THE PRACTICAL TRAINING OF STUDENT TEACHERS

IN NEW ZEALAND

An historical and critical survey.

Being a Thesis submitted for the Degree of Master of Arts in Education

by

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It is a survey of this important practical training that the following thesis is desired.

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INTRODUCTION.

THE PROBLEM:

Central to educational progress or even to the maintenance of an existing school system is a constant supply of adequately trained teachers. At no time has this been more apparent than at present whether we look overseas at Britain or America or at New Zealand where shortages of personnel are also acute.

The personal development and calibre of its teachers, the ideals they pursue and the training they receive constitute the foundation upon which any system must be based. Included factors are:— the supply of entrants, the selection from these of applicants whose personal qualities are capable of modification and growth; the extension of their knowledge both academic and professional as well as the training that is undertaken in the schools.

It is to a survey of this last-named field of practical training that the following thesis is devoted. By a study of the background and development of teacher education in New Zealand from its origins in Britain up to the present, and through a critical review of the present system is it possible to draw conclusions and make suggestions of value in future teacher training in New Zealand?
CHAPTER 1.

BRIEF HISTORICAL SKETCH OF ENGLISH SYSTEM
TO MID-NINETEENTH CENTURY.

As a result of the Industrial Revolution there arose in Britain the problem of caring for the children of the poorer classes. In the mining and manufacturing districts children were growing up inadequately equipped to meet the demand of the environment of large industrial areas. Preparation to meet these demands had been rendered immeasurably difficult by lack of parental supervision, by lack of schools and by the fact that very many of the young children were employed in mines and factories.

Some reformers saw that instruction could be given on Sunday without loss of wages and at little cost. Thus, for instance, Robert Raikes in 1780 opened a Sunday School in Gloucester, his idea being copied widely throughout Britain and America. Organisations such as "The Society for the Establishment and Support of Sunday Schools throughout the Kingdom" rapidly increased the number of these schools providing instruction to a great number of poor people and stimulating interest in universal education. Humanitarian reformers could see the need for schooling for all but were appalled at the expense of such an undertaking. Nor could they see where efficient teachers were to be obtained.
At length a scheme of school organisation was planned "to furnish elementary training at very low cost, and to meet the problem of supplying effective instruction in a short time." 1

In the systems begun by both Bell and Lancaster, and adopted respectively by the "National Society" and by the "British and Foreign School Society", the school organisation was so planned that older pupils acting as monitors did most of the actual teaching. The monitorial schools, however, were too mechanical; younger pupils, being instructed by monitors, had too little contact with mature, trained and intelligent instructors; while monitors were deprived of the type of training most needed for their own personal development. Cheapness and efficiency - the latter to outward appearances at least - were the keynotes of the early school training provided for the children of the masses by these two great philanthropic societies.

In the training of teachers for their schools the main object was "to teach the system" and the chief mode of learning was "by doing". The training was predominantly, almost solely, practical. Only slowly did the realisation come that the first step in the education of the people was

was the education of the teachers of the people.

The monitory systems of these two societies with their "cheap" training were destined to retard progress in British teacher training over the ensuing century and a half. Thus the Board of Education's Report, "Teachers and Youth Leaders" finds (p. 13) that "the trail of cheapness ...... which has dogged the elementary schools has also cast its spell over the training colleges which prepare teachers for them. What is chiefly wrong with the majority of the training colleges is their poverty and all that flows from it."

Teacher training had been only a sideline with the societies and funds for this training were extremely scanty. In general, teaching was an unattractive calling appealing to few men of character except as a step towards some more attractive occupation. The great difficulty which faced the monitory centres was the "ignorance and general low quality of the material upon which they had to work." ¹

And the root failing of the training given to such monitors at the Borough Road Training College, established by the British and Foreign School Society, according to the finding of a committee consisting of Joseph Hume, James Mill and J.F. Vandercom in 1814, was the "teaching of a mechanical method and nothing more."² There appears then, even at

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² Ibid. p. 13.
this early stage, to have been at least some realisation of the fact that it was impossible to improve education without at the same time improving the teachers.

The training college system which was to grow up in Britain over the succeeding hundred years, was largely a development from these early efforts of the monitory systems.

Their chief contribution was in the emphasis given to techniques in teaching, an influence which has been continuously exercised throughout the development of the English training system, so that the training colleges never followed the Continental colleges in their emphasis on scholarship rather than on methods of instruction. While the technique inculcated in the earliest English attempts at training, was mechanical in the extreme and often unsoundly based, yet the direction taken at this stage had the result that the British training colleges never became merely places of higher learning.

Later, the monitory method failed for lack of that higher culture which was provided to some extent on the Continent by the normal schools, and efforts were made in the mid-thirties of the nineteenth century to provide intending teachers with that culture.

Meanwhile, however, the Glasgow Infant School Society, founded in 1826, set up a school where the monitory principles and methods of instruction were modified under the guidance of David Stow. His "simultaneous system" which
supplanted the monitorial systems allowed for greater personal contact between teacher and pupil, and soon came to incorporate the realisation that the culture and skill of the teacher were of supreme importance in a national system of education, that the personal development and education of the prospective teachers were essential elements. Up to 1837, however, training was restricted to learning the system by attending the school and picking up its methods.

From 1837, when a seminary was opened by the Glasgow Educational Society, student teachers were expected to equip themselves on the academic side before entrance, but although, on the whole, Stow's candidates were better educated than were those attending the monitorial schools, it was soon found impossible to confine the work purely to professional training, and the training colleges were turned for some time from what they considered their true purpose - training future teachers in the techniques of their calling. The necessity for some instruction in school subjects was felt in Glasgow almost from the first, though Stow considered the chief function of the Seminary to be purely professional.

By 1841, according to H.M. Inspector Gibson¹, such instruction occupied 16½ hours per week and was "too ambitious considering the brevity of the course." (8 or 9 months).


On the professional side, part of the time was spent in teaching and observation in the model schools, and part in delivering a number of lessons to drafts of children in the seminary classrooms or hall.

"While teaching was going on in the seminary" says Rich, "the regular arrangement was for half of the students to be in the hall, where one of their number would give a gallery lesson of fifteen minutes' duration to be followed by the criticism of his fellow students, whilst the other half would be teaching in the classrooms under the supervision of the rector".¹

The simultaneous system popularised by Stow created a demand for cultured and trained teachers with skill to manage children in the mass, without resort to the mechanical devices of Bell and Lancaster, but so far little was done toward culture and training beyond supervised teaching practice and some instruction in the school subjects.

This was the position, then, when emigration to New Zealand was first organised. In the only systems in vogue in Great Britain "training" consisted in little more than attending the school and learning the system. What effects did this apprenticeship to teaching have on the development of New Zealand teacher training?

¹ Rich: "Training of Teachers". p.35.
CHAPTER 2.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF TEACHER TRAINING

IN NEW ZEALAND, WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE

TO PRACTICAL TRAINING.

(1). 1840-1870 establishment and early development:

With the first white settlers of New Zealand came an appreciation of education, this appreciation varying largely according to country of origin and the economic circumstances of the people of each New Zealand settlement. In the richer, more peaceful southern settlements of Otago and Canterbury schools were established immediately, indeed the Otago settlers were accompanied by trained schoolmasters who conducted lessons on the first outward voyage while subsequent ships brought further teachers in sufficient numbers to meet the immediate needs of the young settlement. From their establishment both southern provinces were wealthy and untroubled enough to proceed with school systems and, from the setting up of provincial government in 1856, an efficient and widespread service catered for some fifty per cent of the children of school age. In the north the provinces were neither wealthy nor peaceful and education was left to church systems or to private enterprise, neither of which could flourish in the absence of adequate income.

Thus, while in the prosperous south the supply of good teachers from Scotland and England was adequate to
meet immediate needs of each province, the northern settlements were not so fortunate. Nelson, for instance, poverty stricken from the outset, had great difficulty in providing schools and paying meagre salaries though 8½ per cent of her total revenue was spent on Education. (compared with Otago's 1½ per cent). Similar obstacles confronted Wellington where private schools had catered for the children of the more well-to-do. A free public school system was introduced in 1871 but fees became necessary again by 1874 as the struggling settlement used a large portion of its income in protection against warlike Maoris. Here, as early as 1866, Inspector Bowden had suggested that "it is very desirable that we should be able to form as well as to attract good teachers." 1

He envisaged an efficiently conducted elementary or "middle" school at which prospective teachers of sound education might spend a month observing the methods in use. From the Irish National Board 2 Bowden borrowed the idea of annual examinations of teachers with classification into nine grades.

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2. The Irish National Board succeeded in 1831, the Kildare Place Society and founded a college for the training of teachers at Marlborough Street in 1833. To these two societies must be attributed the British origins of many educational innovations: the monitoryl system usually attributed to Bell and Lancaster, religious readings without comment, and cheap school text books which were used in English and Scottish schools, while their system of inspection became the prototype for every subsequent system.
He suggested a system of apprenticed pupil teachers and an organising master to "assist in removing those faults and affecting those improvements, in their several schools, which the inspector has brought to their notice."

The system of certification and classification was introduced in the following year, 1867, with pupil teachers employed at from £10 to £30 per annum as cheap labour.¹

Little further was done to train them except by this method of apprenticeship. Poverty also confronted the Auckland Provincial Council who also attempted to keep their schools suitably staffed by examination and classification into grades² and by granting eighty acres of land to those who completed five years of service.³ Auckland also introduced a "system of careful and judicious inspection" to disseminate (among those persons employed without previous teaching experience) the best techniques noted in schoolmasters trained overseas.⁴

Auckland, however, with a wasteful system of Church schools, could not compete in salaries or conditions with the Southern provinces and by 1868 education in general was disrupted; supplies of teachers had failed.

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1. Bowden saw in the pupil-teacher system of England the cause of the successful development of Education there.


Slowly, after other expedients proved inadequate, the idea of teacher training evolved but remained inert through lack of finance. Thus model schools and a normal school remained suggestions only. A new regulation in 1875 enabled several educated men without teaching experience to spend three months (at £5 per month) studying methods of teaching at various schools.¹ Two teachers’ classes at Auckland and Thames were established for instruction of pupil-teachers, probationers and teachers.

Colenso, Inspector in Hawkes Bay in 1873, had envisaged a national training with one approved system of teaching, thus catering for the needs of the children of New Zealand’s floating population.² But to the southern provinces, Otago and Canterbury, fell the honour of initiating some system of teacher training.

It is noteworthy that in England, the source of the Canterbury settlers the same period 1839-1846 was one of great activity in the founding of training institutions, some thirty training colleges being established in the seven years immediately following 1839 when a minute of the Committee of Privy Council on Education granted £40,000 to the National and British and Foreign Societies to further their training schemes which now followed Stow’s "simultaneous" system rather

1. Appendix Auckland P.C. 1875.
than the monitorial. When the same Committee by a minute of 1846 devised a scheme whereby prospective teachers could be kept in the elementary schools until they were old enough to go to college, the pupil teacher system came into being to bridge the gap between leaving school and entering college for a period of two years. In 1870 the Canterbury School Board stated that the shortage of teachers could "only be met by the establishment of a normal school .... The Board considers it desirable that a normal training school for the whole colony should be established by the General Government." They suggested, in the meantime, the employment of pupil teachers placed "under teachers capable of training them." Their duties were to consist in teaching during the day and assisting the master with schoolroom tasks before and after school (at £20 to £50 per year). After the fifth year a normal school course of one, two or three years was "an absolute necessity". This is the system in which the majority of New Zealand teachers of the nineteenth century were trained. Class teaching was heavy and soul-destroying for immature pupil teachers, its narrowing influence extreme. Training by masters was haphazard and inefficient or wholly neglected.

A few taught their pupil-teachers systematically and with sympathy, seeking to raise the level of education in their province.

Meantime, Otago, the wealthiest province paid higher salaries and insisted more on evidence of the moral and religious character of candidates than on any of professional training or ability. So far no attempt was made by the province to train its own teachers; sufficient numbers arrived from Scotland and England. With the rapid increase in population consequent upon discovery of gold in 1861, however, appointments of unqualified persons became necessary.

"Apprentice teachers" (John Hislop's term) in the ratio of 6 women to 1 man were appointed to assist in the larger and more efficient schools. Later, the headmaster was required to teach these apprentices for five hours a week before and after school hours, and they were examined by the inspectors.

Examination and classification in themselves, however, were found to be useless; a training institution was regarded as impracticable for some years and in the meantime it was proposed to maintain at the best district schools ('model schools') "the young men of fair promise and good character, to receive from masters who would be paid a bonus, further academic instruction and training in the art of teaching."

1. It can only be concluded that the men of Otago were busily engaged seeking fortunes for though Otago schools and those of the rest of the colony showed an outstanding preference for men, few male apprentices were secured in this thriving province.

Recognising training to be a national problem

H.J. Tancred introduced a Borough Schools Bill in the House of Representatives in 1870 proposing the setting up in all large towns throughout New Zealand of central schools to serve as training schools. "We want training schools;" he said, "we want model schools because in order to have good schools we want good teachers."¹

The practice of importing trained teachers from Britain, he pointed out, had failed to fulfil the demands of overcrowded and understaffed schools. The duty of establishing normal training schools belonged to the central government since it was costly and also because the teachers' services were available to any province. Rolleston, in support, envisaged the pupil teachers from the borough schools passing on, as in England, to the normal schools where they could complete their training and obtain certificates.

Domett's opposition in the Legislative Council on the grounds that it was contrary in principle to a national system caused the bill's defeat. A further bill introduced by Fox in the following year incorporating inspection and examination of teachers, training of pupil teachers and the establishment of model schools by boards, met a similar fate, and teacher training made no progress in the New Zealand Parliaments until the 1877 Act.

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¹ N. Z. Parliamentary Debates 1870 (53).
Meanwhile Canterbury and Otago shouldered the responsibility of training their own teachers. Many inspectors persistently advocated normal schools\(^1\) on the English pattern to raise the generally indifferent standard of teaching. Canterbury's building was begun in 1873. It was designed on "approved English Church school" lines and built facing SOUTH! When it opened in 1877 it consisted of a training department and a practising school of 300 pupils conducted as an ordinary primary school. Here the students, one-third of them ex-pupil-teachers, practised regularly. They could also make observation visits to any schools in the district.

Otago similarly was anxious to insist that only college trained teachers be employed. To ensure that pupil teachers should have an adequate knowledge of school management Otago from 1875 designed new buildings enabling them "to teach in the same room as a qualified master." \(^2\)

In the next year, 1876, the normal school was opened: "the normal school proper attended by male and female students for the two-fold object of acquiring more extensive

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1. "ecoles normales" were French in origin. The term occurs first in official English records in a minute of the 1835 Committee of the Privy Council on Education. From about this date also it became common in American educational records. In current N.Z. use the term means the practising school attached to a training college. (see p.\(^59\)) In America it means the training college itself.

2. Departmental Records, Otago, (1876).
and accurate scholarship and of gaining a better knowledge of the science and art of education" and the practising school controlled directly by the board but in terms of perfect equality with other district schools "where the students practise teaching under careful and skilled superintendence".¹

(ii) 1877. THE EDUCATION ACT AND ITS IMMEDIATE OUTCOME.

The 1877 Education Act authorised the establishment and management of training colleges and made provision for the establishment and maintenance of normal and training schools. Bowen, author of the Bill, favoured leaving the practising schools under the boards' control and keeping the staff of the college under the Education Department to maintain a uniform system.² Hislop, however, probably on the direction of the Minister Ballance who disliked centralisation, issued regulations handing the training of colleges over to the boards. The regulations provided for the instruction of intending teachers in the subjects they would be required to teach, in theories of education and methods of teaching, and for teaching practice in a school connected with the college.

When in the next 4 years 139 new schools were opened and 687 further teachers employed,³ the training

1. Ibid.

2. Bills presented to House of Representatives 1877, No.77, 3. App. H.R. E.1. V.
colleges at Dunedin and Christchurch were able to supply only one quarter of the increase. The pupil teacher system had expanded rapidly; in 1880 one-third of the whole teaching body were pupil-teachers. The majority of the remainder were of such poor quality that the pupil teachers received little training except in experience. To devise a system of training effective in these conditions was the problem. Even Otago now had many untrained masters and pupil-teachers. The qualifications of entrants necessitated the linking of higher education and the professional work in the training colleges. (Later we shall discover a close parallel in the present system). The normal school, therefore, aimed at higher academic education in all the subjects they would be required to teach and a standard working method.

In the schools attached to each college practice was given in teaching each standard, and combinations of classes, the "criticism" lessons being to a rigid pattern.

In Otago, students who completed such a course of practice before the end of the second year, were placed in an infant room containing from 60 to 70 pupils and occasionally gave lessons to classes in the fifth and sixth standards. Encouragement to further their own education was provided by releasing the students from normal school work during the

1. E.1. 1881.
2. Wellington Training College was established in 1880, Auckland in 1881.
university year. The pupil teacher-training college system became a link between elementary and university education. More applicants were attracted, the entrance standard rose and a basis was laid for a new conception of teacher training.

Howard, principal of the Canterbury normal school stressed theoretical training in the principles of education rather than literary study or practical teaching. He condemned the pupil teacher system suggesting with some insight that it should broaden out into a training college course where the student would develop methods adapted to his own personal qualities.¹

Inspector Edge on the other hand argued that a month's attendance at a model school "would be of more real assistance to teachers in the discharge of their duties than two years' lecturing on school management".²

Howard wished to use the normal school as a laboratory of school organisation and advocated departmental control of both training colleges and practising schools. A system of scholarships for pupil teachers exempted the more able from all normal school work except the lectures on school management and an hour's teaching practice per day that they might concentrate on university work. (Any who might profit from them were encouraged to attend University lectures.)

Malcolm, the next principal, sympathised with the board's emphasis on practical teaching experience and immediately reorganised the normal school on Scottish lines rather than English, giving all students daily periods in the practising school. He held the normal school and university to be essential elements in teacher training and condemned certificates gained by extra-mural studies as shamefully inadequate. "As a general rule, there are habits of training, literary tastes, and depths of culture acquired at a University and there are details of school management and discipline and a certain esprit de corps acquired at a normal school which cannot be acquired by a few weeks' "cram" or by a few years' experience in promiscuous teaching." Contacts with students destined for all the higher professions would break down that narrowness of outlook arising from exclusive attendance at a teachers' institution.¹

The Wellington Board with as many uncertificated teachers as certificated were at last prevailed upon by Inspector Lee to affirm their belief in a normal school as a finishing ground for training begun by the appointment of pupil-teachers. For a start a "normal master and one or two extra lecture and students rooms would be attached to the new schools at Thorndon and Kaiwarra. These would then be model schools and would meet the immediate needs of the district."

Wellington's normal school opened in 1880 with the attendance of 12 students under the direction of Charles C. Howard. It was "founded for the purpose of giving those desirous of following the profession of teaching an advanced general education, and of enabling students to obtain a practical training in the art of teaching, school organisation and method."

O'Sullivan in Auckland persuaded the Board to demand of probationers the ability to pass the sixth standard examination with ease, a minimum age of 16 years and a two year term of service under the Board's most competent teachers rounded off by a course of study at a training college. Thus would relief be afforded "from the damaging strain of teaching and studying at the same time." The training college would concentrate on the development of the student rather than on "the upholstery of theories and systems and endless talk." "We think," said O'Sullivan, "that what should be aimed at is to fit the students for their career by practice and instruction in the art of teaching and by earnestly promoting their general culture and enlightenment. A teacher whose knowledge is narrowed to school books and school methods is by no means a desirable citizen of a state; it may not be going too far to call him a mischievous one."

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In the college that opened in 1880 the subjects of the Class E and Class D examinations were taught, lectures given on school management and the students practised at Wellesley Street School.

Inspectors' reports on the situation in other provinces indicate that pupil teachers were employed of necessity, few received training of any kind and usually the pupil teacher was looked upon "as a happy means of disposing of the drudgery of teaching the lower classes."¹

Occasionally, attempts were made to raise the standard of teaching by Saturday morning lectures or by courses of short duration, but teacher training was virtually non-existent in these provinces.

McArthur from experience desired a practising school of not more than 200 pupils with a staff of specially selected recently trained teachers and directly under the control of the principal. Students would practise for full fortnightly periods, not one day a week, or worse still, one hour a day.

In 1886 Wanganui began to appoint probationers as supernumeraries to the best conducted schools where they were to receive instruction in class management and attend specially arranged Saturday morning classes.² This scheme also failed

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1. Inspector Hammond in H.R. 1881 E.1.
2. H.R. 1887 E.1.
owing to the poorly qualified staffs of the schools.

With its emphasis on a course of advanced general education, the Wellington Training College became little more than a finishing school for young ladies the majority of whom did not intend to stay teaching.

Evening classes at the normal school for pupil-teachers were restricted to literary subjects and there was no provision for instruction in the basic principles and methods of teaching upon which the principal placed such emphasis. The pupil teachers' ideas of method revolved narrowly round that practised at the school where they happened to be employed. The Board was forced to follow the example of Auckland and Christchurch in compelling pupil-teachers to follow a two year course at the training college. By 1887 the tuition of pupil teachers was taken entirely out of the hands of headmasters and conducted at the training college where Howard was dismissed and emphasis shifted to practical training.

In Dunedin nine of the best conducted schools were connected with the training college as "associate" schools thus affording variety of experience. The depression of the late eighties increased the numbers of pupil teachers by closing Auckland and Wellington training colleges. Any variation of the general pattern of their training retained observation and practice under the guidance, where possible, of trained teachers, e.g. the Grey Board brought untrained country teachers in turn

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1. H.R. 1885 E.1.
to the efficiently conducted Greymouth School as supernumeraries for a 3 month course, an extra relieving teacher being employed to keep the trainees' schools open. Throughout New Zealand, however, 40% of the teaching staff were pupil teachers while, apart from numbers alone, the problem was further complicated in that the majority of other teachers were incapable of giving these any form of training. The position is described by E. Cowles in his presidential address to the New Zealand Educational Institute, 1894: "In some districts provision is made for the instruction and training of pupil teachers; one has a normal school, another a system by which periodical meetings are held to provide for the exercise and training of teachers, where teachers working under very different conditions become acquainted with each other's methods. Again in one district a probationer is to all intents and purposes a pupil teacher, in another simply a candidate on trial for that position; an assistant is a teacher who has served his apprenticeship and obtained a certificate, or in an adjoining centre he may have neither certificate nor training."

The minor Boards were as anxious as the Institute that a national system should be established. Hogben's new syllabus of 1904 gave the teachers greater responsibility; therefore the Department should shoulder the duty of training the teacher for this responsibility. Colleges closely associated with the university colleges in the four centres had
been advocated, these to be generously equipped and staffed. Hogben lent his support.¹ Each training college was to have two model schools, other district schools to be associate schools. Stringent comments were made by the Royal Commission on Staffs and Salaries of 1901 who were appalled by the lack of uniformity from province to province in the pupil teacher system and who proposed a gradual limitation, increased salaries for pupil-teachers on a national basis, higher age and academic qualifications, insistence on thorough instruction by headmasters and assistants, the apprenticeship to be followed by a course of professional instruction in a normal school.² Similarly, the Parliamentary Select Committee of Education (1903) recommended inter alia that: "the practising department of each training college should include a model country school with a single teacher. From the 1906 reorganisation this became usual practice.

iii. 1905 - 1925 THE GROWTH OF A NATIONAL SYSTEM.

Hogben’s realisation that appreciation of the new ideals was hampered by lack of professional training caused him to embark upon a vigorous training scheme. It was proposed to replace many pupil teachers by adults. "Probationers" were appointed - virtually pupil-teachers under a new name but the principle differed and foreshadowed the time when entrance to

¹ App. H.R. 1900 E.1.
² H.R. 1901.
the profession would be only through the training colleges. (The next twenty years saw the pupil teacher system die out, its last traces being seen in 1926).\footnote{Vide infra - p.28}

Probationers or pupil teachers (they were called both) received liberal allowances from 1905, and were appointed, after passing the matriculation examination, for 2, 3 or 4 years followed by training college. Lesser allowances were made to students without preliminary pupil-teaching experience while short period studentships of 3 to 12 months duration were introduced in 1914 for teachers deemed worthy of further training.

PRACTICAL: In each centre and in close connection with the training college were established (a) a main school, (b) a model rural school - an independent unit but technically part of the normal school, (c) a kindergarten, (d) a class organised as a secondary department of a district high school.

In 1914 also £4,000 was specially granted to boards to provide central classes for personal tuition of teachers uncertificated and for their training in practical work.

A second type of model rural school was established by some boards to train prospective country teachers who were unable to gain admission to the training colleges and to train teachers in service. Owing to difficulties in model-class building the district high school model was discontinued leaving again no field practical training for secondary
teaching. This deficiency was pointed out by Tate in 1925. "It is true," he says, "that of recent years an increasing number of recruits to the secondary school staffs have passed through the primary training colleges, but that training hitherto so received has not been specially suited to the peculiar problems of adolescent education, has been frankly acknowledged by both the secondary school authorities and the primary inspector in charge of the district high schools."

From 1926 selected students with a good university record were offered a third year at the training colleges in order to specialise in secondary school teaching. Provision was made in their training courses for the completion of university studies in mathematics, science or modern languages, three subjects for which few teachers were available. Some twenty years later, in 1944, a special course to provide trained graduate entrants for the post-primary service was established in Auckland partially correcting the position criticised by Tate but, as we shall see later, (Chap.3, IX), partially further aggravating it.

In 1925 four divisions of students were in training.

A. Those who had completed courses as probationers, pupil teachers or kindergarten

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1. Report on certain aspects of Post Primary Education in New Zealand.
2. The following year, 1927, saw the introduction of third-year studentships in primary school special fields e.g. physical education and science (agriculture).
trainees;
B. Students who entered from secondary schools without school experience.
C. Graduates of approved universities.
D. Students admitted to short courses.

The usual pattern of training was at that time one year as a probationer supernumerary to the staff, two years at training college, followed by a fourth year as a probationary assistant on the staff of a school. More and more "B" division students were being admitted, however, with no previous school experience.

Such variety of practical training was required by the groups in training that regulations were issued in 1928 requiring principals of certain neighbouring schools, post-primary as well as primary, to receive students for practising purposes. The normal schools remained in existence, nevertheless. Their function will be reviewed in Chapter 3, VII and Chapter 4.

In 1928, there were in the training scheme 572 probationers, 1114 students and 133 probationary assistants for primary teaching while practical training in the schools was also arranged for student teachers of domestic arts at the Otago University Home Science School. Prospective technical school teachers were trained within the schools.

1. Schools had been so used for many years. The regulation merely legalised the procedure.
themselves; they received practical training alone. It was not until 1948 that this course came to mean more. (See p. 66)

IV. 1929 - 1948 A REVISED SYSTEM.

After the depression of the late twenties and early thirties a revised scheme was introduced. Two colleges had been closed, the work of the other two curtailed. In 1936 when the colleges were reopened schools were no longer able to send forward any probationers. All students now entered training colleges, therefore, straight from the secondary schools, from University or from other walks of life. They had no preliminary practice or observation in the schools. Virtually this is the system as it stands to-day. Most entrants to the five colleges have had no experience in teaching.

1. Some students entered the training colleges directly from the secondary schools from 1925. They were known as "B" division students and were paid £75 per year while "A" students with school experience were paid £112. Their appointment was due to convictions that a break in students' studies was detrimental to full personal development, and that other questionable techniques were acquired by pupil-teachers with little evaluation on the part of the student, and were modified later only with great difficulty.

2. A few exceptions still enter the colleges. They are mainly from Maori schools where a junior teacher system caters each year for a few entrants to the profession. Other entrants spend a year before college in the Grade I schools of less than 9 pupils, (usually after failing to gain admission to a training college because of lack of maturity or of insufficiency of qualifications.)

3. The fifth college was opened at Ardmore in April, 1948 and was residential.
in the schools except as pupils. They must gain this experience concurrently with attendance at college lectures in content and method — and often at university lectures as well. Thus a burden is imposed on student teachers whose two years of training must include:

(a) All-round development as balanced and cultured personalities;
(b) Further scholarship including additional instruction in subjects they will be teaching;
(c) The formation of educational ideals and attitudes;
(d) The development of professional skills by integration of practice work in the schools with college studies.

From this outline of origins and development of New Zealand teacher training we are now ready to turn to considerations of why practical experience is considered necessary for student teachers and of how it is provided in the five Colleges.

1. The Third (probationary assistant) year is virtually a year of full service as the teacher is in full charge of a class, often today a large one, and receives little further assistance. (See p. 58.)

1. In August, 1948, a conference of principals of N.Z. training colleges was held in Wellington. "Essential aims" were discussed. Their failure to generalise, the lines just outlined, (p. 31) of practice periods if we agreed: "Each student should spend not less than a quarter of their training period in the practical schools".
2. "Teachers and Youth Leaders" p. 77
CHAPTER 3

AIMS AND ORGANISATION TO-DAY.

1. AIMS: The purpose of periods of directed observation and practice has apparently never been officially defined in New Zealand. That they form a valuable part of the teacher training courses here as well as overseas, seems to be generally accepted. In an American study, Pickens of the University of Mississippi and of Michigan recorded that when several hundreds of trained teachers were asked which was the most valuable course taken, nearly all answered, "directed teaching." While other American studies state the objectives fully, the McNaik Report says, somewhat cautiously, "School practice under present conditions has been criticised, perhaps with justice, as too brief, confused in objective and somewhat artificial." 2

Similar charges of artificiality and confusion as well as one of "stunting" are levelled against New Zealand school practice by Dr. R.F. Anschutz, Professor of Philosophy, Auckland University, 3. He advocates a "living practical experience" in a three or four year course in the schools, training colleges being eliminated in favour of attendance at University lectures in subjects including Education to Stage III.

1. In August, 1948, a conference of principals of N.Z. training colleges was held in Wellington. "Essential Aims" were discussed. These follow, in general, the lines just outlined, (page 29). Of practice periods it was agreed: "That students should spend not less than a quarter of their training period in the practising schools."

2. "Teachers and Youth Leaders" P.77

In reply to this article,\textsuperscript{1} Professor Gould of Victoria University, while agreeing with many of Dr. Anschutz’s particular criticisms, showed, inter alia, that training in music, arts and crafts and physical education would thereby suffer and that these subjects would need to be catered for within the university.

Boardman of University of Minnesota,\textsuperscript{2} details the objectives of directed teaching:

1. "The development of some measure of skill by student teachers in certain fundamental methods, procedures and techniques used in the teaching and learning process such as:

   \begin{enumerate}
   \item[(a)] ability to administer classroom routines efficiently;
   \item[(b)] ability to use specific methods of instruction, i.e., individual instruction problem method, contract method, laboratory method, directed study etc.
   \item[(c)] ability to recognize individual differences in pupils and to provide for such differences in teaching;
   \item[(d)] ability to diagnose pupils learning problems and to use remedial methods;
   \item[(e)] ability to use lists of different kinds and for different purposes;
   \item[(f)] ability in the use of detailed techniques in teaching such as question, drill, visual aids, illustrative materials, assignments;
   \item[(g)] ability to supervise pupils’ study and to teach desirable study habits;
   \end{enumerate}

\textsuperscript{1} Ibid April 1st, 1936.

\textsuperscript{2} Fourteenth Yearbook of Supervisors of Student-teaching.
(h) ability to recognize and control situations which may lead to disciplinary problems;

(i) ability to stimulate, guide and direct the thought of the pupils in class discussions.

2. "The development of a greater degree of mastery of subject matter and of educational principles involved such as:-

(a) mastery of professionalised subject matter;

(b) knowledge of subject matter in related teaching fields and of its use;

(c) knowledge of and ability to recognize and use the relationships between the teaching field and other school subjects;

(d) knowledge of and ability to use scientific and educational principles for the selection and organisation of subject matter for teaching;

(e) knowledge of text books, reference materials and teaching equipment in the subject matter field and of their use;

(f) knowledge of the place and uses of a school library in relation to the teaching field;

(g) knowledge of and ability to relate subject content to fundamental educational principles;

(h) knowledge of and critical evaluation of important city and state syllabi.

3. "The development of desirable professional interests, attitudes and ideals such as:

(a) acquaintance with and habit of reading educational literature;

(b) acquaintance with and interest and participation in professional organisations and associations;

(c) development and maintenance of professional standards on a high ethical plane;
(d) development of the attitude and habit of self-criticism as a stimulus to professional improvement;
(e) development of the professional attitude toward supervisory efforts designed to assist the teacher in improving his teaching;
(f) acquaintance with and interest in using the means and sources of professional growth;
(g) development of the scientific attitude of enquiry, investigation and experimentation, and interest in scientific methods.

4. "The development of desirable personal characteristics and of desirable relationships to others such as:
   (a) confidence and assurance of one's abilities in the teaching situation;
   (b) ability to adjust to community standards for teachers and to community demands upon teachers;
   (c) recognition of and effort to eliminate undesirable characteristics or habits;
   (d) co-operation with and loyalty to school policies and activities;
   (e) co-operation with and loyalty to fellow teachers and superior school officers.
   (f) maintenance of leisure time activities conducive to good health and vigour and conforming to community and professional standards.
   (g) maintenance of desirable standards of taste and personal grooming.
   (h) maintenance of a high ethical code in business and personal as well as professional relations."

When an outline containing the four aims above was submitted to the four colleges principals for comment, they, with characteristic New Zealand distrust of lengthy and itemised lists showed preference for a shorter statement. Over-division was felt to give the aims an air of artificiality. In New
Zealand training colleges, school practice is regarded as field work - the basis for child psychology, and for the understanding of educational theory and of broad principles. 1

(a) The personal development of the student teachers (including 3 and 4 above) is considered to be of prime importance.

(b) Techniques and professional training (1 and 2 above) are also important as a means of making personal equipment effective. 2

All agree that short term evaluation by students of their school observations and practice is absolutely necessary (see p. 42).

Using these views as criteria, can we evaluate practical training in New Zealand? Firstly, however, what organisations are currently used to assist in the fulfilment of these functions?

II. ORGANISATION: Organisation of school practice follows, in general, a common pattern. In the usual two-year course the college year practically coincides with the three-term school year. Every student teacher spends three days per week for six weeks of each term in a school. In order best to

1. The McNaught Report on "The Supply, Recruitment and Training of Teachers and Youth Leaders" says (p.78) - "The first purpose of school practice is to provide the concrete evidence, illustrations and examples to supplement and give point to the theoretical part of the student's training."

2. Visits by students to schools also provide almost the only opportunity a teacher will have of seeing other teachers at work.
promote personal and social development and to ensure some continuity of college studies, and a close contact between these and the work in schools, the other two days are spent in college. In two years then, each student has six training periods of 18 days, or 108 days altogether.

The following table shows the number of hours normally devoted to school practice compared with hours in the other subjects of the college course:

TABLE SHOWING SUBJECTS AND HOURS

IN A TYPICAL TWO-YEAR COURSE:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SUBJECTS:</th>
<th>HOURS IN TWO YEARS:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Practice of Teaching</td>
<td>540</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education and Principles of Teaching</td>
<td>78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Methods of Teaching</td>
<td>*35+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Infant Class Method</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English (Including Speech)</td>
<td>120</td>
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<tr>
<td>Hygiene and Health Education</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical Education and Games</td>
<td>280</td>
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<tr>
<td>Music</td>
<td>76</td>
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<td>Art</td>
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<td>Craft and Needlework</td>
<td>76</td>
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<tr>
<td>Geography</td>
<td>78</td>
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<td>History</td>
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<tr>
<td>Biology and Nature Study</td>
<td>76</td>
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<tr>
<td>General Science</td>
<td>35</td>
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<tr>
<td>Cultural Activities (Drama, Choral, Art Clubs Etc.)</td>
<td>228</td>
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<tr>
<td>Library and Materials</td>
<td>76</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

* Methods of Teaching form part of the course in each subject; the subject matter of each is partially profession-

ised.

The period of 540 hours or 108 days (28% of the college years) shown for practice of teaching is considerably in excess of the Scottish 40 days or the English practice of "not less than 12 weeks" (McNair), particularly as the latter "includes visits of observation and demonstration lessons." 1

The usual organisation included for each student at least one "section" of approximately six weeks spent in each of the following situations:

(a) an infant class,
(b) a junior class of St. 1, St. 2, or St. 3,
(c) a senior class of St. 4, Form I or Form II,
(d) a model school,
(e) a normal school class.

Within this general pattern variations occur. While the position as stated is true for Wellington and Auckland, Dunedin students have more but shorter periods in the schools completing 34 weeks of 4 days or 136 days. In their first teaching practice period they have observation and participation but no criticism lessons or periods of control. These are introduced gradually in subsequent teaching periods. Second year students take criticism lessons for both class and headteacher and usually have a day of full control in each section of 4, 5 or 6 weeks. On Thursdays all students return to college for club activities and sport. In Christchurch "two-fifths of the time is spent in the schools" i.e., approximately 150 days in a two year course.

Even within a college there are individual variations, especially when shortages are acute in school staffs. (e.g. Third terms, 1947–1948 when many students volunteered for relieving work in lieu of their final school training period.) Some give valuable assistance in introducing and developing Departmental Schemes e.g. in swimming, in physical culture courses at secondary schools or in art and craft courses for teachers; almost every student substitutes for at least one half-section
(three weeks), library work, or an observation period at the speech clinic, vocational guidance centre, hospital class, kindergarten, or community centre (Feilding).

**TABLE SHOWING DISTRIBUTION OF PRACTICAL TRAINING OF EIGHTEEN STUDENTS.**

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\( x = 6 \text{ weeks}; \frac{1}{2} = 3 \text{ weeks}; x = \text{composite class}. \)
The first school section comes after students have been six weeks in college where lectures have proceeded in English 12 hours, Education 6 hours, Art and Crafts 18 hours, Music 18 hours, Geography 6 hours, History 12 hours, Health Education 6 hours, Physical Education and Games 27 hours, Science 6 hours, Biology 6 hours, Principles of Teaching 6 hours. In Principles of Teaching, lecturer and students have discussed the school situation and lesson plans on broad lines; preliminary instructions and suggestions, about school organisation and use of time have been given. These set out the purposes of school visits, together with main lines of procedure including attendance, the part taken by the student in the school and what will be expected of him. Detailed suggestions are given regarding the making of observations, the entering of these in a special note book and the preparation and presentation of oral lessons based on those observed when taken by the class-teacher. A plan is suggested for setting out the notes on these lessons. Students are advised to collect and file in compact form samples of good work in the various subjects and classes, these to serve as guides as to standards later. Each student is directed to keep a log showing clearly how he has spent each period of the day. This is initialled by the associate teacher and gives the college a useful check on distribution of time. (See Pt.V below and Appendix). The observation book is assessed by
the method staff as part of the school work of the student.

Some choice is given students in arranging which schools they will attend for each practical period. Each student fills in a preference form usually basing his choice of class on such factors as proximity of school to home, class-teacher known personally, his knowledge of attitude of staff-members or his special interest. The lecturers who arrange the visits, however, must also be influenced by the student's previous sections, the possibilities of overworking the best teachers and by the special needs of some students.

Some few teachers are known by each college to be particularly successful in helping weak or diffident students or those whose confidence has been undermined by unfortunate circumstances on the previous school section.

iii. THE ASSOCIATE SCHOOLS.

Number of Schools:

Wellington teachers in training are sent to primary schools, one large boys' secondary school, two girls' secondary schools, one technical college and one combined intermediate and secondary school for boys.

The primary schools are of the following sizes:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>(pupils)</th>
<th>8 schools</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>over 511</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>351-510</td>
<td>18</td>
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<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>191-350</td>
<td>12</td>
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<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>71-190</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>25-70</td>
<td>1 school</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total 47 + 1 Normal School.

1. The 'Principal's Conference' 1916, advised that teachers in each practising area be graded by the inspectors of a five-point scale and only teachers rated 4 (excellent), 3 (good) and 2 (satisfactory) be selected as associate teachers.
Staffing of Associate Schools:

Of teachers in charge of classes there are:

12 teachers holding A 20 positions (roughly 20 years experience)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A20</th>
<th>A12</th>
<th>A9</th>
<th>A6.60</th>
<th>A3</th>
<th>A</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>7</td>
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</table>

Total: 350 teachers

There are also 53 Probationary Assistants.

In addition, the normal school takes 40 students at once and there are three model solo-charge schools and three other model schools, each organised as the lower half of a two-teacher school, taking 24 students in all.

Where 200 - 250 students are to be catered for at a time, the numbers above would seem to be sufficient.
The following table, however, indicates the inspectors' qualitative classification of these teachers according to suitability for student observation and training.¹

---

¹ The "Principals' Conference", 1948, decided that teachers in each practising area should be rated by the senior inspector on a five-point scale and only teachers rated A (outstanding), B (good) and C (adequate) be selected as associate teachers.
### TABLE SHOWING SUITABILITY OF ASSOCIATES AND DISTRIBUTION OF STUDENTS OVER PERIOD OF TWELVE MONTHS.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year of Students per teacher in twelve months</th>
<th>2022, 2023, 2024, 2025, 2026, 2027, 2028, 2029, 2030, 2031, 2032, 2033</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C (adequate)</td>
<td>158</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X (Experiences)</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New &amp; Boarding</td>
<td>403</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total: 390

Some students are sent to other colleges, the distance to them being too great.

It will be noticed that this college was forced to use 4 grade B teachers, 17 classified as unsuitable (some-)

the significant point here, however,
TABLE SHOWING SUITABILITY OF ASSOCIATES AND DISTRIBUTION OF STUDENTS OVER PERIOD OF TWELVE MONTHS.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Qualitative Mark</th>
<th>No. of Teachers</th>
<th>Number of Students per teacher in twelve months</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A+</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>3,1,0,2,4,3,3,6,3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>4,3,2,3,2,1,3,1,1,1,2,5,5,3,5,4,5,9,3,4,1,3,5,1,4,1,6,6,4,5,0,0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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</tbody>
</table>

Total 350

* Few students are sent to some of the best teachers because of the distance to their schools.

It will be noticed that this college was forced to use 4 grade C teachers, 17 classified as unsuitable (sometimes because of lack of experience) as well as a large number (46) who were unclassified owing to changes of staff and teacher absence. The most significant point here, however,
is that of 350 teachers only 83 are classed, on the combined advice of four inspectors, as above B or average. This, when any educationist would recommend that students see only the best practice. The level of student-teaching practice must to a large extent depend upon the level of teaching in the practice schools and upon the level of practice teaching depends that of future education throughout the country. Other centres also report that they have reached saturation point in the placement of students in schools. At present there is no possibility of selecting only the best and the efforts of training colleges therefore must be concentrated on making the observation of weak practice more effective. Where poorer teachers must be used as associates only the more mature students with a developed sense of values can fully discern and profit from observed weaknesses. Younger students of less experience are assisted in their evaluations by a system of discussions on school practice. These are held on the days in college and a lecturer is always present to assist students in arriving at sound solutions to problems raised. Questions are discussed under the chairmanship of a fellow student in an impersonal and constructive manner, no names of schools or teachers being mentioned. The fewer the number of really good associate teachers the more these discussions assume importance.

iv. TRAINING COLLEGE AND THE SCHOOLS:

The schools where the students carry out their field work are usually in as close co-operation with the colleges as circumstances permit.

1. At Dunedin Training College tutorials and research work take the place of some such practical training.
Method lecturers as well as vice-principals and lecturers in education are in the schools on the majority of days the students are there - to help students and for discussions with headmasters and associate teachers. As far as possible each student prepares and takes a special lesson before a college lecturer during each school section. The student is notified some days previously and is given, if he requires it, every assistance with the preparation of his lesson. All students are encouraged to use the pictorial and other lesson materials from the recently augmented college libraries. Before the lesson begins the student hands to the lecturer his observation book in which his lesson is written up and discusses his lesson plan. After the lesson a short time is devoted to discussing with the student techniques, quality of observations, personal problems and difficulties. The lecturer is sometimes at the school for the whole day; he lunches with the staff and there is thus opportunity to maintain a really pleasing form of teaching contact. This, however, is dependent mainly upon the timetable obligations of individual lecturers. Some find only the shortest time for discussions on student practice (usually over a cup of tea) with the headteacher and associates and also for discussing the lesson with the student before and 

1. Since 1944 the colleges have been given a special grant of approximately £4,000 per year in addition to the ordinary library grant of 5/- per student.
after presentation. The most effective use of opportunities afforded by such a visit (usually at considerable distance from the college - up to 15 miles) means balancing such worthwhile discussions and liaison work against more frequent but shorter visits to neighbouring schools. Teachers still declare the frequency and length of visits to be inadequate.

Visits during the previous twelve months of the lecturers of one college, where staffing ratio is one lecturer or assistant lecturer to 22 students, are tabulated below:

**SCHOOL VISITS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lecturer</th>
<th>Visits</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>34 visits</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>71 visits</td>
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<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>27 visits</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>27 visits</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>6 visits</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>4 visits</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>3 visits</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H</td>
<td>5 visits</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>6 visits</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Nine others visited Normal School only. (Time tables of some specialist lecturers allow for only one half day each week in the schools.)

In Christchurch, on the other hand, the practice has been for one lecturer in principles and practice of teaching to lecture to first-year students and then to follow them into the schools for their practical sections. A second lecturer does the same with second-year students. Both are assisted by the Principal, Vice-Principal and other lecturers as they are available so that every student is seen in action in each new school situation.

In the cases of all colleges further contacts with schools and teachers are made by principals, vice-principals
and method lecturers at headmasters' meetings where school
problems are discussed with the headmasters and inspectors.
Each year principals address meetings of associate teachers
and Institute meetings. Most members of training college
staffs are also Institute members, some of them taking
leading places in branch and national administration; here
they are in close contact with teachers. The main personnel
of refresher course staffing is drawn, on the requests of
teachers and inspectors, from the training colleges. At given
times there is always frank discussion on current school
practice.

The time of specialist lecturers in the schools
has recently been reduced by the excessive numbers of students
in each college; also by the needs of rehabilitation and
of "late entrants" groups who require special adjustment courses.

Specialist lecturers, however, as well as others often teach
in the Normal School, classes which are subsequently brought
back to the college for demonstrating points to the students.

School broadcasts conducted by training college
lecturers require the latter to maintain close contact with
at least one class in order to carry out the work effectively.

This applies also to experiments in method. From one college
the lecturer in agriculture and nature study visits the rural
schools with the itinerant instructor and maintains closest
contact with these schools.
In giving assistance to students on school sections in the preparation of individual lessons or programmes of work and in college discussions on school practice, most staff members of every college are in almost daily contact with their associate schools. That this contact could be further improved is realised by the college staffs themselves.

**ASSOCIATE TEACHERS' POINT OF VIEW:**

In 1944, Mr. Lopdell, Principal of the Wellington Teachers' Training College, feeling that the work of the schools was not so effective over the war years, addressed meetings of teachers on the practical training of student teachers. These meetings and further discussions between the Principal, the Senior Inspector of Wellington Schools and the local branch of the New Zealand Educational Institute brought to light points of dissatisfaction on the part of associate teachers.

City schools in close proximity to the college and to students' boarding places were asked to take students, while others further afield received few although rates of salary were equal. Even within a school some teachers were asked to assist in teacher training while others on the same scale were not. In these discussions a common complaint was that there was too little contact between associate teachers and the Training College, too little direction so that associate teachers know neither what is required of them nor the extent of practical training a student has had before he arrives in classrooms. Some associate teachers, before they were made
fully aware of the objective nature of college discussions on school practice, were not happy about these. The most frequent causes of dissatisfaction were however, over-large classes, lack of equipment and insufficiency of refresher courses. ¹

Following full discussions several recommendations were made by the Wellington Branch of the N.Z.E.I. They advocated that a limited number of specially paid associate teachers be selected on the basis of aptitude and capacity to undertake student training. They felt that both school and Training College staffs should be increased, the latter being enabled thereby to visit schools more frequently for discussions etc. Teachers also saw as necessary, discussions with the Principal at least once a year (in February) when clearer directions could be obtained by teachers on the part they should play in teacher training.

Discussions with the Hutt Valley Headmasters' Association brought similar recommendations. Here in addition, "Associate Schools", suitably equipped and staffed on a basis of one specially paid teacher to 35 pupils (maximum) were advocated. We shall return to this subject in the final chapter.

Since 1945 there has been some improvement, and the colleges all have increased contacts again as already shown. Recently the libraries of the colleges with the aid of an additional Government Grant of £1,000 per annum for 4 years were able to

¹ Planned refresher courses in various aspects of primary and post-primary school work have been held regularly since 1945, and are planned by a national committee for all teachers in both islands.
become "teachers' libraries" and to extend their work through box systems to the schools. Teachers are encouraged to use, either by personal visit or through students, the extra teaching facilities offered. Librarians visit the schools to introduce new books to teachers and to discuss children's and teachers' needs. Headmasters and associate teachers are invited to the major cultural productions of the college clubs and to recitals by visiting artists, e.g., Madame Lili Kraus.

The current position in Dunedin is indicated by an extract from the 1946 Annual Report of the Otago Education Board which reads:

"Field Contacts. The college continues to make helpful contacts through such means as interchange of visits, Joint Committee meetings, music festivals, refresher courses and library services, including books, drama materials, sets of music, and film strips etc. We regard these services as important secondary functions of the college. New ground was broken this year in offering a continuous or long term refresher course for infant teachers."

Similar arrangements were made to enable selected Wellington teachers to attend a remedial reading course conducted by Professor Bailey, students taking charge of the classes to release teachers.

V. STUDENT OBSERVATIONS AND PRACTICE IN THE SCHOOLS:

(a) Notes to Schools: In addition to instructions given to students about the use of school time, some colleges issue complementary notes to assist the associate teacher in making the work more effective. The topics covered follow the pattern of student notes outlined above dealing with the keeping of written
records by the student, how and when he should observe lessons and make notes and also other notes he would be wise to take. Teachers are asked to give students opportunities of making full notes on some of the ordinary lessons of the classroom. Frequently the mistake occurs of teachers assuming that students are equipped in certain subjects to begin teaching without prior observation of the teachers' methods. Only in those exceptionally few cases where students possess some outstanding special ability will this be so. As a general rule before a student is required to take a special lesson on any subject, he should have an opportunity of making at least one full observation of such a lesson taken by the associate teacher. This would serve the purpose of showing the student the relation of his set lesson to the preceding development of the theme of which his lesson is a part. Hence, before a lesson is taken it is just as important for the teacher to examine the students' observation notes as it is to see the prepared notes of the students' own (special) lessons. It is frequently found that owing to the students' inexperience in teaching, their observation and plans miss the more subtle points in the lesson, particularly the finer techniques of method. Not all associate teachers are capable of demonstrating or of analysing these.

Teachers are asked to give the students practice in teaching a wide range of subjects. This is particularly necessary where students show special ability in one subject such as music, physical education or art.
The frequency with which subjects are included in observation lessons and in special criticism lessons is, however, exceptionally uneven as is shown in the following tables summarised from the books of ten second year students in Standards I, II and III and ten students in Std. IV, Forms I and II.

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</table>

### Totals


(a) Standardised Intelligence tests have been used in use by 30 students.

(b) Standardised attainment tests by 25 students.

(c) Standardised diagnostic tests by 7 students.

(d) Remedial work (mainly in Reading and Speech) by 22 students.

(e) Moving pictures by 70 students.
(b) Co-ordination: (The classroom regarded as field work).

Although the following topics are included in lecture or study courses in most colleges, an investigation reveals the following position in the cases of a total of 112 second year students who have completed their practice teaching periods:

(a) Standardised intelligence tests had been observed in use by 30 students;

(b) Standardised attainment tests by 25 students;

(c) Standardised diagnostic tests by 7 students;

(d) Remedial work (mainly in Reading and Speech) by 22 students;

(e) Moving pictures by 70 students;
(f) Film strips by 61 students;

(g) Radio by 76 students;

(h) Drama work by 77 students.

Fifty of the 112 students who answered this questionnaire had never seen a science lesson taken and 35 had not seen nature study. And these are two subjects specially supervised by the Education Board's itinerant instructors! Appreciation lessons in both music and literature were observed by few while some had even missed craft altogether in their two years of practice on six teaching sections. Examination shows also that some students had taken no lessons in Science (44), Music and Singing (37), Nature Study (31), Art (10), and History (9).

The college suggests that the organisation of the day's work be apportioned as follows:

1½ hours: observation, writing up of schemes of work, time tables, extracts from teacher's work book, and devices used in room etc.

1½ hours: preparation of special criticism lessons. This includes the writing up of the lesson notes, preparation of maps and diagrams and reading for subject matter. ¹

1 hour: taking special lessons.

1 hour: unsupervised teaching which includes marking of

¹ Like most colleges this one provides a private study period on days in College, when students may search in the College Library for teaching aids, supplementary text books etc.
work, taking of unprepared lessons and general assistance with the usual classroom routine.

In practice, however, this time allotment is seldom adhered to, even approximately. An analysis of the daily logs kept by 87 students and signed by their associate teachers shows the following distribution of time over the above activities:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ACTIVITY</th>
<th>SUGGESTED</th>
<th>ACTUAL MEAN</th>
<th>RANGE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Observation and notes</td>
<td>1 hr 30 m</td>
<td>2 hrs 35 m</td>
<td>55 m - 3 hr 13 m</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preparation of lessons</td>
<td>1 hr 30 m</td>
<td>27 minutes</td>
<td>10 m - 52 m</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taking special lessons</td>
<td>1 hour</td>
<td>20 minutes</td>
<td>11 m - 39 m</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unsupervised teaching</td>
<td>1 hour</td>
<td>1 hr 14 m</td>
<td>55 m - 2 hr 4 m</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It would appear that some further direction from the training college is necessary when such variations occur.

Notes to associate teachers usually deal also with class discipline. It is stressed that true discipline is a learning attitude, a relationship between a teacher and pupils established as a result of wide understanding of the children and of thorough organisation of time and materials. The student finds difficulties because his relationship with pupils is not permanent. He must necessarily, therefore, rely upon external devices. Experienced teachers can, by example and discussion, do much to assist the student in the techniques of control. Any correction should not, however, take the form of breaking into the student's lesson. Some teachers, in the desire to maintain order and to assist the student, are prone to intervene to correct children while the student is conducting
the lesson. But students feel that in such a circumstance there is no real test of their own ability in control, that their standing in the eyes of the class is lowered and that the chance of improving their control is lessened rather than increased.

(c) **Quality of teaching observed:**

As stated above (Section iii) all colleges, owing partly to increased numbers, are at present sending students to some associate teachers not wholly suitable for training students. There is general agreement, however, that most associate teachers are anxious to give of their best in helping entrants to their profession. Antipathies that do arise are usually those found when youth and age attempt a common task of an exacting nature. In discussions and by entries in their record books most students indicate that they receive appreciable assistance from their seniors.

That occasional situations in the practicing schools demand further investigation, however, is indicated by the following comments made by second-year students towards the end of their training course:

1. "My associate seemed to dislike women students and had as little as possible to do with his student... No observation lessons were allowed in the first three weeks, control was weak and teaching was done through noise all day."

2. "The teacher disturbed me by her highly nervous temperament. Her method of control was in many ways noisy and scathing remarks were supplemented by chalk throwing."
3. (Model) "Too old and tired to get the best from children. The student feels muddled all the time, and in between doing messages for the associate and writing extracts from a bad scheme, just sits and tries (ineffectually) to get the classroom routine sorted out."

4. "Unless teachers in model schools have students willingly it can ruin the section."

5. "The teacher put all the work he was too lazy to do on to the student. No music, social studies, physical education or art taken during the year. The student did all the extras while teacher worked on a hobby he was making for his home! Teacher was often late and had a philosophy not at all helpful to a student. Often only arithmetic, spelling and composition were taken each day."

6. "Principles and general running of the school contradicted everything a student learns at college. This St. 6 class was preparing for "Proficiency" examination throughout the six weeks I was there and consequently I was not permitted to take any special lessons... the whole timetable was forgotten.... the programme was a continual drive."

7. "Disastrous for St. 1 and the student's confidence and keeness."

8. "Children uncontrollable. Teacher incompetent or ill (?); situation thoroughly unnatural."

9. "The teacher disliked the class intensely and the class disliked the teacher."

10. "(Secondary) Little help or encouragement except from some individual masters. Lack of spirit of co-operation typified by the refusal of the school to allow us to take extracts from schemes. This seemed to me to be contrary to any of the higher ideals of teaching but was more or less typical of the place."

11. "Negative teacher. Headmaster interrupted too much."

12. "The headmaster's attitude towards students was overbearing and very rude."

13. "... attitude is far too stringent and any suggestion of using new methods as a change from her out-of-date system is immediately squashed. Attempts to correlate subjects like history and geography met with disapproval and variations from her method of teaching physical education caused her to adopt a very intolerant and domineering attitude."
14. Teacher on Salary A (not classified for students):
The teacher, on finding that the children are exploring
along paths he does not want, does not explain exactly
what he wants to the whole class but roars at the offenders
and tells them to get on with what he has told them to
do. When something like this occurs, the children con-
cerned become stubborn, give up trying, gain a don't
care attitude and a general dislike for the teacher. The
children are not allowed to find out their own material;
they are continuously harassed by statements such as:

'You'll find all you want on page....'
'I said all!' 'Don't turn over the pages like that!
If you've found out all that you possibly can, which
you probably haven't, you'd better pass on that book.'

These things tend to distract the child's mind from what
he is doing, into a state of turmoil, panic and fear.
In most cases the strap is used too frequently, thus pro-
ducing discipline based on fear."

The case of a boy aged 11 is quoted. His attendance
has been poor and "just recently he appeared before the Juvenile
Court for stealing, since when his attendance has improved.
Does not give much trouble in class but is always dragged up
for questioning and if he does not know the answer is practically
always given the strap."

Where such cases come to the knowledge of the train-
ing colleges attempts are made to establish better practice
or to limit (sometimes stop) visits of students - not always
a simple matter.

(d) **Attitude of school staffs to students:**

Again the range is very wide indeed. Helpful, encour-
agement is common and the remarks at the beginning of the
preceding sub-section again apply. Discussions with two groups
of 30 students each brought to light some incidents indicative
of attitudes which are neither co-operative nor democratic:
1. At the secondary school student accepted as member of staff. Smoking allowed in staffroom. Primary headmasters forbade smoking by students in staffroom.

2. As student, not regarded as staff-member but when relieving on same staff fully accepted.

3. Some senior teachers insist on "lecturing" students on education principles contrary to those taught at college.

4. Students suggest that they help where possible, e.g. playground supervision, and thus impress on associates the desirability of accepting students as staff members.

5. Student introduced to class; then left standing. "Can't you find yourself a seat?"

6. Desirable to have student introduced to staff.

7. Separate staff-room for students emphasises subordinate position. So does referring in front of children to students as "students".

8. The older (returned men) students feel the position acutely.

9. Many headmasters show interest in students and discuss organisation and section books.

10. In most cases the attitude is satisfactory.

(e) The views of young teachers on practical training:

In a questionnaire answered by 33 representative ex-students (1941-1945) of the Wellington Teachers' Training College the question was asked, "What 'gaps', if any, existed in your own training for the job of teaching?"

The most frequent replies received were:

1. Knowledge of method, need of practical rather than academic work in training college: 37%.

2. Knowledge of progression of Syllabus in each subject, outline of master scheme, of what standards to expect: 34%.

3. Ability to appreciate training college work, lack of background of experience: 24%.
4. Need for periods on own resources as students: 6%. (See Section 6 below.)

A frequent suggestion was that a practical year should follow the first (or second) year of training college studies with a return to training college for a third (or fourth) year.

To the above views might be added:

 Needs of a Probationary Assistant (as stated by young teachers at a New Education Fellowship meeting, May 1948.)

1. Need for small class.
2. Need for one class through year.
3. Need for good physical conditions.
4. Need for own room (not with another teacher).
5. Need for opportunity to use special ability.
6. Need for freedom from staff criticism.
7. Need for help rather than interference.
8. Need for up-to-date master scheme to understand plan for school in each subject (unity within the school).
9. Need for some praise or recognition.
10. Need for democracy among teachers before democratic control of children is possible.

VI. CONTINUOUS TEACHING PRACTICE: (on own resources).

Although many students and ex-students express the view that such a period is necessary before they can realise the meaning of day-to-day teaching for five hours a day, practical difficulties stand in the way of organising such practice. Those who have completed extensive periods of relieving stated (in another section) that where such periods were short - even up to two months - they seldom felt
fully responsible for the standard of work or behaviour of their classes. It is doubtful, therefore, whether really profitable periods "on their own resources" could be arranged within the present organisation of student practice in a short two-year course. The frequent changes of teachers this would involve for the pupils would also be a grave disadvantage. It would be no graver, however, than the present "stop-gap" arrangement caused by shortage of teachers and a rising school population. In the final term of the second year many students are needed as relieving teachers for periods up to one, two, and even three months. This shortens a course already too short and, unless linked to a scheme of in-service training, is bound to leave wide gaps in the students' professional training. Such a scheme of in-service training should be possible (see final chapter).

VII. THE NORMAL SCHOOLS:

A regulation dated 15th December 1932\(^1\) states, "With each training college shall be affiliated a normal school, the staff of which shall demonstrate and give practice in such methods of teaching and school organisation as the Director may approve." The normal school is in closer contact with its college than is any other school. Usually one normal primary school is affiliated with each college though Auckland Training

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College has a normal intermediate school as well. Normal school teachers receive slightly higher salaries (£30 more) than do their fellows in ordinary schools. In return they are expected to organise for and to supervise the work of three or four students on each teaching section of six weeks, i.e. twentyfour students per year. In addition some normal school teachers take "method" lectures in the colleges; their classes are also used for demonstration lessons and experimental procedures in connection with the work of the college. There is little evidence that compensation in grading or promotion is the result of this difficult work. Staffing of normal schools is on the basis of one assistant to 35 pupils on the roll in the first four weeks of the third term. Positions are advertised as "special positions" but few of the best teachers are attracted; the work is arduous and interrupted, monetary rewards are inadequate and organisation for effective work with four students at a time, well-nigh impossible. Good teachers from outside the metropolitan areas find housing difficulties another barrier.

1. In Wellington the normal school also acts as the preliminary practice field for dental and public health nurses who, as part of an introduction to teaching, make observations and give "criticism lessons" there on days when student teachers are in college.

2. The latest appointment to one normal school is of a teacher graded by the inspectors as unsuited for the training of students (see page 41).
VIII. PRACTICAL TRAINING FOR RURAL TEACHING:

Practical training in the organisation of a rural school is generally carried out in schools attached to the normal school.¹ These schools are of two types: Model I, representing the organisation of a sole-teacher school of 9-24 pupils, or Model II, organised as the lower half of a rural school of two teachers. Here students receive practical training in organising and teaching many groups at once. But the rural atmosphere, space, trees, school gardens, boys’ and girls’ agricultural clubs, the close association with school committees and parents are totally absent from these small corners of city schools, as are also rural children with their interests and pastimes.² The typical country school is a community centre in miniature, or should be, while the model is, for administrative purposes, part of the normal school, with that school’s committee and headmaster. Teachers are appointed rather on grading than on suitability in experience and temperament for this type of work³ and housing again restricts applications.

¹ "Regulations relating to Training Colleges", N5, Clause 4 (b) makes provision for model schools of the following types:
   (i) a rural public school of Grade II (Model I) under one teacher, with not more than forty children on the roll.
   (ii) a junior school (Model II) under one teacher with not more than forty-three children of classes P. to S.2 on the roll.

² Redmund and Davies in "The Standardisation of an Intelligence Test" find country children to be of lower average intelligence also.

³ The salary is A9 for Model I (A6 for Model II) and is one of the highest paid positions held at present by women.
A high percentage of the children in model schools are problem children or those whose very high or very low intelligence unfit them for the work of the ordinary classes of the larger school. Students, however, realise these omissions and concentrate on the difficult task of the simultaneous education of many children in a variety of groups and stages of development. As the line of promotion of most teachers is through the country school, 1 an attempt is made to provide all students during the two year period with at least one six-week period in a model school. 2 With the recent increases in the numbers of students in each college, this has not been possible during the last few years. The problem of practice in rural teaching is further discussed in the next two chapters.

IX. PRACTICAL TRAINING FOR POST-PRIMARY TEACHING:

(a) Since 1944 there has existed at Auckland Training College a post-graduate course designed for entrants to the post-primary teaching service. Principles and Practice of Teaching, School and Personal Hygiene, Music, Art and Physical Education are compulsory subjects in this course and the Department has recently ruled that graduate entrants "should have the requisit

1. Promotion and increase in salary past the eighth annual increment are dependent, in the case of all teachers except third year specialists, upon the completion of three years in a country school.

2. At the Christchurch Training College rural training is more extensive, being linked with the training of third year specialists in Agriculture.
(teaching) subjects in their degree units before being accepted
and their course at Training College should consist, as far as
possible, of practical teaching."

In fulfilling the demands of classroom observation and
practice and of college lectures the student has a formidable
task to accomplish in one year. He must reorientate his out-
look, adopting the viewpoint of teacher instead of scholar; he
must study the children of secondary school age and learn how
to handle them; he must learn to teach his specialist subject
and general subjects as well; he must also become familiar with
textbooks, syllabuses and standards while developing in culture,
personality and breadth of educational outlook.

The number of students who can be handled efficiently
is determined mainly by the conditions of practice teaching.
An increase would be beneficial to the college as increase in
staff would make greater specialisation possible but, on the
other hand, would embarrass the schools.

The academic qualifications of some students is a
cause for concern, and such students with inadequate teaching
subjects or with subjects little in demand, or with narrowly
limited degrees (e.g. most science students who are typically
poor in English expression and frequently very restricted in
outlook) engage in further university work. Their training
course then is unduly heavy. The system introduced in 1947
of granting bursaries to enable promising secondary school
pupils to complete planned degrees before proceeding to the
post-primary training course should reduce the volume of this
"adjustment" work and enable full value to be derived from practice teaching. The Department's emphasis on the gaining of full value from supervised practice can be understood when it is realised that the first year of teaching in any post-primary school (D.H.S. included) is regarded by the Education Department as equivalent to the probationary assistant year for certification, i.e. there is one year only for all aspects of training in many cases. Here, as in other training courses, the time must be regarded by all as being too short (see Chapters 4 and 5).

Practice teaching is arranged as follows:

**Term 1:** First half in college, full-time; Second half, Monday and Tuesday in intermediate schools, Wednesday, Thursday and Friday in college.

**Term 2:** First half, Monday and Tuesday in secondary schools, Wednesday, Thursday and Friday in college; Second half, four weeks in schools full time, in college full time till term ends.

**Term 3:** First half, Mondays and Tuesdays in schools (intermediate and secondary); Second half, in college full time.

Thus some 56 days out of a college year of 190 are spent in practice training.

Dr. Murdoch, the lecturer in charge of secondary training, regards two days a week as being too short to permit students to observe the follow-up of lessons. But college courses are also exacting and allow of only slight variations from this pattern. Possible variations are being discussed with principals of secondary schools in Auckland with a view to working out the most satisfactory scheme of teaching practice. The four week spell in Term 2 gives continuity at the
at the cost of college work (broken for these four weeks, resumed
for two and then broken by three weeks of term holidays).

The above organisation allows students to see four
different schools and, in general, these include an intermediate
school, a mixed high school, a grammar school (one sex) and one
other selected from technical high school or district high
school. Thus graduates from a large grammar school have prac-
tical experience of a smaller mixed school while those from
country high schools see the bigger grammar schools.

Students and ex-students of this course are agreed
that the full-time section is easily the most valuable; but its
value is apt to be reduced by school examinations or the visits
of inspectors, sometimes both.

So far forms for reports on secondary school sections
are those designed for use in primary schools and are being
amended to suit post-primary practice. Other reports from
secondary schools ignore the detailed questions on the report
form or include reports on all lessons or a summarised statement
covering such points as academic qualifications, personality,
suitability to secondary teaching, class control and discipline,
and teaching skill.

In 1947, nineteen men and twenty-six women were engaged
on this course. The number of men is above normal but few men
were trained during wartime. Of the 51 students of 1946 only
24 (11 men and 13 women) were teaching in post-primary state
schools at the end of 1947. Five men were expected to return
to the service after rehabilitation courses at the University
and one woman was expected to return from Argentina. Six men and three women had entered the primary service at least temporarily. One man and three women were teaching in registered private schools.

Of the 1947 group two women had already accepted private school appointments for 1948 (both for family reasons). Three of the women of this group were definitely preparing for infant teaching. A survey in one of the other colleges revealed that 23% of second year students, most of whom had completed or partially completed degrees, aimed to enter the post-primary service. There is such a group in each college. Since 1944 their needs have not been met in special courses except by occasional practice teaching in a post-primary school.

(b) Commercial Teachers' Training Course:

A course for commercial teachers was opened at the Wellington Technical College in 1948 and caters for people who have some experience in office or commercial work and who wish to become teachers. The period is for one year and instruction is limited to a widening of commercial qualifications and instruction in teaching methods for trainees who, it is expected, will find little difficulty in receiving appointments in post-

1. They were grouped with graduates prior to 1944 and taken in special series of lectures based on planned secondary school observation.
primary schools or in secondary departments of District High Schools. A fortnight of school visits, which include observation and teaching, follows each month of the lecture course. This course is in its infancy and is designed for a section of entrants who previously had the least of professional training.

X. PRACTICAL TRAINING OF THIRD-YEAR SPECIALISTS:

Several separate theses would be required to cover each field fully. Here all that will be attempted will be to give the barest outline of such training:

Third year courses of training have been offered in recent years for specialists in:
(a) physical education
(b) music
(c) art and crafts
(d) agricultural instruction
(e) speech therapy
(f) the education of the deaf.

While the practical training necessarily differs from group to group the usual practice is for third year students to teach one or more classes in their special subject, i.e. they become specialists teaching at least one class while continuing their intensive specialised training at the college. E.g. music specialist students in one college observe and assist the specialist lecturer in teaching normal school (including broadcast) classes on four mornings a week.

On Thursday afternoon they take normal school classes for radio lessons. They are also responsible for percussion band work with the normal school infants and juniors. In art and crafts students are usually made responsible for their subject throughout one of the associate schools beside teaching it in a normal school class. Physical education specialists are trained at the Dunedin Training College, and third-year students teach school classes to which they are allotted by their college instructors. They are in full charge of their subject being supervised and directed by the Specialist staff of the College.

In the case of groups (e) and (f) above the practical training is more clinical but here, as in each of the other groups as well, great emphasis is placed upon teaching practice directed by the Colleges and evaluated in lecture-discussions where it is integrated with the study courses.

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In view of the quality as reviewed in the previous chapter, however, and considering also the shortness of the course, it appears uncertain that even the 3% of time decided upon is justified.

The needs of other subjects exert a constant pressure on students' time; lecturers report innumerable gaps in knowledge even in spite of the fact that some of these subjects
CHAPTER 4.

EVALUATION AND CONTRASTS.

PURPOSE:

It appears that while practice teaching is accepted as necessary, too little attention has been given in New Zealand to the reasons originally underlying this necessity and to whether the necessity continues to exist. If acceptable aims were discovered then greater efforts could be made to organise school practice in such a way that these and the main aims of teacher-training would be more fully obtained and weaknesses more fully discerned. There is need for full inquiry into purposes, and constant surveillance of their attainment.

TIME: In comparison with European procedure New Zealand practice periods are much longer. Were the teachers who are observed by students very good or excellent teachers in close touch with the colleges, lengthy periods would, perhaps, be of greater value. In view of the quality as reviewed in the previous chapter, however, and considering also the shortness of the course, it appears uncertain that even the 25% of time decided upon is justified.

The needs of other subjects exert a constant pressure on students' time; lecturers report lamentable gaps in knowledge even in spite of the fact that some of these subjects

1. Vide supra p.35
are included in the "common core" of the post-primary school curriculum. Colleges should decide whether the short two year course is best used when time devoted to subject content plus that given to school practice leave all too little for critical evaluation of observations of child development, and school procedures, or for majoring along lines of special interest in Training College or University subjects. Where practice is weak all the more stress should fall on thoughtful evaluation. Only thus can good theory become good practice. The problems raised in the course in Education and Principles of Teaching and Child development should often be those brought in from the schools by students on section,¹ and lectures in these subjects should be followed by verification and exemplification in the schools, and also by integration within the minds of the students through periods of discussion interspersed throughout the weeks of school practice.

The more mature students (to-day's age range in the Colleges is from 17+ to 37+) appear to need less time on observation work and practice teaching. Ability is another variable and there appears to be little provision for these individual differences as between student and student. Dunedin (and now Ardmore) Training College has instituted tutorial and research periods which take the place of one section of school practice for each student. This system gives relief from the tight time tabling under which students work, and affords opportunities of reading and tutorials along the lines of

¹. See Fyfe Report on "Training of Teachers in Scotland". p.18, Nos. 27 and 30.
interests or weaknesses. It also reduces the necessity of sending students to so many of the weaker teachers and helps to restore the balance between time spent in the schools and time spent in college.

In England practice teaching enters into the curricula of all types of training colleges and occupies a minimum of 12 weeks or 60 days for students with no previous experience, though little distinction is made usually between these and more experienced students. The chief means of practice is by block practice of two, three or four weeks. Most colleges arrange also preliminary visits by the students to the schools and also periods of preparation.

A somewhat longer period is spent in the schools of Scotland. In addition to 40 days spent each year of a three or four year course in continuous practice, Scottish students devote up to 8 hours a week to "Methods and Practice in Teaching". Some variations exist. For instance at Moray House, Edinburgh students spend two days a week in the schools during the whole session as well as the whole period following their final examinations.

The time devoted to teaching practice in Australian and American colleges is indicated under "Continuous Teaching" below.

By comparison it would appear that too much time of the two year course in New Zealand is spent in insufficiently

planned observation and practice.

Quality of teaching observed:

The practice periods themselves vary greatly in quality from school to school and from classroom to classroom. Where a good associate teacher follows the general suggestions issued by the training college, plans and supervises the students’ work the benefits are obvious. For the three or four days each week the student progresses from the gaining of the general atmosphere of the schoolroom to the understanding, by reading of schemes, by observations and by assisting in the classroom, of the standards and level of the work expected, and then to the supervising and teaching of small groups and, later, the whole class. Unfortunately, partly because of the exigencies of a system wherein classroom results still mean payment through promotion, too few teachers allow the student a sufficient measure of responsibility for planning and teaching the classwork for even one or two whole days. In any case the children must not suffer even in the interests of student practice. This, the giving of a measure of responsibility, is one of the major problems of student training. Few, on completion of the two year course, realise the routine nature of day to day teaching in the crowded classrooms where they will be expected to work for some years before conditions can be even slightly improved. Later disillusionment can mean loss of ideals and a resorting to a few narrow techniques.
Even in the normal schools conditions are so artificial with crowded rooms and five adults to a class of 40 children that only the barest of techniques are demonstrable. Certainly normal child development and reactions as between teacher and child are not observable in a "normal" school. The best teachers do not always find teaching in the training college areas sufficiently attractive but frequently prefer schools further away where there will be less interruption and greater opportunities to develop happier relationships with their classes.

Other social services:

Most students have had, in their two year training college course, an extensive sampling of practice and observation which may have varied from infant and pre-school work to that of the secondary schools with, in many cases, some acquaintance with the work of allied social services, e.g. of speech clinics, museums, and vocational guidance. It is also the practice in some colleges to introduce experts from these and other fields into the lecturing programme for students. Thus by visits and second-hand information backed by audio-visual aids students are made aware of professions with close bearings on their own. Such a broadened view of the education and other social services tends to place the teacher's future work in perspective; he knows where, in the field of child care and social service, his own year's work will fit; he realises also the value to his class and school of these other
services and gains personally by these contacts with many sides of life.

**School-training college contacts:**

No-one could be satisfied with less than full co-ordination between the training colleges and the practising schools where students are sent to observe and teach. That this full co-ordination does not yet exist is well known. While the position outlined in the previous chapter is true, school contacts are too often restricted to the lecturers in education and method. Specialist lecturers make fewer school visits partly because of the nature of their lecturing courses. The ratio of staff to lecturers at overseas colleges (e.g. Goldsmiths’ 1 to 15 or 16) allows the staff to go with the students into the schools while the system of appointing a registrar to each college to attend to registration and routine administration of the colleges is foreign to our New Zealand system. Here, too, much professional time of vice-principals and method lecturers is devoted to the clerical details of college routine organisation and such activities as checking students’ travelling expenses. Too little time is left them for school contacts and for truly educational planning.

Where schools are in such scattered locations and where a school may have only one or two teachers suitable for student training, the travelling between schools takes a considerable portion of the lecturers’ time. To date, most
of this travelling has been by train, tram, bus or on foot. This year at least one college has gained permission for its lecturers to use private cars on the payment basis as made to school inspectors. Still too little time is available, however, for the constructive discussion "on the spot" with school staffs of problems arising from their work with students. Too often the questions "What does the Training College suggest?", "What methods would you advocate?", remain only partially answered. All method lecturers report a constant demand by associate teachers for direction but seldom is full discussion possible and time to demonstrate is usually lacking.

Specialist members of training college staffs have usually been recruited from the post-primary services and from the most promising teachers of those services. Training college work is at post-secondary level and often the lecturers' courses approximate in many respects those of their university colleagues. General background education at post secondary level is an advantage to all teachers (as to other professional workers) but lecturers best suited to take charge of subjects providing this education are not necessarily also qualified to demonstrate best ways of introducing and teaching the same subjects in the primary schools. Many specialist lecturers, therefore, tend to make a minimum of school visits merely keeping in contact with what schools are doing. It is difficult to see how it could be otherwise for the training colleges offer little chance of promotion to the rare being who is both highly qualified in a specialist field at post secondary level,
and also adaptable to the work of infants and juniors in the primary schools. The liaison work between the schools and training colleges must, therefore, rest mainly with the education (including method) members of the training college staffs. On the other hand the work of the specialists should not be wholly divorced from that in the primary schools.

Some advancement could be made along the lines of closer contact between both these groups of lecturers and the practising schools but firstly the problem of constant movement from school to school of primary school teachers in search of promotion would need to be overcome. The teacher who best appreciates the value of college suggestions for students' observations, (e.g. of phases of child development), is usually the teacher whose grading gains him rapid promotion. His line of promotion leads him, temporarily at least, away from the city and this contact is lost to the college. The grading scheme being introduced, 1948-1949, may overcome this excessive interchange, but so would recognition, monetary and grading, of the best teachers if these could be appointed to specially staffed associate schools. No training college lecturer can demonstrate in a classroom as effectively as can the teacher who has a day to day relationship with the children, who knows their individual natures and abilities and who has established himself over a lengthy period of time in their confidence. This is the person students should see. It is necessary that he be aware of the principles of education and child development
being discussed at the college. Only then can he direct sympathetically the observations of students. How to acquire this awareness and to continue the onerous task of teaching is the problem here. More liberal staffing of more associate (normal?) schools appears to me to be the answer. Is there any valid reason why methods of teaching should not be taken in the colleges almost wholly by practising teachers especially appointed to the associate schools. Such teachers should not be responsible for all the work of their classes but should be released for extensive periods for reading and preparation. I feel that it is in such normal schools that theory and practice will combine in the best interests of the children, their teachers and the student teachers. This topic is developed more fully in the final chapter.

It is a criticism made by many teachers that students spend too long in writing in their observation books. Students, however, express the opinion that since the books are assessed by the college when the school section is over, they must be fully entered. This is another aspect of the same problem of associate teachers with varying standards and demands. It becomes the task of the colleges to establish some uniformity in the organisation of student practice. The observation book is used to help in serving this purpose but it should be regarded as being functional and not an end in
itself.\(^1\) At present too much time is often spent on unnec-
essary entries much of the substance of which is contained in
syllabuses issued by the Education Department. More could be
spent on field studies in spite of the effects of occasional
ill-considered comments passed by a few somewhat antagonistic
or embittered associate teachers. These studies could be of
real value in subsequent college discussions.\(^2\) They could,
if well done, form the basis of a New Zealand study parallell-
ing those of Gesell at the Yale Clinic of Child Development.\(^3\)
By such directed study the student teacher would gain a real
understanding of children and of the principles of child develop-
ment. His study and directed observation should enable him
"to distinguish between the principles which have won acceptance
and those which have not; and in the absence of a knowledge of
research technique on the part of at least a proportion of

\(^1\) Many American colleges issue guide books with finely item-
ised questions set for students to answer. e.g., "A Guide-
book of Observation and Student Teaching" - J.C.Dewey and
T.K.Coltry.
C.S.Payne in an article, "Observation by Student Teachers"
\(^2\) in the "Elementary School Journal" suggests a systematic
guide sheet for a "limited area of observation."

\(^3\) Vide: "The Use of Field Studies in Teaching Educational
Psychology", article by Zerfoss and Moore in "Journal of
(They describe the teaching procedures in a first course of
educational psychology in which attention is focussed on the
"principles and facts of learning."

\(^3\) Gesell: "The First Five Years of Life" and Gesell and Ilg
"The Child from Five to Ten."
teachers many valuable investigations could not be carried out."  

The modern teacher should be able to handle standardised tests of intelligence and attainment and should be skilled in diagnosing individual difficulties. Although in present lecture courses students discuss and handle the materials of such tests they seldom see teachers using them in the practising schools. Where they are used at all, the conclusions drawn are not always accurate.

**Student and school:**

One of the greatest difficulties encountered by students and probationary assistants alike is the position of inferiority allotted to them in a few associate schools. No student or young teacher can remain purposefully enthusiastic when he is rebuffed at every turn, when he is not admitted in the staffroom or when he is expected to carry out all the menial tasks therein or is used as messenger to the remainder of the staff. Schools for democracy should surely all be run on democratic lines. Frequently also students feel a cleavage between their own educational faith and the old and tried ways. The training institutions should be growing points of the educational system, and at a time when ideas are changing they

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1. Fyfe Report "The Training of Teachers" Scottish Education Department, p.15.

2. See p.51.
have a difficult dual function: they must inspire the students with the new educational ideals, yet they must also prepare them to conduct the schools as they are, sometimes by methods that they may be constrained to adopt against their own convictions. "1 Herein lies the course of most of the criticism to which the training colleges are subjected. Their attempts to give the student an enduring set in a new direction are often misinterpreted as a loss of contact with schools and with the classroom situation. If they fail, however, or if the student obeys the instruction sometimes given by headmasters that he must forget "training college theory and get down to tin-tacks" he gradually loses his new educational faith, and the leadership of the training colleges is largely wasted.

It is all the more important, therefore, that students (and probationary assistants) be sent only to suitable schools and classes where the teachers are also imbued with ideals based on a modern view of education and are sympathetic towards beginners. 2 Even then he will probably require more assistance than can often be given by busy teachers, and the training colleges should be the natural sources of further help. (See Chap. 5).

Rural Training: It will be apparent from the brief survey in Chapter 3, VIII that training for rural schools cannot be

1. Fyfe Report, p. 54.
carried out in a city school. All that can be accomplished is a demonstration of organisation of groups and time-tables. When the model schools were first created this was of some immediate benefit to young teachers many of whom would, the year after training college, be found in sole charge schools. The recency of model school practice meant some confidence in organising the classes and individuals the young sole-teacher found in his earliest real position.

To-day, however, according to figures taken out by Mr. A.E. Campbell, Director of Educational Research, there are fewer sole-teacher positions. In 1920 there were 1338 sole-charge teachers, 25% of the primary service. Since 1935 when the number was 1377 (22%) the number has fallen rapidly to 825 in 1947, representing only 11.9% of teachers. Of women, only 6.6% are now in sole teacherships, whereas the proportion was 27.0% in 1920. Comparative percentages for men are 19% and 23.5%. In 1920, 71% of the teachers were women. By 1947 women occupied only 31% of the sole teacher positions. Also, sole-charge teaching occupies a later place in a teacher's career. The 1938 salaries scale increased the attractiveness of the sole teacher school. The positions were sought as promotion by teachers of some years' experience. Three years in a country position became necessary in order to advance to positions of higher salary while full marks for organisation were obtainable only by those who had successfully managed a school for themselves. Congestion in the upper range of the
teachers' graded list led experienced teachers to go to the country in order to gain in grading. Later still, men returning from some years of life in the services were often confronted with housing problems. In order to solve them, they frequently turned to advertisements of positions with houses - country positions. In order to gain settled conditions of life they have applied for and gained sole-teacherships far below the positions their grading would entitle them to hold.

Consequently, sole-charge work is not now undertaken by immediate ex-students of the colleges. This explains a recent statement by the Director of Education:

"From the figures available to the Department it appears that very few teachers proceed to sole-teacherships directly from their probationary assistantship year. The returns show that, in general, from four to six years elapse before these young teachers go into sole-charge schools." 1

The facts of continued urban drift of New Zealand's population, improvements in transport and consolidation of schools, considered together with those above indicate that the present method of training for rural teaching is probably seriously outdated. Some system of realistic in-service training of new appointees seems to be a far better

solution. "It therefore appears, that to give sole-charge teachers the maximum of help at the time when it is most needed the appointment of organising teachers is indicated and not more practice in model schools during the Training College course." 1 There appears, however, to be continued need for trained women assistants for country schools. Should their training, however, differ from that of other teachers who will work in infant and junior classes (often composite)? Training for sole and two teacher schools is no longer one of the major problems of the training colleges. Simple solutions appear possible. (See Chap. 5.)

Secondary Training:

The provisions at Auckland Training College appear to remedy the position decried by Tate 2 but many intending entrants to post-primary teaching are not in touch with the course nor do they have their special needs met even as well as previously. If Auckland post-primary schools could take more students, or if the course could be lengthened to two years in college, the increased numbers would allow for greater specialisation among lecturing staff and would more adequately fulfil the needs of many near-graduates who intend entering the post-primary service.

It would appear also that there is little justification in sending graduates to Auckland instead of to

1. IBID.
2. Wide supra p. 26
the southern colleges when these students are not entering
the post primary service. Their needs could be met individ-
ually in the other colleges as most graduates are academically
proficient. The college course would not make undue demands
upon their time which could be given to gaining knowledge of
children, of schools and principles of teaching. Academic
work is heaviest for those with inadequate degrees as shown
above (p.63). That intending entrants to the postprimary
service need assistance in planning their degrees is patent.

Continuous Teaching:

An attempt to meet another difficulty, that of
gaining continuous practice as a responsible member of a school
staff, has been made in different ways in different places but
in no case adequately. To develop good relationships between
himself and the children he is teaching and to return after a
period to a study of his discovered problems and an evaluation
of procedures requires a different organisation from any yet
seen in New Zealand or reported elsewhere.

Periods of practice in the courses in England
and Scotland vary considerably from college to college. There
seems to be three main methods of provision: continuous periods
of practice in schools under the supervision of the staff of the
training college, teaching practice on certain days of the week
similar to the New Zealand system, and some form of demonstration
or criticism lesson. In the two year course, "block practice"

1. "The Training of Teachers" Report of a Committee of Inves-
tigation appointed by the Executive of the National Union of
Teachers, 1939, p.49.
is taken in two, three or more periods of two, three or four weeks, the total amount in English training institutions ranging from six to twelve weeks. All periods, however, are considered by observers to be too short. In the words of a Local Authority inspector: "I am quite sure that teachers under present arrangements do not get sufficient practical teaching before going out into school life as certified teachers. One is not blaming the Training Colleges; they have an impossible task with the weight of academic and practical work which has to be covered in two years. The time which can be devoted to school practice as a result is quite inadequate for its purpose." 1

Nor is the position in Australian systems much better. Usually the continuous practice is done either weekly throughout the year or in concentrated periods towards the end of each term. Beside these the students have observation, demonstration and criticism lessons in the schools. At Armidale Teachers' College for instance, demonstration lessons are taken in a special room large enough to hold all the students of one college year, as well as the class. Two such lessons are given each week to each college year. In addition, second year students observe demonstrations in small schools. Continuous practice teaching occupies six weeks in the first year (two weeks each term) and nine weeks in the second term (three weeks each term.) A further two weeks of unsupervised

1. "The Training of Teachers" Report of a Committee of Investigation appointed by the Executive of the National Union of Teachers, 1939, p.49.
teaching is done by second year students in their home towns in the first two weeks of the school year, before the college year begins. Students of Sydney Teachers' College do fourteen weeks in all. Usually two students are attached to one class and if possible ten to a school or department thereby simplifying the work of supervisors.  

The various types of American training systems allow little time for practical training and demonstrations, and usually place them relatively late in the students' course.

None of these organisations would remedy the situation noted in Chapter 3, V, p.58 where it is pointed out that students feel the need of periods on their own resources. That this defect is not peculiar to New Zealand is shown by the following passage from a recent report from Scotland.  

"We are of the opinion that all of them (plans of organisation) are defective in one important respect. It is, in our view, essential that the teacher-student should have an adequate period of continuous teaching with virtually independent charge of a class. Only in this way is he able to enter fully into the day-to-day life and work of the school and class; only in this way can we overcome the artificiality of the present arrangement under which the student has little or no experience in managing a class without the presence of the class teacher and  

2. Fyfe Report, p.22.
perhaps also a methods lecturer. Disciplinary problems do not arise under such a system, and the opportunities of judging the student's real teaching capacity are limited."

Our probationary assistantship year could possibly be adapted if it were really regarded as a third year of training but frequent visits by a supervisor as well as by the headmaster would be necessary.

Among some, particularly the older, teachers there is still a fondness for a lengthy pre-college period of practice. On the grounds alone of the necessity of critical evaluation of observed practice in the light of accepted principles before techniques are acquired, and of the integration of college courses with practical training such a period is undesirable. The break caused by pre-college service in the students' post-primary studies and the difficulty of modification of personal qualities if the training college period is deferred are additional reasons for deciding against a lengthy practice period before college.¹

In spite of the above consideration more could be done to give students a feeling of responsibility and to help all young teachers in their earliest positions. In-service training would serve to supply some of the needs felt by present teachers. In 1920, the Educational Authority of Kent sent 20

¹ The results of two investigations into this question are given in Appendix II of the N.U.T. report on "The Training of Teachers," 1939.
teachers of varying ages and experience to Goldsmith's Training College, London, for a period of four weeks. The teacher went to the college in term time and became to all intents and purposes students of the college for the time being. Special lectures were arranged and the teachers were assigned a special common room, they shared social and recreational life and attended some of the ordinary lectures. Great use was made of the college Library. According to one headmaster - "Ideals of work were revived which in the general round are often forgotten and the course sent us back with renewed faith in our work and increased energy to solve the problems awaiting us."

With this system should be compared our New Zealand refresher courses held in Christmas vacations with panels of tired lecturers who have spent the few weeks prior to the course in preparation of notes and materials.

An organisation could be worked out providing for in-service training as in the Kentish experiment and for continuous student practice at the same time. It would require extra staffing in the colleges but it could have the additional advantage of supplying a more adequately trained body of associate teachers. See Chapter 5.
CHAPTER 5.

SOME CONCLUSIONS.

From the foregoing survey of the practical training of student teachers the following conclusions appear to emerge:

Several associate schools replacing the normal schools should be attached to each training college. The staff of each such school should be chosen with great care for suitability for this type of work (not necessarily for their grading) and should be adequately paid. In such schools two or three students to a class should be regarded as the maximum and the teachers should not be required to teach all day; i.e., there should be supernumerary members, the organisation allowing some of the staff to be free for discussions or for taking method lessons in the college. The method staff of the college would speak with more authority if they were practising teachers and this organisation is suggested as an alternative to that of secondment advocated by the McNaIR Report.1

Such schools would serve a threefold purpose. They would be in closer touch with the colleges than are the present practising schools; they would facilitate teaching and visits by training college staff members, and also the concentration of associate teachers would enable co-ordination and closer relationships with the college. There is at present

1. "Teachers and Youth Leaders" p. 82.
a need for more definite direction as to what and how to observe in the schools.

The teachers of such schools also could be called into college for refresher courses and discussions on teacher training, their places being taken by second year students. This would give students the necessary period on their own resources, and even if associate schools as above are deemed inadvisable there is little reason why associate teachers could not give up their classes to second year students and attend the college in groups. Such refresher courses would be stimulating and teachers would return to their classes more adequately equipped to supervise the practical training of students.

A further suggestion is that some members of the training college staffs, after a two year acquaintance with students, follow these students into the schools as a supervisor in their third year of training. The suggestion contained in the E 1 Reports of 1947 and 1948 that there be interchange of members of training college staffs and of the inspectorate, appears to be a good one, but the supervisor who could give most assistance to probationary assistants could not also be an inspector. This is realised throughout the body of practising teachers. A grading officer cannot establish the relations necessary for helping young teachers solve their most urgent problems. They would turn more readily to men in whom they have learned to place confidence over the previous two years.
In regard to rural training, one is forced to the conclusion that the present scheme is an anachronism and also that the model sole-charge schools are so artificial that there is little excuse for their retention, especially when such a time must elapse before a young teacher's appointment to a country school. Some of them could be converted into Model II schools. To give practice when it is most needed, i.e., on a teacher's appointment to such a school, each Board should re-introduce model schools in its own area. These should be typical sole-charge schools under good teachers who should receive extra remuneration for the additional work involved. In such schools also appointees to sole-teacher positions could begin to gain some sympathy with and understanding of the farmer community prerequisites to successful work in rural schools. There should be close co-ordination between their work in model schools and that in the rural courses in the colleges; e.g., were the Newlands and Ohiro Bay schools in the Wellington area constituted model schools, their rural nature and organisation would, under a good teacher, supply the major needs of the Wellington Education Board's district in observation and practice for sole-charge teachers.

A major conclusion concerns the training of graduate entrants. It appears that the course should be only for post-primary teaching. Graduate entrants to the primary service should be trained with other entrants to that branch. More important than this, however, is the conclusion that, as
stated in the Fyfe Report, the professional and academic courses should run concurrently:

"they are complementary parts bound together by a regulative central purpose." 1.

This being so, it seems that most students should be accepted for the post-primary course not after graduation but when their degrees are nearing completion. The course could then be extended to two years without loss of time, and adequate practical training could be combined with directed observation and evaluation. Degree courses could then be planned (at least in their final stages) to contain teaching subjects, and valuable time would not be lost in adding subjects to a degree already completed. The additional numbers consequent upon admitting students before they complete their degrees should not embarrass the Auckland schools for, in two years' practice, students could add to their practical training some very desirable experience in primary schools and social services such as speech clinics and youth centres.

In the practical training of third year specialists a danger of standardisation is seen in the tendency to send all third year students in a subject (e.g. Art) to one centre. Here the observation and practice combined with the study course will be similar for all students and the individual variation apparent when students were trained in their own colleges will

tend to disappear. Adjustment to the new college and some
new techniques will lessen the effectiveness of practice in
the schools, and the limited field of observation will make
for stereotyping subjects throughout New Zealand.

Anyone investigating the practical training of
student teachers or any other branch of teacher training, will
be forced to the conclusion that there is need for far more
frequent conferences between the staffs of the five institu-
tions, for discussions of aims and procedures and particularly,
on the part of the Education Department, for a clear definition
of the position of the training colleges in the Education Sys-
tem of New Zealand. Only from a clear statement of aims can
organisation be planned and achievements be evaluated. The
organisation of practical training calls for a conference of
the College Principals and the lecturers in Education and
Principles of Teaching.

Finally: the most apparent conclusion is,
that the whole training course must be longer, enabling more
effective school work to proceed concurrently with the cultural
and academic courses, in the latter of which the University
should take a larger place.
Teaching Practice: Suggestions for Students (Wellington Teachers’ Training College.)

Your school section is regarded as field work where you observe in action the principles of education and lines of child development you have studied and discussed in College, and where you practise with the example and help of experienced teachers. At first your main work is to observe, reflect and keep notes of your observations.

"Report first to the Headmaster by 8.45 and carry out his instructions. You are temporarily attached to his staff, and should share the duties about the school with other teachers. Keenness will be appreciated. Remember you will get out of your section about as much as you put into it.

Section Book: In normal circumstances this should contain:

(a) Title page - Name of School; Class, Headmaster, Associate Teacher; and period of your school section, with special note of unusual circumstances, e.g. absence, relieving or shortened section.

(b) Index: Pages allotted to each heading.

(c) Plan of Classroom: Note use of names in class management.

(d) Class time-table: Particularly the analysis showing time per week allotted to each subject.

(e) Scheme extracts: Read right through the scheme and, if possible that of class below and one above, to understand stage of work of class and sequence of lessons. Copy parts you consider useful. Cf., however, recent revisions of the Syllabus in Arithmetic, English, Social Studies, etc.

(f) Excerpts from Teachers’ Daily and Weekly Plan of Work. Copy a typical double page with its full entries.

(g) General Observation:

Do not try to take in everything at once, but give definite attention to such matters as the following in turn: General organisation of the school - assemblies - classes. Classroom organisation and routine - distribution and collection of books and materials, arrangements for milk, apples, meals, games (supervision), - teachers’ methods with various classes, development of lessons, projects, etc., - asking and answering of questions - use of blackboards - use made of pitch and volume of voice - use of visual and auditory aids. Changing from lesson to lesson - morning talks, etc.

Behaviour of children (e.g. how they sit, listen, speak, react to orders, respond to matters of discipline; observe the children in the playground and on the way to and from the classrooms). Notes on topics raised by your reading and college discussions. Visits to places of interest (e.g. Museum, beach, etc.) Visits to school by Dental Nurse, School Doctor, inspector, etc. Lighting, ventilation, Heating, supply and use of washing facilities. Savings Bank - Parents Association, etc.
(h) **Observation Lessons:** Teachers will usually tell you when you are to observe a particular lesson or period. You will write full notes on such periods and discuss them with your associate in preparation for taking a similar lesson yourself. The observation lesson is to demonstrate how the class is usually handled and to show you where your own lesson fits into the development of a theme. Only by discussion of your observation notes with the associate teacher will you appreciate the more subtle points of the lesson, particularly the finer techniques of method.

(i) **Special Lessons:** You will probably be required, in general, to take two special lessons per day over the last 4 weeks, the lessons being spread judiciously over all the subjects of the curriculum. One of these may be a formal or routine lesson, - spelling, arithmetic, comprehension, etc. Such lessons, after the first one or two, need writing up only in brief outline.

The other special lesson - Nature Study, Artwork, Craft, Music, Science, etc. should be written up in detail showing aims, scope and general plan of presentation as discussed at the College. Blackboard illustration and blackboard lesson-summary should be shown in the notes.

The associate teacher will give you helpful criticism of your lesson. Your book, with the lesson fully written up, should be placed on the teacher's table for this purpose prior to the lesson. N.B. Where, as in the Model Schools, a different setting-out of lessons is appropriate, accept your associate's advice in planning.

(j) **Apparatus, Devices and Equipment:** Enter names of class books, class sets, library books, suitable pictures. Make sketches and notes on use of apparatus and devices used in teaching, also notes on environment, use of radio, loudspeaker system, film projectors, etc. Methods of display of children's work.

(k) **Samples of Work:** For the sake of later reference collect representative samples of children's work e.g. in writing, in setting-out of arithmetic, in essays, etc.

(l) **Log:** This should be a clear and faithful record of how each day is spent. It should show hourly or 20 minute periods, and should indicate clearly what you were doing in each such period. It must be presented to your associate teacher (preferably daily) for initialing. This part of your record will be carefully checked at the College when your book is handed in. It should be ready also for perusal by any visiting lecturer.

Your section book must be handed in at College immediately your section is over. It is due your first day back at College.
Blackboard Work:

Great improvement can be made in your blackboard writing and illustration if you are prepared to practice (e.g. in wet lunch hours, etc.) Teachers will usually be glad to provide blackboard space and to give useful hints.

You will visit the schools as helpful observers not as critics. Heads and Staffs of schools are very ready to welcome you and help you, but do not add to their already heavy task by encroaching too much on their goodwill. On the other hand they appreciate enthusiasm.

Remember for your own special lessons the facilities (books, filmstrips and pictures, etc.) available from the Training College Library. Any of the lecturers will be glad to assist you with preparation and suggestions.

APPENDIX II.

MEMORANDUM FOR STUDENTS ATTACHED TO MODEL SCHOOLS.

In general, Model School Sections will be for a period of six weeks.

During your stay you are required to keep steadily in view the purpose of the section, which is the provision of a short, intensive course in the study and practice of teaching, simultaneously, of several classes, or groups of classes. While the general principles of classroom technique must not be overlooked, every effort should be made to familiarise yourself with the details of organisation essential to the smooth running of such a room. Primarily then, the period is one for the study of organisation. With this end in view, all your observation periods will involve observation of the teaching, simultaneously, of all classes. Similarly your Teaching Practice will be with all classes, and not confined to any particular class or group of classes.

During the course of the period provision will be made for:

(a) Observation of every period.
(b) Eight hours teaching, spread over the period, of all classes.
(c) Further observation of all periods.
(d) Application of principles outlined in the "Handbook of Suggestions for Teachers."

Your work will be organised as follows:

FIRST WEEK:

TUESDAY: General Observation of classroom routine and organisation. Work on Section Book.

WEDNESDAY:
(a) Specific Observation of the period 9 - 10.30.
(b) General Observation, and further work on Section Book.
FRIDAY:  
(a) Specific Observation of the period 10.15 - 12.
(b) Preparation of teaching period for following Tuesday.

SECOND WEEK:

TUESDAY:  
(a) Teaching a short morning period.
(b) Specific Observation 1.15 - 2.16 afternoon.
(c) Preparation of Wednesday’s teaching period.

WEDNESDAY:  
(a) Teaching period.
(b) Specific Observation 2.20 - 3.20 period.
(c) Preparation of Friday’s teaching period.

FRIDAY:  
(a) Teaching a longer period.
(b) Preparation of Tuesday’s teaching period.

THIRD WEEK and following weeks - Progression of above.

This organization of work will provide you with at least eight hours teaching practice. Your teaching will be spread over as many different periods of the day as possible, while all periods between 9 a.m. and 12 will be covered at least once, these being more difficult than afternoon periods which generally provide for cultural and manual activities and so permit of wider grouping of classes. Again, certain morning periods present in general, greater difficulties than others. Where it is considered necessary these may be repeated, together with those periods that present particular difficulties to individual students, subject, of course to the provision that all students will be required to teach all morning periods at least once.

Control periods will be assigned to you not later than the day preceding that on which you will be required to take them. Not only will this afford you ample time for preparation, but it will also enable you frequently to secure additional observation of the period of next day’s teaching.

OBSERVATION

Your notes on observation periods will be somewhat shorter in respect of each lesson than would be accepted in an ordinary classroom, because of the difficulties of taking down full notes on all lessons covered during even a half hour period. They must, however, stress:

(a) Blackboard and other preparation.
(b) Spread of teacher’s attention over the several groups, viz.,
   (1) Assisting groups to get under way.
   (2) Actual teaching of new work.
   (3) Supervision of all those groups not immediately being taught, and
   (4) Correction of work during the course of the period.
You will note that the teacher's organisation of a period is not necessarily precisely the same from day to day. It has behind it, however, certain generally accepted principles. Observe particularly that:

(1) Adequate blackboard and other preparation frees the attention of the teacher from the claims of the older pupils at the commencement of each period.
(2) When several groups seek assistance the teacher invariably goes to the younger group, the older pupils being so much better equipped to work on their own initiative.
(3) The first few minutes of each period are spent with the beginners.
(4) Careful supervision is exercised over all pupils, not merely those who are immediately being taught.
(5) Frequent contact is made with all groups. No group can claim to be neglected and the general impression is created that the teacher is fully aware of everything that is going on.
(6) Corrections, as far as possible, are being kept up to date. They are usually completed within the period and not allowed to accumulate.

In your observation notes indicate specifically how the teacher spreads her attention over several groups. This be your main guide in the setting out of your own lesson notes, and the principal basis of the teacher's criticism of your teaching. Your entries should show the time, the group with which the teacher is immediately engaged, and the subject being studied, and should give some indication of the nature, and extent of the work, and of the method employed.

The form of setting out will cover the requirements for your teaching periods. Once again, it should be noted that you are not required to adhere in detail to the teacher's distribution of time amongst the various groups. Nor is it essential, or even always desirable, to keep rigorously to the plan set out in your own lesson notes. It is essential, however, that you have a plan, and that wherever you depart from it your organisation is still consistent with the preceding suggestions.

**Blackboard Practice.** This should, if possible, be provided for daily. Definite exercises should be done outside the classroom in order to improve technical efficiency. (See Writing Scheme for style - syllabus of Instruction for Primary Schools).

**Section Book.**
At the close of your period in the Model School your record book should include:
(a) Observation periods.
(b) Lesson notes for Teaching Periods set out.
(c) An account of the peculiar difficulties confronting a teacher in this type of room - difficulties arising from the wide range of classes for which the teacher is required simultaneously to provide.
(d) Devices used by the teacher to overcome these difficult
i. Thorough preparation of lessons, Workbook, Blackboards.
ii. Grouping of classes.
iii. Use of available pupil power to assist with the
little ones.
iv. Methods devised to develop the powers of initiative
and self reliance, and the use of types of lessons
whereby the older pupils may be left increasingly
more and more to their own devices.
(e) Read the Scheme of Work having a bearing on the particular
problems presented by the room, and make notes.
(f) Note the text books used by pupil and by teacher.
(g) Projects and other individual or group work being carried
out by the pupils.
(h) Copies of poetry, etc.
(i) Charts, diagrams, and any other teaching devices and
aids used in the room.
(j) A Child Study.

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APPENDIX III.

DUNEDIN TRAINING COLLEGE

TEACHING PRACTICE AND OBSERVATION - HINTS FOR STUDENTS.

1. In compliance with the Education Board's by-law, students
should be in their classrooms not later than 8.45 a.m.

2. During a practice period in a school, students are directly
under the authority of the Headmaster in matters relating
to absence, playground supervision, sports, and other school
activities.

3. It is expected that students will interest themselves in the
class-work and in individual pupils, and that they will assume
a co-operative, helpful way some responsibility for the
efficient management of the room.

4. Assessments of teaching efficiency will naturally vary from
student to student; it is, however, expected that all students
will earn the highest rating in such matters as punctuality,
conduct and attitude.

5. Keep an exercise book to be used only when in the Practising
Schools.

6. Draw a plan of the classroom showing the arrangement of
furniture in regard to lighting, and the floor space per pupil.
Learn as soon as possible the names of the pupils. Get
familiar with the marking of the Register of Daily attendance.
7. Copy the class timetable and study the organisation of lesson throughout the day and week - length of periods and number of periods in different subjects. Note how oral work is alternated with written work and how the change-over between lessons is arranged.

8. Study the scheme of work for the class, paying special attention to aims and general methods. Copy these into your exercise book. Consult the Syllabus and note how the scheme has been developed from the Syllabus.

9. Make a detailed observation of at least one lesson daily - note, in general, the place of the lesson in a series - what has come before and what is to follow. Deal with all school subjects in turn.

NOTE: (a) how the lesson is introduced, interest aroused,
(b) the development of the lesson step by step,
(c) the methods of emphasizing the most important points so that they may be remembered,
(d) the use of the blackboard and other aids to teaching,
(e) the degree to which child activity is developed.

10. Consider the extent to which pupils enter into the general activities of the class, e.g. taking charge of suitable aspects of the work, e.g. Assembly - in the absence of the teacher; in the decoration and tidiness of the room; in lessons which lend themselves to active participation by the class.

11. Note methods of maintaining interest:
(a) throughout the lesson - by varying methods of attack and giving the pupils an active part,
(b) throughout the day - by alternation of oral and written work; by short periods of intensive work alternated with periods of less intensive concentration; by interspersing music, physical exercises, etc.

12. Note, for future guidance, any special apparatus used, reference to books, suitable poems for treatment, etc.

13. Collect and file in compact form samples of good work in the various subjects and classes. These will be a useful guide as to standards later.
APPENDIX IV.
DUNEDIN TRAINING COLLEGE.

REPORT FROM SCHOOLS TO COLLEGE.

Name:
School: Cl
Class:
Period:
Required at College or University:
Lessons:
Headmaster:
Class Teacher:

SUMMARY:

Hours employed in Practice:
Observation:
TOTAL:

Gen. Valuation:

Head Teacher:
Scale - Ex., V.G., G., V.F., F., Inf.

Date

Special Lesson for Class Teacher

CLASS TEACHER'S GENERAL REPORT

Phys., Educ.:
Punctuality:
Preparation:
Control:
Interest Aroused:
Skill in Questioning:
Use of Blackboard:
Teaching Aids:
Amount of Work effectively covered:
Notes:

General Valuation:

Date

ADDITIONAL REMARKS

Class Teacher.
APPENDIX V.

CHRISTCHURCH TEACHERS' TRAINING COLLEGE.

Observation Directions.

1. (a) Draw a plan of the classroom, showing arrangement of furniture and desks in regard to lighting. Show dimensions, and work out floor space per pupil. Learn the names of the pupils from your plans of the seats.
   (b) At least two schools draw a rough sketch of school grounds showing any plan of beautification, e.g. provision of shade, arrangements for pleasant vistas on paths and for pleasing views from classroom windows, playing areas, flower beds, screening of outhouses, etc.

2. Copy the timetable and analysis. Make a written note of the length and number of periods in the various subjects and also how the changeover between lessons is arranged.

3. Read carefully the scheme of work for the class, paying special attention to general aims and methods. DO NOT MAKE A COPY. Summarise the salient points and avoid repetition in one school of what you have already learned in another. Make notes to show what amount of ground is to be covered in a term and in a year. In infant departments or where the selection or arrangement of topics is of special interest, fuller notes will be taken.

4. Examine the workbook and transcribe the entries for one week's work, or in infant classes, for one day.

5. (a) First year students are required to observe lessons or series of lessons in every timetable subject in each five-week period.
   (b) Second year students should get a more general and consecutive record of the teaching of the various subjects; e.g. in Arithmetic, a series of lessons should show the general attack of that subject.
   In the infant and junior divisions where fewer set lessons are taken than in the upper classes, students should note in detail how a particular subject is treated and how individual or group teaching is organised with full notes of apparatus and teaching aids, e.g. matching games in reading.

6. It is not possible to formulate a plan for observation that will suit all types of lessons but in general the student will note the following:
   (a) How the work is motivated or how it is linked with previous lessons.
   (b) Methods of arousing and maintaining interest.
   (c) The active part taken by the children.
   (d) The development step by step.
   (e) The extent to which question and answer are used and the nature and extent of pupils' questions.
(f) The correlation, if any, with other subjects.
(g) The use of the blackboard, actual objects, pictures and visual aids generally.
(h) Methods of testing the matter taught, of diagnosing individual difficulties.
(i) Methods used to emphasise and to recapitulate the salient points.
(j) Activities arising from lesson, e.g. individual reading and research, projects, graphic or dramatic work.
(k) Useful points in organisation and control.

7. Observation should be written observation.

8. List special apparatus used, useful reference books, suitable poems; songs and supplementary readers. Note methods of organisation both inside and outside the classroom, e.g. ability grouping, individual work, how school or class library is organised, the use of monitors and committees, playground supervision and provision for emergencies - first aid, etc., sports and practices.

9. Where possible, collect samples of written and graphic work so that you may have a standard of attainment by which to judge future pupils at the same stage. Consult and obtain the permission of the class teacher before doing so.

10. At the head of each entry write school, class, and date. As soon as entry is made, note it in the Index.

**LESSON PLANS.**

School: 
Subject: 
Topic: 
Date: 
Duration: 

**Apparatus:** Enumerate the aids e.g., maps, apparatus, illustrations etc. to be used in the lesson.

**General Aim:** State here in general terms the aim of the subject you are going to teach.

**Specific Aim:** Briefly state, what particular part of the subject you are setting out to teach.

**Assumed Knowledge:** Where necessary, briefly state the knowledge you assume the children have without which as a basis you could not give your lesson.

**Adjustment of Attention:** State concisely how you intend to arouse the interest and consequently the attention of your pupils with regard to the subject you are about to teach. This should be done in such a way that the pupils are eager to go on to the lesson. There are innumerable ways of doing this, e.g.,

(a) by questioning to assist recall of experience or knowledge which is to form the basis of the lesson.
(b) by showing objects, pictures, specimens or other visual aids and questioning thereon.
(c) by some form of pupil activity arising from a previous lesson, previous or everyday experience or a skill already mastered.
(d) by an experiment
(e) by arousing their curiosity, or their imagination in a simple manner.
(f) by stating clearly and vividly the reason for the lesson to be taught or the problem to be solved so that the work involved becomes worthwhile to the children. The children should know what is to be attempted; the lesson should not be of the nature of a "mystery hike".
(g) by creating an atmosphere in which the poem or other work of art may be appreciated.

Important points to be noted:
1. The adjustment of attention must be brief.
2. It must be an integral part of the lesson – the beginning.

Assimilation of New Material:

Before commencing this part of your plan, arrange your new material in graded steps following the adjustment of attention. This forms the matter you are going to teach and it is usually wise to rough out these on a spare piece of paper.

In your actual plan state the first step concisely and with it show the methods you intend to adopt to teach it, i.e. what you are going to teach and how you are going to teach it, e.g. the pivotal questions you intend to ask, where and how you intend to utilise your visual aids, the "pupil activity" such as dramatisation, research from tables, dictionaries or material already collected, and so on using as many of the "channels of instruction" as possible.

The second and subsequent steps will be treated in a similar manner and therefore this part, the body of your plan, will show the development of the topic, step by step, each step showing both matter and procedure. The final step will often be recapitulatory in which the threads of the lesson will be drawn together and the salient points emphasised.

Organisation of new material:

State the material used for the pupils to apply the skill or knowledge taught e.g. problems or exercises set to give practice, written or graphic exercises, projects, research work (group or individual) as the conclusion of the lesson or as future work arising from the lesson.

Blackboard Summary:

Show the summary you intend to have on the Blackboard at the conclusion of the lesson or if you are teaching a skill show the examples you will use as models.
CHRISTCHURCH TEACHERS' TRAINING COLLEGE.

General Procedure in Teacher-Training.

(For Headmasters and Associated Teachers.)

A. Observation.

1. Teaching periods are usually of five weeks. The first week is to be devoted to active observation of which suitable notes are to be taken. During this week schemes, timetables, work-book, etc., may be studied, this work to be continued throughout the period. Teachers are asked to help in this matter by discussing with students the functions of these records in such a way that they are seen as practical solutions of practical problems. The student should look to the teacher for direction and guidance in fulfilling these requirements.

2. Detailed Observation.
   (a) First year students are required to observe lessons or series of lessons in every timetable subject in each five-week period.
   (b) Second year students should get a more general and consecutive record of the teaching of the various subjects; e.g. in Arithmetic, a series of lessons should show the general attack on that subject.

   In the infant and junior divisions where fewer set lessons are taken than in the upper classes, students should note in detail how a particular subject is treated and how individual or group teaching is organised with full notes of apparatus and teaching aids, e.g. matching games in reading.

3. Teachers are asked to assist students in noting various methods of organisation within the classroom, e.g. ability grouping, individual work, how school or class library is organised, the selection of monitors or committees for suitable aspects of work; special apparatus used, and standards of work achieved in various subjects in a particular class; supervision of playground and various sports. Names of useful reference books, suitable supplementary readers, poems and songs should be made available, so that students may make lists for future reference.

B. Teaching.

1. Special lessons, fully prepared, at least two per week and more if possible, should be given by the student in all but the first week. Where individual or group methods of teaching are used, e.g. in infant departments, students' prepared lessons should be modelled accordingly on the lines observed. The College emphatically does not expect class teaching if that is not the practice of the teacher.

2. Written criticism of each lesson is required. Such written criticism, on the lines of the College report, is of
great value to students, and in no way prejudices further work, as each student begins a new lesson-plan book in each new school. The most effective way seems to be to enter comments as the lesson proceeds and to follow up with an informal chat upon the points noted.

3. Choice of lesson subjects should not be left entirely to the student. Teachers should oversee choice of lessons in such a way that students gradually gain experience over the whole curriculum. Each student will record a summary of lessons previously taken, and this will be an indication to the teacher of the subjects most in need of practice.

4. Group teaching is encouraged provided it is sufficiently guided and supervised by the teacher.

5. Any prepared lesson may be taken with only a section of the class, or may be any part of group or project work for which the student is responsible.

6. Second Year Students should each be allowed a half-day's control (preferably morning), when all preparation of materials, blackboards, apparatus and lesson plans should be the entire responsibility of the student. One lesson should be prepared in detail and the others covered by brief notes of procedure.

C. Organisation and Routine.

1. Students should be in the classroom ten minutes before the time fixed for the commencement of school work.

2. In addition to observation and teaching, the student should be given practice in all phases of a teacher's work, especially in: - blackboard writing; correction of work; estimating the quality of pupils' work; construction of charts and other teaching aids; keeping registers, and record cards; supervision of playground and conducting sports practices.

3. Daily Registers of Attendance. One for each associated class will be sent from the College. The first student to attend in each term should, in each class, make out the "student's Register" from the Class Register. Thereafter the roll will be kept parallel with that of the class teacher for the period the student is attached to the class. Each student must enter his signature at the end of the period for which he made the entries.

Would teachers please co-operate by filing this circular, for ready reference.
APPENDIX VI.

AUCKLAND TEACHERS' TRAINING COLLEGE CALENDAR

EXTRACT FROM SECTION ON "PRACTICAL TRAINING"

SPECIAL ADVICE TO STUDENTS ON SECTION.

(a) As soon as possible come to a friendly understanding with your associate teacher.

(b) Show yourself willing at all times to be of service to your associate teacher, to the class or the school.

(c) Take fullest advantage of every opportunity offered you of improving your technique or of gaining experience.

(d) Besides being punctual in the morning do not be anxious to leave school too promptly in the afternoon.

(e) In dress, speech and attitude see that you set high standards as a professional man or woman.

(f) Remember that, from the very first day, the children will be studying you; whatever impression they then form of you they will retain during the whole section. In teaching, especially, first impressions are most important.

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APPENDIX VII.

A TYPICAL OBSERVATION LESSON: (as entered in student's book.)

Lesson: Literature "Moby Dick" ("Adventures in Lit." Bk. 2.)

Class: Stds. 4, 5, 6 composite.

Time: 10.45 - 12.0

Aim: To widen child's experience through books.

Method: Read story from book. Extract from "Moby Dick", individual children reading a paragraph each. Unless interest is sustained this story is apt to become boring because of long complex sentences and difficult words to pronounce. The teacher, therefore, reads frequent (difficult) passages.

After reading is finished the children look up difficult words in the glossary at back of book. One child reads meaning. All class read meaning. Word is found in context and phrase read aloud by whole class. Teacher further explains
word and gives other usages. Words: paliards, back-spars, leeward, inaccessible, symbol.

When there is a difficult word in the story but not in the glossary the children look for word in their dictionaries e.g. urgenices.

Questions follow: Choose vivid sentence which shows speed of boat; one which shows the excitement of the crew. Describe the magnificent spectacle of the whale as it surfaced. The place was found in the story and re-read. How did the whale crush two boats at once? Find the place in the story, read and re-tell in your own words.

Any figures of speech used were brought to the notice of the children.

When the teacher felt that the class was losing interest she brought in the house system and awarded marks for questions well and quickly answered. Series of one-word answers, e.g., "Who had buckskin lungs?" Discuss the contention that ——— had an unbalanced mind." Many and varied opinions given and each child taught to back his statement with reasons.

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APPENDIX VIII.

SPECIAL LESSON: (Copied from student's section book.)

Subject: Social Studies, Austria.

Class: Std. 3.

Time: 40 minutes.

Aims: General: To promote international outlook co-operation and unity, by helping children to cultivate an interest in, and realisation of, conditions and customs in other countries; to learn how people live in other parts of the world.

Specific: To discuss conditions, people and customs in Austria.

Introduction:

Refer to previous talk on this subject, mentioning name of New Zealand boy (Ronnie) and where his last sea voyage had ended (Egypt). Indicate by map and brief blackboard sketches the remainder of Ronnie's journey until his arrival in Austria.

Presentation:

Describe conditions and customs by emphasis on contrast with New Zealand conditions. To effect this, draw on children's knowledge and assistance by providing N.Z. side of the picture and thus create interest and desire for Austrian contrast.
Both New Zealand and Austria being essentially primary producers main attention given to life, conditions and customs in the farming communities of both countries, stressing similarities and differences.

Post-cards, book illustrations, stamps and blackboard sketches will be used.

Teacher’s comment:

A very interesting lesson. Presentation was well down to the level of the children.

Voice well pitched and pleasant. Aids wisely used at the end of a short and interesting talk: in effect used as aids.

Interest of all boys and girls in the class was held. A very good effort; questioning was very effective.

----------- Teacher’s signature.

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PERSONS INTERVIEWED:

(a) Personal:

Mr. F.C. Lorpell, Superintendent of Education, Auckland.
Mr. A.J. Waghorn, Principal Wellington Training College.
Mr. E. Partridge, Principal Dunedin Training College.
Mr. R. Dickie, Principal Auckland Training College.
Dr. J. Murdoch, Post-Primary Lecturer, Auckland.
Executive of New Zealand Training College Association.
Mr. A.E. Campbell, Director of Educational Research.
Groups of Second Year Students, Wellington Teachers' Training College.
PERSONS INTERVIEWED (Cont).

(b) By Questionnaire:

The Principals of the five Colleges.
The five branches of the Training College Association.
Thirty-three ex-students of the Wellington Teachers' Training College.
Second year Students of the Wellington Teachers' Training College.
Specialist and Method Staffs of New Zealand Training Colleges.
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