
by

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I certify that this thesis is my own composition and that all sources have been acknowledged.

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Preface

Sociological analysis has increasingly focused on the content of education, on the knowledge transmitted in schools. However this examination has been hampered by the paucity of information extant about the process by which curricula are constructed and presented in schools.

This study, a case-study of curriculum change in New South Wales Secondary Schools, attempts to contribute to our understanding of what knowledge is transmitted and of changes taking place by
(1) comparing the curricular ideology of the most recent English to the previous one.
(2) exploring the social location of this ideology.
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Chapter One

Sociological Analysis of Curricula.

Many recent sociological studies of education focus on school curricula at a time when education systems are undergoing profound and continuing changes. While Douglas Holly describes contemporary curricular changes in secondary schools as a "whirlpool of apparently unconnected and contending developments" recently developed secondary school curricula commonly emphasize independent learning, informality in staff-student relationships and democratic planning. Brian Sureties, commenting on the teaching of English in Australian secondary schools, speaks of "a new world characterized by a feverish search for authenticity of experience, depth of response and refined sensibility." Generally, these changes involve increased differentiation and increased participation of people at various levels of the process of curriculum construction.

Sociologically relevant problems arise as to why these changes are taking place, how they occur and what their consequences are. As Seaman notes the aim is "to develop a sociological consciousness of the changes taking place in school knowledge in relation to the dynamic and dialectic character of change in

1 Curriculum is initially used here in the general sense of the programme of learning experiences provided by a school or school system. This usage assumes that valid information about the experiences actually provided is available and often equates these with the formal curriculum, that is, some explicit statement of the intended experiences. The use of the term curriculum is discussed more fully below.


contemporary society." This concern has stimulated renewed interest in what knowledge is actually being transmitted in school and in the processes by which curricula are constructed.

Hoyle reviews sociological studies of curriculum change under the headings of the relationship between social change and curriculum change, the diffusion of innovations in education, factors determining the innovativeness of schools and strategies of planned curriculum change. In this review he suggests that the key dilemma for sociological enquiry is the extent to which the structure and content of education changes independently of broader normative and institutional changes. "Is the economic demand (for flexible and creative manpower) being exploited by educationists as an argument for institutionalizing ideas which have long appealed to progressives."


In a similar, but more recent, review of the sociological literature contributing to curricular research, Musgrave groups the studies around the following questions "why is the curriculum what it is?", "given the curriculum how does a society use it?", and "what does it do to those who are exposed to it?". Musgrave notes that since Davies argued that the central study of the sociology of education should focus on the management of the social stock of knowledge, several sociologists, including himself have tried to outline such a sociology of education. Within such a perspective the curriculum becomes the central focus of analysis, academic disciplines are viewed as social systems and


I. Davies, "Education and Social Science", New Society, 8.5.69, attributes this re-orientation of sociological enquiry into education to the on-going debate over political and philosophical issues related to changes taking place in British education systems which accompanied the changing social composition of secondary school populations. Davies also suggests that if sociology is to contribute to answering questions so arising the study of education must be concerned with culture, with qualitative aspects of how the transmission of knowledge in school is managed. I. Davies, "Knowledge, Education and Power", in R. Brown, (ed.), op.cit., p.317. Existing definitions of school knowledge are therefore viewed as problematic.
conflict questions such as "where does the power lie that enforces one view of an academic discipline rather than another" are posed. This fusion of conflict and sociology of knowledge perspectives promotes a renewed awareness of the problematic nature of the means by which the definitions of subjects change and of the implications of these changes for school curricula.

Curricular Ideologies.

A number of studies of contemporary changes in curricula examine the ideologies which order particular curricula, both officially and for individual teachers, to discover their sources and consequences.

While ideology has been given a variety of meanings, here it is used to refer to a set of beliefs about facts, causal relations and values in human affairs which support one another either through logic or the affinity of the sentiments inspired by them and at least some of which are unverified or unverifiable or false in the light of reason.

9 ibid.


12 S. Andreski, Social Sciences as Sorcery, Penguin, Harmondsworth, 1974, pp.170-1. D. G. MacRae, author of the ideology entry in A Dictionary of Sociology, op.cit., stresses that at least some of the beliefs must go beyond what positive science can validate.
Ideologies then are belief-systems which are acquired through social experience and on which people draw to perceive, to interpret and to organize social experience and to orient it to a goal.\textsuperscript{13} Musgrave notes that ideologies arise especially in conflict situations where competing groups articulate appropriate theoretical formulations of what they are seeking to do and why they are doing so.\textsuperscript{14} As such they both identify purposes and provide their justification.

Applied to a more specific context, curricular ideologies refer to sets of beliefs about facts, causal relations and values related to teaching methods, the content to be taught and the assessment procedures used in schools.\textsuperscript{15} These reflect principles of educational selection and organization which are justified by conceptions of the nature of knowledge and culture, the intellectual nature of man and the nature of the learning process. Ultimately they constitute definitions of the purposes of education and they are embodied in regulations or social assumptions.\textsuperscript{16}

\textsuperscript{13} N. Harris, \textit{op.cit.}, p.19; P. W. Musgrave, 1972, \textit{op.cit.}, p.124.

\textsuperscript{14} P. W. Musgrave, 1972, \textit{op.cit.}, p.124.

\textsuperscript{15} In discussing curricular ideologies Esland, (1971, \textit{op.cit.}) uses the term professional ideology and Musgrave, (1972, \textit{op.cit.}) uses the term occupational ideology. These terms have much wider connotations than the definitions of curricular ideology given here. See S. Andreski, 1974, \textit{op.cit.} pp.13-17. While Esland speaks of subject and pedagogic ideologies and career perspectives, his discussion is predominantly concerned with the beliefs upon which teaching methods are based and Musgrave limits his analysis to the content of curricula.

\textsuperscript{16} See P. W. Musgrave, 1973, \textit{op.cit.}. 

While neither Evetts nor Bernstein use the term curricular ideology their analyses of curricula relate to curricular ideology as it is defined here. Evetts demonstrates that key concepts in the educational process and in the assumed desirable relationship between education and society do "support one another either through logic or the affinity of the sentiments inspired by them" and asserts that currently two contrasting approaches to education can be distinguished. These approaches constitute curricular ideologies as defined here.

Bernstein, on the other hand, examines the social principles which regulate the selection and transmission of knowledge made public in educational institutions and how changes in these affect the organization of social relationships, the roles of pupils and teachers, the definition of successful learning and the authority and power structures which control the dissemination of knowledge. Essentially he follows the structuralist methodology of building a model, studying its properties and applying these observations to the interpretation of empirical data. The educational knowledge code is shown to exhibit the characteristics of a system and to be composed of several elements none of which can undergo a change without effecting changes in all of the other elements.


19 Bernstein outlines a typology of types and subtypes of educational knowledge codes defined in terms of the social principles which regulate the selection and transmission of knowledge.
Bernstein is then able to predict what changes will occur if one or more of the elements are submitted to certain modifications.

However Bernstein actually distinguishes curricular ideologies which can be analysed in sociological terms. The interdependence of the social principles underpinning curricula is explicit rather than tacit and this is recognised by the practitioners of curriculum change themselves. As MacIver notes, in a different context, "even to speak of "factors" as interwoven is to assert to each a degree of independence that simplifies and mechanizes their causal independence."

While Bernstein attributes the change from a collection educational knowledge code to an integrated educational knowledge code to a variety of influences, his mode of explication, at least, implies that changes in the structure of power, principles of social control and the social organization of knowledge in schools are consequent on a change of educational knowledge code. However such a change is neither a necessary nor a


21 Note for example the literature reporting the development of General Studies in Victoria. The V.S.T.A. Curriculum Committee ("Curriculum Change", The Secondary Teacher, no.134, April 1968, p.7) notes that curriculum change involves a restructuring of the secondary school and changed relations between teachers and pupils; "Curriculum Column", (The Secondary Teacher, no.145, May 1969, p.34) notes that in many schools changing curricula is essentially a change of organization and environment; W. Hannan, ("Stages of Change", The Secondary Teacher, no.144, April 1969, p.19) notes that contents of courses, methods of learning and the social and institutional values of the school must all change together.

sufficient condition for changes in the content of curricula, social relations within schools or teaching strategies adopted. Rather, as Evetts argues, these alternative curricular forms can more fruitfully be examined as the product of contrasting curricular ideologies.

Evetts reminds us that a particular curricular ideology is "a generalized expression of the human, social and moral concerns of its time and place. Educational theories reflect the range of alternative possibilities regarding the education and society, social order and social control relationships." 23 Curricular ideologies thus relate activities within the education system to the social structure and educational issues may ultimately be debated in social terms. 24

The Analysis of Curricular Ideologies.

Ideologies are generally identified by inferring from the form of words in which they are expressed. 25 Shaw, quoting Popper, advises looking especially to the grounds that agents give as the reason for their beliefs. 26 Esland points out that by focusing on a

23 J. Evetts, op.cit., p.127.
25 D. G. MacRae, op.cit., p.95.
curriculum innovation it is possible to get explicit, documented and articulated rationales which clarify the reference points by which a curricular ideology is constituted.27

However a difficulty with curricula is that the same form of words may cloak differing conceptions concerning the aims of a particular programme and very varied practical notions about what ought to be done.28 Shipman claims that analysis "won't get very far by asking those involved".29 As La Piere states since the validity of proposed changes in the goals, content and pedagogy of educational programmes cannot be tested, because they deal so much with intangibles, such changes are usually justified by specious claims which obscure the ideologies which underpin proposed changes.30

Additionally, not only are teachers generally concerned to appear supportive of new curriculum developments,31 but they are consumers of sociological writings on education and the more articulate reflect these back. This can be seen in the Victorian literature discussed above in which rationales for curriculum change move from the value of openness for keeping up with changes in society, to the permeability of boundaries, to the equal worth of all types of

27 G. M. Esland, op.cit., p.84.
28 J. Evetts, op.cit., p.4.
30 R. T. La Piere, op.cit., p.62.
knowledge and finally to a concern with the social distribution of knowledge and the social construction of reality. 32  

This is compounded by the partiality expressed towards particular curricula in some sociological analyses. Shipman argues that not only is a trend to a particular curricular form, in this case integrated curricula, identified but is also promoted. 33 Similarly Musgrave is not able to deal adequately with emergent curricula within his classification of curricula as adaptive, determined or determining.  

But while analyses of curricular ideologies are so limited 34 they remain a necessary initial step. As Bourdieu declares while "a view of reality is built at the price of breaking away from phenomenal appearance .... ultimately objective relations do not exist and do not realize themselves except in and through the systems of dispositions of the agents,  


produced by the internalizing of objective conditions". 35

It is necessary to go beyond the explicitly stated rationales and seek the ideologies implicit in the content selected to be taught in particular curricula, the methods prescribed to teach this content and the evaluation procedures which are used. Musgrave suggests that such an analysis should focus on the clearly stated assumptions, the literary style and the key symbols employed in the statement of the curriculum and that the analysis should essentially be concerned with determining what the stylistic strategies are. 36

Curricular Ideologies and Contemporary Curriculum Change.

Several studies examine ideologies implicit in innovatory secondary school curricula in England, particularly curricula produced for the Schools Council and by Goldsmiths College. 37


37 Note also K. C. Reus-Smit, "General Studies: A Study of Curriculum Innovation Through the Sociology of Knowledge" and R. C. King, "Open Education as an Innovation" both in D. E. Edgar (ed.), op.cit.
In reviewing the Schools Council programmes White criticizes their preoccupation with means rather than ends. He judges that since the needs and interests of children need not be the same thing the preoccupation with children's interests in these programmes prevents rather than promotes significant curriculum change. White concludes that no real curriculum change is taking place only pedagogical tinkering with motivation and that the programmes fluctuate between aiming for sociological awareness and passive acceptance.

Holly notes that an initial concern with absolescent secondary syllabi and shoddy teaching methods shown by the first of the new curriculum projects has evolved into the elaboration of a whole curriculum ideology concerned with disciplined, imaginative thinking.

Holly describes the core of the traditional secondary school curriculum as the ideology of subject which defines not only the content of education but also the methodology of teaching and the general values of the school system. Although these activities may be justified as utilitarian or as a training of the mind or even as the development of self awareness Holly suggests that the operative values relate to social control, the cheerful acceptance of authority, and instrumentalism, the elevation of otherwise meaningless activities into


40 ibid., p.44.
worthwhile goals because of the rewards which successful performance brings.

In contrast, Holly judges most recent innovatory programmes in English secondary schools to be based on a progressive-liberal and pupil-centred ideology which advocates unstructured learning situations in which pupils have a choice of activity.41

The Goldsmith College programme on the other hand, is described as characterized by romantic mysticism and a refusal to confront the realities of the social and political situation.42 Such programmes amount to educational abdication, he claims, since freedom is seen negatively as merely absence from constraint and change is therefore left to the pressures of society.

Similarly Holly finds that the Schools Council Moral Education Programme, in stressing rationality and individualism, promotes education of the emotions via reason and discounts the effects of wider social and economic factors. He terms this a bourgeois view of moral education based on the relationship of the proponents to social and economic power.43 The Schools Council Humanities Project he also describes as promoting the technique of rational, urbane, liberal, middle-class discussion rather than focusing on the criteria and techniques of using and evaluating evidence.44

41 ibid., p.166
42 ibid., p.64
43 ibid., pp.42-44
44 ibid., p.48
Musgrave also compares the programmes prepared for the Schools Council and the curricula which have been produced by Goldsmith College. He finds the former to be generally adaptive to society both in promoting a rational attitude to authority and social control and in seeking to establish curriculum objectives which reflect the contemporary needs of the pupils. Curriculum design is itself viewed as a rational process and the support of teachers for curriculum innovations is sought for methodological rather than egalitarian reasons. In addition to rationality and relevance the key symbols characterizing these programmes are found to be experience and interdisciplinary work.

Musgrave finds in contrast that while the Goldsmiths College programmes also stress rationality, in their concern for the use and understanding of good processes and techniques of enquiry, social control is to be developed in a social setting which stresses acceptance of others, the rejection of dogma and the development of a philosophy of life which contains a vision of the new society.

**Typologies of Curricular Ideologies.**

Although a general concern for sociological analysis of educational ideologies expressed in school curricula has been a recent development, several typologies of curricular ideologies have been developed over a number of years.

45 P. W. Musgrave, "Two Contemporary Curricular Ideologies" *op. cit.*
One typology, which has been utilized by a number of commentators on curriculum change, relates to a stratification model. While different versions of this typology have been advanced, generally it identifies four curricular ideologies. These are a conservative ideology, which asserts both that education is concerned with preserving what is best in a culture and that an unequal distribution of culture is to the advantage of all, a technocratic ideology which applies economic criteria and manpower planning to educational programmes, a romantic ideology which focuses on the needs and interests of children, and an egalitarian ideology, which advocates a common education for all. Cosin predicts which social groups will be likely to hold these ideologies and the typology relates to a stratification model.

However typologies of this kind appear not to have been used in actual analyses. Young suggests that the reason for this is that such conceptions of curricular ideologies are unsatisfactory since they fail to adequately relate the sets of beliefs to social contexts and to demonstrate the educational implications for action. He cites Mills' study of the occupational ideologies of social pathologists as an example of how professional ideologies can be related to common social origins and professional experience.


48 M. F. D. Young, 1971, op. cit., p.41 Footnote 3.

ideologies have focused on social change rather than social stratification.

A second typology of curricular ideologies, based on the relationship of a curriculum to society, has been used in some studies and curricula can then be classified as adaptive, determined or determining. However this procedure is limited.\textsuperscript{50} Like the typologies based on a stratification model, such a typology is not comprehensive nor are the categories mutually exclusive since a curriculum need not be internally consistent in being adaptive or determined. This is especially so where a curriculum is understood as being constructed across a number of levels of the schooling process rather than understood in the sense of the formal curriculum only.\textsuperscript{51} Finally, as with the typologies based on a stratification model, this typology is not informative about the educational implications for action, nor the social location of the ideologies.

Evetts in setting out a third typology of curricular ideologies, suggests that two contrasting ideologies, which she terms idealist and progressive, characterize education today.\textsuperscript{52} These are distinguished in primarily educational terms but


\textsuperscript{51} This point is discussed more fully below.

\textsuperscript{52} J. Evetts, \textit{op.cit.}, p.10. G. M. Esland, (1971, \textit{op.cit.}) distinguishes two ideologies similar to these although he emphasizes pedagogy which, following Durkheim, he sees as a more or less theoretical rationalization of anthropological assumptions about human nature which are constituted as rules which control the communication, the ways of relating and evaluating, between teachers and learners.
include conceptions about the intellectual nature of man, scholarship, the purpose of education and the relationship between education and society.

The idealist ideology defines the purpose of education to be the maintaining of culture, quality and excellence and education therefore is concerned with equipping children with essential skills, acquainting them with necessary information, disciplining them in selected intellectual achievements and instilling respect for scholarship and learning. It is assumed that these purposes can only be attained by formal teaching methods, especially instruction, and that children need to be motivated to engage in learning activities. Similarly, achievement goals are promoted by devices such as competition and ranking. In contrast the progressive ideology defines the purpose of education to be the development of individual potentialities and the enlarging of the individual's capacity for experience. Teaching is child-centred, based on the interests and needs of the child, rather than subject-centred and informal teaching methods are used since children will be self motivated to the learning activities. 

53 D. Jenkins, ("Romantic and Classic in the Curriculum Landscape", in D. Jenkins et al., Curriculum Philosophy and Design, Open University Press, Walton Hall, 1972) uses the traditional metaphor of the classic and romantic gardens to distinguish two continuing opposed approaches to English teaching which are very similar to Evett's "idealistic" and "progressive" ideologies. The metaphors are also used by A. King and J. Brownell ("The Disciplines of Knowledge as Communities of Discourse: A Model for Devising Curriculum Theory", in D. Jenkins et al., 1972, op.cit.) The allusion is to a traditional distinction between classic and romantic poetry in terms of the characteristics of gardens in the Augustan and Romantic periods in Literature. Applied to education, like other analogies, some confusion arises over points of interpretation, D. Shayer (The Teaching of English in Schools: 1900-1970, Routledge and Kegan Paul London, 1972) traces the development of the two approaches since English was introduced into secondary schooling. L. E. W. Smith (Towards a New English Curriculum, London, 1972) identifies limitations of each.
Evetts suggests that how much influence these ideologies have on policy and practice, or in the construction of particular curricula, might be assessed by determining who holds one or the other and by examining the relationship between different levels of the curriculum process.54

Evetts hypothesizes that less experienced teachers and teachers in less selective educational institutions will be more likely to hold a progressive ideology.55 The former hypothesis is based on the assumption that less experienced teachers will have been exposed to alternative ideas in their professional education courses and so will be less critical of these than more experienced teachers.56 The latter hypothesis is based on the assumption that since part of the legitimacy of non-government schools is a continuing pursuit of academic excellence teachers in these schools will be less receptive to the progressive ideology.

54 That the two ideologies, derived from the theoretical writings of educationists, actually do characterize curricula needs to be demonstrated first.


56 The view that curriculum change results mainly from the advent of young teachers is frequently advanced. See D. Holly, 1973, op. cit. and G. Little, "Secondary English in Australia", unpublished paper, Canberra College of Advanced Education, 1974. Often this is a form of the hypothesis that younger people are less resistant to innovations than older people who have more invested in the devalued knowledge and skills. G. C. Eichholz ("Why do teachers reject change?", Theory into Practice, vol.2, 1963, p.264) found no evidence of a relation between length of teaching experience and adoption of an innovation. R. T. La Pierre (op. cit., p.200) suggests that the apparent conflict of findings about the relation between marginality and acceptance of innovation can be resolved if it is understood that the constitution of marginality varies with social circumstances.
Chapter Two

The Curriculum Process.

A major limitation of sociological analyses of curricula to date has been the general inadequacy of studies which are restricted to the analysis of formal curriculum statements. As McPerson asks, are these "more than the striving of a benighted minority of idealists?".57

This limitation has resulted both from the lack of adequate data about what is actually taught in schools and from the lack of a satisfactory model of curriculum. Goodlad observes that what is required is the development of "a model of the substantive common places of curriculum and of the political considerations in curriculum planning" to form "a backdrop for appraising ideological formulations of what curricula or a curriculum should consist of ... a backdrop for analysing how the political structure functions with respect to curricular decisions".58 Davies suggests that analysis can initially be profitably concerned with "how curriculum ideologies are related to decision making structures at a number of levels of interaction".59

57 A. McPherson, "The Generally Educated Scot" in School and Society Course Team, Eighteen Plus: The Final Selection, Open University Press, Walton Hall, 1972. Unless it is assumed that precept and practice are identical the equating of curriculum with formal curriculum is unacceptable. If school subjects are to be reviewed as social constructs a number of levels of interactions are involved.


In outlining a framework for analysis of curricular ideologies at a number of process levels, Esland and Seaman draw heavily on a paper by Schatzman and Strauss which presents a typology of levels of analysis for the study of psychiatry. This typology is described as prototypical for a research programme into the subject and pedagogical knowledge of teaching. However, while Schatzman and Strauss put forward a set of models which identify levels of interaction, a number of problems arise in applying the models to school curricula and a set more applicable to the curriculum process can be developed.

**The Concept Curriculum.**

Curriculum is such an all-encompassing concept that it is difficult to construct a definition which will apply widely and which is also precise enough to enable analysis to be carried out. An O.E.C.D. study group on curriculum development noted that it is difficult to apply the concept cross-nationally since the definition must encompass differences in emphasis in education and differences in school structures in different cultures. Bell has suggested that this

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applies equally to schools within one system.62

The etymological source of curriculum is a course, in the sense of a pre-determined track, and generally it has been used to denote statements of educational purposes and the programmes to be followed in attaining them. However while in Europe generally the term has been so used for the designation of an educational programme, the prescription of content and pedagogy, English speaking usage has been in the wider sense of "what happens in schools as a result of what teachers do".63 This usage then includes both a

Curriculum as a meaningful concept has been criticized to such an extent that some comment on its retention here is appropriate. Holly, (1973, op.cit., p.134) advocates dropping the term because it carries with it the notion of object and product, something to be internalised. Bernstein and Davies only use curriculum in the sense of the selection and sequencing of content. Esland introduces the idea of purposes in his expression "intentioned knowledge". P. Seaman, (op.cit., p.9) also advocates dropping the term because of this connotation of formal curriculum, the structuring of areas of knowledge, whereas from an interactionist perspective curriculum is viewed as a product of what people say and do. His criticism is valid, but if the central contribution of sociology to a study of education is an accounting of social factors and processes influential in the construction, maintenance or change of curricula we need to be clear about what it is that is constructed, maintained or changed, which changes are significant and within what contexts and interactions they occur. There is a danger that the topic of analysis becomes as vague and elusive as "life lived in school". While from a social action perspective the key focus is the meaning attributed to his experience by the child, those experiences are selected, shaped and made available. The experiences, the way they are selected, shaped, made available and experienced and changes taking place in these occur in patterned interactions which have a history. Curriculum is the sum of these and as such provides a focus for analysis and a means of distinguishing between different sets of interactions.

63 O.E.C.D., op.cit., p.5.
statement of the learning experiences it is intended that children will undergo and the learning experiences actually made available in classrooms as referents of curriculum. However the qualification attached to the quoted statement suggests that it is taken for granted that these referents are virtually identical. Curriculum "includes all of the experiences of children for which the school should accept responsibility. It is the programme used by the school as a means of accomplishing its purpose". 

This duality of referents for curriculum, and the way it is treated, is of critical importance for sociological analyses of curricula since a central concern of these has been precisely the gap between intent and reality. As Burns states "the practice of sociology is criticism. It exists to criticize claims about the value of achievement and to question assumptions about the meaning of conduct".

Yet this glossing over of the problematic nature of curriculum is a feature of recent sociological analyses of curricula. The most often stated recent definition of curriculum has been "those learning experiences or succession of such experiences which are purposefully arranged by formal educational organizations". Similarly Hughes defines curriculum as "all the learning which is devised and guided by the school wherever it may occur". He goes on to say that curriculum statements are inherently

64 ibid.
65 M. F. D. Young, (ed.), op.cit., p.4.
67 P. W. Musgrave, 1973, op.cit., p.4. and in a number of other writings.
statements of purpose, a component of curriculum which he regards as central. Curriculum then is viewed as a plan of structural arrangements of areas of knowledge, skills and attitudes into socially valued learning experiences which are implemented within the school consciously and deliberately and which includes intended learning outcomes, strategies to be followed and a statement of content.\textsuperscript{69} And this formal curriculum is viewed as the central aspect of curriculum.\textsuperscript{70}

These definitions are notable for their emphasis on consciously contrived and shaped experience which has been predetermined in some detail, typical of what has been called the rational-objectivist approach to curriculum, currently the most widely accepted view of curriculum.\textsuperscript{71} This conception of curriculum derives essentially from Taba's concern that curriculum development be rational and scientific and should therefore draw upon studies of the learning process, studies of the child, analyses of society and culture and analyses of the nature of knowledge to determine the purposes of the school and the nature of its curriculum.\textsuperscript{72} Whereas for Taba this was


\textsuperscript{70} This is the emphasis which, for differing reasons, Holly and Seaman criticize and in response to which they suggest not using the term "curriculum".

\textsuperscript{71} Detailed critiques of this approach are given in C. James, \textit{Young Lives at Stake: A Reappraisal of Secondary Schools}, Collins, London, 1968, pp.80 ff; and from a knowledge management perspective in G. Esland, "Innovation in the School", \textit{op.cit.}, p.106; P. Seaman, \textit{op.cit.}, pp.26-8; M. F. D. Young, 1971, \textit{op.cit.}, p.44; J. White, 1969, \textit{op.cit.} discusses the consequences of this conception of curriculum.

a potential way of determining what ought to be done in school subsequent discussion appears to have taken for granted not only that this procedure is valid but that it is in fact followed. An additional assumption is that the contrived curriculum is that which is transmitted.

In Hughes' explication of the Taba thesis, once these consensually agreed purposes have been presented in as explicit, complete and precise a statement as possible they should be broken down into an ordered list of objectives, the changes in pupil behaviour which are intended to be brought about through learning. "This statement of objectives is the key one: it gives meaning to the aims, decides the selection of content and experiences and enables the formulation of means of evaluation".

However it is doubtful whether, apart from a large number of rather vague general statements, any aims can be stated for some school subjects, or areas of activity. Bernstein notes that as we have no theory of optimal learning environments, and are unlikely to have the resources to make it substantive, outcomes of learning situations must in any case be inherently unpredictable.

This concern with intent is part of the recurring wish that educators operate on the basis of rational procedures in which the nature of the various decisions to be reached and the criteria for them are made explicit, not so much to reveal what is going on, but to bring them under control. Teachers' alternative

73 P. Hughes, op.cit., p.5
74 ibid., p.6
75 B. Bernstein, 1970, op.cit.
perceptions are to be changed by persuasion or socialization. The aim is predictability of a rational-bureaucratic kind. However control over the attainment of clearly defined purposes implies some form of sequencing of activities and some form of scale against which articulated progression can be measured. It is not clear that this process actually works. 76

A second limitation of the rational-objectivist conception of the curriculum process is that in the pre-occupation with clear statements of intent the concept of curriculum becomes too narrow and much that is relevant to the discussion is omitted so limiting possibilities for action.

By contrast the O.E.C.D. study group defines curriculum as all but coextensive with schooling in their concern to note all of the factors which may militate against or contribute to the realization of purposes. 77 In trying to portray a complete picture of the experience of schooling Holly lists numerous

76 In a recent example of curriculum development in Victoria the Curriculum Advisory Board, set up to make recommendations for the reorganization of secondary schooling, began its task by attempting to list the aims for the first four years of secondary schooling. They found that there were too many aims, that the aims were too diverse, that there were no agreed criteria for selecting from amongst them and that little consensus could be reached. As a result the committee rejected working from general aims and learning theory. See The Secondary Teacher, "Fresh Look at the Curriculum", no.116, June 1966, p.25; The Secondary Teacher, "Curriculum Complications", no.120, October 1966, p.7; W. Hannan, "The First Four Years", The Secondary Teacher, no.125, May 1967, p.19; W. Hannan, "The New Curriculum", op.cit., p.9.

features of schooling within the subdivisions
organization, content, methodology and general values. While sociologists have identified various aspects of
the curriculum process as especially important there
has been general agreement that the instructional
programme is only part of the whole.

A third limitation of the rational-objectivist
conception is that despite the emphasis on control the
discussion omits any consideration of power although a
centre-periphery relationship is implicit in the
discussion and the importance of the attitudes of the
teachers is noted. Potential conflict is acknowledged
but as a problem to be resolved by discussion, changing
attitudes and the attainment of consensus. Consistency
through the system can then be assumed and the
possibility of instrumental compliance, withdrawal or
alternative practices need not be seriously
considered.

79 E. Hoyle, op.cit., p.391 notes that to some extent
"the organization is the message". P. J. Fensham,
"Science Curricula and the Organization of
Secondary Schooling", Journal of Curriculum
Studies, vol.6, 1974 and M. D. Shipman "The Impact
of a Curriculum Project", Journal of Curriculum
Studies, vol.5, 1973 also note the importance of
the organization for curriculum development.
W. Tyler, "The Organizational Structure of the
Secondary School", Educational Review, vol.25,
June 1973, like Holly, identifies instrumentalism
in the curriculum with the organizational
structure of schools.

80 As in P. Hughes, op.cit., p.2.

81 Nor need the experience of the child be examined.
Holly suggests that this is inherently alienated
as "a person can go through the whole process of
formal education without really understanding a
single idea in the sense of integrating it with
his pre-existing experiences", D. Holly, 1973
op.cit., p.25.
Given that the final arbiter of a curriculum is the change brought about in particular children an adequate model of curriculum must include diverse aspects of the education process which impinge on the child's experience of schooling and not simply the statement of aims and the programme of instruction derived from them. Additionally it must be set out in a manner that will encompass a variety of curricular forms rather than laying down prescriptive criteria which exclude some forms. Finally, how the curriculum is developed must be part of the definition of curriculum. As Davies points out the dialectic between the sub-sections of educational culture and the power structure is likely to be the most profitable area of investigation. 82

Goodlad has suggested that curriculum be viewed as a political process at the societal, institutional and instructional levels. 83 Similarly Raynor distinguishes between the formal curriculum, the curriculum as it is set out, the transactional curriculum, how it is reshaped as it is interpreted and presented by the teacher, and the received curriculum, how it is selectively perceived and made meaningful by the pupil. 84

While the suggestions of Goodlad and Raynor identify a number of levels of decision-making related to the process of curriculum development, as they stand they are incomplete and based on a narrow interpretation of curriculum. Decisions relating to school architecture, the organizational structure of schools and the social composition of a school recruitment

82 I. Davies, 1972, op.cit., p.322.
84 J. Raynor, op.cit.
zone, among others, influence the experiences undergone by students in school. It is not enough to identify decision-making levels concerned with the formal programme alone. Once this wider perspective is adopted, at least six levels of decision-making in the curriculum process can be distinguished.

Levels of Decision making in the Curriculum Process.

(a) **Society level.** Within contemporary developed societies provision for education is enacted in legislation which defines in more or less detail the parameters of educational processes. This legislation usually sets ages of compulsory schooling but may also determine statutory responsibility for particular areas of decision-making, the legal responsibilities of teachers and relationships between various institutions.

(b) **System level.** Where public funding of schools takes place it is normally accompanied by regulations governing the operation of schools, entry procedures, staff-student ratios and permissible relationships, punishments and assessment practices. Career patterns of teachers will be determined at this level as may the organizational form of particular schools.

(c) **Syllabi level.** Curricular agencies exist in most school systems either as bodies which have statutory responsibility and so produce prescribed syllabi or as advisory or consultative agencies which produce curriculum guides or sample programmes and recommend particular materials.
(d) **School level.** Depending on decisions previously taken individual schools allocate teachers and pupils to particular classes, determine the programmes of individual pupils and create the expressive dimension of school life. Regardless of these, interpretations will be made of curriculum guides or syllabi and in the process additions, deletions, substitutions, selections and misinterpretations may be made.

(e) **Subject teacher level.** Teachers make decisions in regard to particular groups of students or particular students, selecting specific content, exercises, materials and criteria for assessment. Many of the decisions made, perhaps most, are responses to the immediate situation and so may vary considerably from a particular intended programme.

(f) **Student level.** Students differentially value curriculum experiences, select from those made available to them and so differentially experience curricula.

While the curriculum in modern schools usually involves multiple levels of determination clearly not all of these levels need be found in all school systems. Nor will similar decisions necessarily be made at similar levels in different systems nor even in the same system at different points in time. The levels set out here identify a framework within which decisions are made, relating to the organizational structure of schools, the content of syllabi, teaching methods and assessment procedures, as a product of the interaction of individuals and groups who bring with them particular sets of experiences, purposes, commitments, capabilities and curricular ideologies. Particular conceptions of curriculum held by individuals at different levels of the process may
differ significantly but participants at one level experience decisions made previously at a more general level as constraints to be taken more or less notice of.

Michael Young notes that if typologies of curricular ideologies are to be fruitful, quantitative studies are required and the typologies will have to be related to their social contexts and legal implications for practical action and related to a theory of social change.

The prime aim of this study is to isolate the curricular ideologies underlying the 1957 and 2011 secondary English curricula in New South Wales and to determine the nature of the changes which have taken place, the justifications advanced for these changes and their structural determinants.

The school subject English is an appropriate object of this type of analysis for a number of reasons. As the only compulsory subject throughout secondary schooling in New South Wales, English occupies a central place in the secondary school and is particularly responsive both to changes in the society.

By Y. K. L. Young, 1977, pp. 24, 26. It is noted that the social and educational implications of the ideological differences between the 1957 and 2011 curricula.

No that the divergent perceptions of the presenters of a 'school of interrelated meanings', leading to an 'empirical' question: the present vision will be to determine to what extent the present typology of curricular ideologies is relevant.
Chapter Three


Michael Young notes that if typologies of curricular ideologies are to be fruitful, more substantive studies are required and the typologies will have to be related to their social contexts and their implications for practical action and linked to a theory of social change.85

The prime aim of this study is to isolate the curricular ideologies underpinning the 1962 and 1971 secondary English curricula in New South Wales so as to determine the nature of the changes which have taken place, the justifications advanced for these changes and their structural determinants.86

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85 M. F. D. Young, 1971, op.cit., p.41. P. W. Musgrave, 1972, op.cit., p.142 also stresses the worth of examining the ideologies that order particular curricula.

86 That the diverse components of the curricula do form "patterns of interworking meanings", that is, ideologies is an empirical question. The focus here will be to determine to what extent Evett's typology of curricular ideologies applies.
composition of the student body or to changes in the social demands made of secondary schools. Secondly, the frequent noting of tension between the process of curriculum development in English and the rational-objectivist conception of the curriculum process suggests that English would be a fruitful area within which to identify continuities and discontinuities between different levels of the curriculum process. 87 Thirdly, English has been identified as particularly characterized by a clash of subject ideologies. 88 Finally, English has undergone considerable revision in New South Wales in recent years, as the existence of the documents analysed here indicates. 89

While this study is too explanatory to adequately test theories which have been advanced to account for contemporary curriculum change it can be noted that studies of the social sources and consequences of ideologies generally utilize a form of interest theory or strain theory or a combination of both. 90 Geertz claims that ideologies arise especially in response to cultural strain, in situations where institutionalized guides for behaviour, thought or feeling are weak or absent. 91

Since curriculum is defined here as a multi-level process an initial step in the analysis is to identify the most important levels of decision-making in the

87 See B. Sureties, 1971, op.cit.; and B. Sureties, "Curriculum Design in English" in P. Hughes (ed.), op.cit., for recent Australian statements of this difficulty.

88 P. Seaman, 1972, op.cit., p.50.

89 An extra reason is the existence of questionnaire data relating to the curricular ideologies held by teachers of English.


91 ibid., p.64.
curriculum process in New South Wales,\textsuperscript{92} to locate any changes in responsibility which have taken place and then to carry out the ideological analyses at these levels. As noted above, this not only delineates the curricular ideologies but also identifies continuities and discontinuities between these levels of the curriculum process.

A secondary purpose of the study is to explore the social contexts within which these ideologies are located.

As was outlined above, it is predicted that the acceptance of a progressive curricular ideology is associated with length of teaching experience, since less experienced teachers will be less critical of the new ideas and revised beliefs contained in that ideology.\textsuperscript{93} This prediction is based partly on the belief that less experienced teachers will have undergone pre-service socialization experiences different from those undergone formerly by more experienced teachers. However it is based more directly on a form of interest theory, that more experienced teachers, who have more invested in the devalued knowledge and skills, will be more resistant to any innovations.

It is also hypothesized that acceptance of the progressive curricular ideology is associated with type of school taught in. Since non-government schools are legitimated by having a different charter

\textsuperscript{92} The levels so identified are system, syllabi and subject teacher.

\textsuperscript{93} See footnote 56 above.
from government schools, teachers attracted to those schools are likely to be less accepting of the progressive curricular ideology.94

Geertz notes that a major limitation of most ideological analyses, whether based on interest or strain theory is that they move directly from source analysis to consequence analysis without ever seriously examining ideologies as systems of interacting symbols, as patterns of interworking meanings.95

The procedure followed here is to treat reports of curriculum revision approved by the Secondary Schools Board and syllabi compiled by the English Syllabus Committee as "representative documents" of the curricular ideologies of these groups.96 The ideologies implicit in the documents are analysed

94 Clearly there would be exceptions to this generalization.

95 C. Geertz, op.cit., p.57.

along the dimensions of assumptions and purposes, the definition of the subject and the pedagogy prescribed.\textsuperscript{97} While this procedure overcomes the difficulty of possible discrepancies between the explicitly stated rationales and the programmes actually set out, and thus identifies the constituent beliefs of the ideologies, as Musgrave points out, some of the mechanisms by which the ideologies work will be latent.\textsuperscript{98} Therefore analysis of ideology must be concerned with what the stylistic strategies are.\textsuperscript{99} This analysis necessitates the tracing of a multiplicity of referential connections between the ideology and social reality.\textsuperscript{100} The stylistic strategies are identified by examining the literary style and the key symbols expressed in curricula.\textsuperscript{101}

Once the analysis of the system and syllabi levels of the curricula is carried out, these findings are compared to the findings of a secondary analysis of data derived from a questionnaire study of the subject and pedagogic ideologies of a representative sample of 101 teachers of English in New South Wales Secondary Schools carried out by the Australian

\textsuperscript{97} P. W. Musgrave, 1972, \textit{op.cit.}, p.125 analyses curricular ideologies along the dimensions of rationality and social control, limiting the analysis to the content taught. However as Geertz and Evetts, (\textit{op.cit.}, p.4) note it is the way that the different aspects "tend to hang together" that makes curricula amenable to ideological analysis.

\textsuperscript{98} ibid.

\textsuperscript{99} ibid.

\textsuperscript{100} C. Geertz, \textit{op.cit.}, p.60.

\textsuperscript{101} P. W. Musgrave, 1972, \textit{op.cit.}, p.125.
Council for Educational Research in 1970. The teachers were asked to indicate on a five-point scale the degree of their agreement or disagreement with a series of statements about the purposes, the essential constituents and the pedagogy of teaching English. The findings of this study indicate the extent to which the curricular ideologies of the English teachers can be characterized as progressive or idealist.

102 Australian National Commission for U.N.E.S.C.O., Current Issues in the Teaching of English: Report on a Questionnaire Study, Australian Government Printing Service, Canberra, 1973. The Australian Council for Educational Research has made available a complete set of the original results. This procedure involves comparing syllabus documents with teachers' attitudes. A more legitimate comparison would be with the teaching programmes actually used by a representative sample of teachers. However this is not feasible because of the mass of literature which would be involved. More importantly, few teachers of English actually make use of such written programmes. Given that the questionnaire study was directly concerned with the subject and pedagogic ideologies of the teachers the findings are relevant here.
Chapter Four


Since its inception the public system of secondary schooling in N.S.W. has been characterized by frequent inquiries into the purpose of the secondary school, by a recurring dissatisfaction with the secondary curriculum and by continuous tension and frustration over the determination of that curriculum.

While the Public Instruction Act of 1880 was primarily concerned with recognising the provision of elementary education as a government responsibility it also made provision for some public schools, designated superior, to provide post-primary courses and for the establishment of high schools. As with the private secondary schools of the day the main concern of these schools became preparing candidates for the University entrance examinations which had been operating for two decades. The Royal Commission into elementary and secondary schools of 1902 found that "the only factor really tending to give unity to secondary teaching is a common endeavour to meet the requirements of the Public Examinations held by the University and the matriculation standard of that University". The Commissioners concluded that the preoccupation with

attaining examination success regardless of any consideration of the aims and spirit of secondary education led to "cramming" and to a distortion of the curriculum as well as of the teaching methods. 104

This problem has been a constant theme in secondary education in N.S.W. and still awaits resolution.

The criticisms of the Commissioners were acted on in 1911-12 when a reorganization of secondary education took place under the impetus of the Director of Education, Peter Board, who stressed that secondary education was for all children who were prepared to remain at school, not solely for the preparation of those who wished to undertake University study. However the programmes of study set out for subjects in the Courses of Study for High Schools, published in 1911, remained predominantly sets of prescriptions for the certificate examinations and the secondary curriculum was a collection of programmes of study for separate subjects. A syllabus for superior public schools was published in 1912 but in the next few years their courses had all been extended to three years and became eligible for the award of the Intermediate Certificate.

As the number of "non-academic" pupils remaining in secondary schools increased, discontent with the secondary school curriculum mounted and in 1933 a Ministerial Committee appointed to examine problems associated with secondary education recommended the setting up of a body to control secondary education. But the Board of Secondary School Studies set up in 1936 had as its terms of reference to make recommendations to the Minister for the conduct of

104 ibid.
the certificate examinations and the award of certificates. Secondary education was still viewed as essentially leading to an examination used by the University for purposes of matriculation. However in 1939 the Education Department, acting independently, initiated a General Activities Curriculum for the least able group.

The new Board made representations to the Minister in 1943 that a secondary school course leading to a Leaving Certificate must be based on principles different from those which would prepare candidates for University entrance. These representations were elaborated in 1946 when the Board explicitly defined secondary education as "the education of all boys and girls from about the age of twelve till the time when they leave school for work or some form of tertiary education". Moreover the Board stated that secondary education should be adapted to needs and capacities of adolescents, be closely related to the interests and experiences of life, be balanced but also allow for pursuit of individual interests and that it should not be regarded merely as preparation for tertiary education. No action followed these representations and by 1951 the Education Department, again acting independently, had initiated an Alternative Curriculum for Secondary Schools for pupils of average ability whose interests were not catered for by the relatively academic emphasis of the standard courses. But as with the General Activities Curriculum it had to be restricted to those who had no intention of going beyond the Intermediate Certificate.

105 ibid., p.30
A further committee was set up in 1953 "to examine the objectives, organization and content provided for adolescent pupils in the public schools of the State". The committee took it for granted that secondary education was the education of all adolescents, irrespective of their interests, talents and prospects and defined their problem as meeting the needs of all adolescents without impairment to the potentialities of any. Mindful of the fate of earlier attempts to reform the curriculum the committee set out detailed aims for secondary education and guidelines for the syllabus committees which develop more detailed programmes of study. These were to reflect the general spirit of the curriculum as a whole, avoid an overly academic conception of the subject and avoid detailed prescription so that teachers would be free to adapt the syllabus to the needs and capacities of their pupils and to the conditions of a particular school. While a number of changes emanated from the report of this committee they were mainly concerned with the organizational framework of the secondary school and the programmes of study in individual subjects remained largely as before, contrary to these recommendations.

Although the changes advocated by the Wyndham Committee were only implemented in the early 1960s, within ten years the new Board of Senior School Studies and the Secondary Schools Board requested the Directorate of Studies in the Department of Education to examine the role of the secondary school and to

106 *ibid.*, p.9.
107 *ibid.*, p.63.
108 *ibid.*, p.84.
prepare a statement of aims and objectives. In the ensuing period the Intermediate Certificate Examination had been phased out, the Directorate of Studies had been set up as a special group responsible for curriculum investigation and, increasingly, subject syllabus committees, at the Boards' direction, were issuing programmes of study in the form of guidelines rather than detailed prescriptions resulting in responsibility for curriculum determination devolving to teachers in individual schools. The Directorate of Studies' statement suggested that this process be maintained.

The curriculum of secondary schools in N.S.W. has from the beginning been a matter for intense debate. While it has remained constantly linked to examinations determining University entrance considerable energy has continuously been expended in trying to bring into being a curriculum which would meet the needs of pupils. Pupils in the meantime have continued to demonstrate an interest in certificates as the secondary school moved from catering for an elite to the provision of secondary education for all and they have thus undermined any policy of dual provision. Even after the institution of the Board of Secondary Studies the curriculum has remained a collection of subjects and has been determined largely by subject syllabus committees until comparatively recently when considerable responsibility for curriculum determination has devolved to individual schools and teachers.

The 1962 English Curriculum.

(a) The System Level.

In accordance with the recommendations of the Wyndham Report, which was presented in 1957, during the early 1960's the organizational basis of secondary education in N.S.W. became a comprehensive high school teaching a subject-based curriculum composed of a core of required subjects plus elective subjects. Each subject could be taken at three levels differentiated according to the developing capacities of the students. The report described the intent of adopting this pattern of organization as the establishing of a more elastic type of programme which would allow the secondary schools of the state as a whole to satisfactorily provide for all types of adolescents.110

The Wyndham Committee had declared the central dilemma of secondary education to be how to meet "the needs of all adolescents without impairment to the potentialities of any".111 While the committee was especially concerned to bring about general recognition that secondary education was for all adolescents, rather than just for an elite, they stated that the cultivation of talent remained a major responsibility. The secondary curriculum therefore had to provide a sound general education, a variety of courses adequate to meet the varying aptitudes and abilities of the pupils and a fairer and more efficient procedure for promoting talent. The proposed resolution of this dilemma was concerned

110 Report of the Committee of Inquiry into Secondary Education in N.S.W., op.cit., p.64.
111 ibid., p.63.
primarily with how the curriculum for a particular child was to be determined and implemented. The child was to have as comprehensive a choice as possible from a variety of subjects which would be equally esteemed.

The committee took it for granted that the secondary curriculum would be subject-based. The foundation of a good general education, the core curriculum, was composed of certain fields of thought and experience which were worthwhile in themselves and of which no adolescent should be ignorant.\(^{112}\) Again while the report contained some cautioning against an overly academic treatment of subjects each elective subject was to be of adequate duration and demand equal standards.\(^{113}\) Moreover the syntactic features of subjects continued to be stressed. General Science was judged to be unsatisfactory since it "lacked coherence and any evidence of integrating principles".\(^{114}\) The electives were to provide a coherent and systematic study in the respective fields of knowledge.\(^{115}\)

While the organizational framework of the secondary school was changed following the Wyndham Report the actual curriculum continued to be made up of individual syllabus statements prepared by syllabus committees appointed by the Secondary Schools Board. The report did caution that subject syllabi at times contributed to the distortion of the purposes of the curriculum and declared that many syllabi had been too specific and too detailed.\(^{116}\) To foster the successful

112 ibid., p.82.
113 ibid., p.85.
114 ibid., p.83.
115 ibid., p.86.
116 ibid., p.89.
attainment of aims it was suggested that syllabi be set out in quite general terms so that the classroom teacher could adapt them to the needs and capacities of particular children and to the conditions of particular schools. This would insure against needlessly formal treatment of subjects. However as Little notes, whatever the aims and objectives of the scheme it issued in a standard curriculum comprising a set of subjects defined in practice as examinable subject-matter content which was specified in some detail in relevant syllabi. 117

Although no other subject was similarly analysed, the subject English was discussed in some detail in the report. 118 The discussion was introduced in the context of complaints about deteriorating standards of spelling, punctuation, grammar and sentence structure. The report suggested that these shortcomings could easily be remedied if schools devoted sufficient time to teaching, drilling and testing in these areas, although it warned of the dangers of too much drill. The report also recommended that there should be provision of ample opportunity for completed and corrected composition and it stressed that composition depends on a thorough knowledge of the rules of grammar. In further comments on English the report advocated the use of comprehension exercises and urged that in the junior years of secondary school the study of literature be based on an extensive reading of a wide range of books, especially books close to the interests of the children. However the purpose of this was to instill


the reading habit, and once the reading habit was established the literary heritage could be explored more fully, including the development of literary forms.

(b) The Syllabus Level. 119

Purposes and Core Assumptions.

As is common in such statements, the aims of the syllabi are expressed in rather general terms. Children are to express themselves in speech and writing, to understand the speech and writing of others and to feel and appreciate the appeal of literature which is described as a humanising experience. However the purposes and assumptions are revealed in the activities listed.

Children are to prefer the best literature and to know why through a mastery of elements of literary criticism such as narrative, character and setting. 120 This knowledge will enable them to write "longer literary appreciations" and book reviews which reflect elementary literary cannons. 121 A central purpose then is that pupils will become familiar with works of literary excellence and their literary heritage generally. Even where this purpose is described as the development of individual qualities such as personality


120 English Syllabus for Form I, op. cit., pp.42 and 39.

121 ibid.
and self-expression, mastery of elements of criticism such as narrative, characterization, suspense, surprise and contrast occupy the central place in the syllabus.\textsuperscript{122}

Similarly children are to base the development of language skills on linguistic knowledge.\textsuperscript{123} In writing, the aim is to learn to express ideas clearly and correctly by use of the sentence form which can be mastered through a study of the various forms.\textsuperscript{124} In all skill work correctness in expression is to be an important concern as is neatness. Therefore work in language is to be correctly expressed and is to be corrected.\textsuperscript{125}

A key purpose of both literature and language study is described as a preparation for later studies and a more extensive study of literature.

With more able children the development of advanced critical and expressive skills should be commenced early.\textsuperscript{126} In reading they should tackle more challenging passages and elementary linguistic analysis. In writing they should construct short stories and ought to develop a sense of style. In literature they should tackle more difficult elements of critical analysis such as mood, atmosphere and purpose.

\textsuperscript{122} \textit{ibid.}, p.47.
\textsuperscript{123} \textit{ibid.}, p.32.
\textsuperscript{124} \textit{Ordinary and Advanced Level Courses for Forms II, III and IV}, \textit{op.cit.}, p.16.
\textsuperscript{125} \textit{ibid.}, p.19.
\textsuperscript{126} \textit{ibid.}, p.12.
Subject.

The various syllabi are set out in a number of skill areas, "The Speaking of English", "Reading and Comprehension" and "Written Expression", and content areas, "Language" and "Literature". However there is considerable overlap, especially between the skill areas and language.

Literature is to be selected with the interests and capacities of individual pupils in mind but the literature selected is to have some literary merit and each section, prose, poetry and drama, should illustrate a variety of literary forms. Study of the media and film is a notable omission. While literature is to be studied for pleasure each section lists elements of literary analysis to be mastered.

The skill areas, speech, writing and reading are closely allied to language study. The latter is composed of the study of vocabulary (semantic, lexical and etymological aspects), spelling, grammar and punctuation. Work in reading supports the development of the skills of literary analysis and language study. Work in writing is based on language study.

Pedagogy.

Each section of the syllabi includes a commentary suggesting approaches to teaching the material listed. The commentary is composed essentially of a range of suggestions for developing skills, tests and drill activities suited to that section and of suggestions on how to motivate the students to engage in these.

English is conceived as a cumulative, sequential and predominantly cognitive activity based on the
acquisition of appropriate knowledge. This is clearest in the section on Written Expression where it is advocated that children learn to write different kinds of sentences by studying sentence structures, beginning with simple sentences and progressing to the more complex forms.127 Throughout this study the exemplar technique is to be used since it is thought that children would be unable to write complex sentences until they had studied the processes of co-ordination and subordination. "The writing of sentences may be effectively based then on a knowledge of the various forms".128 These syllabi present a graded course of work in sentence building which is sequenced and cumulative and which ensures that students practice the various forms of sentences. Once this work has been completed a similar programme is carried out with paragraphs. "When the paragraph has been mastered, longer compositions should be undertaken".129

The syllabi advise that topics which are relevant to the pupils' experience and environment should be chosen for writing practice. However the purpose of this selection is instrumental rather than developmental. The emphasis is on selecting content with which to practise the form. "Granted, then that pupils need something to write about from their own experience at the home (sic) or at school or from their observation, it follows that the teacher needs a planned course for composition, consolidating and augmenting skills as they are developed".130 Much of this work is language study, mainly vocabulary,

127  English Syllabus for Form I, op.cit., p.20.
128  ibid.
129  ibid., p.22.
130  ibid., p.25.
spelling and grammar, which occupies about half of the time devoted to English.

A similar instrumental selection of topics is advocated in regard to developing the skill of reading. Passages are to be selected which are suited to the capacities and interests of children but again this is mainly for purposes of motivation. Rather than developing interests these selections are to be used for the intensive study of short passages which will develop the skill of detailed comprehension.

Given this conception of how language skills are acquired the pedagogy therefore emphasizes testing and instruction. Exercises and drill are also stressed. Vocabulary and grammar are described as dependent on consistent teaching, spelling and good speech as dependent on correct drills, exercises and testing.

Style.

Generally the syllabi consist of a rather bald catalogue of content, which is described in the introduction as a summary of material, accompanied by suggested lines of approach. As such it is a sparse, utilitarian construction conveying no perception of alternatives.

The most frequently stated caution is that the learning experiences provided for pupils be appropriate to the age and interests of children of various capacities which is repeated in some form twenty times. However as was noted above this is interpreted in a narrow instrumental sense. As has already established the "key symbols" are "excellence", "correctness", "instruction", "testing" and "motivation".
In summary, it can be seen that at both the system and syllabi levels of the 1962 New South Wales Secondary English Curriculum a pattern of interworking meanings can be identified. Furthermore this pattern exemplifies Evett's idealist curricular ideology.\textsuperscript{131}

While English is described as concerned with expressive skills, the subject is defined in practice as examinable subject-matter content, primarily knowledge of language study, the literary heritage and literary criticism. At all points a concern with excellence is to the fore, not only excellence of student performance but also in students valuing the best. The emphasis in English study is to be a concern for passing on the best of the literary heritage.

Again it is taken for granted that children have to be motivated to engage in this type of study and that attainment is a product of formal teaching methods: close instruction, testing and an extensive use of exemplar techniques. Indeed personal development is defined narrowly in terms of increasingly more sophisticated literary criticism and more advanced knowledge. Generally the orientation is towards future higher attainment in these areas.

The 1971 Curriculum.

(a) The System Level.

Recent changes in secondary curricula in N.S.W. are reported in the document "Aims of Secondary Education" prepared by a special committee for the

\textsuperscript{131} J. Evetts, \textit{op.cit.}, p.9-10.
Board of Senior School Studies and the Secondary Schools Board and presented in August 1973.\textsuperscript{132} While the original mandate of the committee was a review of the continuing appropriateness of the aims of the secondary curriculum, its recommendations are directed to the means of attaining these aims, and these recommendations were subsequently endorsed by the Boards.

The view most often expressed in this paper is a re-statement of the Wyndham Report conclusion that due to the marked diversity of children in secondary schools a greater flexibility is required in the programmes provided in secondary schools while at the same time ensuring no loss of underlying purpose. Much of the document is concerned with elaborating this theme and in persuading that this is an urgent need. Rhetoric rather than ideology is foremost. The diversity of school children and the demands this makes are presented as inevitable and attributed to rapid social change which has already taken place. "Our state agencies, our local communities and our schools are not so much moving towards a new situation as finding themselves already in one".\textsuperscript{133}

While a number of the changes which have taken place, and are here advocated, amount to basic changes in the direction and organization of secondary education this aspect is minimised and the changes are described as more effective ways of attaining continuing aims. "So many changes have occurred which leads to adjustments in the ways in which fundamental aims are


\textsuperscript{133} \textit{ibid.}, p.4.
The emphasis in the discussion is on the pursuit of relatively unchanging aims in a rapidly changing situation.

Like the Wyndham Report, much of this more recent report is concerned with how the curriculum for a particular child is to be determined and implemented. One consequence of the changing situation is the devolution of more initiative and responsibility to the school and the classroom teacher. This development is presented as inevitable. Due to the knowledge explosion, it is claimed, subject syllabi already emphasize principles and leave the selection of detail to the classroom teacher. Furthermore increased flexibility will bring about more effective realization of aims and this necessitates that much planning be carried out at the school level. "Diverse programmes particularly adjusted to the clients and resources of particular schools can be equally valid in pursuing a commonly accepted aim of enriching the life and assisting the personal and social development of every secondary pupil".135

However whereas the Wyndham report was limited to curriculum re-arrangement rather than curriculum change the recent report goes much further. The tendency for aims to be distorted is attributed to the preoccupation with supposed methods of attaining them. The report states that especially with aims in key areas such as thinking, attitudes and decision-making it is essential that experiences be provided which deal with these directly. In this regard the limitations of a curriculum composed of a set of subjects in attaining

134 ibid.
135 ibid., p.8.
key objectives is noted. "For all the advantages of a common subject-curriculum, it may be doubted whether it has met the needs of all groups ... while it can distribute general information it ultimately depends on little hard knowledge of the child".\textsuperscript{136} The report concludes that the subject-based curriculum is simply one of a number of possible forms.

Overall the report foreshadows a situation in which schools are to be encouraged to develop their own programmes. Not only in response to specified social change, but also in the attempt to increase participation, on the assumption that aims will thus be more likely to be attained. However this devolution of responsibility also reflects the tentativeness and openness with which curriculum determination is viewed. Rather than reaffirming existing programmes the report states that it is necessary to discover "what students really need to do in order to engage in the kinds of learning and behaviour which are sought after".\textsuperscript{137}

These foreshadowed changes have already taken place in several subject syllabi.

(b) The Syllabus Level.\textsuperscript{138}

Purposes and Core Assumptions.

At a general level there is a unity with previous

\textsuperscript{136} ibid., p.20.

\textsuperscript{137} ibid., p.14.

English syllabi as to aims of comprehension and self-expression but there is a different perception of what these mean and how they are to be attained.

The overarching aim of the new syllabus is the development of the utmost personal competence in using the language which entails a grasp of meaning, form and values. It is then, the development of practical competence in language use in a variety of situations rather than the preparation for academic study.

This focus on the individual and his competence stresses the need to meet children where they are and to broaden their experience in order to develop their language resources. The concern is the increasing of the pupils' range of experience and competence with increased critical and creative resources as the goal. However since this competence involves personal and social value-judgments as well as language skills a related aim is to help children explore their own and other peoples values.

Subject.

English is defined as an active pursuit concerned with self-expression and comprehension rather than with the acquisition of systematic, abstractly formalized information about linguistics and literature. It is concerned with what the pupil does and can do, with personal growth and response and the development of abilities, not with what he knows about English in some theoretical way.

Compared with earlier English syllabi the new syllabus constitutes a conscious and deliberate shift of emphasis from English as information to English as
activity, that is, the curriculum is defined in terms of process rather than in subject matter terms.

The literature and language used is to be selected appropriate to the pupils' developing needs, interests and capacities and to be based on the pupils' everyday speech and writing and their experience of literature and the media. These themes and contexts drawn from the child's experience are not selected for purposes of motivation to English, they are English. As with language, "in literature there are no objectives demanding mastery of some formal critical system or history of literature".139 "English is not constituted by such terms, ideas and information, but by pupils' personal experiences and responses in language, of which literature is part".140 This also includes an understanding of communications in the media and practice in how the various media could be used to convey ideas.

Pedagogy.

The omission of the knowledge requirements of previous syllabi constitutes a deliberate turning away from the earlier pedagogy based on the notion that the formal acquisition of knowledge in a cumulative, sequenced manner must precede practice. This is replaced by the belief that it is neither necessary nor sufficient to deal with the forms of language through the formal definitions and rules of some abstract

139 Notes on the Syllabus in English Forms I-IV: General Bibliography and Commentary, op.cit., p.6.
140 ibid.
system of language theory. Such learning is conceived as not of use in bringing about an improvement in the practical grasp of language. Rather, pupils enlarge their powers of understanding and experience by direct, attentive dealing with language in listening, reading and writing activities which they find of interest and importance and this direct use of language does more to improve the pupils' use of English than any other means. "If a student is having trouble in understanding or constructing sentences which make use of a particular construction the pupil needs further experiences and activity with such sentences".  

The activity approach demands the integration of the various aspects of English and the activities should be tied to the experiences and interests of pupils since they will then become more meaningful and so more beneficial. This can be achieved by building up experiences around a centre of interest, including experience of the language in which people deal with such matters.

However the syllabus does not prescribe an approach but stresses that there are a variety of ways each of which will meet all the syllabus requirements. The need is for approaches that are exploratory rather than instructional, for seeking ways of gaining success. This requires teachers to use their professional judgement to innovate and to help pupils explore the resources of language and literature rather than simply to instruct.

Similarly competence is represented as relative rather than absolute and is to be tested in terms of what it is reasonable to expect of various pupils in

141 ibid., p.7.
the light of their diverse interests, needs and capacities. The testing of information about language and literature is not to be part of any assessment programme.

**Style.**

The syllabus is organized to promote general acceptance and implementation in the face of anticipated resistance or indifference to the changes introduced. Preceding the introduction to the syllabus is a page of quotations drawn from a number of authorities as to the nature of English and how best to teach it. These quotations are essentially slogans which justify the assumptions which underpin the syllabus including the beliefs that literature is read for pleasure, that there are no "right" answers in literature, that children come to school possessed of a working knowledge of English grammar and that a study of the media should occupy a central place in English studies.

Despite these changes the syllabus is described as "an integration and revision" of previous English syllabi. The emphasis is on continuity and the re-orientation is described as simply the omission of some previously overstressed objectives. However this minimization of change slips when rhetoric becomes polemic as in the comments on grammar.

As has been noted in the discussion of the syllabus the most featured "key symbol" is the development of pupils' "competence" which is repeated over thirty times. This development is based on "experience" which is both "active" and "integrated".
In summary, as with the former Secondary English Curriculum, it can be seen that at both the system and syllabi levels of the 1971 Secondary English Curriculum a pattern of interworking meanings can be identified. And this pattern exemplifies Evetts progressive curricular ideology.\(^{142}\)

English is described as concerned with the development of personal competence in the use of language. In practice this becomes a pre-occupation with the individual's everyday experience of language and literature, including his experience of media and film. Similarly development is defined in terms of broadening experience.

The stress on the uniqueness of the individual promotes a sense of doubt as to the means of facilitating this development. Generally, however, this will entail assisting the child to explore, and respond meaningfully to, varied experiences.

Discussion.

When the Secondary English Committee of the N.S.W. Secondary Schools Board replaced the 1962 English syllabi in 1971 with a revised English syllabus the committee replaced an ideology based on literary excellence, correct expression and sequenced instruction with one based on practical competence gained through experience. The intended curriculum changed from one expressing an idealist ideology to one expressing a progressive ideology. In the process English was radically redefined. The goals pursued became immediate rather than long-term, humanistic rather than predominantly cognitive and educational rather than didactic. The change occurred at the

\(^{142}\) J. Evetts, op.cit., p.10.
system level as well as the syllabi level.

Although the general aspirations of the 1962 English curriculum were related to the desire to cater for all students through developing programmes flexible enough to meet the needs and interests of all, the curriculum recommendations made in the Wyndham Report and in the English Syllabi negated these aspirations. In practice the guidelines set down in the curriculum were meritocratic and established good scholarship as the central aim. The self-evident worth of certain fields of thought was prominently stated and the rhetoric of standards was pervasive.

The general perspective of the curriculum was forward looking but expressed in terms of the subject rather than of the child or society. Advanced students would progress more quickly and thoroughly through the subject with the goal of attaining subject expertise. The subject English was concerned with transmitting a certain level of culture which was assumed to be a matter of consensus as was the emphasis on structure and form. Given this certainty over the knowledge, forms and values to be transmitted the central task addressed in the curriculum documents was the identification of the most effective technique of teaching this content, of how to present the subject in a way which would best motivate children to learn. The relation to the life experience of the child was sought for purposes of motivation and formal teaching methods were recommended.

That education in English was defined as a deep knowledge a specific subject matter can be seen clearly in the various syllabus statements. The content included in the syllabus was presented as of self-evident lasting and significant cultural worth
and therefore as universally and absolutely desirable. Similarly it was assumed that attainment of these goals could be measured precisely.

While the recent curriculum proposals are presented as simply a more effective means of attaining continuing purposes, this stress on continuity minimizes a number of quite basic changes. The continuity is presented as continuing to be flexible and adapt to a changing social situation, particularly the knowledge explosion and the increasingly diverse interests, needs and abilities of school children.

But whereas the Wyndham Report had noted the potential danger that the overall aims of the curriculum might be distorted if the syllabus prescriptions were too detailed the recent departmental report expresses this concern with the negation of purposes more focibly and queries the legitimacy of school subjects themselves. The uncertainty over what can be achieved in the pursuit of general aims and over how this can be managed motivated a concern to look for more rational ways of attaining aims and to consider alternative approaches.

However the terms of reference have also changed. The point of view is no longer that of the subject and the stress on scholarship is replaced by a stress on enriching the life of the child, with furthering the development of abilities central to personal and social life. This necessitates a concern with the child in his immediate social context. As a consequence rather than "shutting out the spontaneous realization of the child's culture" B. Bernstein, "Education cannot compensate for society" New Society, 26.2.70, p.347.
The central element of the pedagogy is that there is no boundary between what is taught and the everyday knowledge of the teacher.

The new English syllabi, like the report prepared for the boards, demonstrate a concern to stress continuity with previous English programmes while at the same time changing assumptions, aims, content and pedagogy. However the language in which these changes are reported is less tempered and the reorientation is stated more directly.

The Secondary English Committee attributed this change primarily to changed beliefs as to the psychology of language learning and an appropriate pedagogy. These were related to uncertainty as to what it was feasible for children to learn in school and as to how language performance was enhanced in school. The only certainty was that the model of language learning featured in previous syllabi was in error.

Implicitly the changed beliefs about the psychology of language learning are linked to the changing composition of the secondary school population in response to the demand for more education. Many things formerly taken for granted could no longer be. In particular whereas secondary pupils previously came to school possessed of a reasonable competence in the use of language this is no longer true. The purposes in English teaching could no longer be concerned with applying the literacy and articulateness possessed by the pupils, but rather with developing these qualities. The teaching of English had to be diagnostic rather than disciplinary. However there was little surety as to how to do this. "The extent to which it (the mother tongue) is generally modified and extended by
school is not precisely known". However since it was assumed that language was a function of engagement and experience the curriculum would promote these.

In practice, since most students do not go on to advanced English studies, the effect of the change is related more to what is learnt rather than to how learning goes on, although the latter is also affected. Pupils are involved with different learning activities, experiences, and materials which are deemed to be more worthwhile. As has been shown, different ideas have been brought to bear about what is worth pursuing and a redefinition made. Accompanying the changes in the definition of the subject and the aims to be pursued is a new conception of ability in English which is now viewed more broadly and concerned with personal and social qualities rather than primarily with scholarship.

A direct consequence of the changes in the syllabus is that not only is the breadth of the teacher's responsibility changed but the teachers' role in the curriculum process is accentuated. Since the learning experiences are to be tailor-made for particular groups of pupils and require engagement the stress on teacher responsibility and initiative is heightened. Additionally the syllabus advocates exploratory, experimental programmes rather than prescribing a programme.

Just as the curricular ideology expressed in the previous English syllabi was consistent with the recommendations of the Wyndham Report the curriculum ideology expressed in the new English syllabus is

consistent with the recent proposals approved by the Secondary Schools Board for the secondary curriculum generally.

Although the report presented to the Secondary Schools Board describes the changes taking place as adapting to social change it seems that the revision of the curriculum has the character of a movement, of a set of beliefs in direct violation of traditional notions of what to do and how to do it. 145 A preliminary stage in this process is the general acceptance that the curriculum is an area of uncertainty. In the new English syllabus it is clear that the revision involves the acceptance and legitimation of a formerly deviant ideology, a redefinition of educational and social normality.

Chapter Five

The Curricular Ideologies of Teachers of English

While the English Syllabus Committee has statutory authority, delegated by the Secondary Schools Board, to define the aims of teaching English, the essential constituents of the subject and the best way to teach it much of this authority has been delegated in turn to the classroom teacher. This is largely an outcome of the ideology expressed in the syllabus. As Durkheim pointed out long ago, "the worth of a program depends upon the way in which it is carried out; that is if it is carried out passively or incorrectly it will defeat its purposes or it will remain a dead letter. The teacher charged with making subject matter a reality must desire to do so, must be interested; only by living it will they make it live". 146 In this case the concern is that the teachers will take the responsibility for curriculum design and exercise initiative in enabling students to explore the resources of language and literature rather than just formally instructing them. But partly it recognises the reality of the curriculum process. "The curriculum is a child's colouring book and each teacher fills it in". 147

Fitzgerald has noted that in English teaching in particular it has usually been left to the classroom teacher to provide any connective link between the aims


and the outcomes of a course.\textsuperscript{148} And given the number
the number of levels of interaction in the curriculum
process, the long chain of responsibility increases
the likelihood that those at different levels of the
hierarchy may hold different values about what should
be taught and the gap between precept and practice may
be considerable.

This applies to ongoing programmes as well as to
innovatory ones. "The expectations and goals of the
teacher are an inevitable part of the learning process
therefore the teacher needs to understand, to agree
with and be committed to achieving the aims of any
course with which he is asked to work". \textsuperscript{149} Most
often this perception has characterized analyses of
curriculum innovation where teachers are discussed as
an obstacle to be overcome.\textsuperscript{150} Sociologists have
generally described teachers as being too involved in
the humdrum of classroom teaching to be concerned with
wider educational issues or curriculum change.\textsuperscript{151}

\textsuperscript{148} R. T. Fitzgerald, The Secondary School at Sixes

\textsuperscript{149} P. Hughes (ed.), The Teacher's Role in Curriculum
Design, Angus and Robertson, Sydney, 1973, p.1;
M. Fullan "Overview of the Innovative Process and

\textsuperscript{150} P. W. Musgrave, Knowledge, Curriculum and Change,
Melbourne University Press, Carlton, 1972, p.85 ff
reports these studies.

\textsuperscript{151} S. Perge, op.cit.; M. D. Shipman, "Bias in the
Sociology of Education", Education Review, vol.25
no.3, June 1973; P. H. Taylor, "Teachers'
Perceptions of the Process of Planning Courses"
British Journal of Educational Psychology, November
1970, p.253 ff; "A Study of the Curricula
Influence System of the English Primary School",
Scandanavian Journal of Educational Research,
The rhetoric employed in the 1971 English Syllabus appears to be designed to overcome anticipated apathy and resistance to the curriculum changes it embodies. The curriculum committee describes itself as seeking to establish a consensus as to what English in schools would be like. The degree of this consensus is an indicator of both the general influence of educational ideas and of the consistency between different levels of the curriculum process.

While the Secondary English Syllabus Committee was drafting the new English Syllabus, in 1970 the A.C.E.R. administered a questionnaire concerned with the purposes, essential constituents and methodology of teaching English to a sample of secondary English teachers. The questionnaire asked teachers to indicate on a five-point scale the extent of their agreement or disagreement with statements about these issues. The findings of this study were reported as the percentages of teachers agreeing with, uncertain about or disagreeing with each statement. The study concluded that only on the most general level was there any real consensus and that there was considerable division of opinion as to priorities and to appropriate methods of achieving purposes.

Although secondary analysis of this data presents some difficulties it is possible to distinguish a number of dimensions of the ideology which underpins the new English syllabus and to construct an index to estimate the degree of consensus it enjoys among

secondary school teachers of English. As noted above this also provides an estimate of consistency between the syllabi and subject teacher levels of the curriculum process.

The items included in this secondary analysis are consistent with the general findings of a considerable division of opinion among teachers of English.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item Number</th>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>% agreeing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>The study of literature is the concern of the English teacher. Television and film study can only be peripheral to that.</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Time spent on teaching grammar is largely wasted.</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Drilling and formal instruction are not necessary for the learning of spelling.</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>The team approach in English tends to encourage a disjointed approach.</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Even when teaching very able children the teacher should avoid being too concerned about direct preparation for later academic studies.</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>The teacher's main role is that of providing experiences rather than formally instructing.</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>The most important writing is the poetic or imaginative use of language which permits the student to explore his own feelings and thoughts.</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

How the secondary analysis was carried out is described in the Appendix.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item Number</th>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>% agreeing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>31</td>
<td>Children should be permitted to write frequently and freely without insistence on technical correctness in all written work.</td>
<td>78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>53</td>
<td>If a choice had to be made at the junior secondary level, scripted drama (either published or written by students) is more valuable than free drama.</td>
<td>78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>58</td>
<td>A teacher should not attempt to mark all errors of usage on students' written work.</td>
<td>83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>71</td>
<td>In school, the most effective means to literacy is through creative work and free expression.</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>72</td>
<td>In English, emphasis should be placed on contemporary literature rather than on literature of the past.</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N = 101

While this demonstrates that there is considerable, though varying, disagreement with the emphases expressed in the syllabus it does not show whether there is any pattern to the opposition or whether there is general disagreement with the underlying ideology rather than individual items.

However it is possible to estimate the degree of acceptance of the revisions contained in the new English syllabus if the number of items each individual agrees with is calculated rather than the number of teachers agreeing with each item. This will distinguish whether most teachers generally agree with most of the revisions or whether a group of teachers can be identified who account for most of the resistance
to the revisions. If the ideologies identified here as characterizing the curricula have any influence on teachers individuals will tend to accept most of the statements listed here as typifying the new English syllabus, if they hold a progressive ideology, or to reject most of the statements if they hold an idealist curricular ideology. To the extent that two such groups of teachers can be located, a bimodal distribution is predicted.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of items agreed with</th>
<th>12</th>
<th>11</th>
<th>10</th>
<th>9</th>
<th>8</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of teachers</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Although there is not complete consistency, the majority of teachers demonstrate general agreement with the purposes, definition of subject and methodology expressed in the syllabus but a minority demonstrate marked disagreement with the positions taken by the syllabus committee. This constitutes a continuum between a progressive and an idealist ideology. Those who express beliefs consistent with a progressive ideology are grouped at one end of the continuum and those who express beliefs consistent with an idealist ideology are grouped at the other. The most effective discriminators of the latter group were the items related to the relative value of creative work, grammar and a concern for correctness.

The majority of teachers of English in this sample already accept many of the changes involved in the reconstitution of English carried out in the formulation of the new syllabus. Only a minority continue to affirm that English is based on a
sequential study of literary and linguistic knowledge, that development is concerned with future more sophisticated study and that instruction and correctness are central concerns of pedagogy.

Harris suggests that a change in ideology comes about because of changes in the composition of groups and in the disappearance or redefinition of purposes. 154 Both of these types of developments are discussed in accounting for the radical changes in the ideologies expressed in English curricula. These also constitute hypotheses as to the social locations of these systems of belief. The change to a new curriculum ideology is pre-eminently attributed to the changing composition of the secondary school population as more children and more diverse types of children remain at school resulting in a redefinition of the purposes of the secondary school. 155 This change has been experienced differentially by government and non-government schools since changes in the student population is less marked in the latter and part of their legitimacy is a continuing pursuit of academic excellence. 156 Accompanying the phenomenon of staying on at school has been an increase in the numbers of young teachers entering the secondary teaching service and it is hypothesized that inexperienced teachers will have been more exposed to


155 This is the most frequently stated factor contributing to curriculum change both in official documents and the general literature dealing with curriculum change.

the alternative ideas in their teacher education courses and be less critical of these than more experienced teachers.\textsuperscript{157}

If these accounts hold it is predicted that the proportion of teachers agreeing with the beliefs expressed in the new syllabus will be highest among less experienced teachers in government schools and lowest among more experienced teachers in non-government schools.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of School</th>
<th>Teaching Experience</th>
<th>Proportion of teachers indicating low disagreement with the new Syllabus.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>government</td>
<td>5 years of less</td>
<td>.76 (32 of 42)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>government</td>
<td>more than 5 years</td>
<td>.65 (24 of 37)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>non-government</td>
<td>5 years or less</td>
<td>.50 (5 of 10)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>non-government</td>
<td>more than 5 years</td>
<td>.08 (1 of 12)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

While these predictions are supported the relative influence of experience and type of school is not clear. However this can be clarified by controlling for these variables one at a time using a contingency table format.\textsuperscript{158}


Relationship of Teaching Experience to Curricular Ideology

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of School</th>
<th>Chi square</th>
<th>Significance level</th>
<th>Tau</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Government</td>
<td>1.19</td>
<td>Not significant</td>
<td>.024</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-government</td>
<td>Fisher's Exact Test</td>
<td>.036</td>
<td>.216</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Relationship of Type of School taught in to Curricular Ideology

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teaching Experience</th>
<th>Fishers Exact Test</th>
<th>Tau</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5 years or less</td>
<td>.055</td>
<td>.189</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>more than 5 years</td>
<td>.0007</td>
<td>.237</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Among teachers in government secondary schools there is no statistically significant difference in the extent to which experienced and relatively inexperienced teachers demonstrate beliefs which are consistent with a progressive ideology. The changing perceptions of the needs of the secondary school population and the resultant changes in the purposes, definition and methodology of teaching English reflected in the new English syllabus are consistent with the curriculum ideologies held by the majority of English teachers in government schools. Less experienced teachers in non-government schools show no consistency as a group for either ideology. However individually they give few "uncertain" responses. They
are simply divided in their beliefs. In contrast, experienced teachers in non-government schools demonstrate statistically significant differences from both less experienced teachers and teachers in government schools in that their responses are consistent with an idealist ideology.

Whereas the changes in the 1971 secondary English syllabus represents a discontinuity of one ideology and the adoption of an alternative conception of the teaching of English which is thus deemed to be legitimate, the majority of English teachers questioned by A.C.E.R. demonstrated agreement with this alternative ideology. Given the intensive local and international advocacy of this conception of English teaching and its primacy in curriculum journals, subject associations and methodology texts this is not surprising. As Julia Evetts has pointed out, the motives for sympathising with any particular conception of education are closely associated with the "success" of that particular interpretation.159 This conception enjoys considerable success.

A minority of teachers, and experienced teachers in non-government schools generally, reject this

159 J. Evetts, op.cit., p.12.
conception of education and continue to support the previously endorsed idealist ideology. The latter group demonstrate what Becker terms commitment in their pursuit of continuing goals. The former group may also be demonstrating a similar commitment. It would be useful to possess information as to their own background in English studies and as to the socio-economic areas in which they teach and the grades and levels of ability taught. It is also a moot point whether their response is one of instrumental compliance, withdrawal or alternative practices although the latter would be suggested.

Chapter Six

Conclusion.

The typology of curricular ideologies identified by Evetts appears to account well for recent changes in the secondary school English curriculum in New South Wales. Rather than the change being a modification of the former syllabi, as it is represented to be, it constitutes a redefinition of the subject and the purposes pursued in the teaching of English. Additionally, the changes relate to the secondary curriculum generally, not just to the subject English, since a similar ideology characterizes recent curricular proposals approved by the Secondary Schools Board.

Again, the timidity with which these curricular revisions are proposed seems to be unnecessary since a survey of English teachers' curricular ideologies indicates that a majority accord with the new curriculum principles. Rather than teachers of English having to be persuaded to accept an alternative curricular ideology, it appears that the revision of the syllabus statements merely constitutes a final legitimation of the new curricular ideology. 161

Similarly, while contemporary curriculum change is generally attributed to the influx of younger teachers into secondary schools as a result of a recent rapid expansion of secondary schooling the findings of this case study do not support this hypothesis. However the

161 R. T. La Piere, Social Change, McGraw Hill, New York, 1965, p.66 suggests that socially significant changes seem to have been accomplished before they become apparent.
hypothesis that the curricular ideology held by a teacher is associated with type of school was supported. This suggests that more detailed analysis of the social location of curricular ideologies would be profitable. Additionally, analysis of the impact of situational determinants on the curricular ideologies of teachers would be worthwhile.

A focal question of sociological analysis of curricula was identified as the extent to which changes in curricula were related to wider normative and institutional change. While the analysis of curriculum change is yet to develop an adequate theory to account for such change, as was noted in the introduction to this study, discussion of curriculum change tends to relate to two alternative general theories of social change. Bernstein identifies the shift to a pedagogy based on principles and a content based on an idea related to the pupils' everyday experience, which characterizes the curriculum change examined here, as symptomatic especially of changes in the principles of social control.162 Holly attributes such curriculum changes to developments internal to the education system.163 This disagreement reflects the continuing problem of the relationship between school and society.

While this study does not provide an answer to this problem it is noteworthy that the change in the


curricular ideology within English parallels proposed general changes in the secondary curriculum. But although the need for these wider changes is attributed to specific social changes, particularly the knowledge explosion and the increasing diversity of the school population, it is difficult to see how these can account for the changes within English. The English syllabus simply states that what was done previously was wrong.

Evetts notes that analysis which focuses on the curricular ideologies of individuals or groups is of limited efficacy in accounting for educational structure and culture. However it would be valuable to compare changes taking place in curricular ideologies to changes taking place in other social institutions such as reported in Schatzman and Strauss' study of psychiatry.

As Esland points out curriculum change can be initiated for a variety of pragmatic or philosophical reasons but two structural changes in the school system in New South Wales can be identified which have created the conditions which make such curriculum changes possible. The key development has been that the rising aspirations for education, probably in the belief that it lends to social mobility, has resulted

165 L. Schatzman and A Strauss, "A Sociology of Psychiatry: A Perspective and Some Organizing Foci", Social Problems, vol.14, 1966. The similarity between some of the changes identified in their study and curriculum changes suggest the influence of more general social ideologies.
166 G. M. Esland, "Teaching and Learning as the Organization of Knowledge", in M. F. D. Young (ed.), op.cit. p.73
in a great increase in the proportion of student who complete secondary school. Whereas formerly most pupils terminated their education in the middle years of secondary school and sought qualifications at these levels the pressure for certification has moved higher up the school system. This development with the increased preference for non-selective education structures has minimised the selective function in the early and middle years of secondary schools and left them relatively free from control by higher levels in designing the curriculum.167

The pursuit of curriculum development has also assumed a new legitimacy in New South Wales with the appearance of the officers of the Directorate of Studies who are identified as curriculum experts. The most recent blue-print for change has been designed by these officers. This approach has reinforced the view that there are general aims which can be defined in terms of the needs and interests of children. This enables questions to be asked about the effective realization of aims and for expressions of unease in this respect to become a platform for advocating alternative means.168

Assessing the social significance of the curriculum change identified here is difficult since as La Piere points out we can do no more than make an informed guess about the functional consequences of a

167 B. Bernstein accounts for the curriculum in English infant schools in similar terms. B. Bernstein, "On the Classification and Framing of Educational Knowledge", op.cit., postscript.

change which is occurring.\textsuperscript{169} Furthermore it is not clear that the change in curricular ideology makes any real difference in the classroom practices of teachers nor what the consequences of different classroom practices are. However if, as Esland states the social distribution of competence and educational opportunities are conditional on the ideologies and classroom practices of teachers, further investigation in both these areas will be worthwhile.\textsuperscript{170}

The widespread view that almost all curriculum change in education comes from outside the system has been supported by Evetts, but she notes that change can come about inside education itself if there is sufficient unity or a powerful enough majority advocating a particular educational change.\textsuperscript{171} A relatively high consensus in the conception of education held by individuals at three levels of the curriculum process in N.S.W. has been demonstrated here. Given this consensus and the changes in the balance of interests involved in curriculum construction there is a high potential for further major changes as the progressive ideology outlined here continues to be implemented.

\textsuperscript{169} R. T. La Piere, \textit{op.cit.}, p.70.
\textsuperscript{170} G. M. Esland, \textit{op.cit.}, p.74.
\textsuperscript{171} J. Evetts, \textit{op.cit.}, p.155.
Appendix

The questionnaire study "Current Issues in the Teaching of English" was carried out by A.C.E.R. in 1970. The target population was teachers responsible for organizing English in the lower and middle forms of secondary school and teachers teaching English in those forms for a minimum of five hours per week. The design called for a random sample of 42 schools in N.S.W. with the representation of government and non-government schools proportional to their total numbers, 295 and 107 respectively. Where more than four teachers were involved from one school, a random sample of these was selected. The percentage of schools responding was 62 and the final sample size of teachers was 101.

The analysis here was concerned with using this data to construct an index of agreement with the subject and pedagogic ideology expressed in the new English syllabus. An initial problem was that while the questionnaire comprised 78 statements about the purposes, subject matter and pedagogy of teaching English some of these were rewordings of other statements, some were truisms and some were faulty items in that they involved double statements or used cue words. The procedure followed here was to analyse the syllabus materials in order to identify the dimensions of the ideology being examined and to select the best worded statement concerned with these. This produced 12 items covering purposes, subject matter and pedagogy. The number of times an individual agreed with statements consistent with the syllabus was then computed. Interrelating these with type of school taught and the years of teaching experience yielded the following array.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Agreement with Syllabus</th>
<th>Teaching Experience</th>
<th>Teaching Experience</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Totals</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Teaching experience is divided at five years. This involved joining the first two categories in the original study, while it was necessary to do this to obtain large enough numbers in the cells of the array, since most teachers could expect to move to a position of responsibility after four or five years of teaching experience, it is a logical point of division for such a dichotomy.
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