any curriculum model in a changing world. The inability of the Cameroonian curriculum to solve the problems of the society has generated what can be termed, 'a qualification inflation' with the consequence being a high rate of unemployment. Though it may also be argued that there is a high rate of unemployment in E & W which the writer claims to have a relevant curriculum; and if such is the argument, then she would not hesitate to point out that unemployment in E & W is as a result of the current world recession as opposed to that in Cameroon which is due to poor educational policies. Besides, some of the unemployed in E & W may actually fall under disguised unemployment, such as facilitated by the expansion of further and higher education opportunities. On the whole, the main research hypothesis discussed above have been tested statistically and the summary of the data analysis and their conclusions are presented below.

Table 9.2: Summary of main research hypothesis and conclusions from statistical analysis.

Hypothesis	Statistical Conclusions	
	Cameroon	E & W
1. The secondary school curriculum is not based on the principle of breadth	rejected	rejected
2. The secondary school curriculum is not based on the principle of balance	rejected	rejected
3. The secondary school curriculum is not based on the principle of relevance	accepted	rejected

9.4: CONCLUSION

The findings from the literature review and the empirical work reveals that in both cultures, considerable amount of effort is being made to ensure that the curriculum reflects the breadth, balance and relevance of it. The numerous curriculum initiatives, the cross-curricula themes, the activities provided in the school, the regular INSET and the provision of qualified teachers in E & W is an attempt to provide a broad, balanced and relevant curriculum. In like manner, the literature review on Cameroon also revealed that the activities and resources provided so far are in view of providing a broad, balance and relevant curriculum. Notwithstanding these efforts, the findings that have emerged from the data analysis and examination of the activities in Cameroon, have revealed that though the curriculum may have sufficient breadth and balance in terms of satisfying examination needs, it may be said not to be balanced and relevant in the sense that it develops the mental health of the pupils more at the expense of physical and moral. The question as to whether some important skills are developed in the course of developing the mental health of pupils is a course for concern especially as a major step in the traditional approach which the teachers use is to devise 'methods' to facilitate the transmission of matter to unfilled minds. The reason behind this type of attitude as expounded by Kevin (1978) is because pupils are regarded as ill-informed adults, and not as qualitatively different beings with regard to their styles of thinking and educative potential.

Pupils analysis also, in chapters 4 and 7 show that there is a relationship between the type of school and their responses. On cross cultural basis, the results of the comparisons tilting in the same direction gives an impression that cultural differences might have little impact on pupils. Interestingly also, the results obtained from chapters 5 and 7, reveal that, irrespective of the type of school, the pupils have identified CA as a motivating factor in what they do in school. Garratt (1985) in her study also found that career value of subject was deemed to be very influential by more

than half the students in her survey. In Summary, table 9.3 presents some differences in national approaches to curriculum development.

Table: 9.3: Differences in National Approaches to Curriculum Development

Dimensions affecting style	**Cameroon**	**England & Wales**
1. Relationship of curriculum development to socio-political reform	Curriculum development is seen as a product of social and educational reform	Curriculum development is seen as a stimulus to educational reform rather than as a product of it.
2. Relationship of curriculum development to socio-economic	Curriculum development does not reflect the agricultural nature of the country especially at the secondary level	Curriculum development reflects the industrial needs of the society.
3. Arena for control of curriculum policy	Curriculum development takes place within Ministry of Education (central government) as an integral part of system	The control of curriculum policy formation is dispersed from central government to multiple agencies, including universities, examination boards, LEAs and schools.
4. Arena for control of curriculum development	Curriculum development takes place within a central government department, which has control of the curriculum through the specification of syllabuses and the control of examinations	Control of curriculum development is dispersed throughout the system, residing in multiple institutions, independent or quasi independent from central government in terms of policy, but dependent on central and local government and foundations for resources.
5.. Methods of curriculum development	Text-book writers play an important part in curriculum development. Syllabuses being drawn from the text-books There is less emphasis on heuristic methods than on traditional approaches of a priori reasoning and the collective work of experienced people	Traditional and heuristic methods operate side by side, with relative greater emphasis on heuristic methods.
6. Degree of decentralisation	The inspectorate plays a key role in a traditional form of diffusion because of it's highly centralised nature	There is considerable decentralisation to teachers in schools through teacher's centres and other linking agencies. This gives rise to some degree of autonomy by the school head and the classroom teacher. PA

It has therefore emerged from the study that a very important determinant factor of a broad, balance and relevant curriculum is the meaning accorded the word 'curriculum' as well as the perception of the role of education. The problem relating to perception of education is closely related to that of the legacy of history. The notion that blue-collar jobs are beneath the dignity of educated youths is still generally upheld by many developing countries as the analysis of the curriculum in Cameroon reveals. Historically, grammar school leavers were absorbed into the so-called white-collar jobs

with little difficulty, and the tradition now seems to be that educated persons were expected to work in those occupations or professions which were non-manual. This predominant attitude is that education is the most direct means to specific ends; such as the acquisition of position, prestige, power, influence and financial security. The curriculum in E & W, as has been discussed above is such that extends beyond the subjects at the examination. It recognises the examination needs as well as societal needs. In such a context, there is every indication that no knowledge is useless as pupils are encouraged in which ever areas they are found to excel. This gives an opportunity for pupils to rise to the top of the social ladder through whichever route is suitable. While taking care of the industrialised nature of the country, it also takes care of recreational activities which amongst others are another dimension of societal needs. Thus, by developing the pupils mentally, physically and morally, it has a multiplier effect as not only are the pupils needs being taken care of, but also the society needs at large, which in one way or the other, result in satisfying general needs.

In Cameroon, the situation is different. The curriculum is defined in narrow terms that is limited to syllabus writing in the traditional school subjects which in most cases, the content is determined by textbook authors and publishers and the examination system. As a result the general objectives set out in 3.4 cannot be achieved. At the stage of laying out the syllabi and developing the material of the curriculum, a serious flaw in the process becomes apparent, in that many of those who undertake the task of making specifications and writing the text-books may not be fully aware of the policy of education to an extent that would enable them to embody such principles in the syllabi and the material they select. But a policy on education may seem difficult to come by because of the disagreement about public education. In a society such as Cameroon, there is bound to be areas of disagreement about public education; but which should not be over looked because of the shared or common concern. The ability to construct a viable system of education that recognises bases of agreement should converse with our slogan of 'national unity'.

In this sense, if Cameroonians strive to have a curriculum in which the principles of breadth, balance and relevance can be more meaningful, the curriculum should be defined in a much broader form which will recognise pupil and societal needs, rather than mainly the needs of the examination system. Such a view will not regard the textbook whereby pupils memorize the material and regurgitate it in the examination, as the only source of factual knowledge. By working across the curricula it has been possible to see how those strategies promoting a stable and monolithic curriculum, grouped into 'subjects' emerged and are maintained. In this way, the present study would have an emancipatory and transformative potential. Reid share this view when he argued that:

> "In order to have an adequate sense of how learning environment can be changed, and what features of it we need to influence in order to produce change, we need research that helps us understand how the status quo came about, what tends towards maintenance and what conflicts and dissonances participant place on events, of social and political context of the curriculum and of the moral and ethical bases on which decisions about curriculum rest".(1978:36)

On the basis of this argument, the writer will conclude by making the following recommendations which would be particularly useful to Cameroon:-

(i) Lawton's model of cultural analysis should be given a careful thought especially as it has elements of Barnes (1976) view of objectives, values and experience of both pupils and teacher. Fonlon (1969) had long emphasised the importance of cultural values in the Cameroonian society: " Culture is to a country like soul is to a man" (p.25). The cultural analysis model would be more desirable as it encompasses features of dominance of subject-matter and substantive values, the means-end and process model. It does not see subjects as monolithic entities but rather as traditional and progressive elements based on a holistic view of education. This model however, seems to gain prominence. The papers presented by the writer and Rasmussen at the British Comparative and International Education Society Annual Conference of 11-13th September, 1992 were both in favour of a cultural analysis model. Rasmussen (1992) referring to Namibia, remarked that inspite of the theoretical flaws, the model has been

found to be useful in achieving national unity, political and economic independence, and democratic development. However, this could only be more feasible with the harmonisation of the Cameroonian educational system because the present two parallel systems perpetuate colonial legacies and encourage a colonial dependence.

(ii) Access into higher levels in civil service should be based on both academic qualifications and experience. This will enable pupils with vocational training to climb the social ladder. Consequently all aspects of education will be seen as desirable. Such a proposal will not lead to 'dilution' or 'adulteration' of the existing curriculum, which has been revealed to be an efficient instrument of elite preparation. The elites will obviously oppose openly or tacitly to any 'dilution' or 'adulteration' of the curriculum since they see any changes as a treat to the realisation of their aspirations and expectations of those of their children. It becomes problematic amongst some people to reconcile the training of potential elites with the teaching of activities like swimming, dancing and even commercial subjects. Thus given freedom of choice, pupils will likely rationally opt for the type of education which, however irrelevant it might be, will lead to what they perceive will more rewarding in their value systems. But according equal status to both academic and vocational qualifications will highlight the importance of both grammar and technical schools.

(iii) Formation of teachers' unions where teachers as professionals can come together and discuss matters pertaining to the constituents of their subjects in particular and quality and efficiency of the educational system as a whole. The importance of reviewing the curriculum constantly is shared by Ivor who remarked:

> "Studies of the school subjects show that the school curriculum, far from being a stable and dispassionately constructed unity, is infact a highly contested, fragmented and endlessly shifting terrain".(1991:4)

Such a forum should base the debates on educational issues free from political lines.

(iv) Attention should be focused on counselling the pupils. It is apparent that relatively little heed is paid to psychological factors and their consequences especially as children

are regarded as ill-informed adults and not as qualitatively different with regard to style of thinking (Kevin, 1978). But the indication of CA by the pupils as a determinant factor in their choice of subjects notwithstanding the response that were got from some officials, that it is not always possible for pupils to take up careers which they envisaged, requires that pupils should be guided in choosing their subjects and where they show an interest, they should be encouraged. Guidance for subjects choices at 14+ has also been found to be a force to reckon with by Watts (1972) who commented that though Lord Bowdens remarks about the manpower distribution in the country being determined by the choices of fourteen-year-olds may have been overstated, they contained a sufficient element of truth to alert schools both to the dangers of premature specialisation and to the need to ensure that any choices made by pupils were made with some recognition of their vocational implications.

(v) The trauma of lack of resources (LR) faced by pupils and parents in Cameroon can be marginalised if teachers adopt the role play teaching method in which pupils will actively take part in the lesson irrespective of the limited resources. However role-play should not be misunderstood for play-acting. Morry Van Ments (1992) distinguishes acting in a play from the activity of playing a role in an educational simulation. The former being an entertainment whereby the actor represents the actions and thoughts of a character in order to develop a story or drama. The latter being a study of the way in which people can interact and deal with situations and the role player being asked to actually deal with the situations under certain constraints, i.e. those which would operate for the character that they represent.

(vi) A combination of some aspects of technical education into the liberal education as the analysis has proven that the pupils in both school have CA as their objective behind the subjects they choose. Whitehead (1932) argued that the antithesis between a technical education and liberal education is fallacious because there can be no adequate technical education which is not liberal and vice-versa. The same view was expressed by the Faure Commission, with reference to present developments, when it stressed

that education should help achieve optimum mobility in employment and facilitate conversion from one profession to another (Faure et al, 1972).

(vii) Finally a change from traditional views of education based on the transmission of knowledge to a concern for the process involved in the acquisition and creation of knowledge. These processes imply many changes in educational orientation such as a move:

From	Towards
Teaching	Learning
Rote learning	Critical Understanding
Problem-solving	Problem-posing
Maintenance learning	Innovative, predictory learning
Exclusive classroom learning	Learning from direct interaction with the human and natural environment
Indoctrination	Conscientization
Exposition and lectures	Active discovery/enquiry.

One cannot, however, entirely reject all the traditional educational methods on the sole basis that they are traditional; many of these, with careful planning and handling, can produce positive effects. What is required is a combination of both in a way that would result in an authentic and long lasting competence which can be useful in a variety of contexts and for a variety of pursuits in one's professional, vocational and personal life. A combination of both the traditional methods and the method acquiring and creation of knowledge requires that piaget's semiclinical interview teaching method complemented by thematic approach to learning is inevitable. Piaget was able to get at the genuine intellectual concerns of children by starting with questions posed by children themselves. The implication of this method is that it suggests the value of thematic approach to learning or teaching, which also supports some facets of Dewey's project method. Such is one of the better features of the open classroom concept, which seems to have considerable psychological validity. De Meuron (1969) concluded that

the problem of children at school is compounded by the emphasis put on memorisation and the importance attached to the accumulation of information in school. The writer, however, observed that the questions and answers method that some teachers adopted in their teaching differ markedly from Piaget's Semiclinical Interview method. The teachers rewarded the pupils when they give right answers. Piaget's methods adopts the stance that reasoning per se is not rewarded (Anwunkah, 1983).

However, change on a wide-scale is imperative, if not inevitable (Ahmed, 1987). But it should be recognised that it is always difficult suddenly to alter long-established traditions to the extent required for achieving almost completely new national aims and objectives. If anything, historical evidence suggests that there are many dangers as there are benefits in radical alterations of traditional patterns. The Iwakura reports' observation in Shively is pertinent here; it held that:

> "..... all countries are characterised by a desire to retain old institutions and practices..... the benefits of forcing the people to abandon ancient practices are extremely few. The disadvantages of injuring their traditional sentiments and producing discontent are numerous".(1971:26)

Notwithstanding, Cameroon has to change some of its existing practices in order to fulfil it's dream of a broad, balanced and relevant curriculum. Slow, guarded, piecemeal and discriminatory as it may be, change is necessary.

Areas for Future Research:

In this work, we have shown the main features of the secondary school curriculum in Cameroon on the one hand and England and Wales on the other. We have made proposals which would improve the breadth, balance and relevance of the Cameroonian curriculum. These are only modest proposals. A common mistake for young researchers is to think that they have had the last word on the subject. This is far from it in our particular case.

Our study has revealed certain murky areas from our target population. The responses on tables 8.14, 8.15 and 8.20 of the teachers questionnaires in England and

Wales reveal uncertainty. Future research is also necessary to determine the extent to which the cultural analysis model that has been proposed by the researcher could be incorporated within the Cameroonian curriculum bearing in mind the examination pressures. Further investigation in this areas will complement what has been said.

The writer has now set out her view as informed by both documentary and empirical research, and the thesis is concluded.

Appendix A

Student's Questionnaire

Attach is a questionnaire intended to get your views in relation to subjects in your school. The responses you give will be treated as strictly confidential as neither your teacher nor your headteacher (principal) will have access to the data.

Your are considered as being very important in this research because you represent thousands of others who are not in my sample. I shall be very grateful if you will complete the questionnaire with all honesty and sincerity.

INSTRUCTIONS: Read the instructions carefully. If there is anything you have doubts about, please get clarification from whoever is administering the questionnaire.

PART 1

Please put a ( ) in the appropriate box as it relates to you in each item.

A. Name of school_____

B. Age

C. Sex (1) Male
(2) Female

D. Class

E. Type of School (1) Single sex
(2) Co-education

PART 2

1. After enumerating the subjects you do in your school on the left hand, you then put your remarks of how you feel on the right side. Use any of the following:

I like it(5)
I don't very much care for it (4)
I hate it a lot (3)
I hate it (2)
Not sure whether I like it or not (1)

EXAMPLE

Subject	Remarks
Mathematics	I hate it. (2)

Subjects	Remarks

2. Do you do any lessons outside school?

Yes
No

3. In what subjects?

4. What is your favourite subject?

5. What do you like about it?

6. What is your least favourite?

7. What do you dislike about it?

8. What extra subjects should a secondary school pupil be asked to do?

9. Why?

10. why do you work hard at school?

11. What subjects would you like to drop?

12. If you drop these subjects, which ones will you replace with? If none, go to the next question.

13. In event of failure in your exam, whom will you blame?

Tick just one.

(a) My parents
(b) My teachers
(c) Myself
(d) My government
(a) All of the above

14. Why?.

Appendix B

TEACHERS' QUESTIONNAIRE

The rationale for the questionnaire

This is a research exercise whose intention is to investigate problems related to secondary school curriculum and to suggest possible improvements. Your opinion as teachers is indispensable. I would like to assure you that the information given will be treated as strictly confidential and no attempt will be made to relate responses to respondents.

Most of the questions are intended to get your personal views. As such there are therefore no right or wrong answers.

I count on your co-operation.

Identification Number.

_____

PART 1: Personal Information

Tick ( ) only that which relates to you.

A. Sex (1)Male
(2)Female

B. Age (1) Under 25
(2) 26-30
(3) 31-40
(4) over 40

C. Educational Qualification

(1) Graduate with teaching qualification
(2) Graduate without teaching qualification
(3) Teachers' Certificate or Diploma
(4) Others - please specify

D. Years of teaching experience.

(1) 2 or less
(2) 3 - 5 years
(3) 6 - 10
(4) 11 years and over

PART 2

Please put a tick where you consider appropriate.

SA if you strongly agree with the statement
A if you agree more than you disagree
SD if you strongly disagree with the statement
D if you disagree more than you agree
NS if you are not sure of the statement.

	5 SA	4 A	3 SD	2 D	1 NS
1. An effective curriculum is one that enables pupils to be responsible					
2. An effective curriculum is one that enables the pupils to be productive					
3. An effective curriculum is one that enables pupils to be creative					
4. The real task of determining the efficiency of the pupil's learning activities is the responsibility of teachers in the classroom					
5. A more conducive learning environment for pupils will achieve better results					
6. A teachers competence is best assessed through the number of successful pupils at the examinations					
7. Search for paper qualification predominates because of the current system					
8. Widespread unemployment is as a result of the current system					
9. Lack of sense of civic responsibility is as a result of the current system.					
10. The current system of education alienates pupils from the norms and values of their culture (way and life)					
11. If pupils are offered more subjects, they will see the relationship that exists amongst subjects					
12. The present school curriculum puts unnecessary physical and mental strain on pupils					
13. Providing all pupils with the same activities promotes equal opportunities					
14. A more conducive (relaxed and appealing) classroom for pupils will achieve better results than packed with many activities (subjects)					
15. The more the number of subjects the pupils is expected to do, the more challenging it is for the pupils and the better it is for the development of his intelligence					
16. Effective changes within the curriculum should reflect the views of the teachers in classroom					
17. For life after school, economics should be a compulsory subject for all pupils					
18. In order to foster the pupils understanding of society, the curriculum should among other things include the culture (way & life) of the pupil.					

From your experience of teaching so far, which of the following applies to you.
AA - Always Applies
SA - Sometimes Applies
OA - Occasionally Applies
NA - Never Applies
DK - Don't Know.

	5 AA	4 SA	3 OA	2 NA	1 DK
19. Insufficient responsibility and authority					
20. Poor relationship between myself and educational administrators					
21. Insufficient help from inspectors					
22. Insufficient time for my subject					
23. My job gives me a chance to show my initiative					
24. My job gives me a sense of achievement					
25. My job makes me use my intelligence					

Questions 26-29 reflect your views concerning In- service Training (INSET). By INSET I mean any course organised for teachers by government, local education authority or the school to take place outside or within the school in relation to any issues pertaining to the school curriculum (teaching/learning activities).

26. Have you ever been to INSET as described above?
Tick ( ) one.

Yes
No

If so, when was it

(1) in the past year
(2) about 3 years now
(3) more than 3 years

27. If yes how were the activities? Tick ( ) one.

(1) Satisfactory
(2) Dissatisfactory
(3) Not sure

28. Your performance in the classroom is as a result of which of the following. Tick ( ) one.

(1) Experience in INSET
(2) Experience from Initial Teacher training
(1) Your own initiative

29. Which was the most important consideration to you in choosing teaching? Tick ( ) one.

(1) Urge to transfer knowledge to younger generation
(2) Attractive salary
(3) Long vacations
(4) Advice from parents/relatives
(5) The only job available.

30. Please feel free to make any comments that you consider valuable to the research.

Appendix C

QUESTIONNAIRE DES ELEVES

Ceci est un questionnaire qui a pour intention d'obtenir vos points de vue sur les matières dans votre établissement. Vos réponses seront considérées comme confidentielles et ni vos professeur, ni votre directeur accès à l'information donnée. Votre êtes considéré très important dans ces recherches, parceque vous représentez des milliers d'autres qui ne reconnaissant si vous le remplissiez avec tout honnêteté et sincèreté.

Instructions:Lisez attentivement les instructions. Au cas où vous ne comprenez pas, renseignez-vous auprès des responsables

Première Partie.

Crochez ( ) dans les cases suivantes comme il vous convient.

A. Nom d'établissement_____
B. Age,_____:
C. Sexe: (1) Male
(2) Femelle
D. Classe_____
E. Genre d'établissement (1) non-mixte
(2) Mixte (filles et garcons)

Deuxième Partie

1. Après avoir fait une liste de vos matières du côté gauche, mettez vos remarques du côté droit. Utilisez les phrases suivantes:

Çà me plait (5)
Çà ne me dit rien (4)
Çà ne me plait pas du tout
Çà ne me dit rien (2)
Ne savez pas(1)

Example

Matière:	Remarques
Mathématiques	Çà me plait (5)

Matières	Remarques

2. Faites-vous des cours hors de l'établissement?
   Oui
   Non
3. En quelle matière
4. Quelle est votre matière préférée
5. Pourquoi çà vous plaît?
6. Quelle matière détestez-vous le plus?
7. Pourquoi la détestez-vous?
8. A votre avis quelles matières supplémentaires devraient faire?
9. Pourquoi?
10. Vous vous concentrez particulièrement sur quelles matières (limitez-vous à cinq)
11. Pourquoi?
    (1) je les aime
    (2) pour faire plaisir à mes parents
    (3) pour trouver du bon travail
    (4) pour trouver un travail particulier
    (5) pour que mon professeur aime
12. Quelles matières aimeriez-vous laisser?
13. Si vous les laissez tomber, les remplaceriez-vous avec lesquelles? Si rien, passez!
14. En cas d'échec, qui teneriez-vous pour responsable?
    (a) mes parents
    (b) mes professeurs
    (c) moi-même
    (d) le gouvernement
    (e) tous les mentionés
15. Pourquoi?

Appendix D

QUESTIONNAIRE DES ENSENGNANTS

INFORMATION PERSONNELLE

LA LOGIQUE DU QUESTIONNAIRE.

Ceci est une étude qui a pour but d'envisager des problèmes liés au programme d'enseignement secondare et d'apporter des améliorations positives.

Votre opinion en tant que professeur est indispensable. Je vous assure que je garderai votre information strictement confidentielle, et il n'y aura aucune tentative de lier les participants de cette étude à leurs réponses.

La plupart des questions ont pour intention d'obtenir avis personel. En tant que tel, il n'y a donc pas de réponses justes ni fausses.

Je compte sur votre coopération.

Numéro d'identification

_____

1ère partie - cochez ce qui vous concerne.

A. Sexe (1) Male
(2) Femelle

B. Age (1) moins de 25 ans
(2) de 26 à 30 ans
(3) de 31 à 40 ans
(4) plus de 40 ans

C. Niveau d'étude
(1) Diplôme de pédagogie
(2) Sans diplôme de pédagogie
(3) Diplôme et certificat de professeur
(4) Autres - spécifiez s'il vous plait

D. Années d'enseignment
(1) 2 ans ou moins
(2) de 3 à 5 ans
(3) de 6 à 10 ans
(4) plus de 11 ans

2ème partie

Cochez ( ) dans les cases suivant comme il vous convient.

VP - Vous êtes vivement pour
P - Vous êtes pour
C - Vous êtes contre
VC - Vous êtes Vivement contre
SP - Vous ne savez pas

	5 VP	4 P	3 C	2 VC	1 SP
1. Un programme eficace est celui qui permet aux élèves d'être responsables					
2. Un programme efficace est celui qui permet aux élèves d'être productifs					
3. Un programme efficace celui qui permet aux élèves d'être créatifs					
4. Le vrai moyen de déterminer l'efficacité d'activités d'études des élèves est la responsabilité des professeurs en classe.					
5. Les conditions d'étude des élèves permetront de meilleurs résultats.					
6. La performance d'un enseignant est mieux déterminée à travers le nombre de réussites aux examens.					
7. La recherce de diplôme domine à cause du système actuel.					
8. L'abondant manque d'emplois est dû au système actuel					
9. Le manque de responsabilité est dû au système actuel					
10. Le présent système d'éducation aliène les élèves des normes et valeurs de leur culture					
11. Si on offre aux élèves plus de matières cela leur permettra de voir la relation qui existe entre ces matières					
12. Le présent programme d'école met une tention inutile sur le physique et le mental des élèves.					
13. En founissant les mêmes activités aux élèves, leur permettra les opportunités égales					
14. Une meilleure atmosphère de relaxe en classe par example pour les élèves donnera de meilleurs résultats que celui avec beaucoup d'activités (matières)					
15. Le plus des matières l'élève est envisagé de faire, le plus est un défit pour l'élève et le mieux est pour l'amélioration de son intelligence					
16. Les changements effectifs dans le programme devraient refléter les vues des professeurs en classe					
17. Pour la vie après les études, l'économie être une matière obligatoire pour tous les élèves					
18. Pour permettre aux élèves de mieux comprendre la société, le programme devrait comme toutes autres choses inclure, la culture (façon de vivre) de l'élève.					

De votre expérience d'enseignement, lequel convient le mieux.

TA - Est toujous appliquée
QA - est quelquefois appliquée
SA - Est souvent appliquée
JA - n'est jamais appiquée
SP - ne savez pas

	5 TA	4 QA	3 SA	2 JA	1 SP
19. Une autorité et une responsabilité insuffisantes					
20. Un mauvais rapport avec le personnel					
21. Une aide insuffisante des inspecteurs					
22. Un temps insuffisant pour matière					
23. Mon travail me permet de montrer mon initiative					
24. Mon travail me donne un sens de réussite					
25. Mon travail me permet de mettre mon intelligence					

Questions 26-29 montrent vos idées concernant Inservice Training (INSET). Pas INSET, je veux dire tout programme organisé pour les enseignants par le gouvernement, les autorités d'éducation locales ou de l'école qui prend place hors ou dans l'enceinte en rapport de n'importe quels problèmes appartenant au programme de l'établissement (les activités d'études).

26. Avez-vous déjà été en INSET comme décrit dessus?

(1) Oui

(2) Non

Si oui, est-ce: dans les années passées

Il y a 3 ans

Il y a plus de 3 ans

27. Si oui, comment étaient les activités? cochez ( ) une réponse.

(1) satisfaisant

(2) insatisfaisant

(3) pas sûr

28. Votre performance en classe est due à laquelle des suivants.
cochez ( ) une réponse.
(1) Expérience en INSET
(2) expérience de la formation initiative du professeur
(3) votre initiative

29. Lequel est votre considération la plus importante en choisissant d'être enseignant? cochez ( ) une réponse

(1) L'envie de transférer la connaissance à la jeune génération

(2) Un salaire intéressant

(3)De longues vacances

(4) Le seul travail valable.

30. Vous pouvez faire des commentaires nécessaires concernant la recherche.

Appendix E

Codification of Pupil's Questionnaire.

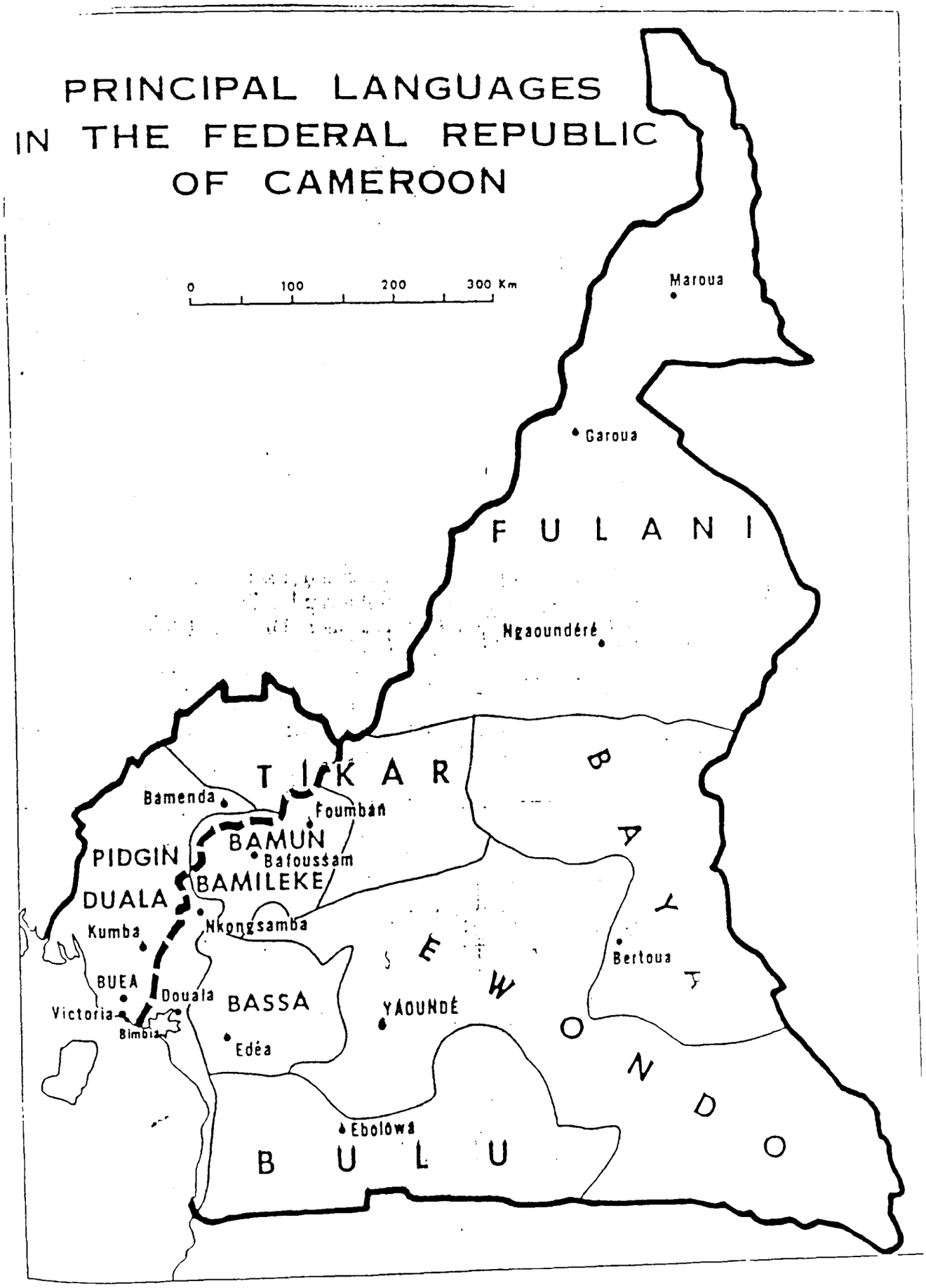
A.	School	: Technical/Comprehensive	1
		Grammar	2
B.	Sex	Male	1
		Female	2
C	Type of School	Single	1
		Mixed	2

Part 2.

2.	Yes	1
	No	2
3,4,6,&13.	Vocational Subjects	1
	Science Subjects	2
	Arts Subjects	3
	Languages	4
	Others	5
5.	Teaching Style(TS)	1
	Career Aspiration (CA)	2
	Availability of resources (AR)	3
7.	Teaching Style (TS)	1
	Career Aspiration(CA)	2
	Lack of Resources(LR)	3
9.	Career Aspiration(CA)	1
	Widen the Horizon(WH)	2

	Not Sure	3
10.	Personal Gratification(PG)	1
	Need's Approval(NA)	2
	Career Aspiration(CA)	3
11.	1-3 Subjects(A)	1
	3 and above(B)	2
12.	Not for Examination(NE)	1
	Lack of Resources(LR)	2
	Career Aspirations(CA)	3
14.	My parents	1
	My teachers	2
	Myself	3
	My government	4
	All of the above	5
15.	Why?	
	Relevant	1
	Not relevant	2

Appendix F


PRINCIPAL LANGUAGES
IN THE FEDERAL REPUBLIC
OF CAMEROON
0
100
200
300 Km
Maroua
Garoua
FULANI
Ngaoundéré
TIKAR
BALI
Bamenda
Foumban
BAMUN
PIDGIN
Bafoussam
BAMILEKE
DUALA
Nkongsamba
Kumba
Bertoua
BUEA
Douala
BASSA
YAOUNDÉ
SEWONDO
Victoria
Bimbia
Edéa
Ebolowa
BULU

Appendix G

II. ADMINISTRATIVE STRUCTURE OF GOVERNMENT

A diagram indicating the structure of the territorial administration is annexed as Attachment D.

Table 5

DETAILS OF GOVERNMENT OFFICIALS EMPLOYED SOLELY WITHIN TRUST TERRITORY, 1949

Department	*Status*	*No.*	*Race*	*Natives of Trust Territory included in previous columns*	*Sex*	*Salary*
						£
Administration	SENIOR SERVICE					
	Commissioner of the Cameroons	1	British	—	male	1,600
	Senior Resident	1	British	—	male	1,500
	Resident	1	British	—	male	1,350
	Senior District Officers ...	3	British	—	male	1,200
	Community Development Officer	1	British	—	male	510 to 1,000
	District Officers	5	British	—	male	510 to 1,000
	Assistant District Officers	14	British	—	male	510 to 1,000
	Development Officer ...	1	African	—	male	510 to 1,000
	JUNIOR SERVICE					
	Chief Clerk	1	African	1	male	360 to 450
	Assistant Chief Clerk ...	1	African	—	male	265 to 350
	1st, 2nd, and 3rd Class Clerks	20	African	16	male	84 to 250
	Clerical Assistants ...	4	African	2	male	72 to 160
	Temporary Clerks ...	2	African	—	male	60 to 168
	Interpreters	7	African	7	male	72 to 250
	Motor Drivers and Driver Mechanics	2	African	1	male	52 to 108
	Messengers	41	African	35	male	42 to 84
	Rest House Stewards ...	4	African	2	male	52 to 60
	Rest House Cooks ...	2	African	2	male	56 to 84
	Rest House Caretaker ...	1	African	1	male	48
	Rest House Watchman ...	1	African	1	male	48
	Rest House Laundry Boy	1	African	—	male	42
Agriculture ...	SENIOR SERVICE					
	Senior Agricultural Officer	1	British	—	male	510 to 1,000
	JUNIOR SERVICE					
	Assistant Agricultural Officer	1	African	—	male	170 to 300
	Agricultural Assistants ...	4	African	—	male	96 to 250
	Field Overseer, Grade I ...	1	African	1	male	108 to 160
	Field Overseers, Grade II	15	African	13	male	Rates not exceeding 108
	3rd Class Clerks	2	African	2	male	84 to 128
	Messengers	2	African	2	male	52 to 64
	Driver	1	African	1	male	82 to 74
Co-operative...	JUNIOR SERVICE					
	Co-operative Inspector, Grade I	1	African	—	male	180 to 250
	Co-operative Inspector, Grade II	1	African	1	male	52 to 120

Appendix H

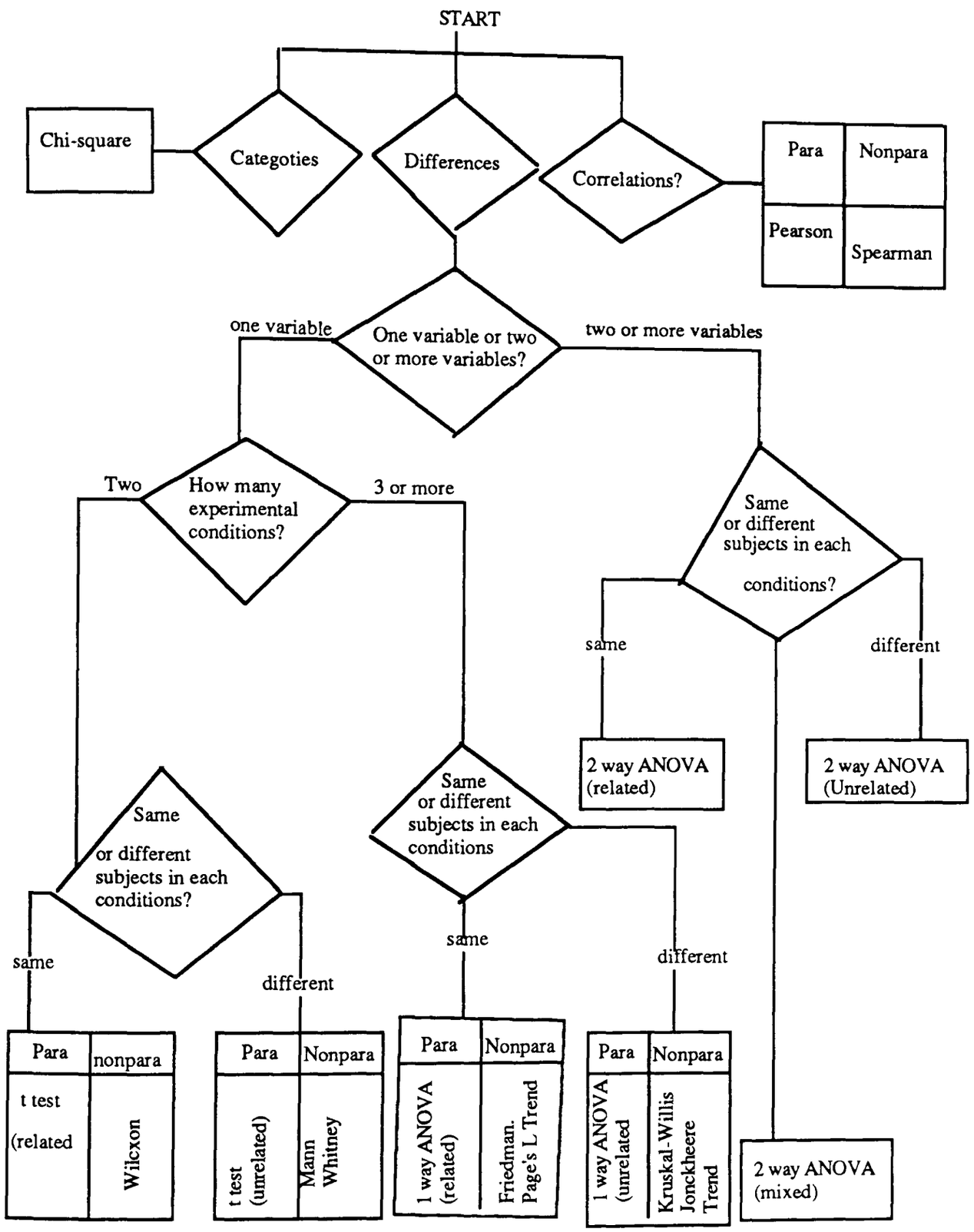
Critical values of chi-square at various levels of probability.

df	.10	.05	.02	.01
1	2.71	3.84	5.41	6.64
2	4.60	5.99	7.82	9.21
3	6.25	7.82	9.84	11.34
4	7.78	9.49	11.67	13.28
5	9.24	11.07	13.39	15.09
6	10.64	12.59	15.03	16.81
7	12.02	14.07	16.62	18.48
8	13.36	15.51	18.17	20.09
9	14.68	16.92	19.68	21.67
10	15.99	18.31	21.16	23.21

Source: Greene & D'Oliveira(1990) Learning to use statistical tests in psychology. pp.169. Open University Press.Milton Keynes.Philadelphia.

Appendix I

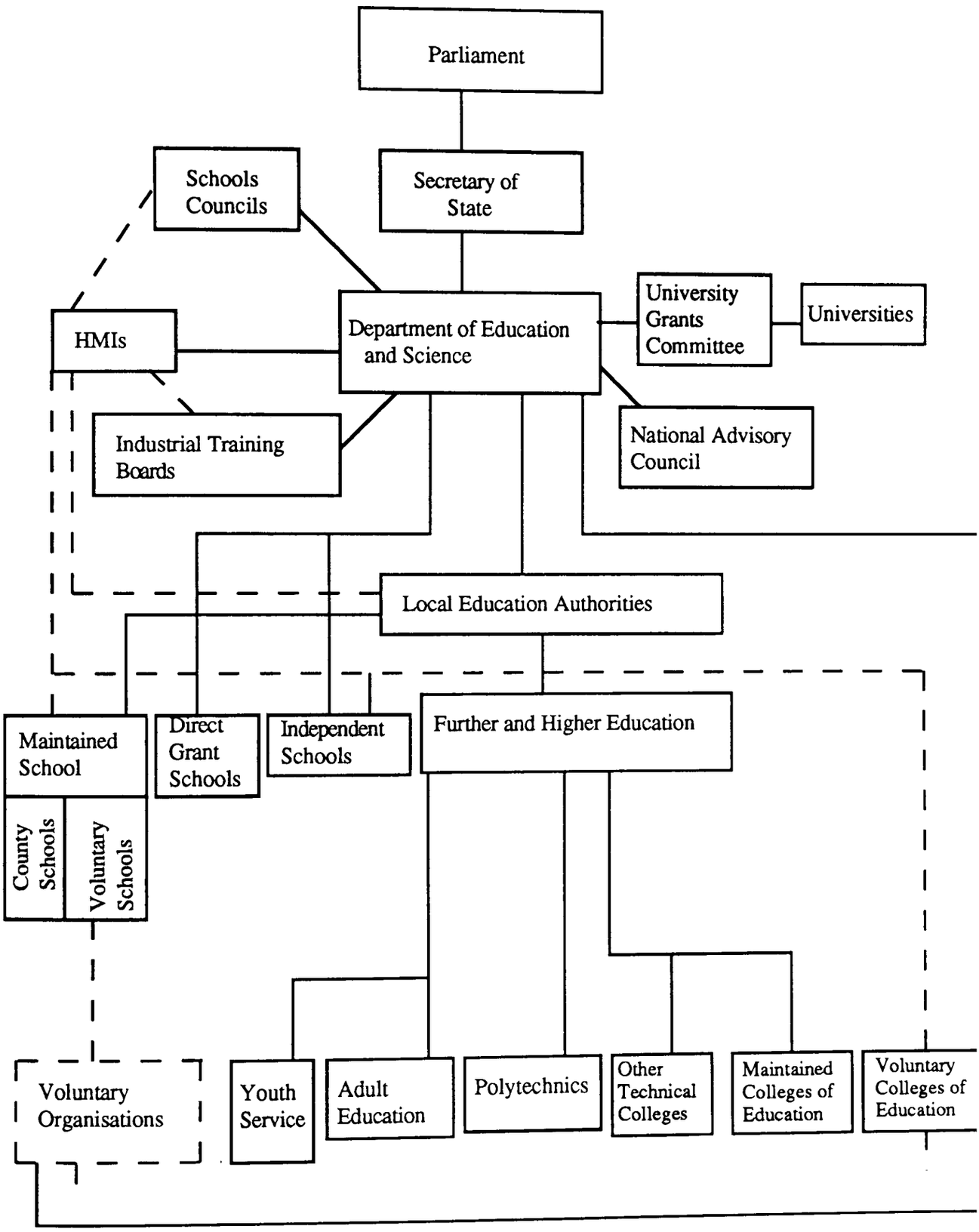
Decision Chart



Source: Greene & D'Oliveira(1990) Learning to use satitistical tests in Psychology. Open University Press. Milton keynes. Philadelphia.

Appendix J

THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM OF ENGLAND & WALES



Source: Handout from School of Education, University of Reading.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

(a): ARTICLES IN JOURNALS AND BOOKS

Abangma, P. (1991) The National Curriculum and the Setting of Attainment Targets: The case of Cameroon. A Paper Presented at the International Seminar on Curriculum development and Evaluation. Held at IPAR Buea in Cameroon from the 4th-15th November, 1991.

Abangma, P. (1992) 'A Narrow Perception of the Curriculum causes Curriculum Irrelevancy: The case of Cameroon'. A Paper Presented at the 1992 Annual Conference of the British Comparative and International Educational Society. Held at York Campus, University College of Ripon and York St.John, from 11-13th September, 1992.

Allverman, D (1989) Teacher-Student Meditation of Content Area Texts. Theory into Practice, Vol. 27, 142-147.

Anwukah, T.G (1983) Piaget's Theory and Implications for Curriculum and the Nigerian Teacher. JORIC, Vol.1, no.2 July.

Apple, M (1972) Community, Knowledge and the Structure of disciplines; Educational Forum, 37 Nov P 75-83

Becher, T. & Stuart, M. (1974) Styles of Curriculum Development: The state of the art curriculum development in **Harris, A.** (ed) Curriculum Innovation, Open University set books. Croom Helm, London.

Berger, W. (1967) Universalist Breadth and Modern Breadth in Bulletin Vol. 10. General Studies Association.

Berman, P (1981) Educational change. An Implementation Paradigm: In **Lehming, R and Kane, M** (eds) Improving Schools Using what we Know. London Sage Publications, pp.253-286.

Blachford Kevin (1978) Some Approaches to Curriculum Development. Curriculum and Research Bulletin, Vol XII, No.2 June.

Blyth, W.A.L (1965) English Primary Education, A Sociological description: Vol.2. London, Routledge & kegan Paul.

Bolam, R. (1978) Evaluating Inservice Education and Training; A National Perspective; British Journal of Teacher Education, Vol. 5 No.1 pp 1-15.

Boyson, R. (Sir) (1992) The Teaching Student. Issue, Five spring.

Breen, M.P. (1984) "Process Syllabus for the Language Classroom". In Brumfit, C.J. (ed) (1984a). General Syllabus Design: Curriculum and Syllabus Design for the General English Classroom. pp. 47-60. ELT.Documents, 118 (The British Council). Oxford, Pergamon

Brophy, J & Good, T (1986) Teacher Behaviour and Student Achievement in M. Wittrock (Ed.) Hand Book on research on Teaching. NY, Macmillan.

Brophy, J. (1973) Stability of Teacher Effectiveness; American Educational Journal, vol.10; pp.245-252.

Brown, G and Hisbett, M.(1975) (ed) Part I: Indigenous African Education: Conflict and Harmony in Education in Tropical Africa, pp 1-90. Allen and Unwin.

Brown, G.N. (1975) An Educational Strategy for Reducing Conflict Between the Traditional and Western in African Education, in **Brown, G.N. and Meryn, H** (ed). Studies on Modern Asia and Africa 10: Conflict and Harmony in Education in Tropical Africa. pp. 422-432, George Allen and Unwin ltd. London.

Brown, Godfrey N. (1964) British Education Policy in West and Central Africa, Journal of Modern African studies, vol.2; pp.365-377.

Bullough, K (1987) Planning and the First year of teaching. Journal of Education for Teaching; vol.13; pp. 231-251

Calderhead, J. (1989) Reflective teaching and Teacher Education. Teaching and Teacher Education, vol.5, No.1 pp.43-53.

Candlin, C.N. (1984) " Syllabus Design as a Critical Process". In Brumfit, C.J. (ed) (1984a) pp.29-46.

Carrigan, D.C. (1982) The future implication for the preparation of Educational Personnel. Journal of Teacher Education.

Chapman, D. (1983) Career satisfaction of Teachers. Educational Research Journal, 7, pp.40-50.

Clignet, R. & Haupt, N. (1979) The Universality of the distinction between Public and Private Education sectors. The case of Cameroon, in Education and Politics in Tropical Africa. (ed.) **V.C. Uchendu.** London, Conch Magazine ltd.

Cross, K.P. (1987) The Adventures in Education in Wonderland; Implementing Education Reform, Phi Delta Kappan pp.496-502

De Meuron, M and Anerswald, E.H (1969) 'Cognition and Social adaptation'. American Journal of Orthopsychatry, Vol 39,no.1 pp56-57.

Dearden, R. (1981) Balance and Coherence: Some Curricula Principles in Recent Reports. Cambridge Journal of Education. vol. 11, No.2 pp.107, Easter term.

Delamont, S. and Hamilton, D. (1974) Classroom Research: A Cautionary Tale. Research in Education, vol.11.

Doherty, J and Travers, M (1984) Teachers' Perception of Factors Influencing the Curriculum. Educational studies, vol. 10, no.3 pp.195-207.

Elliot J. (1976) "The Problems and Dilemmas of Mixed Ability Teaching and the Issue of Teacher Accountability". Mixed Ability Teaching, Cambridge Journal of Education, Vol.6, No.12.pp. 3-14

Ellson, D.G. (1986) Improving Productivity in Teaching, Phi Delta Kappan, 68, pp.111-124

English, F.W. (1986) Spectrum: Balance in the School Curriculum: Today's Directions and Dilemmas. vol. 4, pp.9-15.

Fonlon Bernard (1969) The language problem in Cameroon: An historical perspective, Comparative Education, vol.5, No.1 pp.25-49.

Foss, M. (1966) Transfer in Didaskalos 2-1.

Foster, P. (1966a)'The Vocational School Fallacy in Development Planning' in Anderson, C.A. & Bowman, M. (ed). Education and Economic Development, Frank Cass, London.

Fran, A. (1992) (Education Correspondent). Schools told to train Teachers. Sunday Telegraph. January 5th. pp.2 and 16.

Garratt Linda (1985) Factors Affecting subject choice at A-Level. Educational Studies, Vol.11 no.2 pp.127-132.

Gelzer, D.G. (1969-70) Missions and Colonisation: Education in the days of Germans. Bulletin of Society for African Church History. 391-2) pp.1-14.

Gladd, D.V. (1971) Education and Social Change in Modern England, in R. Hopper (ed). The Curriculum Context, Design and Development. (Edinburgh) Oliver and Boyd.

Glass, D.V. (1971) Education and social Change in Modern England, in R.Hopper (ed) The Curriculum, Context, Design and Development. Edinburgh, Oliver and Boyd.

Goodson Ivor (1983) School Subjects and Curriculum Change. Case Studies in History Curriculum. Croom Helm.

Hashweh, M.Z. (1987) Effects of Subject-matter knowledge in the teaching of biology and physics. Teacher and Teacher Education, 3, pp.109-120.

Havelock, R. (1982) The Utilisation of Educational Research and Development. Challenge and Change in the Curriculum. (ed) Tim Horton et al. Open University.

Haydon, G. (1973) Educational Relevance: A Slogan Examined. Proceedings of the Philosophy of Education, Society of Great Britain. vol. 7 No. 2 pp.23-38.

Hichman, K. (1987) The Textbook and those Content-Area Teachers. Reading Research Quarterly, vol. 23, pp.465-483.

Higham, D. and Bell, L (1983) Curriculum Balance. School Organisation vol. 3, No.2.

Hirst, P.H. (1975) The PGCE Course: It's nature and their Objectives. Papers for the conference on the PGCE, . London University Council for Education of Teachers.

Hoffman, A.J Hudson, H.D(Jr) and Hudson, C.M (1991) Teachers Perception of the Goals of Education in USA: responses to the educational reform literature of 1980s, Educational Studies, vol.17, No 2, pp.117-125.

Holmes, B. (June, 1992) 'Comparative Education as a scientific study' in British Journal of Educational Studies. vol.20 No.2; pp.205-219.

House, E. (1979) "Technology versus Craft. A ten year perspective on Innovation". In Taylor, P.H. (1979) New Directions in Curriculum Studies. Falmer Press.

House, E. (1981) "Three Perspectives on Innovation Technological, Political and Cultural" in Lehming, R. Improving Schools using what we know. Sage publications.

Hulling Leslie and Hull, G.E. (April, 1982) Factors to be considered in the preparation of Secondary School Teachers. Journal of Teacher Education. Vol. 33, pp. 7-16 Faculty of Education. University of Toronto.

Ipaye, B. (June,1969) Philosophies of Education in Colonial West Africa: A Comparative Study of the British and French Systems. West African Journal of Education vol.13, pp.93-97.

Ivor Goodson (1991) School Subjects: Patterns of Change. Curriculum and Teaching, Vol.6,No.1

Kazim Bacchus (1990) Curriculum Development and Education in developing Countries. Educational Review, Vol.42, No.3.

Kerry Trevor (1984) "Primary and Secondary tasks". Gifted Education International, vol.2, No.2.

Kerry, Trevor (1982) "A Question of Stimulation': Gifted Education International, vol.2.

Kevin, B. (1978) Some approaches to Curriculum Development. Curriculum and Research Bulletin. Vol.XII, No.2 June.

Lawton, D. (1980) Common or Core Curriculum. West Minister Studies in Education. vol. 3, pp.5

Likert, R. (1932) A technique for the mearsurement of Attitudes. Achives of Psychology, 140.

Lookhead,G. and James, R .(1989) Perception of Structure held at Yale University on may 22-23. American Psychological Association.

MacAulay, Dolina J. (1990) Classroom Environment: a literature review. Educational Psychology, vol.10, No.3, pp.239-253.

Magenzo, A. (1988) The Application of a Cultural Analysis Model to the process of Curriculum Planning in Latin America. J. Curriculum Studies, Vol.20, No.1, pp23-33

Melograne, V. (1984, Nov.-Dec.) Journal of Physical Education, Recreation and Dance. vol.55 pp.70-72. The Balances Curriculum: where is it? what is it?

Menlo, A. & Poppleton, P. (1990) A Five-Country Study of Work Perceptions of Secondary School Teachers in England, the United States, Japan, Singapore and W.Germany (1986-88). Comparative Education Vol. 26 Nos 2/3.

Merleau Ponty (1967) in Albert Rabil Jr. Existentialist of Social World. New York. Holt, Rhinehart and Winston.

Merril and Schuchman (1973) Professional Student Te. :hing Programmes in Journal of Teacher Education.

Morry Van Ments (1992) Role-Play without tears____ Some problems of using Role-Play. simulation and Games for learning. The Journal of SAGSET. Vol.22, No.2 June.

Musgrave, P.W. (1965) The Sociology of Education. Methuen.

Niasbitt, John (1982) Megatrends. New York: Warner books. pp.39-54.

Nie, N.H, Bent, D.H & Hull, C.H.(1975) Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) London, McGraw-hill.

Peter, D.J. (1991) Course, Curricular and Classroom Influences on the Development of Students. Teachers' Lesson Planning Perspectives in Teaching and Teacher Education: Vol.7, No.4. pp.359-372.

Peterson, A.D.C. (1960b) The Myth of Subject Mindedness in University Quaterly 14.3.

Pidgeon, D.A. (1969) Conceptualising the Goals of Educational Institutions. in Ingenkamp, K. (ed) Methods for the Evaluation of Comprehensive Education. Berlin

Popkewitz, T. (1976) Latent Values of the disciplined Curriculum; Theory and Research in Social Education, 4. pp.57-59.

Popkewitz, T. (1983) Methods of Teacher Education and Cultural Codes in Tamir, P. Peretz M. and Hochstein, A. (eds) Pre-service and In-service Education of science teachers, Rehorot, Isreal's Balabon Press.

Popkewitz, T. (1987) Knowledge and Interest in Curriculum studies in Critical Stidies in Teacher education. It's Folklore, Theory and Practice. Falmer press.

Price, K. (1974) On Educational Relevance and Irrelevance. Studies in Philosophy and education. vo. VIII: No.4, pp.231-244.

Ross, K.N. (1978) "Sample Design for Educational Survey Research", Evaluation in Educational Survey, Vol.2.pp.105-195.

Shannon, P. (1982) Some Subjective Reasons for Teachers' Reliance on commercial Reading Materials. Reading Teacher, vol.36, pp.884-889.

Solity, J.(1991) An overview of Behavioural approaches to teaching children with learning difficulties and the National Curriculum. Educational Psychology. Vol. 11, No 2, pp. 152

Spillman Janet (Jan.1991) "Decoding Differentiation". Special Children. No.44. pp.7-9.

Tamir, P (1991) Professional and Personal Knowledge of Teachers and teachers Educators. Teaching and Teacher Education, vol. 7, No.3, pp.263-268.

Turner, J. (1976) "Structure and Content in teacher Education in England'. in Lomex, D.E. (ed) European Perspective in Teacher Education, London.

Tyler, R. (1979) Teacher Education and the Improvement of Instruction in Teacher Education and National Development. CET.

Uday Desai (1991) determinants of Educational Performance in India: Role of Home and Family. International Review of Education; vol. 2; pp 245-265.

Vernon-Jackson, H.O.H. (1973) Schools and School Systems in Cameroons 1844-1961). in American Dissertation on Foreign Education. Vol.IV, Franlin Parker Whitson Inc. NY

Warwick Jane (1992) The Teaching Student. Issue Five, Spring.

Watts, A.G. (1972) Guidance for Subjects at 14+. The Career Teacher. Autumn. (ed) John S. Peddie.

Wilkins, D.A. (1981a) "Notional Syllabus Revisited". Applied Linguistics Vol. 11, no. 1 pp.83-89

Wilkins, D.A. (1981b) " Notional Syllabus Revisited. A Further Reply" Applied Linguistics Vol. 1 pp.96-100.

Woodbridge, N.B and Barnard, F (1990) Values in Education: highly suspect or highly significant. Educare vol.19, Nos 1&2.

Wubbels, Th. and Korthagen, F.A.J (1990) The effects of a Pre-service Teacher Education Program for the preparation of Reflective Teachers. Journal of Education for Teaching. vol.16 No.1.

Yates, G.C.R. & Yates, S.M. (1990) Teacher Effectiveness Research: towards describing user-friendly classroom instructions. Educational Psychology, vol. 10, No.3, pp.225-236

Yembe, O.W. (1988) Cameroon, in Neville T. Postlewaite, (ed) Encyclopedia of Comparative Education and National Systems of Education. Pargamon Press. Toronto.

Yung Dug Lee (1979) Innovations in Teacher Education in Teacher Education and National Development. CET.

Zahorik, J. (1990) Stability and Flexibility in Teaching. Teaching and Teacher Education, vol.6, pp.69-80.

Zahorik, J. (1991) Teaching Syle and Textbooks. Teaching and Teacher Education, vol.7, No.2; pp.185-196.

(a): BOOKS.

Anderson, L and Burns, R (1989) Research in Classroom; The Study of Teachers, Teaching and instruction: Oxford, Pergamon Press.

Ashby, E (1957) Technology and the Academics, Macmillan

Asubel, D P (1954) Theory and Problems of Adolescent Development. Grane and Stratton.

Babbie, Earl R (1973) in Kenneth Bailey (1982) Methods of Social Research 2nd Edition. Free Press.

Bantock, G.H (1968) Culture, Industrialisation and Education. Routledge and Kegan P. London.

Barnes Douglas (1976) From Communication to Curriculum. Penguin Books.

Barnes, D. (1982) Practical Curriculum Study. Routledge and Kegan Paul.

Barrow, R (1976) Common Sense and the Curriculum, Allen and Unwin.

Beauchamp, D (1961) Curriculum Theory. Peacock publishers, Inc. Itasca Ilinios.

Beeby, C.E (ed) (1969) Qualitative aspects of Educational Planning. UNESCO, IIEP. Paris.

Bell, D (1966) The Reforming of General Education, Columbia University Press.

Bereday, G.Z.F.& Lauwerys, J.A. (1965) The World Year Book of Education, The Education Explosion, Evans Brothers Ltd. London pp.19.

Best, J.W. (1981) Research in Education. New Jersey, Prentice-Gall Inc. 4th edition.

Blackmore, K & Cooksey, B (1981) A Sociology of Education for Africa. George Allen and Unwin: London.

Bledstein, B. (1976) The Culture of Professionalism: Development of Higher Education in Africa. New York. W.W Norton co.

Blenkin, G.M & Kelly, A.V (1981) The Primary Curriculum. Harper & Row. London.

Bloom, B.S. (1964) Taxonomy of Educational Objectives. Handbook II Affective Domain. Longman.

Board of Education (1943) Curriculum and Examinations in Secondary Schools. Part 1. chapter 1.

Borg, W.R & Gall, M.D. (1983) Educational Research, New York. Longman.

Boyd, W. & Kind, E (1972) The History of Western Education: Adam and Charles Black. London.

Boyd, W. (1962) The Emile of Jean Jacques Rosseau. (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University.

Bradburn, Norman and Sudmar Seymour (1979) Improving Interview Methods and Questionnaire Design. San Francisco, Jessey Bass.

Brumbaugh, R.S and Lawrence, N.M. (1963) Six Essays on the Foundations of Western Thought. Philosophers on Education. Houghton Mifflin company. Boston.

Brunner, J.S. (1960) The Process of Education. Harvard University press.

Bullivant, A. (1973) Schools for All Our Children - Comprehensives, Home and School Council, Sheffield, UK.

Calderhead, J. (1984) Teacher's Classroom Decision Making, London;: Cassel.

Calderhead, J. (1989) Reflective teaching and Teacher Education. Teaching and Teacher Education, vol.5, No.1 pp.43-53.

Caswell, F. (1982) Success in Statistics. John Murray.

Caulcott, E.C. (1973) Significant Tests. Routledge and Kegan P.

Cerychi, L. (1968) The Fundamentals of Educational Planning: The Sociological Dimension of Educational Planning, International Institute of Educational Planning, Paris.

Chitty Clyde (ed) (1987) Redefining the Comprehensive Experience. Introduced by **Denis Lawton**. Bedford way Papers 32. Institute of Education, University of London.

Coomb, H.P (1985) The World Crises in Education, the view from eighties. Oxford University Press.

Cox, C.B. & Dyso, A.E. (ed) (1971) The Black Papers on Education. Davis Paynter, London.

Crowder, Michael (1970) Education for work. West Africa under Colonial Rule. Hutchinson and Co. ltd. London.

Crowther,G (Sir)(1967) in Readings by Alexander, W.M The Changing Secondary School Curriculum. Holt, Rinehard & Winston.

Darlin, P. (1982) Strategies of Innovation: Challenge and Change in the Curriculum (ed) Tim Horton et al. Open University.

Davies, I.K. (1976) Objectives in Curriculum Design. Mcgraw Hill; new York.

Davies, R.P. (1977) Mixed Ability Grouping Possibilities, Experiences in the Secondary School. Maurice Temple Smith Ltd. UK.

Dent, H,C. (1958) Secondary Modern Schools. Routledge and Kegan Paul.

Dewey, J (1933) How We Think. Boston: Heath.

Dewey, J (1933) How we Think. D. Heath and Co., Boston, USA

Dewey, J. (1938) Experience and Education. Collier Books Macmillan, New York, London.

Douglass, M.W. (1988) Improving the Efficiency of Educational Systems. Indicators of Educational Effectiveness and Efficiency. Florida State University.

Downie, N.M. and Heath, R.M. (1974) Basic Statistic Methods. Harper and Row.

Duke, D. (1984) Teaching: The Imperilled Profession. Albany, State University of NewYork Press.

Dunkin, M.J. and Biddle, B.J. (1974) The Study of teaching. New York, Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

Durkheim, E. (1956) Education and Sociology. The free press, Glencoe.

Dyer, J.R. (1979) Understanding & Evaluating Educational Research, Addison-Wesley Publishing Company.

Eisner, Elliot (1975) The Problem of Balance in Curriculum Design (ed) Michael Golby. Croom Helm and Open University.

Emerson Chris and Goddard Ivor , (1989) All About the National Curriculum. Hernman Educational

Entwistle, H. (1970a) Child Centred Education. Methuen.

Evetts, J. (1973) The Sociology of Educational Ideas. Routledge and Kegan P. London and Boston.

Ezewu, Edward (1983) Sociology of Education. Longman; London and Lagos.

Fielding, M. (1987) in Clyde Chitty (ed) Redefining the Comprehensive Experience. Bedford Way Papers, Institute of Education, University of London.

Fisher, H.A.L. (1978) Educational Reform. Eyre and Spottiswoode.

Ford, J. (1969) Social Class and the Comprehensive School. Routledge and Kegan Paul.

Foster P. (1969) Secondary Education, Objectives and Differentiation in Educational Problems in Developing Countries: Wolters-Noordhoff Publishing, Groninggen, Cesco, The Haque.

Fox, D.J. (1969) The Research Process in Education, New York, Holt, Rhinehart & Winston Inc.

Gerald Fowler et al. (1973) Decision Making in British Education, Open University Set Books. Heinemann Educational Books. Ltd. London.

Gibberd, K. (1962) No Place Like School. London, Michael Joseph.

Golby, M. et al. (ed) (1975) Curriculum Design. Croom Helm; Open University.

Goodson Ivor (1983) School Subjects and Curriculum Change. Case Studies in History Curriculum. Croom Helm.

Gordon, P. (1980) Selection for Secondary Education. The Worburn Press. London.

Gray, G. et al. (1965) Education and Nation Building in Africa. The Pall Mall Press Ltd, London.

Green J & D'Oliveira M (1990) Learning to Use Statistical tests in Psychology. Open University Press. Milton Keynes. Philadelphia.

Hailey, Lord (1938) An African Survey. Oxford, Oxford University Press.

Hall, R.K. & Lauwerys J.A. (1956) The Year Book of education, Evans Brothers London.

Halsey, A.H. (1961) Ability and Educational Opportunity. Paris: OECD.

Hamblin, D.H. (1990) Teaching Study Skills. Basil Blackwell.

Hamilton, D. et al. (ed) **(1977)** Beyond the Number Game. Basingstoke and London Macmillan Education.

Hargreaves, D.H. (1982) The Challenge for Comprehensive School. Culture, Curriculum and Community. Routledge and Kegan P. London and New York.

Harslett Moreton, G (Dec.1987) Education for the Academically Talented: A Comparative study of Recent Developments in Secondary Education in England and in Western Australia. Associate Report. Institute of Education, University of London.

Havelock, R. (1982) The Utilisation of Educational Research and Development. Challenge and Change in the Curriculum. (ed) Tim Horton et al. Open University.

Hawes, H. (1979) Curriculum and Reality in African Primary Schools. Longmans.

Hawes, H. and Dave, R. (1982) Readers in Curriculum Planning. Curriculum Context and Design. EDC. University of London. Institute of Education.

Hinton, M. (1979) Comprehensive Schools : A Christian View: S.C.M. Press. Ltd.

Hirst, P.H. (1975) The PGCE Course: It's nature and their Objectives. Papers for the conference on the PGCE, . London University Council for Education of Teachers.

Holmes, B. (1965) Problems in Education. A Comparative Approach. Routledge and Kegan P.

Holmes, B. (1981) Comparative Education: Some considerations of method. George Alben and Unwin.

Holt, M. (1978) The Common Curriculum. It's Structure and Style in Comprehensive School. Routeledge and Kegan P.

House, E. (1981) "Three Perspectives on Innovation Technological, Political and Cultural" in Lehming, R. Improving Schools using what we know. Sage publications.

Howel, D. (1982) Statistical Methods for Psychology. Duxbury press, Boston, Massachusetts.

Hugh et al. [198-?] Readers in Curriculum Planning: Reader 1, Curriculum Context and Curriculum Design.

Hyman. Herbert (1954) Interviewing in social Research. Chicago, University of Chicago press.

Illich, I (1981) Deschooling society. Great Britain: Hazel, Watson & Viney ltd.

Inlow, G.M (1966) The Emergent in Curriculum. New York. Wiley.

Jenkins, S. (1968) Conservatives and Comprehensives. Bow Group Publications for conservative political centre. London.

Jones, P.E. (1971) Comparative Education - Purpose and Method. University of Queens and press. St. lucia Queenland.

Kelly, A,V. (1982) The curriculum: Theory and Practice. Harper and Row.London.

Kelly, A.V (1980) Ideological Constraints on Curriculum Planning: in Curriculum Context. (ed) Kelly, A.V: Harper and Row.

Kelly, A.V. (1987) Education made Simple. Heinimann. London.

Kerr, J.F. (1968) Changing the Curriculum. University of London press.

Kibler,R; Barker,L; Miles,D; (1970) Behavioural Objectives and Instructions. Allyn & Bacon. Boston.

King, G.N. (1978) Futuristic Forecasting: Calculated Curriculum Relevance. (Using the methods of the futuristic as a forecasting technique). First meeting of the education section of the World Future Society. U.S Department of Health, Education and Welfare. National Institute of Education.

Kneller, G.F. (1964) Introduction to the Philosophy of Education. John Wiley; N.Y.

Kreuter Mortimer & Barnett Lawrence (1967) Curriculum Reference and Work. Centre for Urban Education, New York.

Kuhn, T.S. (1970) The Structure of scientific Revolutions. Chicago; University of Chicago Press.

Lawton, D (1973) Social Change, Educational Theory and Curriculum Planning. University of London Press.

Lawton, D. (1980) The Politics of the School Curriculum. R & K. Paul; London, Boston,

Lawton, D. (1983) Curriculum Studies and Educational Planning. Hodder and Stoughton, London, Sidney, Aukland, Toronto.

Lawton, D. (1989) Education, Culture and National Curriculum. Hodder and Stoughton.

Lawton, D. et al. (1978) Theory and Practice of Curriculum Studies. Routledge and Kegan Paul.

Lewis, L.J. (1954) Educational Policy and Practice in British Tropical Areas. Thomas Nelson and Sons ltd., London.

Lewy, A. (1977) Planning the School Curriculum. UNESCO.

Lloyd, P.C. (1967) Africa in social Change. Harmondsworth, Penguin.

Lomax, D.E. (ed) (1976) European Perspective in Teacher Education, London.

Luma. L.E. (1983) The Education of African teachers. SOPECAM,.Yaounde.

Maccia, E.S. (1965) Methodological Consideration in Curriculum Theory Building.

MacIntyre, A.C. (1964) Against Utilitarianism in Hollins, T. (1964)

Mallinson, V. (1957) Introduction to Comparative Education. Heineman, London.

Mann, J, F. (1979) Education. Government and Administration Series Pitman..

Marks, T.G. (1970) Comprehensive Education in Africa. NFER, King Thorne and Stace Ltd.

Maude, A. (1979) The Egalitarian Threat. In Husen Torsten. The School in Question. Oxford University Press.

Maunier, R. (1949) The Sociology of Colonies. London, R & K. Paul.

McCall, R.B. (1980) Fundamental Statistics for Psychology, (3rd edition), Harcourt Brace Javanovich, Inc.

McClean, M. (1990) Britain and a Single Market Europe. The Bedford way series. kogan page.

Miller, T.W.C. (1961) Values in the Comprehensive School. An Experimental Study. (ed). Robert Cunningham and sons ltd. Alva, U.K.

Minium, E.W (1978) Statistical Reasoning in Phychology and Education. John Wiley & Sons.

Monks, T.J. (1970) Comprehensive Education in Africa, NFER, King Thorne & Stace ltd.

Musgrave, P.W. (1965) The Sociology of Education. Methuen.

Ndagi, J.O. (1984) Essentials of Research Methodology for Nigerian Educators; Ibadan, Nigeria. University Press ltd.

Neil, A.S. (1960) Summerhill: A Radical Approach to Child Rearing. New York. Hart pub. co.

Nie, N.H, Bent, D.H & Hull, C.H.(1975) Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) London, McGraw-hill.

O'Connor, D.J. (1957) An Introduction to the Philosophy of Education. Routledge and kegan Paul; London.

Patterson, C.H. (1973) Humanistic Education. Prentice-Hall, Inc; Englewood cliffs. New Jersey.

Pedley, R. (1963) The Comprehensive School. Pengin.

Pedley, R. (1978) The comprehensive School. Nicholas and co.ltd. U.K.

Penelope, B.W. (1979) Negotiating the Curriculum. A Study in Secondary School. NFER.

Peters, R.S. (1973)(ed) The Philosophy of Education. Oxford University Press.

Phenix, P.H. (1964) Realms of Meaning. Mcgraw-Hill.

PLATO The Republic of Plato. Translated with introductory notes by **Cornford, F.M (1941)**. Oxford: Clarendon Press.

Popkewitz, T. (1976) Latent Values of the disciplined Curriculum; Theory and Research in Social Education, 4. pp.57-59.

Popper, K.R. (1962) The Open Society and it's Enemies. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.

Reid, W.A. (1978) Thinking about Curriculum. R.&K. Paul, London.

Ross, K.N. (1978) "Sample Design for Educational Survey Research", Evaluation in Educational Survey, Vol.2.pp.105-195.

Rosseau, J. (1911) (trans. Foxley, B.) Emile. J.M.Dent and sons ltd. london.

Salter, B; Tapper, T. (1981) Education, Politics and the State. The Theory and Practice of Educational Change. London; Grant McIntyre.

Schefler, I. (1971) Reflections on Educational Relevance in Levit (ed) Curriculum.

Schemer, A.K.F. (1985) Sites of changeabiulity. Teacher Education: An overview of recent research and developments on teacher education in Netherlands (ed) J.T. Voorbach and L.G.M. Prick. SVO.

Shaw, B. (1983) Comprehensive Schooling. The Imposible Dream: Basil Blackwell, Oxford..

Shively, D. (1971) (Ed) Tradition and Modernisation in Japanese Culture. Princeton University Press, NewYork.

Shrimshaw, P. (1983) Educational Idealogies Unit E204. Purpose and planning the Curriculum. Open University Press.

Shu, S. (1982) Education in Cameroon, in Education in Africa, A comparative survey by Babs Fafunwa & J.A. Aisiku (eds) London; George Allen & Unwin.

Siegel Sidney (1956) Non-parametric Statistics for Behavioural Sciences. Mcgraw Hill.

Silver, H. (1975) Equal Opportunities in Education. Methuen and co,ltd.

Sinclair, M.E. and lillis, K. (1980) School and Community in the Third World. Croom Helm. London.

Skilbeck, M. (1976) 'Ideologies and Values'. Unit 3 of course E203, Curriculum Design and Development. Milton Keynes. Open University.

Skilbeck, M. (1982) Three Educational Ideologies. Challenge and Change in the Curriculum. (ed) Tim Holton et al. Open University .

Smith John (1987) (ed) Educating Teachers: Changing the Nature of Pedagogical Knowledge. The falmer press.

Stenhouse, L. (1975) An Introduction to Curriculum Research and Development. Heineman; London.

Stevens, A. (1980) Clever Children in Comprehensive Schools. Penguin.

Stubbs, M. and Delmont, S. (ed) (1976) Exploration in Classroom Observations. London; Wiley.

Taba, H. (1968) Curriculum Development: Theory and Practice. Harcourt, Brace and World; New York.

Tawney (1964) quoted in Williamson, B (1979): Education, Social Structure and Development. Macmillan Press.

Taylor William (1978) Research and Reform in Teacher Education. NFER.

Taylor, P.H. & Richards, C.M. (1985) An Introduction to Curriculum Studies. Second edition. NFER-NELSON.

The Gifted Child at School.(1980) Oxford society for Applied Studies to Education. Oxford

Thompson, A.R. (1981) Education and development in Africa. London: The Macmillan Press ltd.

Townsend, E.A. & Burk, P.J (1975) Using Statistics in Classroom Instructions. NewYork. Macmillan Publishing Company.

Tyler, R. (1949) Basic Principles of Curriculum and Instruction. University of Chicago Press. Chicago.

Unchendu Victor (1979) Education and Politics in Tropical Africa. Conch Magazine ltd. Owerri, NY; London.

Vaisey, J. (1962) Britain in the Sixties, Education for Tomorrow. Baltimore: Penguin.

Webber Max (1949) The Methodology of social Sciences (translated and edited by Edward Shils and henry Find) The Free Press, NY.

Weeks, A. (1986) Comprehensive Schools: Past, Present and Future. Methuen, London.

Weston, Penelope B. (1979) Negotiating the Curriculum: A Study in Secondary Schooling. NFER.

Wheeler, D. (1967) Curriculum Process. ULP.

White, J,P. (1973) Towards a Compulsory Curriculum. Routledge and Kegan Paul.

Whitehead, A.N. (1932) The Aims of Education and Other Essays. London. Ernest Benn Ltd.

William, M.A. (1967) The Changing Secondary School Curriculum. Reading by Holt, W.M.A. Rhinehart and Winston.

Wragg, E.C. (1974) Teaching Teaching. David & Chales, Newton Abbott.

Young, M.F.D. (1971) Classroom Knowledge: Knowledge and Control (ed) **Keddie, N.** Collier Macmillan; London.

Youngman, M.B. (1979) Analysing Social and Educational Research. McGraw-Hill.

(c): OFFICIAL DOCUMENTS

Barnes, Douglas (1976) The curriculum from 5-16. Her Majesty's stationery Office.

DES (1977) Educating our Children: Four subjects for debate. HMSO

DES (1977) Gifted Children in Middle and Comprehensive Schools: HMSO

DES (1985) Better Schools. CMND 9469. London HMSO.

DES (1985) The Curriculum from 5-16. Curriculum matters 2, HMI Series.

Education Reform in Britain (Sept. 1989)Col. reference No. 301/89 Classification 4 (b)

Education. (March 1958) Vol.11, No.2876,

ELU (1991): Teacher Placement and the National Curriculum. NCC

Enochs, L.G.and Harty, H. (1983) Development of an In-service Implementation. Proneness Typology for Science Teachers. Science Education (67) No.2 pp.143-150.

Faure et al. (1972) Learning to Be: The World of Education Today and Tomorrow. UNESCO. Paris.

Government of great Britain.(1925) Advisory Committee on Education in the Colonies. Education Policy in British Tropical Africa. London HMSO.

Hargreaves, D. (Chair-person) **(March, 1984)** Improving Secondary Schools: Report of the Organisation of Secondary Schools. ILEA, London.

HMSO (1947) The New Secondary Education. Ministry of Education Pamphlet No.9.

Holmes, B. (1986) Tomorrow's Teachers: A Report of Holmes Group, East Lansing, Mich, Holmes group.

Ministere de la France d'outre-mer, (1947) Rapport Annuel du Government Francais a l'Assemblee Generale des Nations Unies sur L'Administration du Cameroon place sous la tutelle de France, . pp191.

Norwood Report (1943) 'Curriculum and examinations in Secondary School', Report of the committee of the secondary school examinations council appointed by the President of the Board of Education in 1941. London, HMSO.

Norwood Report (1943) Curriculum and Examinations in Secondary Schools. HMSO. reprinted in 1962.

Squires Geoffrey et al. (1976) Breadth and Depth. A study of Curricular. A report by group for research and innovation in higher education. The Nuffield foundation pp.36.

The Education Act, 1944. section 7, HMSO ch.31.

United Kingdon, Colonial Office. Reports on British Sphere of the Cameroons for 1922, London; HMSO cmd 1647 1923. pp.53.

35^{e} Conference International d'Education: Delegation de la Republique Unie du Cameroon: Principales Tendences du movement Educatif de la Republique Unie du Cameroon de 1973-1975. pp.1.

(d) UNPUBLISHED MATERIAL

Abangma, M.A. (1981) A Study of primary teachers' attitudes towards Ruralisation of School Curriculum in English Speaking Cameroon. Ph.D. Thesis. Institute of Education. University of London.

Abangma, P. (1989) A Critical Analysis of Business Education in the Republic of Cameroon with special reference to the North-West and South-West Provinces. M.A dissertation, Hull University.

Ahmed, M.A. (1987) Tradition and change in Nigerian Education: A Comparative Analysis of Post-Independence Education Policies (1960-1980). Ph.D. Thesis. Institute of Education, University of London.

Al-Mekhafi, M.S.S (1986) Relevance and the curriculum. The Case of Yemen Arab Republic Ph D Thesis, Institute of Education, University of London

Amad, Mounir Issa M (1967), The changing Secondary School Curriculum with Special Reference to England, France, Belgium and Syria, Ph.D Thesis, University of Reading.

Ayuk-Arrey P.(1986) Technical education Curriculum in Cameroon (Impeding factors) Paper presented to the Inter-Provincial seminar on vocational/technical education held in Bamenda, Cameroon. 2nd - 5th December.

Beck Allan, W. M.A(May 1977) The Justification of Breath and balance in Sixth form studies Ph D Thesis, University of Nottingham

Byan, Kenneth A. (1969) The Influence of certain Factors on the Evaluation of the Curriculum. M.Ed. thesis, University of Wales.

Chale, E.C. (1973) Teaching and Training: An Evaluation of Primary School teachers in Tanzania following Pre-service training in teachers Colleges and through Distant learning. Ph.D. Thesis. Institute of Education. University of London.

Cooksey, B. (1978) Education and Class formation in Cameroon. Unpublished Ph.D. Thesis, University of Birmingham.

Duncan Graham (1992) TES : Friday January 3.

Fandio, B. & Tchombe, T. (1968) Secondary Technical Teacher Education in Cameroon - Country Report. A TESTS Project Country Study, Overseas Development Administration.

Forzie G (1990) The Effect of English and French colonial policies on the development of technical and vocational education in Cameroon. M.Ed. School of Education, Bolton Institute of Higher Education.

Frances, P.W. (1987) Secondary Teacher Education in Sierra Leone: Improving the Curriculum of Teacher Education to account for Current Changes in School. M.A. Thesis. Institute of Education, University of London.

Fonkeng, G (1986) An Analysis of Private Secondary Education in the NW and SW Provinces of Cameroon (1976-1984). Ph.D Thesis, University of Hull.

Gambles, J.D. (1985) Balance and Breadth in the Curriculum. M.A. Thesis. University of Keele.

Gbande, B.A. (1985) An Analysis of National Policies on Vocational and Technical Education in Nigeria. M.A. thesis, Institute of Education, University of London.

Gravett, J. (March 1985) Curriculum Development in Three Comprehensive School. Staff Perceptions of Constraints and Influences. M.Phil. thesis. Brunnel University.

Issan, S.A.Y. (1986) A Comparative Study of the reorganisation of Secondary Education in the Arab States of the Gulf: Bahrain, Kuwait and Saudi Arabia. Institute of Education, University of London.

Kay, D. (1983) Influencing the Curriculum talk at the Institute of Education. University of London.

Kenneth, A.B. (1969) The Influence of Certain factors on the Evaluation of the Curriculum. M.ed, University of Wales.

Lopes, L.P.D.M. (1986) Discourse Analysis and Sylabus Design: An Approach to the Teaching of Reading. Ph.d thesis Institute of Education, University of London.

Mbeng J.E (Chief) (1985) The Role of Secondary Education in National Development with special reference to Cameroon. M.Ed. University of Bristol.

Oyetunde, T.O. (1985) Relevant Curriculum and Nigerian Development; A Proposal. A paper presented at the National workshop on relevance in Nigerian Education. UNIJOS.

Plaster, J. (1980) The Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education: A case study of an Educational Institution. M.A. Institute of Education, University of London.

Ryan, V.L. (1984) The Black Response to Inequality in British Educational System. M.Sc. Institute of Education, University of London.

Thornton, F.B. (1986) Management of Curriculum Change in secondary School. M.A. Institute of Education, University of London.