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Using data collected through interviews with headmasters, other administrative personnel, teachers, and pupils from a random stratified sample of 33 comprehensive schools in England and Wales, a study was conducted of the use of the house system, with schools classified into four types: using the house system extensively, 11; using it moderately, 7; using it minimally, 13; not using the house system, 2. Number of pupils per house ranged from 95 to 500, with a median of 180. Comparisons were made with data from eight private and 34 public American schools using the house plan. Included in the report are a summary of related literature, a brief history of British education with special reference to comprehensive schools, and implications of the study for organizational change of large heterogeneous high schools in the United States. Sample questionnaires and an extensive bibliography are appended. (JK)

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U.S. Department Of
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FINAL REPORT

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THE USE OF THE HOUSE SYSTEM IN COMPREHENSIVE SCHOOLS IN ENGLAND AND WALES

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The research reported herein was performed pursuant to a contract with the Office of Education, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. Contractors undertaking such projects under Government sponsorship are encouraged to express freely their professional judgment in the conduct of the project. Points of view or opinions stated do not, therefore, necessarily represent official Office of Education position or policy.

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF
HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE

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Table of Contents

List of Tables

PREFACE

This project was sponsored by the Department of Educational Foundations of the College of Education of the University of Cincinnati in cooperation with the United States Office of Education. Dr. Ralph L. Pounds, Professor of Education and Head of the Department of Educational Foundations, served as Director of the Project. Mrs. Ruth Pounds, on leave as a Guidance Counselor with the Cincinnati Public Schools, served as the Research Assistant in the project.

Acknowledgment and thanks are herewith given to the National Foundation of Educational Research in England and Wales for providing a headquarters and for helpful advice given during the conducting of the field research in the visitation to the schools in England and Wales. We wish especially to thank Dr. W. D. Wall, the Director of the Foundation, and Mr. T. G. Monks and Mr. T. Robinson of the Comprehensive Schools Study Staff of the National Foundation for Educational Research.

The report has been written by Dr. Ralph L. Pounds, Director of the Project, with some assistance in the tabulating and in the writing of certain portions by Mrs. Ruth Pounds. Neither the United States Office of Education, the University of Cincinnati, nor the National Foundation for Educational Research in England and Wales is responsible for the accuracy of the data nor for the conclusions reached in the report. This responsibility is entirely that of Ralph L. Pounds, Director of the Project.

INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

OF THE

STUDY

SUMMARY

The purpose of this research study[1] was to investigate the use of the house system in comprehensive schools in England and Wales. In connection with this investigation a study was also made of the house system and similar methods of internal organization ("school-within-schools") in certain American secondary schools. The British comprehensive schools are all secondary schools as the term is used in England. While the term is not clear nor precisely defined, it identifies an attempt to bring together boys or girls or both who, in England, would ordinarly attend separate schools, grammar, secondary modern, or technical, from the age of around eleven up and through Form VI, age eighteen or nineteen. The school would be under one administration on the same or related campuses and there might or might not be differentiation of the youngsters with respect to courses inside the school.

Historically, the house system is a development unique to the British educational system wherever it is found throughout the world. It had its historical origin in the great number of boarding schools which were the dominant form of secondary schools in England and Wales until just recently. The house system developed out of the dormitory or private home in which the students in the boarding schools lived. It was a method of organizing the students in a particular house. Among other things, games competition was entered into among the teams from the houses. As the British education expanded and as more and more youngsters went to day schools, the house system was carried over from the boarding school into the day school. Typically, upon the entering of a school a child is assigned at random to a house. Each house usually has a house master and each of the teachers, in most cases, is also assigned to one of the houses. The basic function of the house at present relates to the competitive aspect; that is, in the games and to some extent, competition in grades, school work, or other cultural affairs. However, in the modern comprehensive school, the house has been adapted to another wide range of uses including the use of its smaller groups for more effective administrative purposes involving the individual child, including discipline, and, in some cases, the scheduling of classes by houses.

[1]This is a summary of a research project for which the data were collected under a research grant by the United States Office of Education. Research Contract No. OEC-3-6-068360-1704.

The development of the house organization in the United States is relatively new. There were only a few schools in New England which had a house organization similar to the British system until quite recently. Somewhat over sixty schools in the United States were located for this study. In America the system is not always called the house system and is not always even related historically to the British system. In general, it can be termed as a "school-within-school" organization. It means breaking down the large school for administrative and guidance purposes into relatively small groups. This may or may not involve intra-murals, or competitive activities. If it does, they would be incidental to the rest of the purposes.

The scope of the study was limited to thirty-three representative British comprehensive schools, representing about ten per cent of the comprehensive schools as defined by the Comprehensive Schools Study of the National Foundation for Educational Research in England and Wales (N.F.E.R.).

The basic objectives of the study were to obtain facts and information concerning how the schools organized themselves for house purposes, to establish what the purposes of houses were and the kinds of activities carried on by them and to secure information concerning other related matters such as guidance counseling. Similar objectives, although somewhat more limited by the nature of the methods of data collection used, were pursued in the study of the American schools.

The hypotheses underlying the study was that there might possibly be certain methods of organizing the comprehensive schools of England internally which also might be helpful in solving some of the problems faced by the American schools, particularly in the city where students become lost in the large impersonal schools. It was thought that the British experience, when compared with the limited study of American schools, might provide certain leads as to ways in which American high schools could be better organized for more effective dealing with students of secondary school age.

The method used for obtaining the data was the interview technique. Interview record sheets especially prepared for the British study were filled out while conducting interviews-in-depth with the headmasters, with some of the administrative officials, with representative teachers and with representative pupils. Twenty-six of the thirty-three schools in the representative British sample were visited. Seven of the schools on the sample located within the Inner London Educational Authority could

not be visited because permission was not granted in time. However, some of these data were secured from another source. For the American schools, a questionnaire was prepared, in most instances worded similarly to the Interview Record Sheet, in order to obtain comparable data.

The thirty-three British schools were divided for the purposes of tabulation into four types. Eleven of these schools were classified by a system designed for the study as Type I schools, i.e., schools making extensive use of the house system; seven of these schools were Type II schools, i.e., those making moderate use of houses; thirteen were Type III schools, i.e., making minimal use of houses; and two of them were Type IV schools, having no houses. Forty-two of the forty-four questionnaires returned from the American schools were usable. Of this number, eight were from private or independent schools, leaving thirty-four from public schools. These schools had made use of houses to quite a considerable extent, placing them on a comparable basis with the eleven Type I British schools. The remaining British schools, those of Type II and Type III, used the houses on a rather limited basis, in traditional fashion; and, consequently, did not make as much use as did the American schools in the study, since the latter had developed them more extensively for experimental reasons.

Fifteen out of the twenty-six British schools for which information was available had four houses each. One did not use houses. The remaining reported a miscellaneous number ranging from three up to eight. The range of number of pupils per house in the British sample was quite great, reflecting the size of the schools, 95 pupils per house up to 500. The overall median for the size of the houses in the twenty-five schools for which data were available was 180 students.

Before some of the comparable data on certain selected items is summarized for both the British and American schools, one item relating only to the schools in the British sample will be presented here. An evaluation was made by the interviewers with respect to the possible change in the role of the houses in the future. Out of the twenty-seven schools (of the total of thirty-three in the study) in which an evaluation could be made, in four (or 14.8 per cent), the role of the houses in the future would seem to be decreasing; in twenty (or 74.8 per cent) little or no change was seen in the role of the houses in the future; and in three (or 11.1 per cent) an increase was seen in the role of the houses. Interestingly enough, one of the schools which was seen as increasing its role of the house was one which was already in the

group having the most extensive use, that is, Type I, and one of the schools not then using houses at all was seen in the future to be increasing its role to the extent that it would become a Type I school as it completed a new building.

In the American schools covered by the questionnaire, there were forty-two usable replies from schools having some form of house organization. Out of these forty-two, eight were independent and private schools, leaving thirty-four public schools for which the data were comparable with the Type I schools in the British study.

The British and American schools will now be compared with respect to the primary purposes as given by the schools for use of houses. Each school was asked to indicate which was considered to be the most central purpose of the houses. In this connection, fourteen of the twenty-two British schools answering (or 63.6 per cent) gave competition (that is, the use of team sports to develop team spirit and leadership potentialities among its students). The next largest was advisory (pastoral care) with five schools (or 22.7 per cent). This is to be compared with eighteen of the American schools (41.4 per cent) which listed advisory as its main purpose and another five schools (13.2 per cent) which listed advisory along with "other administrative" purposes.

In another question with respect to the values secured by the house system, the British still stress the houses as a basis for competitive sports, fourteen schools out of the nineteen indicating such values, as compared to the American emphasis on the advantages of the small group for better staff-pupil relationship, twenty-five schools (96.1 per cent) of the twenty-six, on assistance in administrative problems, nine schools (34.6 per cent) and on the opportunity for wider participation of the students, also nine schools (34.6 per cent). However, seven of the British schools (36.8 per cent of the total of the nineteen) do include pupil development and many British schools in the study indicate the giving the student a sense of belonging (five) and the advantages of the small groups with respect to administrative problems (three) and better relationships with the house master (four).

The National Youth Employment Service plays a large part in vocational guidance in secondary schools in England and Wales. It is supported by both the Department of Labor and the Department of Education and Science. Every fifteen-year-old school leaver is interviewed by this service and in almost every case is placed in a job.

The careers master of the school (who also teaches) coordinates this service with the school and takes care of the vocational material to see that the pupils have the opportunity to read it. Some careers masters do a good job in the total field of counseling even though their time for this purpose is limited.

The college bound are usually counseled by the sixth form master or by the headmaster or his deputy. Actually, the choice of subjects to be taken is established by age fourteen and little change can be made due to early English specialization.

The English school does about the same amount of work in sex education, ethical and moral training, as does the American system, according to the results of the interviews and the questionnaire in American schools.

Since England is a welfare state, the problem of needy students as reported seems to be not as great as the United States. In some schools the senior mistress assists students with emergency funds. The remedial teacher often is concerned about needy pupils.

There are attendance problems much like those in the United States. The problem is especially important in England with the school leavers just before they are fifteen.

In schools where the house system is more important, i.e., Type I and II schools, the house master usually is available to be consulted by the students on educational and personal problems; but since he is also their disciplinarian, they do not always feel free with their confidences.

Counselors are now being trained in several teacher training centers. Two obstacles to the full use of counselors in England were found. One is the belief, almost universally held, that all staff members should teach. Thus, the counselor, as teacher, becomes an authority figure. Another is that some school people feel they should not listen to students' problems when they are in trouble with other teachers and are critical of them, even if correctly so. Another big problem will be the division of responsibilities in the school if counselors do become a factor in most schools.

From this study it would seem that British students are able to find help from the school staff. The headmaster is known to his students, especially in the school of less than one thousand pupils. He is usually a father figure and a help with different kinds of problems. The senior mistress is often a strong personality and well able to deal with "girl problems". The work of the American style counselor is done in the British schools by many different people, all of them teaching at least part of the time.

An abbreviated summary of advantages and disadvantages of the house system from the literature and as used in the British and American schools in the study samples are listed here from a much more complete statement in the body of the report:

Advantages

1 - Smaller units facilitate administration of staff and pupils.

2 - Use of small unit administrators assists guidance and pupil development through more individual attention.

3 - Basis is provided for games and other competition.

4 - A basis is provided for pupil social affairs.

5 - Pupils are given a sense of belonging.

6 - Assignment to houses assists in the mixing of pupils of different backgrounds and social classes.

7 - Houses give greater opportunity for pupil leadership and participation.

8 - Assignment to houses gives the pupil more security.

9 - House class scheduling may lead to improvement of subject matter integration and better continuity.

10 - Staff are freed from some administrative details and routine.

11 - Staff members may be more readily brought into a working group.

12 - Houses are not as expensive as separate small schools.

Disadvantages

1 - House administrative structure may conflict with other administrative lines and problems of class scheduling may occur.

2 - Artificiality of houses and narrowness of house activities sometimes are found.

3 - Buildings may not be adapted to houses.

4 - Staff leadership in houses often is inadequate.

5 - Loyalty to house may clash with loyalty to school.

6 - House system may force students into conformity or it may lead to too much freedom.

7 - Pupils may be separated from their friends.

8 - House activities often are a waste of time.

9 - House organization may cause over-organization.

10 - House system is anachronistic (in England, tied in with the elitest grammar school).

11 - House system may be more expensive than use of the large school.

In evaluating the relative advantages and disadvantages based on the above lists, it should be noted that the advantages might come from other methods than the house system, and, furthermore, that many of the disadvantages relate to methods rather than to the organization per se. In the case of advantages it will be noted that, although advantages do accrue from the use of the house system in many cases, with the possible exception of advantages number six, nine, and twelve, they could possibly be secured by other methods of breaking down the internal organization of the school into smaller groups.

On the disadvantages, it can be pointed out that almost all of them relate to the methodology of putting the house system into operation and that the same disadvantages might accrue to other systems if a similar type of method or lack of efficiency were present. Item 10 (related only to England) and Item 11 may be the only ones which would be inherent in the use of the house system.

The implications of the study point, among other things, to possible use of the house system in assisting in the solutions of many of the problems in the large high schools in the United States. Experimental studies to secure empirical evidence as to effectiveness of different forms of house organization for the accomplishment of purposes are strongly recommended.

BACKGROUND OF THE PROBLEM

SECTION I - Introduction to Study: A Brief History of Education in England and Wales

Introduction and Statement of the Problem

The purpose of this research project[1] was to make a study of selected characteristics of the "house system" as it is currently in use in British comprehensive schools (one form of secondary schools). The terms "house system" and "comprehensive" school as used in British education will be defined later. It is hoped that a better understanding of how the house system works in England and Wales and some of the contributions which it makes to the British system might be of interest and assistance in solving some of the problems in the large, heterogeneous, comprehensive junior and senior high schools in the United States.

Many of the problems faced in American schools lay in the loss of identity of the student in a large system. There is little feeling of belongingness. The school administrators find difficulty in dealing with the vast range of individual differences found among the mass of students. The high school fraternities and other juvenile groupings are attempts to achieve a real psychological need. Some of these groups are illegal and others educationally undesirable because of their exclusiveness and oftentimes have purposes antithetical to education. Many of the extra-curricular clubs found in American secondary schools enlist the participation of only a small minority of students.

Although British education is based on different values and on a different set of educational principles, it was thought that there might be some adaptation of the British system to the American system which might assist in the solving of some of the problems of the American schools.

Very early in the course of the investigation it was discovered that there did already exist in the United States a few high schools which did have the house system or a similar type of organization. A survey of most of these schools is included later in this report.

[1]This research project was financed through funds furnished by the United States Office of Education, Research Contract No. OEC-3-6-868360-1714.

The house system arose in England in the exclusive British boarding schools, the "Public Schools" (i.e., private schools, catering to the upper class). It was basically a method used to organize students housed in the dormitories. Of course, most of the teachers and headmasters of the British Secondary Schools have, in the past, been a product of the Public Schools and of the British university system. Consequently, there was carried over even to the day schools (schools whose pupils did not board) the idea of organizing students in houses. As the comprehensive schools were set up this practice continued. Concomitant values were discovered in the use of the house system in the comprehensive schools, in which pupils of all types and classes were enrolled. These values are also pertinent to the American situation. Two of these new values are: (1) the assisting of the students in becoming better acquainted with other students with a wide variety of backgrounds enrolled in the schools through their close association in the houses, and (2) the ability of the school to work more effectively with students through tutorial groups and other relationships (similar to American guidance counseling) which exists in the houses. Consequently, the house system is quite widespread in the comprehensive schools. Although there is some opposition in England to the house system and there are some arguments against them set forth by British educators, they are widely used and strongly supported by many of the headmasters and local school authorities.

A Brief History of Education in England and Wales Prior to 1944

It should be pointed out that the United Kingdom proper consists of four parts, England, Wales, Scotland, Northern Ireland. Although visits were made to schools in all four parts, the study itself deals with schools only in England and Wales. The school systems in each of the four parts are organized somewhat differently except that England and Wales are together administered by the Department of Education and Science located in London. There are some cultural differences in the way in which Welsh schools are operated but by and large they follow the English system. The discussion then will thus deal only with the development of education in England and Wales.

One of the things that strikes the American observer is the wide variety of educational organization found throughout England and Wales, including many types of publicly maintained schools and both independent and maintained private and religious schools.

Although there were some parliamentary grants for education as early as 1833, by and large the national system of education ...

dates back to the Act of 1870. This Act related only to the elementary schools but it does provide the base for the development of a state system which is to involve secondary schools later. It provided for the local operation of schools through local boards of education.

In the Education Act of 1918 (the Fisher Act), the upper age of compulsory attendance was raised to fourteen and the Local Education Authorities (the local government authorities then assigned responsibilities for the schools) were given the duty of providing advanced secondary school for older children within the compulsory age period (up to fourteen). This Act also provided for part-time compulsory education between the ages of fourteen and eighteen.

The Hadow Report of 1926 suggested an educational break for all children at age eleven and a transfer to separate secondary schools. Prior to that time most of the youngsters had to continue on in a post-elementary school to the leaving age of fourteen. The Hadow Report also recommended the school leaving age should go up to age fifteen. The raising of the educational age to fifteen, however, did not come about until after World War II.

Until quite recently, no great restrictions were placed upon the Local Educational Authorities (LEA) as to how they should provide for the secondary education. As time went on the central government began to more and more furnish most of the money to take care of teachers' salaries throughout the country after an educational plan had been submitted by the LEA and approved by the Department of Education and Science, as the former ministry of education is now called. The cost of buildings and other matters of this kind, however, were frequently taken care of by local authorities. Later on central government grants were made available for buildings as well as for the salaries of the teachers and other personnel. The main effect of the complex organization of British education prior to 1944 meant that there was not a well-developed state system. In the case of the grammar school pupils, there was, of course, the examination system to give stability. These were later to be called the "O"-level (ordinary level) and "A"-level (advanced level) examinations, General Certificate of Education (G.C.E.). The O-levels were given at age fifteen and A- levels at age eighteen or nineteen. These were school-leaving examinations but were only available at this time to the select few who attended a grammar school. In the meantime, in most of th other developed countries, a much more systematic basis had been laid for secondary education even though in many of these countries it was, and is, still selective. In the case of England, the basis of a selection was largely dependent upon each Local Educational

Authority. In some cases, for example in Wales, as high as fifty per cent of the pupils might be selected for academic education (Grammar School education) whereas in another area it might be less than ten per cent.

The Education Act of 1944 and the Developments Following

Near the end of the second World War, Parliament passed the famous Education Act of 1944, sometimes called the Butler Act. This superseded all of the other existing education acts and provided for a national system of education. Compulsory attendance was raised to age fifteen and education was divided into three well-defined levels--primary, secondary, and further education. All youngsters above the age of eleven were to be considered in secondary education regardless of the schools that they attended. The system which eventually arose after 1944 can best be described as a tri-partite system. The great variety of schools which can be found can be simply stated as three in kind: (1) grammar schools - opened largely to those people who were highly gifted, the academic type; (2) technical schools - still select but tending more toward what is most frequently called in the United States, Vocational Schools; (3) the English Secondary Modern School which was for all of the rest of the students who could not qualify for the first two. These together were sometimes termed the tri-partite system.

In January, 1965, out of the 5,873 maintained secondary schools there were 1,295 grammar schools for those youngsters who have been carefully selected; 3,727 secondary modern schools; and 172 secondary technical schools.[1] However, this is complicated in the sense that some of these maintained schools are voluntary schools set up by religious groups even though they were partly maintained by public salary grants much like the schools operated by the LEAs.

Then there were also the Public Schools (to be defined more fully later) which had had a long tradition and which were highly selective, of grammar school variety but with much more prestige. There were also some other independent schools and direct grant schools to further complicate the situation. It is not necessary for our purposes here to go into great detail on the wide variety of these schools.

Some of the LEA's had long been dissatisfied with separating of the pupils at age eleven into these groups. This came to be

[1] Education in Britain, p. 18. London: Her Majesty's Stationery Office, 1967.

accomplished by the means of the so-called "eleven-plus" examination. This examination was administered at about age eleven or past. All youngsters would be classified by the test and if passing could, at the request of their parents, be sent to separate grammar schools or technical schools, or otherwise kept in the secondary modern. It was difficult to change schools after starting because courses were so different. Since the secondary modern was a school of much lesser prestige and enrolled by far a great majority of boys and girls of secondary school age, many felt that the pupils of the secondary modern had failed at the very start and the morale of many of these schools was very low. Furthermore, the evidence began to arise that pupils who were permitted to go on in comprehensive schools, as in Wales and other communities where the requirements were not so rigid, quite often did better than would have been predicted by the eleven-plus examination. This led some LEA's to gradually abandon the eleven-plus in the late fifties and in the sixties questions began to be raised concerning the efficiency of the tri-partite system and ways were proposed in which the system might better be worked out. There had also developed in England combined schools such as the bilateral and multilateral schools in which two or three types of secondary schools were placed under the same administration and sometimes in the same building but with separate classes. This seems to help solve some problems (such as cost as far as the use of the building or staff was concerned) but did not seem to make much difference as far as prestige was concerned. Enrollment in the secondary modern division of the bilateral and multilateral schools still seemed to mean to the student that he had failed. It was perhaps somewhat less difficult for a pupil to transfer from one to the other when desirable if the divisions were under the same administration.

It would now be helpful perhaps to give the American reader a few other items in regard to the difference between the operation of the British secondary schools and that of the American secondary schools. Although the British schools are maintained (that is, they are financed by the Minister of Education)and operated by the Local Education Authority, there is still a great deal of more independence within the school itself than in most American schools. Once the headmaster has been chosen he is very independent and authoritative as far as the operation of the school is concerned. The check-up on his students comes with respect to their passing of the examination, the O-level at age fifteen and the A-level at ages seventeen, eighteen, or nineteen. However, the methods which the headmaster uses to produce these results are not prescribed. Consequently, the variety of the methods, organization and teaching which is found in the British schools is bewildering even in comparison with the American schools where there is also complete local operation of the schools, but much similarity from school to school.

In Section II the development of the comprehensive principle and some aspects of the basic philosophy of British education which seems to be emerging in the contemporary period will be more fully investigated.

Definition of Terms

Perhaps it might be well at this point to define more precisely the terms which are used in this study in the sense in which they are commonly used in British education.

The term, "Public School", in British education always refers to a private school which is supported by public contributions or endowments, and charges a high tuition. These are extremely select schools, catering to the children of the upper class. Recently, however, due to the egalitarian influence, these schools have admitted students on scholarships provided by the government. They may come from families of modest income and of lower social economic status. Since there are many grammar schools in England (schools preparing for the highly academic "A"-level General Certificate of Education), the Public Schools must be distinguished from other exclusively academic schools, some of which are financed directly out of public funds. In England the Public Schools are defined as those schools in which either the school itself belongs directly to the Governing Bodies Association (of Public Schools) or its headmaster to the Headmaster's Conference.[1] There are eighty-nine such independent schools and ninety-nine grant-aided schools.

After the Hadow Report, 1926, the Secondary Modern School replaced, for children after age eleven, the former primary school (equivalent to the American elementary school) for those youngsters who were required to stay in school until age fourteen or fifteen. The Education Act of 1944 clearly established a complete secondary education system after the "eleven-plus" examination for all children. The third type of school (in addition to the grammar school and the secondary modern) in the English tri-partite system set up by the Education Act of 1944 was the technical school, offering courses in technical fields.

Review of Available Literature on Houses

A careful search has been made in all possible British and American sources on both the British house system and other uses

[1]John F. Cramer and George S. Browne, Contemporary Education, Second Edition, P. 286. New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, 1965. Pp. x + 598.

of the "school-within-the-school" or of the house system in American schools. The amount of such material happens to be very small. The house system is mentioned briefly in several of the publications which have been published on British education.[1] The writer also located one unpublished thesis in England on the house system.[2]

There have been several doctoral theses in the United States dealing with the topic of the "school-within-a-school". Of those which have been published most have been reviewed by the present researcher.[3] Some of these theses have been recently completed and thus were not available for persual. However, in some cases, very brief summaries of the theses were available. There has been one book published and written by Flath.[4] The book was published on a basis of a thesis written at Columbia University for the Ed.D. Degree. Most of the names of the schools used as a mailing list for the American study were taken from this book. In addition, others were added as follow-ups which cam in response to a request in the questionnaire for names of other schools.

[1]Examples are Richard Gross (ed.), British Secondary Education, and Robin Pedley, The Comprehensive School, P. 122 to 125, 138.

[2]A. G. Hind. "The Comprehensive School With Special Reference to the House System". Dip. Ed. Theses unpublished. University of Nottingham, 1964.

[3]The following is the list:

Robert J. Barry. "Practices of High Schools Organized on the Schools-Within-A-School Plan". Unpublished Doctor's Dissertation, University of Connecticut, 1967.

Robert D. Elliot. "The Effectiveness of School Within School Organization in Three Large High Schools." Unpublished Doctor's Dissertation, Northwestern University, 1967.

John H. Hodgson, The Schools Within A School Plan. A report of a Type C Project. New York: Columbia University Teachers College, 1958. Pp. 218.

William J. York. The Schools Within a School: A Study of Selected Secondary Schools Which Embody This Plan of Organization. Unpublished Type C. Project. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1958.

[4]Karl R. Plath. School Within A School: A Study of High School Organization. New York: Columbia University Teachers College, 1965. Pp. ix + 83.

It will be noted that very few of these American studies tie in the relationship of the "house" development (or school-within-schools) to the British system in England. In this respect, this present study is unique in that it is basically centered on the British house system and that comparisons are made with up-to-date data from the American schools which have tried to use "houses".

Furthermore, there is not available as yet any experimental research showing whether or not the use of the house system or the "school-within-the-school" approach by a school in either England or the United States accomplishes the results for which it has made claims.

Organization of the Study

It might be well now to indicate the way in which the report is to be developed. In the division of Introduction and Background of the Study, the Summary has set forth in brief account the entire study, including conclusions. Under the heading of Background of the Problem, Section I has indicated the nature of the study and presented a brief history. In Section II, the development of the comprehensive school and the house system is discussed against the philosophical and social backgrounds of British education, particularly in England and Wales.

As to Methods, in Section III the technical matters of the study relating to the development of the materials, the collection of data, the selection of schools, and characteristics of the interviews and other preliminary matters relating to methods are set forth.

The next large portion is Findings and Analysis. Starting in Section IV much of the basic data that was collected relating to the house system are presented and analyzed. First, there is an analysis of the data from the British schools in the representative sample. Then some of these data are compared with comparable data from the American schools which had been located and are using some form of the house system. In Section V, one aspect of the study relating to the counseling of students and other pupil personnel problems in the comprehensive schools in England and Wales is presented and a comparison made with similar data in the United States.

In order to get a clearer picture of how the house system operates in the British situation there has been presented in Section VI a little more complete "anecdotal" description of how it operates in each of several representative schools in England. What has been done here is to present descriptions of the use of houses in rather typical schools of each of the four groups of British schools which

have been identified (and which will be defined later in Section III), two in Group I, two in Group II, two in Group III, and one in Group IV. These are compared with two of the representative schools among the thirty-four public schools in the United States using the house system.

In the final part, Conclusions and Recommendations, Section VII gives a summary of the main findings of the study, together with conclusions, implications, and suggestions for further research.

In the Supplement and Appendix materials section, there is lastly a very carefully selected pertinent bibliography of the main sources of information concerning the house system in Britain and in the United States. Additional information is found in the Appendices. There more details concerning the Interview Record Sheets used in the British schools and the questionnaire used for the American schools, along with additional bibliographical sources and other related matters are found in successive appendices.

SECTION II - The Development of the Comprehensive Schools and the House System in England: Philosophic and Social Backgrounds

The most significant development which has occured in post-World War II education in England transcends that of the reclassification of secondary education into the "tri-partite system" itself or of the expansion of University education. It is the development of the idea of the comprehensive school.

The Comprehensive School

The comprehensive school, as the term is used in England, always refers to secondary education. The term as used is not completely clear nor precisely defined. In general, it is an attempt to bring together in the same school organization and on the same campus boys or girls, or both, who would ordinarily attend separate schools - grammar, secondary modern or technical. However, some of the schools in England which have been called comprehensive were actually bilateral of different combinations. The following quotation from a British publication, The Comprehensive School, serves to indicate some of the difficulties of the classification:

> Some areas have schools which are called comprehensive, but are in fact bilateral - although it is sometimes difficult to distinguish between the terms. Bilaterals may be of two kinds. In one, children are tested on entry into the school, and as a result put into the grammar or the modern side, where they stay, with little chance of transfer. Often the two sides share staff and buildings, but transfer for a pupil from the modern to the grammar side may be extremely rare and difficult. In other bilaterals, although their first year entry is when transfer from one side to the other is made easy - as it is in Bristol. The main difference is that while the "comprehensive" school may, or, as sometimes happens in London, may not include eleven-plus successes, the bilateral recruits a definite number of eleven-plus successes, to its grammar side. In many cases these children may not all be of the highest calibre, because

of the number of pure grammar schools in the city.[1]

The same book, however, later defines comprehensive education more completely as follows:

> What then is the real nature of comprehensive education? It can be found only in a school which provides for children of all ages (between eleven and eighteen years), all abilities, and of both sexes. Perhaps the basic aim of the comprehensive school is to assert the equality of man, and then to admit to the validity of Haldane's title, "The Inequality of Man".[2]

Another more ideal definition of the comprehensive school is taken from King's Comprehensive Schools in England: Their Context:

> Comprehensive schools are taken to be schools catering for a full ability range of children from the age of eleven or thereabouts until they reach the end of compulsory school attendance (fifteen now in England) or leave to take up work or further education at a later date.
>
> The comprehensive schools in England are very nearly comparable to the American comprehensive high school. In their complete form, they enroll all students from a given area and offer a wide range of differing programs. However, almost all of the British comprehensive schools do rigidly separate their students after the first two or three years into divisions corresponding to the tri-partite system. Also, almost all British schools carefully place their students into ability groups, (streaming).[3]

[1]The National Association of Schoolmasters, The Comprehensive School, p. 13. Yorkshire, England: Hull Printers, 1964. Used by permission.

[2]Ibid. p. 14

[3]Edmund King, "Comprehensive Schools in England: Their Context", Comparative Education Review, 3, No. 2. p.13, (October, 1959). Used by permission.

The comprehensive school is a secondary school that is ultimately designed to be a school available to all children from an area covering the whole range of abilities. A quotation from Armstrong and Young, New Look At Comprehensive Schools, serves to illustrate the conflicting forces at work in the British schools:

> Partly again, it is the growing influence of the infant and junior schools, all comprehensive. English education still starts with the universities and works downward: it is designed to sift the clever from the dull, and prepare them for their eventual membership in the elite. But the countervailing view, the egalitarian view, that education should start with the infant schools and work upwards, has gathered a strength from the increasing success of the primary schools themselves. And partly the transformation is a response to new evidence of the failure of segregation.[1]

Although the comprehensive schools are a growing part of British education, they still are relatively small in number, considering that there are only around 250 schools (the number depends on how you classify them) out of a total of around 7,000 secondary schools.

However, most comprehensive schools are fairly large, some enrolling up to 2,000 pupils, as compared to the relatively small size of many secondary schools in England and Wales.

It has been (since 1965) the policy of the present government (Labour) in England to allow money for the construction of new schools only if the new school is to be comprehensive. However, on this basis it would take many decades to complete a system of comprehensive schools for all of the "maintained" schools (schools equivalent to the American public schools, that is, they are supported almost wholly from public funds.)

The recent by-elections in England, May and June, 1967, concerned largely with local and county officials, tended to go against the Government in power (the Labour government) and

[1]Michael Armstrong and Michael Young, New Lock at Comprehensive Schools, p. 1. London: Fabian Society, 1964. Pp. 19. Used by permission. "Segregation" refers to academic separation, not racial.

consequently now some of the local LEAs whose make-up is determined by the political composition of the local government units have tended to become of the Conservative Party rather than Labour. This means that some of the Local Educational Authorities that previously were cooperating fully with the presently Labour-operated Department of Education and Science in the cabinet have now begun to work out ways of slowing down the trend toward comprehensive schools. The Conservative Party says that they are not against the comprehensive schools in principle but they are against the speed by which the Labour Government is doing it and some of the methods which have been used to bring it about. Actually, there seems to be a basic difference in philosophy. The Labour Group, by and large (although they are persons of different points of view in both parties), seem to want to bring about the comprehensive school as an exclusive form of secondary education, even making inroads upon the famous Public Schools of the country while the Conservative Party seems to want the comprehensive schools universally available as an alternative, leaving the grammar schools and other independent schools intact for those people who can qualify or who can pay the high fees sometimes necessary. The people who favor a complete comprehensive education say that if there exists schools which can "cream off" the best students, there is not, in fact, "comprehensive" education. Comprehensive education to them means that all youngsters of a given district must be enrolled in the same secondary schools with different courses opened to them within the school.

One of the changes coming about in British education is related to the area of the town to which pupils may go to school. Previously, it used to be that one could be admitted to a secondary school anywhere in town (or outside) if one could qualify and be admitted by the headmaster. Now in more and more areas, the schools are assigning pupils to the comprehensive school in their particular area, much as in the district system of the American schools.

The House System

One of the most significant characteristics of almost all British education is the existence of a grouping of students called the "house system". This system has its historical origin in a great number of boarding schools which until very recently were the dominant form of secondary education in England and Wales. At the top level of the boarding school category came the great Public Schools which have served as a model for all British secondary education. The boys in the British Public Schools (and later

on the girls when separate schools were formed for them), were assigned to dormitories on the basis of what came to be known as "houses". Since most of the leaders of England were masters at the top secondary schools, and many of the masters and most of the headmasters were University graduates who had come from the academic secondary schools, primarily the Public Schools, they tended to form their new schools on this basis. Even the "maintained" schools (governmentally operated and financed schools), whether grammar in nature or technical or secondary modern, tended to follow the pattern of the secondary schools in using their "house system".

Upon entering a school, each child is assigned to a house, sometimes on the basis of a previous affiliation to the house of his parent or other relative. Each house usually has a housemaster and the staff may as well be assigned to a house.

Although the kinds of activities and functions provided through the houses varies from school to school, they commonly include assemblies, administrative functions (similar to American home-room and individual and guidance counseling), and extra-curricular activities of various forms such as intra-mural athletics and sometimes competition with respect to scholastic and other matters.

The students who are assigned to a house can be all ages of students and all levels of abilities, both in the boarding schools and in the day schools. As the houses were adapted to the comprehensive school, the range of ability within the houses became quite wide. Consequently, students belonging to the same house may attend a different set of classes. In many cases, however, the tutorial groups are set up for students in similar classes and belonging to a particular house.

Pedley estimated that about ninety-five percent of the comprehensive schools, most of which are day schools, many co-educational, have the house system. (Comprehensive School, p. 122). In the case of co-educational schools, the boys and girls sometimes belong to different houses but frequently a boy's house will be connected with a corresponding girl's house and often will have their assemblies and social activities together.

The following is a description and critique of the house system as used in comprehensive schools given by Pedley, a British expert on comprehensive schools:

Very occasionally the 'house' is an organization for games only. More frequently it extends to the social life of the school, and sometimes house groups are also classes for physical education, religious studies, crafts, and fine arts. Where house rooms or separate buildings are provided, the house is often an administrative center, too, with records, registers, reports, meals, cloakrooms, and many teams and clubs based on it.

There is no uniform pattern of house organization. A mixed school of 1,500 children may have five boys' houses and five girls' houses of 150 each, or it may have five mixed houses of 300 pupils each. It is difficult to see how the former arrangement, formally separating boys from girls in what is meant to be the kernel of a school's social life, can be justified in a comprehensive co-educational community.

Within the house are tutorial groups. Each member of staff is attached to a house, and nearly all assistant teachers, apart from the housemaster or housemistress, have a group of some thirty children each put in their care. It may be a group of either boys or girls, or of both boys and girls, all of one age; or it may be a cross-section of the school's age range, eleven to eighteen. In either case, the tutor usually remains with his charges throughout their school life, though where personal antipathy exists between tutor and pupil, as must occasionally happen, the latter is transferred to another group.

There are obvious attractions in the idea of breaking the large school down into smaller divisions. The picture of a personal tutor watching over the interests of each child, in close touch with his parents, collecting and assimilating information about him from other members of the staff, guiding his pupil in the choice of courses and the many personal problems of school life, is a fine, idealistic one. There is no doubt that not only in schools of over 1,000, but in most schools of 500 or so, too, care of this kind is needed. It would transform the effectiveness of our education. All honour, then, to those heads who are trying to make the vision a reality.[1]

The principal and headmasters who strongly support the house system do so largely on the basis of tradition and because it serves a special purpose in schools enrolling a wide variety of

[1]Robin Pedley, The Comprehensive School, pp. 122-125. Baltimore: Penguin Books, 1966. Used by permission.

youngsters, some of whom may come from social groups that may not be socially acceptable to the leadership groups. These headmasters maintain that the child is more quickly assimilated as a part of the group because of his assignment to the house and that he is made to feel, in many cases, that he "belongs". However, due to the large sizes of the comprehensive schools and to inadequacies of building construction and a number of other reasons, there are problems and difficulties concerning the house system and not all experts agree in approving them.

In connection with the problem of belonging, Pedley, although he has misgivings in regard to the house system, quotes some research done by Pape which is interesting in this connection.

> Small sample studies recently conducted by Mr. G. V. Pape suggest that in a comprehensive school with a strongly-developed house system girls do not stick to their form-mates. They are just as likely to be found mixing with other members of their house who are in different forms. His study does not claim to amount to anything like a final judgment, but it suggests that the house system is helping to counteract the segregation influence of streaming.[1]

The Social and Philosophical Background of British Education (England and Wales)

It has not been the main purpose of the present study to make a study of the philosophical and social backgrounds to British education. However, some of this was necessary in order to properly understand the role of the house system in the country. The secondary education of England has been of a scholarly nature something like the liberal arts academic tradition in the United States. This view places heavy emphasis upon subject matter and on success in the subject matter. ... Those who are not capable of mastering the difficult content tend to take the less important positions in the society. The eleven-plus examination which was introduced widely after World War II was for the purpose of seeing to it that any one of ability might be able to qualify for the better schools. It was soon discovered, of course, that the eleven-plus examination was highly biased in favor of certain persons from middle class

[1]Robin Pedley, op.cit. p. 128. Used by permission. "Segregation" here again refers to segregation by academic abilities.

or above families and whose families were fairly well educated. Furthermore, as pointed out earlier, it was found out that some of the pupils who could not pass the eleven-plus examination but who, for some reason, were permitted to go on, quite often did well including a few who made honors at Oxford or Cambridge.

The educational tradition, then, of England and Wales and as well as the other components of the United Kingdom have tended to have an "elitest" philosophy. The job of the schools was considered to be that to discover and train to the utmost the outstanding persons. Any observer in the British schools noting the size of the classes in the Sixth Forms and the great attention given to the Six-Formers preparing for the A-level examinations will recognize that this philosophy still persists in British education even in the comprehensive schools. As a matter of fact, many of the comprehensive schools base their success on the number of pupils that they can eventually get to pass successfully certain O-level and A-level examinations for the General Certificate of Education (G.C.E.)

There has come in recent years a new form of examination at the O-level. At about age fifteen, along with the "O" level, another examination may be given which provides to the successful student a certificate called the Certificate of Secondary Education (C.S.E.). This is not as demanding as the O-level G.C.E. and is based upon broader educational objectives. There are three ways of giving this examination, including one called "MODE III", which permits the examination to be set up by the group of local teachers and locally scored under certain supervision from outside. MODE III is more nearly like the American system of evaluation except that in the American system each teacher prepares and gives the examination and there is no general supervision over the teacher in the process of the examining of the student.

A discussion of the educational philosophy underlying English education at the present time will now be made. Philosophically speaking, English academic philosophy is currently dominated by the philosophy of empiricism. The implications of this philosophy tend to run somewhat counter to that of a sociological approach. As a matter of fact, sociology is not as well accepted a discipline in England as it is in the United States. Of course, in both countries it is relatively low on the "pecking order" of the academic disciplines. The empiricist's tradition did support for some time the "scientific" approach of classification by tests supported by the psychometric psychologists, the

measurement group. Of course, the philosophic bases for attitudes among the general populace are as many and varied as they are in the American schools.

The pragmatic temper of the American educational philosophy, which goes beyond empiricism in attemtping to set the goals of education very definitely within an interaction process between the individual and his culture, seems not to have penetrated very far into the British educational tradition. The social philosophy that seems to be behind the comprehensive school is that of educational equalitarianism, that is, giving every person of all classes an equal chance of having a good education. This philosophy opposes the setting aside of certain schools, like the Public Schools, for those people who can afford them or who can pass the necessary examinations. Not all of the Public Schools are based on high scholarship. Some of them stress other qualifications such as family and personal qualifications.

One indication of an increase in the concern of some British educators concerning relationships between school and culture is the increased number of books coming off the British presses now, written on this theme. Some of these books are listed in the select bibliography after Section VII. These books seemed not to have had too big an impact on British education as yet because the British system is still so closely tied in with the preparation of pupils to meet the examination requirements.

At the elementary level, things are somewhat different. As a matter of fact, one of the reasons why the eleven-plus examination was dropped lay in the fact that it was felt to hamper the "primary" schools (as the elementary schools are called in England). Getting pupils ready to be successful in the eleven-plus examination hindered the primary schools from carrying out the kind of school their philosophy is based upon--namely, Piaget, Freud, and others as opposed to the psychiometricians and the pure empiricists. This feeling on the part of the British primary school educators coupled with the loss of faith in the efficacy of the eleven-plus examination to separate satisfactorily the good students from the bad caused it to be gradually withdrawn in many LEA's. Even when the eleven-plus is given, it is not often used as an absolute basis for sending the children to separate schools. Many schools that still separate their children and send them to different schools use teacher recommendations as a more important factor than the eleven plus examination. The eleven-plus examination in recent years had tended to be more and more a type of verbal intelligence test rather than a test of achievement.

The schools in the representative sample which were visited represented philosophies probably as diverse as do those in the United States. However, there was probably more emphasis on scholarly attainment and attention to the fact that students in the school were doing well on the O and A-level examinations. These, of course, are forced on the headmaster by the circumstances of the practices of the country. However, there were some differences among the headmasters in a way in which they enriched their curricula or took an interest in developing the boys and girls who were not necessarily of the type that would do well in the O-level, G.C.E. examination (or even in the C.S.E.).

The following is the analysis of an item in the Interview Record Sheets (to be described more fully in Section III) in which the interviewers in this study attempted to appraise in general the characteristics of the over-all philosophies found in the schools visited. This represents a very broad appraisal and is, of course, rather subjective but is presented here as some indication of the kind of range of philosophies found in the schools. The philosophies indicated here are by and large the measure of the influence of each headmaster on his school.

The schools are listed by the type[1] of schools in order to investigate to see if there are any differences between the philosophy of those schools using the house system extensively and those which did not. In the Type I schools, that is, those using the houses extensively, there were two which could be indicated as somewhat moderate or middle-of-the-road in their philosophy. There were five schools which could be indicated as liberal or somewhat pupil-centered. There was one school which could be labeled as conservative in its philosophy. Moving to Type II schools, four were liberal and another was liberal but with a strongly Christian idealistic tinge. In Type III schools, or those having a minimal use of houses, there is quite a contrast to the others. In this case, the plurality - five out of the twelve - can be classified as conservative; four, middle-of-the-road; two, liberal; and one with a Catholic commitment but moderately liberal. In Type IV (those not having houses) there was only one school that was visited and it was labeled as conservative.

Looking back at the total, then, out of the twenty-six schools visited, six were middle-of-the-road; eleven were liberal; seven conservative; and two miscellaneous - of which the first was Christian idealism and the second was Catholic Liberalism.

[1]For more complete definition of these types, see page 39 Section IV.

It is the view of the present writers that England will find itself moving somewhat in the general direction and philosophy of American education. First, England has been rather slow in technological development as compared with America. Secondly, the school administrators and others are more insulated from the effects of change. This is due to the strong tenure and authority of the headmasters who have been very heavily academically educated. Furthermore, the prestige of British education is much higher in its culture than is the American education. Probably because of the British respect for tradition and the "elitest" emphasis of the past, and the highly selective nature of secondary education made the quality of education for those who did get some type of the certificate much higher than comparable certificates and diplomas in the United States. The ordinary British parent in the British Isles has very little to say about his child's education. The schools are well insulated from parental influence. There is politics in educational decisions but it relates almost entirely to the kinds of schools to be set up and to school building plans and does not relate very much to the internal operations of the schools themselves.

Some groups in England have taken the "comprehensive schools" principle far beyond that of American education to the extent that they advocate a completely and inclusive comprehensive principle. (This would eliminate completely private and exclusive schools.) This extremism is in reaction, first, to the feeling that, although a few people in England are getting a very good education, it is an education largely not related to the reality of the world in which it is found and this leads to some misgivings about its worthwhileness. Secondly, it is felt by these groups that the vast majority of the British populace are not getting as good an education as was being received in a mass education country like the United States.

It was rather striking to an American observer to hear seriously suggested that private schools as such be not permitted to exist. The abrogation of the right of a private school to exist and of the right of a parent to send his child to it by paying tuition would be contrary to the American Constitution. However, in British parliamentary type of government, such a step would not be impossible if the Parliament so ordained. This means that the current proposals of the government in its far-reaching effects might go beyond the equalitarianism of American education. However, it should be pointed out that in spite of all this talk about the future, the changes that are coming about in England ever so slowly and even though the comprehensive schools are growing rapidly they still enroll only about 8.5 per cent of all the secondary school population in England and Wales.

This percentage will apparently change quite rapidly in the future in response to Circular 10/65.

Another interesting development in British education relates to what is known there as "streaming". "Streaming" in British education refers to the widespread practice of grouping or sectioning students with respect to ability. This occurs even in the highly selective schools. The youngsters are placed into teaching groups according to their ability or achievement as measured rigorously by tests. In addition to this very rigid streaming of students, there is also what is called "setting". "Setting" refers to the moving of persons from one stream to another in specific subjects where his ability may differ from others in the stream. For example, a student might be in an upper stream in history or in a language but be in a lower stream in mathematics. This changing him from one stream to another for a particular subject would then be called "setting".

The widespread use of streaming in comprehensive schools would do away partially with the basic purpose of comprehensive schools. If the youngsters are rigidly sectioned according to ability and if the content of the different streams vary widely, it would become more difficult for a student to change streams after a period of time. Furthermore, the youngsters in the top stream would be those who will eventually go into the advanced classes preparing for the O and A-level examinations. It is for this reason that there is developing among a minority of British educatprs a strong reaction against streaming. At the present time, this reaction probably involves less than 1 per cent of the schools and is almost entirely found in the comprehensive schools. The term which is given to this in England is "unstreaming". What this would mean is that in the beginning of the first form, the first year of the secondary school, youngsters would not only not be separated according to grammar school, or secondary modern school, but they would be thrown into heterogeneous sections or classes within the school. This would continue on one to two years with all the youngsters getting nearly all the same content. In some of the instances that were observed, there is some setting after a short period of time in mathematics or in a language. However, there will still be no streaming done in the first two forms. As the youngsters continue on to Forms III and Iv, the separation of the students would occur as they elect the courses necessary to prepare for the O and A-level examinations. The net result in the unstreaming is that youngsters are not required to make a decision with respect as to whether or not they are going into the O and A-level examinations until much later. This does create some

problems for the teachers inasmuch as they have to teach a wider range of students in a single class and, therefore, they have to adapt their subject matter. This is the same problem which has been faced by teachers of heterogeneous groups in American schools.

There has developed in British education a recent movement toward curriculum reform something like the American Public Schools Mathematics Study and the Biological Study Group. Examples are the Nuffield Project and similar studies. These are concerned with bringing the curriculum up-to-date and tying it in with the things that are happening with respect to the disciplines of mathematics, physics, and biology as they exist in the rapidly changing world of science of the present day.

These developments are quite comparable with what is happening in American curriculum reform. In neither country, however, has this greatly affected at the present time the curriculum in most schools except with respect to the new Mathematics.

SECTION III - The Collection of Data; Selection of Schools and Development of the Instruments; Procedures

Since this study involves a survey of the extent of the use of the house system in British comprehensive schools and since this system is used to a variable extent in different schools, it became necessary to collect certain data from the schools concerning methods of organization within the school to accomplish the same purposes that houses had served in other schools. In general, this involved the collection of data concerning ways of administratively organizing the school internally and ways in which the problems and needs of the pupils were handled.

The data for the British part of the study were collected by means of visits to representative comprehensive schools in England and Wales and interviews in depth with headmasters, other administrative masters, masters (teachers), and pupils. Method of selection of these schools will be discussed more fully later in this section. Reference has been made to data collected by the Comprehensive Schools Study of the National Foundation for Educational Research in England and Wales (made in 1966). Also, considerable use has been made of published articles and books, largely from English sources. Further printed materials have been made available to the researchers by the headmasters of several of the representative schools.

Development of Interview Record Sheets

The data which have been secured by the interviews in depth were recorded on specially developed Interview Record Sheets. The method of developing these sheets will be described briefly in the next section. One sheet was prepared for use with the headmaster or his deputy which deals with basic information concerning the entire school (Form 1, 4 sheets). Another set of sheets was developed for use with the masters having certain administrative responsibilities, such as deputy master, senior mistresses, heads of school levels, or housemasters, (Form 2, 2 sheets). Another brief form was used for interviews with teachers (Form 3, 1 sheet), and still another one for interviews with representative pupils (Form 4, 1 sheet).

In the preliminary planning for the project which took place in the United States, a careful study was made of the literature, and, in relationship to the purposes of the study, a list of proposed

items to be secured by interviews was set forth. These were revised several times after criticism by colleagues at the University of Cincinnati.

These tentative Interview Record Sheets were then sent to Washington to be cleared as part of the contract negotiations with the United States Office of Education.

Upon arriving at the field headquarters in England, further revisions were made incorporating suggestions made by persons on the staff of the Comprehensive Schools Study of the National Foundation for Educational Research in England and Wales, and by selected headmasters. These preliminary Interview Record Sheet Forms were tried out in four schools for the purpose of testing out the adequacy of the items and the ease of recording the data. Numerous changes were made during this try-out period. Most of these changes involved moving many items from the sheets which had been intended for administrative masters, teachers and pupils to the sheet involving the headmasters. It was found by experience that time was saved if the basic factual information could be secured at one time. On this basis the four types of Interview Record Sheets were eventually established.

The final forms developed provided a total of seventy-three coded items. This number does not include the items for the identifying data nor does it include certain information concerning the persons interviewed on Form 2 for special masters, Form 3 for teachers and Form 4 for pupils. These latter forms of data in themselves constituted thirty-four additional items useful mainly for background purposes as to the source of the information (not included in total of the next paragraph).

The nature of some of the coded items which finally appeared on the questionnaire on the Interview Record Sheet will now be examined fully. There were two items which consisted of four parts and twelve which consisted of two parts. In each instance the same item was responded to by different individuals on another type of form. In addition, there were several items although coded as one which actually contained more than one set of data. The items of this latter type numbered twenty. In addition, there was one instance where a new item was obtained by dividing one item by another--namely, the number of pupils by the number of the staff (pupil-teacher ratio). The total of one hundred and two represents the number of items which might possibly give useable data. However, when the final tabulation of the data was carried out it was found that, out of this number, many items were eliminated because of irrevelancy or because all the schools answered the same, became relatively unimportant for the study. This left a net of just over fifty items.

Selection of British Schools for the Study

The representative schools for the study were selected in cooperation with,and under the advice of, the Senior Research Officer and staff members of the Comprehensive Schools Study of the National Foundation for Educational Research in England and Wales. The definition of the population of comprehensive schools was used as had been used in this study.

The Comprehensive Schools Study of the National Foundation for Educational Research in England and Wales had started out by using the Department of Education and Science list of Comprehensive Schools of 1965, consisting of two-hundred and sixty-two schools. To these were added "all schools making a substantial effort to cater for virtually the whole ability range". These schools were added by the Comprehensive Schools Study upon the recommendation of Her Majesty's Inspectors from the various Local Education Authorities. After this was done, the list consisted of a total of three hundred and eighty-five schools in sixty-three Local Education Authorities. All schools in this sample met these minimum requirements: "Education appropriate to pupils of all abilities is available in a single school consisting of some years of secondary education." Schools providing for a limited range are included if they were a part of a system which is comprehensive.

In Phase I of the Comprehensive Schools Study of the National Foundation for Educational Research questionnaires had been sent to these three hundred and eighty-five schools. Three hundred and thirty-one of these questionnaires were returned. Of those which were returned, one hundred and nine were from schools "not fully developed", that is, they had been converted to comprehensive schools but were not yet completely comprehensive throughout the age ranges involved.

The National Foundation for Educational Research then drew a sample for their purpose by the following method:

> After the schools which were not fully developed had been eliminated, the schools were placed in stratified piles according to geographical areas and type of communities within England and Wales. Within each area the schools were divided into boys', girls', and mixed. Within each of these piles they were placed in chronological order from the date of becoming fully developed. Making a random start, every third school was chosen. This gave them a sample of sixty-six schools since not all of the three hundred and thirty-one schools had returned the questionnaire at the time the sample was chosen.

For this study, eighteen schools were chosen from among the sixty-six schools as being fairly representative of this sample. The remaining fifteen schools were chosen in the same manner from schools not on their list to provide a sample of thirty-three schools (or about ten per cent of the three hundred and thirty-one schools as compared to the Comprehensive Schools Study of approximately twenty per cent).

The Characteristic of the Comprehensive Schools Used in the British Study

The nature of the sample as compared to the total school population of England will now be analyzed. First, it obviously contains only secondary schools. As indicated in Section II, secondary education in England is very complicated and consists of, at the present time, comprehensive schools, grammar schools, modern schools, technical schools, and a number of other miscellaneous schools including the very famous Public Schools. First, the sample was limited to comprehensive schools. According to a letter from the Department of Education and Science in the Spring of 1967, these schools enroll only about 8.5 per cent of the total of secondary school population in England and Wales.[1]

Once comprehensive schools had been chosen then the selection of the particular sample was made as has been indicated in the previous section, ending up with thirty-three schools, about ten per cent of the comprehensive schools in England and Wales as they were defined by the Comprehensive School Study of the National Foundation for Educational Research. Twenty-six of these schools were actually visited and data secured on the Interview Record Sheets. Seven of these schools, all lying within the Inner London Education Authority (ILEA) were not visited since permission could not be secured in time. However, it was possible to obtain information concerning these schools from a publication of the ILEA[2] and also from data which the National Foundation for Educational Research had secured.

Visitation was also made to a number of schools of other types in England and Wales for the purpose of seeing in contrast the different types--a boarding Public School, a secondary modern, a day Public School, and several comprehensive schools having outstanding programs but not included in the samples. Visits were also made to Scotland, Northern Ireland, and Ireland. A list of these schools appear in Appendix C.

[1]Letter from Mrs. S.M. Schroeder, May 16, 1967, to Ralph L. Pounds. Mrs. Schroeder is a statistician in the British Department of Education and Science under the Secretary of State for Education and Science.

[2]Inner London Education Authority. London. Comprehensive Schools 1966. Inner London Education Authority, 1967. Pp. 144.

It may be worthwhile now to examine the characteristics of the schools which were finally included in the study. Of the group, there were five that were all boys' schools; four, all girls' schools; and twenty-four that were mixed (co-educational). This division corresponds fairly closely to the composition of comprehensive schools in England. Schools other than comprehensive tend not to be co-educational.

Of the thirty-three schools, only one was all boarding and it was located in London. There were twenty-seven that were completely day schools and five schools that had both day and boarding students. This again was fairly consistent with the pattern of comprehensive schools in England and Wales.

Some British researchers are concerned with the extent to which the comprehensive schools are competitive with grammar schools and others which may "cream" off the top students. A check was made with respect to these schools. Eleven of the thirty-three schools were non-competing. That is, they enroll all secondary-age youngsters in the school areas which they serve. Twenty of them were competing. That is, some of the better students were creamed off. Two of the schools had better than average because some of the outstanding students from neighboring areas were permitted to come into the school.

Next we were concerned with respect to the type of administrative officials under which the schools were operating. All of these were LEA operated (Local Educational Authority) except two. These were voluntary schools, one operated by the Church of England and one by the Catholic Church. However, these latter two schools do enroll a wide variety of youngsters and are not in any sense to be considered comparable with private or independent schools in America. The sizes of the schools which we visited in England ranged all the way from 317 to 2,050. The median size was 930.

When the schools had been tabulated with respect to types of organization, it was found that most of the schools had a full or complete organization of Forms I through VI--that is, ages eleven to eighteen plus, twenty-eight schools. Two of the schools only ran Forms IV to VI--approximately ages thirteen through eighteen plus. One of the schools went only Forms III through V; another one of the schools had Forms I through IV. There were thirty-three schools in the sample.

Of these, thirty-one did have some form of house system, leaving only two which did not. According to information obtained by the comprehensive school study as reported in Reports on Education, May,1967, 1936, by Mr. T. B. Monks, Senior Research Officer, two

hundred and ninety-nine of the three hundred and thirty-one schools in their study did have houses. This leaves thirty-two, slightly less than ten per cent, not having houses. The sample in this study is roughly six per cent. This means that there were fewer schools without houses in our representative sample than in the total sample.

When the thirty-three schools which were included in the representative sample are checked against the total population according to the data which were furnished by the National Foundation of Educational Research, it was found that the sample was about as representative as a sample of that size could be, although probably not statistically accurate. The sample can be said to be "representative", although not statistically equivalent to the total population, throughout this study.

The Selection of the American Schools to be Used in the Study

At the time that this study was initiated, the writer was not aware that the house system had been used in the United States. However, on noting an item in the Journal of The National Education Association that Mr. Richard Batchelder, then the president of the National Education Association, was on leave as housemaster from Newton High School, Newton, Massachusetts, he thought perhaps that there night be some possibility that the house system might have been tried out. Correspondence with Mr. Batchelder indicated that this was true. Prior to going to England the writer uncovered approximately thirteen schools, most of which were private schools (only two public schools). Upon the return from the field research overseas, additional effort was made which finally uncovered a possible list of American schools of the order of somewhat above sixty. Finally replies were received up to the cut-off date from forty-four secondary schools in the United States which said that they employ some form of house system, (or schools-within-schools). Of these forty-four, forty-two sent replies that were useable.

These schools turned out to be mostly public schools. There were two private schools, both church related, which were completely boarding schools. There were six schools which were independent and private, enrolling both boarding and day students. These eight schools tended to use the house system and have characteristics quite different than those of the public schools in our sample. Consequently, in most cases, the basis of comparison is the American public schools with the comprehensive schools of England in the sample. These latter schools were all publicly maintained similar to the American schools.

The Preparation of the Questionnaire to be Sent out to the American Schools

Since it was thought it might be worthwhile to obtain comparable data on the American schools so that the study could really be a comparative study, a questionnaire was developed which paralleled to some extent the same items which appeared on the Interview Record Sheets of the British study. A copy of this questionnaire appears in Appendix B. This was mailed out to a list of sixty-five schools. Ten schools indicated that they did not have a house system even though we had had preliminary information that they might have had. However, replies were received from forty-four schools indicating that they did have the house system. Of these forty-four, forty-two filled out complete questionnaires and this formed the basis for the data for the American project. This questionnaire yielded twenty-one items in addition to background data (ten items). Several of the twenty-one were multiple, adding ten items. Of those thirty-one, ten were not useful to the study; this leaves a net of twenty-one items.

These forty-two American schools show the following characteristics: There were six all boys' schools and the remaining thirty-six were co-educational. As indicated previously, two of them were private boarding and six of them private and independent, both boarding and day, leaving the remainder to be rather typical public schools. Two of the private schools were operated by churches--Quaker and Episcopalian. The rest of them were completely independent of sectarian ties. The size of the school ranged from below fifty to about 4,000-- the median being 1,700. This median is somewhat larger than the British schools in the study. Fourteen of the thirty-four American public schools in the study were senior schools; i.e., they provided the last three years--grades ten, eleven, and twelve. There were thirteen schools out of the forty-two which provided four years, three which provided five years and two which provided six years, and two miscellaneous. The information secured concerning the use of the house system in these schools will be presented in Section IV.

It should be pointed out at this time that in addition to the questionnaire information from these schools, visitation was made in person to three of the American schools on the list similar to those made to the British schools in England and Wales. Furthermore, information concerning these schools was found in several research studies which had been made (Listed in the Selected Bibliography). All the schools were very free in supplying supplementary material explaining their program.

FINDINGS

AND

ANALYSIS

SECTION IV - The Use of the House System and Related Organizational Matters in Comprehensive Schools in England and Wales and Comparison with American Data

Introduction

In this section basic data from the study of representative comprehensive schools in England and Wales relating to the organization of houses are presented and analyzed. Comparable data for the American schools are also presented. In Section V certain matters relating to guidance and personnel practices will be discussed separately.

As the data began to be tabulated on the British schools, it was soon discovered that the schools tended to fall into separate groups with respect to their use of the house system. Consequently, it seemed wise and helpful for the schools to be classified for the purposes of tabulation. As a result, there has been developed what is here called the University of Cincinnati Classification System of the Comprehensive Schools in England and Wales with Respect to the Use of Houses. The first illustration of this occurs in the tabulation of schools with respect to the use of houses as indicated in Table 1, page 40.

The classification system dividing these schools falls into four classes, or types, defined as follows:

Type I - Schools which have made extensive use of the house system. This type includes all schools which use the house system extensively as indicated by the fact that not only are games and competition organized by houses but also that housemasters have responsibility for the basic discipline of their students and pastoral (guidance) responsibilities.

Type II - Schools which have made moderate use of the house system. This type of school uses the house system extensively, more than Type III but not as fully as Type I.

Type III - Schools that basically use the houses only for games and other competition.

TABLE 1

SCHOOLS HAVING A HOUSE SYSTEM OF ORGANIZATION
BASED ON REPRESENTATIVE COMPREHENSIVE SCHOOLS IN ENGLAND AND WALES

(Types I through IV indicate the extent of use of houses.)

House Types / Schools	I		II		III		IV		TOTAL	
	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent
Having Houses:										
Representative Schools Visited	8	77.8	5	71.4	12	92.4	--	---	25	75.8
Representative Schools Not Visited (all in London)	3	22.2	2	28.6	1	7.6	--	---	6	18.2
Not Having Houses	--	---	--	---	--	---	2	---	2	6.1
TOTAL SCHOOLS IN SAMPLE	11	100.0	7	100.0	13	100.0	2	---	33	100.0

Type IV - Schools having no houses.

Not all the tabulations or tallies have been done by types, but only wherever it seems helpful in showing the difference between the schools.[1]

Basic Data on the Use of the House System in Comprehensive Schools in England and Wales

Does the school have a house system or organization? As shown in Table 1, out of thirty-three schools in the representative sample, eleven were classified in Type I, seven in Type II, thirteen in Type III and two in Type IV. Of these thirty-three schools, seven were within the Inner London Education Authority area. Due to a delay in receiving permission, it was not possible to make visits to seven of the schools in the London area. One school in the London area was visited and it is included in the twenty-six schools which constitute the basic tabulation figures for the larger part of the study.

Table 2 indicates the number and sex of houses per school. It will be noticed that the largest number of schools had four houses. Ten of these schools are mixed (co-ed) and three and two each are male and female respectively. Also, one of the large schools had four male and four female houses (one house of each sex paired with one of the opposite sex.)

An item was included to determine the extent to which the masters (teachers) were assigned to houses and thus might become identified closely with students and their houses. This practice was found to be quite widespread among all three groups (Table 3).

The range in the number of pupils per house in the British schools was wide, from ninety-five at the lowest to 500 at the highest. Among Type I schools, the median of the eight schools for which data were available was 425, a quite high figure for British schools, reflecting the relatively large size of the Type I schools. The median for the Type II schools was 185, and for the Type III schools, 175. The overall median for all twenty-five schools for which data were available was 180 students.

[1]It should be pointed out here that Type III, for all practical purposes, use houses only for games and do not fully use them in the curricular and administrative organization. This is what makes the considerable difference in the answers for those schools. Appendix F, Table F-1 shows the individual schools (listed only by code number) by types and the specific use of the house system made by each. Table 4 later in this section summarizes Table F-1.

TABLE 2

NUMBER AND SEX OF HOUSES IN EACH SCHOOL

BASED ON REPRESENTATIVE COMPREHENSIVE SCHOOLS IN ENGLAND AND WALES

Number and Sex Constitution of Houses	Schools	
	Number	Percent
Number of schools having:		
Male only, four houses in school	3	9.7
Female only, four houses in school	2	6.4
Mixed (co-ed), number of houses per school:		
Six	4	12.9
Five	1	3.2
Four	10	32.3
Three	3	9.7
Eight houses - 4 boys and 4 girls houses paired	1	3.2
Four lower and four upper houses	1	3.2
Data not available	6	19.3
TOTAL SCHOOLS IN SAMPLE	31	99.9

TABLE 3

THE ASSIGNMENT OF MASTERS (TEACHERS) TO HOUSES

BASED ON REPRESENTATIVE COMPREHENSIVE SCHOOLS IN ENGLAND AND WALES

Assignment of Staff to Houses	Number	Percent
Number of schools in which:		
All or most teachers are assigned to houses	21	67.7
Very few teachers assigned to houses	1	3.2
Teachers are not assigned to houses	2	6.5
Teacher assignment not known	7	22.6
TOTAL SCHOOLS IN SAMPLE	31	100.0

In response to the item relating to the point at which pupils had been allocated to the houses, it was indicated that most were allocated either at the time of entry, immediately before entry, or at least some time early in Form I. The differences here in the various schools seemed not too significant. Consequently, no table is shown.

The pupils were reported as assigned to houses either at random or stratified random (i.e., a deliberate attempt to make them random with respect to scholastic ability or ability in games). This was modified in a few instances by permitting brothers and sisters or family relationships to be used to determine choice, where desired, by pupils or their parents.

For what purpose is the assignment to houses made? Over and over again, the headmasters and others indicated that they were interested in having the different houses completely heterogeneous. Such words as "equalization", "heterogeneous", "broad social and academic ability" were used. All of these seemed to mean practically the same thing.

On the matter of pupil self-discipline in the houses, only three of the schools gave positive information that pupils did part of their self-disciplining. On the matter of the use of the house staff for the major discipline problems of the school, it was found that in Type I (the type using the houses most extensively) all eight basically operated their discipline through the house system. Of this type, seven administered their discipline almost fully through the housemaster and his staff and the one other school did it "to some extent". There were some demerit and merit marks given by houses for student behavior in three of the schools in addition to the eight already mentioned. These items are in part indicative of efforts to take care of discipline through house organizations.

The activities in which the pupils of a school participate do not vary greatly from school to school. In almost all cases they included all of the games and sports which the British children normally play. Usually chess was added. In a few schools there would be other kinds of competition - such as debate, other forensic activities and, perhaps dramatics. In Wales the competition tended to center about the broad cultural emphases of the Eisteddfod. This tends to give them broader coverage than the other schools because of this Welsh tradition.

The schools were about equally divided in all types with respect to the use of the houses in dramatics participation, eleven out of

the twenty-five (44.4 per cent). Another question related to the extent to which houses presented assembly programs through the school year. This apparently was not widely done. Only eight out of the twenty-five schools indicated that students participated at all as house members in assembly programs during the year.

The question arises as to whether or not the houses were used for competition in ordinary academic subjects, such as use of grades and honor rolls. A few schools did this - six out of the twenty-five (20.6 per cent) indicated this emphasis. Others indicated some modified point of biew, but, by and large, the schools seemed to be opposed to competition other than in the games. In the Welsh schools, the competition was held in the Eisteddfod.

Another question, pertinent to the question of student self-discipline, was the use of some kind of house prefect or house captain corresponding to the school prefects widely used in England. The reply to the question, "Are there school prefects in your school?" indicated that there were in all the schools in the study. In response to the question, "Are there house prefects?", fifteen out of the thirty-one schools having[1] houses indicated that there were neither house prefects nor captains (48.4 per cent). However, there was a wide variety of house prefects or officers reported in the remaining schools, sixteen (51.6 per cent). Almost all the houses at least had a team captain for games. Seven out of the eleven schools in Type I did indicate some form of house officers - three in Type II and six in Type III.

Do houses have parent-teacher associations? There was not too much evidence that there was widespread use of parent groups, at least by houses. Further inquiry in the interviews-in-depth revealed that the parents were quite frequently called in for special meetings but rarely was there a form of a parent or parent-teacher association. The parents were also involved quite closely in the career counseling of each child as discussed in Section V.

In Table 4, consisting of six parts, there has been brought together into one table (or series of tables) a summary of miscellaneous items with respect to the use of the house system, from the interviews in the representative comprehensive schools in England and Wales. The complete analysis by each individual school for the same set of items can be found in Table F-1, Appendix F. In this latter table the schools are listed merely by code.

The first item in Table 4 relates to the main purposes of the house. The first item on this list has been tabulated for those

[1]The tabulation now includes the entire group of thirty-one schools which had houses.

SUMMARY OF MISCELLANEOUS ITEMS WITH RESPECT TO THE USE OF THE HOUSE SYSTEM
BASED ON REPRESENTATIVE COMPREHENSIVE SCHOOLS IN ENGLAND AND WALES

(Summarized from table F1, Appendix F.)

(Types I through IV indicate the extent of use of houses.)*

House Types / Name of Item	I		II		III		TOTAL**	
	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent
Main House Purposes:								
C - Competition only	--	---	2	28.6	13	100.0	15	45.5
Combination of other purposes								
R - Registration rooms (home rooms) by houses	7	63.6	1	14.3	--	---	8	24.2
P - Pastoral (guidance and counseling)	10	90.0	2	28.6	--	---	12	36.4
D - Discipline handled by house staff	9	81.8	1	14.3	--	---	10	30.3
Sched. - Scheduling of part or all of classes by houses	2	18.2	2	28.6	--	---	4	12.1
Games (intra-mural sports)	11	100.0	5	71.4	--	---	16	48.5
Morale and stimulation	--	---	1	14.3	--	---	1	3.0
Soc. - Social	7	63.6	1	14.3	--	---	8	24.2

*See explanation of types in Section III, page 39
**This column has been divided by 33, the total schools in study

TABLE 4, B

SUMMARY OF MISCELLANEOUS ITEMS WITH RESPECT TO THE USE OF THE HOUSE SYSTEM (Con't.)

Name of Item \ House Types	I		II		III		TOTAL	
	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent
House Administrative Allowances:								
None	-	---	4	57.1	11	84.6	15	45.5
A - Getting additional allow- as housemaster	11	100.0	2	28.6	--	---	13	39.4
B - Getting lighter teaching load	4	36.4	--	---	--	---	4	12.1
C - Getting clerical assistance	2	18.2	--	---	--	---	2	6.0
D - Getting a deputy to assist	5	45.5	1	14.3	2	15.4	8	24.2
House Staff Assignments (all or most of staff assigned to "house")								
Yes	11	100.0	4	57.1	10	76.9	25	75.8
No	--	---	3	42.9	3	23.1	6	18.2
House Staff Meetings (meetings of house masters with head or meeting of staff)								
Yes	10	90.9	3	42.9	4	30.8	17	51.5
No	1	9.1	3	42.9	9	69.2	13	39.4
Data not available	--	---	1	14.3	--	---	1	3.0

TABLE 4, c

SUMMARY OF MISCELLANEOUS ITEMS WITH RESPECT TO THE USE OF THE HOUSE SYSTEM (Con't.)

House Types / Name of Item	I		II		III		TOTAL	
	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent
House Pupil Posts (pupils serve as house prefects and other house officers)								
Yes	6	54.5	1	14.3	5	38.5	12	36.3
No	5	45.5	5	71.4	8	61.5	18	54.5
Data not available	--	---	1	14.3	--	---	1	3.0
House Assemblies (number per year)								
None	--	---	--	---	8	61.5	8	24.2
1 to 19	--	---	4	57.1	3	23.1	7	21.2
20 to 39	1	9.1	1	14.3	--	---	2	6.1
40 to 79	3	27.3	--	---	1	7.7	4	12.1
80 to 100	3	27.3	--	---	--	---	3	9.1
Over 100	1	9.1	--	---	--	---	1	3.0
Data not available	3	27.3	2	28.6	1	7.7	6	19.7
House Dining								
Yes	5	45.5	1	14.3	--	---	6	18.2
No	3	27.3	4	57.1	12	92.3	19	57.6
Data not available	3	27.3	2	28.6	1	7.7	6	18.2

TABLE 4, d

SUMMARY OF MISCELLANEOUS ITEMS WITH RESPECT TO THE USE OF THE HOUSE SYSTEM (Con't.)

Name of Item \ House Types	I		II		III		TOTAL	
	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent
House Staff Discipline (disciplining of pupils basic responsibility of house staff)								
Yes	7	63.6	1	14.3	--	---	8	24.2
No	1	9.1	4	57.1	13	100.0	18	54.5
Data not available	3	27.3	2	28.6	--	---	5	15.0
House Tutor Groups								
Yes	4	36.4	--	---	--	---	4	12.1
No	5	45.5	5	71.4	13	100.0	10	30.3
Data not available	2	18.2	2	28.6	--	---	4	12.1
House Class Schedules (part or all of class scheduled by house groups)								
Yes	1	9.1	2	28.6	--	---	3	9.1
No	7	63.6	3	42.9	12	92.3	22	66.7
Data not available	3	27.3	2	28.6	1	7.7	6	18.2

TABLE 4, e

SUMMARY OF MISCELLANEOUS ITEMS WITH RESPECT TO THE USE OF THE HOUSE SYSTEM (Con't.)

House Types / Name of Item	I		II		III		TOTAL	
	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent
Other House Competitions								
None	3	27.3	1	14.3	3	23.1	7	21.2
M - Merit points	3	27.3	3	42.9	3	23.1	9	27.3
D - Demerit points	3	27.3	1	14.3	2	15.4	6	18.2
E - Eisteddfod	--	---	--	---	6	46.2	6	18.2
F - Other cultural competition	2	18.2	1	14.3	--	---	3	9.1
Data not available	--	---	2	28.6	1	7.3	6	18.2
Separate House Rooms								
Yes	3	27.3	1	14.3	--	---	4	12.1
No	5	45.5	5	71.4	12	92.3	22	66.7
Data not available	3	27.3	1	14.3	1	7.7	6	18.2

TABLE 4f

SUMMARY OF MISCELLANEOUS ITEMS WITH RESPECT TO THE USE OF THE HOUSE SYSTEM (Con't.)

House Types / Name of Item	I		II		III		IV		TOTAL	
	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent
Records Kept By Houses										
None	3	27.3	3	42.9	7	53.8	--	---	13	39.4
M - Student's name only	1	9.1	--	---	--	---	--	---	1	3.0
C - Complete records	3	27.3	--	---	--	---	--	---	3	9.1
A - Student house activities, (Eisteddfod, merit, and demerit only)	1	9.1	2	28.6	5	38.5	--	---	8	24.2
Data not available	3	27.3	2	28.6	1	7.7	--	---	6	18.2
Change in Role of Houses (Interviewer's evaluation)										
+ - Role of house increasing	1	9.1	--	---	1	7.1	1	50.0	3	9.1
0 - Little or no change in the role of house	7	63.6	4	57.1	8	61.5	1	50.0	20	60.0
- - Decreasing role of houses	--	---	1	14.3	3	23.1	--	---	4	12.1
Data not available	3	27.3	2	28.6	1	7.7	--	---	6	18.2
Total Schools in Study	11	100.0	7	100.0	13	100.0	2	100.0	33	100.0

schools which only list competition - that is, the providing of houses as a basis for games and other competition, as the only purpose of the house. Two of the Type II schools (28.6 per cent) and thirteen, or all, of the Type III schools, list this as the exclusive purpose. In the case of the other purposes, they have been tabulated when listed more than once in combination with other purposes. Again, games - what would be called in the United States, intra-mural sports - come the hignest, with eleven (all) of the Type I schools and five of the Type II schools, or a total of sixteen, listing this as one of the purposes of the house system. This makes a total of thirty-one schools in which competition (or "games") is either the exclusive or one of the primary purposes.[1]

The next highest number lists what the British call "pastoral care" (i.e. guidance and counseling). Ten of the eleven schools of Type I list this as important, or twelve schools out of the total (36.4 per cent).

Other important purposes listed by Type I schools are: discipline handled by the house staff, nine schools; registration room by houses, seven schools; and social purposes, seven schools. On the totals for the British schools together, discipline handled by house staff is listed by ten schools (or 30.3 per cent); registration by room by houses and social purposes are each eight schools (24.2 per cent). Only 12.1 per cent of the schools (all Type I and Type II schools) schedule a part or all of their classes by houses.

The next item relates to the special administrative allowances made to the housemasters. This is an indication of the importance of the role of the housemaster. On the matter of salary, all of the housemasters in Type I got additional allowances in their position as housemasters. Four of these also got a lighter teaching load and five of them got a deputy for assistance. Only two of the British schools (both Type I) indicated that the house masters were assigned clerical assistance. In the totals for the British study,

[1]The reader (the American, in particular) must interpret these data correctly. The great importance of games and competition cited by the British (as contrasted to the American responses) does not indicate a greater interest in teaching competition per se. The games are a means to an end, the development of team loyalty, leadership, sportsmanship, etc. There is not the emphasis on the extremely competitive inter-school sports that is found in the United States.

thirteen of the schools, including two of Type II schools, the housemaster did get additional allowance as housemaster. Deputies assisted in a total of eight (or 24.2 percent) of the British schools in the study.

The next item relates to the assignment of staff to houses (i.e. all or most of the members of the staff assigned to houses). In eleven (or 100.0 per cent) of Type I schools, in only four (or 57.0 per cent) of the seven schools of Type II, and in ten (or 76.9 per cent) of the Type III schools was this done. Twenty-five out of the thirty-one schools having houses (or 75.1 per cent) assigned the staff members specifically to a house.

House staff meetings (that is, meetings of the housemasters with their staff) were indicated as being held in seventeen of the schools (51.5 per cent). Most of these schools were Type I schools, ten (or 90.1 per cent).

With reference as to whether or not there are house pupil posts in which pupils in the houses serve to carry on certain house duties, six (or 54.5 per cent) of Type I schools do have available such house pupil posts. Six other type schools, or twelve out of the total (36.3 per cent) of the schools in the representative sample, indicated the availability of house pupil posts.

The next item relates to the number of assemblies. For those schools for which data were available, eight of the schools (all Type III schools) do not have assemblies by houses. Of the remainder, of those indicating that there were house assemblies, seven (21.2 per cent of all Type II and Type III schools) indicated that they held less than one every two weeks (ranging from one to nineteen per year). In the Type I schools all indicated that they held house assemblies. Of all schools, three (6.1 per cent) indicated that the assemblies were in the range between twenty and thirty-nine per year. Four schools (12.1 per cent) indicated that they were in the range between forty and seventy-nine assemblies a year, and three schools (also all Type I) indicated that they were in the range of eighty to 100 assemblies per year which would be about two a week. There was one Type I school which indicated it had over 100 assemblies by houses a year.

The next item related to the dining facilities available by houses. One of the ways in which houses might be able to develop a feeling of community would be to dine together. Only six schools indicated that dining facilities by houses were available and used.

This is only 18.2 per cent of the schools in the sample. Of these six, five were Type I schools, 45.5 per cent of the Type I schools in the sample. Two of the six really only had separate tables in the common dining room.

The next item about the use of tutor groups raised some problems. The writer had thought before going to England that the house tutor group was an important aspect of the house. However, the word "tutor group" has a great number of meanings and sometimes the word "tutorial" is used rather than "tutor" and many times it denoted little but a registration room within the house. The usage varied greatly from school to school. The "true" tutor groups (i.e., a master working with and assisting a group of pupils) were most frequently found in Forms V and VI. Four of the schools out of the thirty-five (12.1 per cent) indicated that they did have "tutor" groups by houses. These were all in Type I schools. Three other schools (not Type I) gave answers which might have been tabulated as house tutor groups.

In response to the item concerning house class schedules - that is, part or all classes scheduled by house groups, only three schools (or 9.1 per cent) out of the total schools in the study indicated such scheduling. One of these was a Type I school and two of these were Type II schools.

The availability of other types of competition in addition to the games and sports are listed in Table 4-e. This was discussed briefly earlier in Section IV. Nine of the schools used merit points issued for grades, school work or citizenship (27.3 per cent) as a basis of competition in addition to the games. There were three such schools in each of the types, Type I, II, and III. There were six schools in which the Eisteddfod provided the main basis of house competition. These were all Type III schools and located in Wales. Six schools used demerit points in addition to merit points for house competition. There were a few schools, three, (9.1 per cent) which used other types of cultural competition.

The question arises as to the availability of separate rooms for house assemblies in the British schools. Only three of the Type I schools (26.3 per cent) and one of the Type II schools (14.3 per cent) did have available house rooms for pupils to assemble and to gather together informally from time to time (12.1 per cent of total sample).

The next item relates to the extent to which records were kept by houses. In thirteen out of the schools which gave this

information, no records were kept by houses. In one school only the student's name was kept. In only three schools could there by any stretch of the imagination be indicated that there were complete records for each student. This was 9.1 per cent of the schools in the sample and these were all Type I schools (or 27.3 per cent). Eight schools did keep a list of house activities by houses (24.2 per cent).

The last part of Table 4 relates to changes in the role of the houses (interviewer's evaluation). This will be discussed more fully next by using the separate table (5).

Table 5 shows the future role of the house system in the British schools as it is adjudged by the interviewers after an interview-in-depth. After the interviewers had talked to the headmaster, deputy masters, teachers, and pupils in the school, a judgment was made as to whether or not the role of the house was decreasing, whether there was little or no change in the roles of houses, and whether there would be an increasing role of the houses. On this basis, all of the schools in Type I (those making most extensive use of the houses) envision little or no change except for one which indeed envisions an increasing role. Of the schools in Type II making moderate use of houses, in one the role of the house is seen as decreasing (in favor of more emphasis upon the year group or level, that is, lower, middle, or upper) but in the remainder of these no changes were seen. In Type III schools the role of the house was seen as decreasing in three schools, but little or no change was seen in eight schools, and in one school an increasing role was seen. In one of the two Type IV schools (that is, those schools who have no houses at all now), little or no change was seen in the role of the houses, (i.e., it would continue not to have houses). In the other one, however, an increased role of the house was seen. As a matter of fact, this particular latter school was completing a new building to be used starting in September, 1967, and which would make full use of the houses such as schools in Type I now make. However, at the time of the interviews, it was classified in Type IV.

The overall summary of the change in the role of the houses is as follows: Out of the twenty-seven schools (of the total of thirty-three in the study) on which an evaluation could be made - in four (or 14.8 per cent) the role of the house was seen as decreasing; in twenty, (or 74.8 per cent) little or no change was seen in the role of houses; and in three (or 11.1 per cent) an increase was seen in the role of the house. This information, of course, is not conclusive but it does indicate that there is no

TABLE 5

FUTURE ROLE OF THE HOUSE SYSTEM IN THE SCHOOL
BASED ON REPRESENTATIVE COMPREHENSIVE SCHOOLS IN ENGLAND AND WALES

(Types I through IV indicate the extent of use of houses.)*

House Types	I		II		III		IV		TOTAL	
	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent
Role of house decreasing	--	---	1	20.0	3	25.0	--	---	4	14.8
Little or no change in role of house	7	87.5	4	80.0	8	66.7	1	50.0	20	74.1
Increasing role of house	1	12.5	0	---	1	83	1	50.0	3	11.1
Total. Schools Evaluated	8	100.0	5	100.0	12	100.0	2	100.0	27	100.0
No information available	3	---	2	---	1	---	--	---	6	---
Total Schools In Study	11	---	7	---	13	---	2	---	33	---

*See explanation of types in Section III, page -----

decided tendency in England to decrease the role of the houses. The current use of the house varies widely, however, in different schools and consequently the future role of the house would vary greatly also.

Basic Data on the American Schools Having Houses

Information will now be presented on the use of houses in American schools covered by the questionnaire. There were forty-two usable replies from American schools having some form of house organization. As indicated previously, eight of these schools were church or private independent and therefore not very typical American schools. This leaves thirty-four for which most of the basic data have been tabulated. All of these indicated that they had some form of house system. Table F-2, Appendix F, indicates to the extent that each of these forty-two schools does participate and have a house system. In the independent schools the number of houses was rather large and the size of the houses was rather small. The highest number of houses in the independent schools was sixteen and the smallest was two. However, taking just the American public schools, the tabulation is somewhat more similar to England. It would be noted that the modal number was three, followed closely by four.

Closely related to this is the question as to how many students there are per house. Again, the independent and private schools in the United States reflect their low pupil-staff ratio by being quite small. All of the houses numbered under fifty students. On the other hand, the public schools in the United States and the publicly-maintained comprehensive schools of England had much larger houses. The range in the United States was from around 125 to around 1,280 in a house. The median in the American schools in the study was 538 as compared to the 180 median in those British schools in the study. However, the overlap in numbers is fairly great. It must be remembered, of course, that British secondary schools in general tend to be much smaller than American secondary schools. The contrast is even greater if the grammar schools would have been included along with the comprehensive schools. The comprehensive schools in England have tended to be much larger in order to provide enough students surviving in Forms V and VI in order to have an adequate size for the specialized classes in Form VI.

Reference is now made to Table 6, Summary of Miscellaneous Items With Respect to the House System Based on American Secondary

TABLE 6, a

SUMMARY OF MISCELLANEOUS ITEMS WITH RESPECT TO THE HOUSE SYSTEM
BASED ON AMERICAN SECONDARY SCHOOLS USING THE HOUSE SYSTEM

Name of Item \ Type of School	Independent Schools		Public Schools		TOTAL	
	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent
Main House Purposes						
C - Competition (Sports)	4	50.0	15	44.1	19	45.2
D - Discipline and other administrative responsibilities by house staff	3	37.5	22	64.7	25	59.5
G - Guidance	4	50.0	27	79.4	31	73.8
H - Housing and other living arrangements	5	62.5	--	---	5	11.9
(For Boarding Students)						
Soc. - Houses basically a social unit	1	12.5	1	3.0	2	4.8
House Administrative Allowances						
None	1	12.5	--	---	1	2.4
A - Getting additional allowances as house administrator	3	37.5	29	85.3	32	76.2
B - Getting lighter teaching load	3	37.5	31	91.2	34	81.0
C - Getting clerical assistance	3	37.5	18	52.9	21	50.0
D - Getting a deputy to assist	5	62.5	11	32.4	16	38.1
House Staff Assignment (all or most of staff assigned to a house)						
Yes	--	---	23	67.6	23	54.8
No	8	100.0	8	23.5	16	38.1
Data not available	--	---	3	8.8	3	7.1
House Pupils Post (pupils serve as house officers with responsibilities)						
Yes	7	87.5	10	29.4	17	40.5
No	1	12.5	19	55.9	20	47.6
Data not available	--	---	5	14.7	5	11.9

TABLE 6,b
SUMMARY OF MISCELLANEOUS ITEMS WITH RESPECT TO THE HOUSE SYSTEM
BASED ON AMERICAN SECONDARY SCHOOLS USING THE HOUSE SYSTEM

Type of School / Name of Item	Independent Schools		Public Schools		TOTAL	
	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent
House Assemblies (number per year)						
None (or rarely)	4	50.0	14	41.2	18	42.9
Yes - irregular meetings	2	25.0	16	47.2	18	42.9
Meetings once a month or oftener	2	25.0	1	2.9	3	7.1
Data not available	--	---	3	8.8	3	7.1
House Dining						
Yes	2	25.0	9	26.5	11	26.2
No	6	75.0	25	75.5	31	73.8
House Staff Discipline (disciplining of pupils and other basic administrative responsibilities allocated to house staff)						
Yes	6	75.0	22	64.7	28	66.7
No	1	12.5	3	8.8	4	9.5
Data not available	1	12.5	9	26.5	10	23.8
Separate House Rooms						
Yes	5	62.5	24	70.6	29	69.0
No	3	37.5	10	29.4	13	31.0
TOTAL SCHOOLS IN SAMPLE	8	100.0	34	100.0	42	100.0

Schools Using the House System. This table, consisting of two pages, is summarized from a table listing the items separately by each of the forty-two schools in the American sample (identified only by code number) to be found in Table F-2, Appendix F. Table 6 lists the data separated into the eight independent schools and the thirty-four public schools as well as the total for all schools.

The most important function listed by the American schools served by the use of houses is that of guidance, thirty-one schools (or 73.8 per cent). The next most important is discipline and other administrative responsibilities carried on by the house staff - twenty-five (or 59.5 per cent). Competition was listed by nineteen schools (or 45.2 per cent) as important. A few schools, basically the independent schools, list the housing and other living arrangements as being important. This turns out to be the most important among the eight independent schools.

The next item is related to the status of the house administrator indicated by the salary allowance which he has been given over that of the teacher. An additional salary has been given him in his position as school administrator in thirty-two of the forty-two schools (or 76.2 per cent). Thirty-four schools (or 81.0 per cent) indicated that the house administrator has a lighter teaching load (or none). Twenty-one schools (or 50.0 per cent) indicate that clerical assistance is made especially available to the house masters. This item is quite in contrast to the British schools in which only two schools indicated clerical assistance for housemasters. Also, a much smaller percentage of the British housemasters had additional allowances (salary as a house administrator or lighter teaching loads). Sixteen of the American schools (or 38.1 per cent) indicated that they had a deputy to assist them.

On the matter of house staff assignment, that is, that all or most of the staff is assigned to a house, twenty-three (or 54.8 per cent) of the schools giving this data indicate that this it true. These schools are all public schools in the sample.

On the matter of house pupil posts being available in which students can serve a house with leadership responsibilities, twenty of the schools (or 47.6 per cent) indicated that there were no house pupil posts. Seventeen (40.5 per cent) indicated they have such posts. Seven (87.5 per cent) of the independent schools did have house pupil posts available.

On the matter of the prevalence of assemblies by houses in American schools, seventeen out of the thirty-four public schools (50.0 per cent) did have these assemblies. However, when the times are checked it is found that these did not occur often. There were usually no more than four or five house assemblies a year. This fact coincides with the observation that assemblies in the United States are much less frequent than those in England where there must be a religious assembly at least once every day. In England this usually, of course, involves the entire school.

The item with reference to the availability of house dining facilities by houses is next to be considered. Only eleven of the total American schools in the study (or 26.2 per cent) had house dining facilities. This is to be compared with 18.2 per cent of the British schools.

The next item relates to whether or not disciplining and other basic administrative responsibilities have been allocated to the house staff in the American schools. Twenty-eight of the schools which answered this item (or 66.7 per cent of the entire sample) indicated that such responsibility had been delegated to the houses. Twenty-two of these were public schools (64.7 per cent).

The next item relates to whether or not there are available separate house rooms for the house pupils to meet together informally before and after school and for social occasions. Twenty-nine of the American schools (or 69.0 per cent) indicated that these rooms were available.

Comparable Data on the Use of Houses in the British Schools and in the American Schools in the Sample

Comparison is now made between the American and British schools in each sample on the basis of three of the items which were the same for both studies - namely, the primary purpose of houses, the list of values of the house system and the list of the disadvantages of the house system.

Table 7 lists the replies of both the British comprehensive schools and the American secondary schools in each sample respectively in response to a question as to what they considered to be the one primary purpose of the houses in their school. In the case of the British schools, fourteen schools out of the total of twenty-two answering this question (63.3 per cent) gave

TABLE 7

PRIMARY PURPOSES OF HOUSES
(RESPONSES OF BRITISH HEADMASTERS AND AMERICAN PRINCIPALS)

American and British Study Combined

Primary Purposes	Total British Schools		American Secondary Schools	
	No.	Percent	No.	Percent
Competition .	14	63.6	--	---
Advisory ("pastoral" care)	5	22.7	18	47.4
Other: Advisory purposes and administrative purposes	--	---	5	13.2
Provide family atmosphere for communication improvement *	--	---	2	5.3
Housing and residential purposes *	--	---	2	5.3
Discipline and houses administrative responsibility	1	4.5	--	---
"Morale and stimulation"	1	4.5	--	---
"All of these equal"	1	4.5	--	---
Miscellaneous	--	---	11	28.9
Number of schools answering	22	99.8	38	100.1
Number of schools not answering	3	---	4	---
TOTAL SCHOOLS	25	---	42	---

* From "independent" schools (United States).

competition (i.e. the use of houses to promote team spirit by games and other competitive efforts between the houses) as the primary purpose of the houses. Five schools (22.7 per cent) stated the primary purpose as advisory - in England called "pastoral care" - as compared to eighteen out of thirty-five schools in the American sample (47.4 per cent). There were some other miscellaneous responses from the British schools such as discipline and house administrative responsibility, and morale and stimulation. The great contrast here is that none of the American schools gave competition as the main purpose, although in response to another question (See Table 8) it was indicated by nineteen schools (45.2 per cent) that competitive sports (intra-murals) was one of the purposes (but not the central one) for having houses (or organizing "schools-within-schools"). It will be noted also that five of the American schools (13.2 per cent) felt that the advisory and the administrative purposes combined were the most important. Four of the American schools (10.4 per cent), all independent boarding schools, felt that providing a family atmosphere (two schools) or housing and residential purposes (two schools) were the most important. There is a wide range of miscellaneous[1] purposes cited by the American schools, accounting for eleven schools (28.9 per cent). The reason for the differences in the primary purposes as reported by the two groups probably lies in the part that tradition plays in British schools in emphasizing competitive games between the houses. These games, of course, are not competition for competition's sake but serve the purpose of developing house loyalty and team spirit as a part of developing the youth.

The next aspect of the study relates to the comparison of the two groups of schools with respect to values which were ascribed to the use of the houses by the British headmasters and the American principals, respectively. Table 8 (two pages) breaks the British schools into the three types as defined earlier and compares the British totals with those for the American (public) schools. The reason why the three types are shown separately in this table is that there is some difference in the responses of each of the three types of British schools, as will be noted.

Type I schools, using the houses much more extensively, give a different combination (and emphasis) of purposes than do Type II schools which use them primarily for competitive purposes. It will be noted that among the Type I schools the largest percentage

[1]As follows: Improve instructional relationships, provide for participation in small groups, give students a sense of belonging, social reasons, assist students to develop, guidance and instruction, improve educational experiences, intensive college preparatory program, advisory and development of responsibility, academic and guidance, combination of convenience and advisory.

TABLE 8, a

LIST OF VALUES HOUSE SYSTEM (HEADMASTERS AND PRINCIPALS)

American and British Study Combined

(Types I through III indicate the extent of use of houses)

Values \ House Types	BRITISH								AMERICAN SECONDARY SCHOOLS	
	I		II		III		TOTAL			
	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No	Percent
Provides a basis for competitive sports and for pupil social affairs	2	40.0	3	60.0	9	100.0	14	73.7	3	11.5
Give the pupil a sense of belonging	2	40.0	2	40.0	1	11.1	5	26.3	4	15.4
Provides a basis for mixing of students of different social backgrounds	--	---	2	40.0	1	11.1	3	15.8	1	3.8
Gives pupil more security	1	20.0	--	---	--	---	1	5.3	--	---
Develops pupil leadership	--	---	--	---	--	---	--	---	1	3.8
Assists in pupil's personal development	4	80.0	--	---	3	33.3	7	36.8	2	7.7

TABLE 8 b

LIST OF VALUES OF HOUSE SYSTEM (HEADMASTERS AND PRINCIPALS)
(continued)
American and British Study Combined

Values \ House Types	BRITISH								AMERICAN SECONDARY SCHOOLS	
	I		II		III		TOTAL			
	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent
Smaller units assist in administrative problems	3	60.0	--	---	--	---	3	15.8	9	34.6
Small groups enable pupils to have better relationship to house masters	2	40.0	1	20.0	1	11.1	4	21.1	25	96.1
Gives participation opportunities and encouragement to a wider range of pupils	--	---	2	40.0	--	---	2	10.5	9	34.6
Miscellaneous	1	20.0	1	20.0	1	11.1	3	15.8	6	23.1
NUMBER OF SCHOOLS LISTING VALUES	5	---	5	---	9	---	19	---	25	---
NUMBER OF SCHOOLS IN WHICH NONE ARE LISTED	3		0		3		6		8	
NUMBER OF SCHOOLS IN STUDY	8		5		12		26		34	

(80.0) lists the value to be that of assisting in the pupil's personal development.

Also, a high percentage (60.0) indicates the administrative advantages of a smaller unit. Next in order in the British Type I schools, there is listed the value of providing a basis for competitive sports and pupil's social affairs, giving pupils a sense of belonging, and the use of small groups in order to have a better relationship with house masters (each 40.0 per cent).

The Type II schools, making a moderate use of houses, emphasize more fully the social affairs (60.0 per cent) and, to some extent, the sense of belonging, the providing a basis for the mixing of students of different backgrounds, and the giving of participation opportunities and encouragement to a wider range of pupils (each 40.0 per cent).

All Type III schools (100.0 per cent), using the houses largely for competition, list this as the most important single value achieved. The only other major value listed by Type III schools is that of assisting the pupil's personal development, three schools (33.3 per cent).

Now comparing the total British schools to the American secondary schools in the study (still in Table 8) it will be found that the competition shows as the highest value for the British schools, fourteen schools (73.7 per cent) as were the uses of small groups in order to develop better relationship to the staff, highest for the American schools, twenty-five schools (96.1 per cent). Next highest value listed by the total British schools is the assisting of the pupil's personal development, seven schools (36.8 per cent) as compared to smaller administrative units and the encouragement of opportunities for a wider range of pupils, each nine schools (34.6 per cent) for the American. Some other important values appearing in the British total are the giving to a pupil a sense of belonging, five schools (26.3 per cent) and the small groups advantages, four schools (21.1 per cent), the latter being the one that was so high for the American schools.[1] It is likely that

[1]Miscellaneous items are as follows: The one miscellaneous item each in Types I, II, and III, is "helps in discipline problems". The six miscellaneous items for the American schools are as follows: Gives opportunity to wider number of pupils, assists in better preparation and use of pupil records (2), encourages thrift, provides general cultural stimulation, makes discipline of pupils easier.

the American emphasis upon small administrative units and small groups lies in the fact that the American schools are much larger and that there is greater emphasis in the schools upon the administrative arrangements in structure. In the British schools the emphases are more on the student activities and participation.

Continuing the comparison with the list of disadvantages cited by the schools, reference is made to Table 9 (two pages). Again comparison is made by separating Types I, II, and III for purposes of emphasis and illustration. The two disadvantages cited most frequently by the headmasters of the British schools in the study, considered all together, are: houses not fulfilling any special function, five schools (29.4 per cent). Ignoring scattered miscellaneous responses, there was a wide range of disadvantages listed by two schools each (11.8 per cent), the inappropriate and confused administrative structure, variation in quality and methods of house masters, the problem of separation of pupil and friends because of assignment to different houses, the problem of the clashes of school and house loyalty, and lack of interest and participation on the part of pupils.

The differences in the listing of disadvantages between types in the British schools can be noted in the fact that the emphases in Type I schools on artificiality, narrowness of purpose, variations in qualifications of house masters and the loyalty clashes stand out. Most of the schools listing the lack of usefulness of houses are Type III in which there is but a minimal use.

In the case of the American secondary schools, the problem most frequently listed was the confused administrative structure, fourteen schools (70.4 per cent). In many cases this confusion seems to be between the house administration structure and the departmental administration by subjects within the school which cuts across house lines. Also, there were administrative problems cited in class scheduling by houses. The American schools also reported (similar to the British) the problem of the buildings not being adapted for the use of houses, four schools (21.1 per cent). There was some complaint concerning the disadvantages of the staff not being of adequate quality for the supervision of house activities, also, four schools (21.1 per cent). Three of the American schools (10.5 per cent) listed the problems of the conflict of house loyalty with school loyalty.[1]

[1]Among the miscellaneous for the British schools are: Name "house" inappropriate, members of house not closely knit, good students not always able to lead, should not be used for discipline, Form Six causes problems for houses. In the American schools: "the teachers are over-specialized", and "houses are expensive".

TABLE 9 a :

LIST OF DISADVANTAGES OF HOUSE SYSTEM (HEADMASTERS AND PRINCIPALS)

American and British Study Combined

(Types I through III indicate the extent of use of houses.)

House Types / Disadvantages	BRITISH								AMERICAN SECONDARY SCHOOLS	
	I		II		III		TOTAL			
	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent
Buildings not adapted to use of houses	2	25.0	1	33.3	1	16.7	4	23.5	4	21.1
Administrative structure confused or inappropriate for houses	1	12.5	1	33.3	--	---	2	11.8	14	70.4
Grouping of pupils in houses artificial	1	12.5	--	---	--	---	1	5.9	--	--
Activities of houses too narrow	1	12.5	--	---	--	---	1	5.9	--	--
Variation in quality and methods of house master	2	25.0	--	---	--	---	2	11.8	--	--
Separates friends	--	---	1	33.3	1	16.7	2	11.8	--	--
Quality of staff inadequate for supervision of house activities	--	---	1	33.3	--	---	1	5.9	4	21.1

TABLE 9 b

LIST OF DISADVANTAGES OF HOUSE SYSTEM (HEADMASTERS AND PRINCIPALS)
(continued)

American and British Study Combined

House Types / Disadvantages	BRITISH								AMERICAN SECONDARY SCHOOLS	
	I		II		III		TOTAL			
	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent
Houses not fulfilling a useful function to pupils or to the school	--	---	2	66.7	3	50.0	5	29.4	--	--
Loyalty to house clashes with school loyalty	1	12.5	1	33.3	--	---	2	11.8	2	10.5
Lack of interest and participation on the part of the pupils	--	---	2	66.7	--	---	2	11.8	--	---
Miscellaneous	2	25.0	--	---	4	66.7	6	35.3	2	10.5
NUMBER OF SCHOOLS LISTING DISADVANTAGES	8	---	3	---	6	---	17	---	19	---
NUMBER OF SCHOOLS IN WHICH NO DISADVANTAGES LISTED	0		2		6		8		15	
NUMBER OF SCHOOLS IN STUDY	8		5		12		25		34	

Pro's and con's on the Use of Houses

The emergence of the comprehensive school in England with its possibility for enrolling large numbers of pupils raises the issues of the advantages and disadvantages of the house system. A study was made of the literature to determine the general reaction of British educators to the house system. Also, in the course of the interviews, reactions were sought as to the attitude toward the use of houses.

Since many educators in the comprehensive movement wish to get rid of the influence of the English public school, the house system comes in for scrutiny, because of its origin and history in these "elite" schools. However, in order to meet the criticism of bigness of the comprehensive school, as compared with the grammar school, some of these same educators find a need for some such system.

Robin Pedley[1] is one such authority who shows his reluctance to use this historic system, while at the same time admitting to a need to break down the large schools.

The advantages as listed by headmasters were, first of all, to give the child individual attention and a sense of belonging; secondly, to make him a part of a community - a cross section of society small enough for him to feel needed and so develop a sense of responsibility. After these two main advantages come several related to administration. First, in even small schools it makes the administration of games and competition easier and open to more people. It might be noted that the British seem to "set more store" by games for every one than Americans do. The house provides more opportunities for leadership, in that there are house captains and vice captains, games captains and sometimes house prefects.

In the large schools (over 1000) it makes division of school administration possible, leaving time for policy making for the headmaster. It is used for the scheduling of non-academic classes in the lower forms in some schools.

It was noted once that the house can be used for experimentation while other houses in the same school may act as control groups.

[1]Robin Pedley, The Comprehensive School, 1966, p.127.

Last year in the London Times Educational Supplement, September 8, 1967, an unsigned letter attacked the house system. The criticisms were that it was a time waster, forcing students to participate in games who could make better use of their time, an example of over-organization by headmasters who can't stand any inactivity; finally that it is out of date. All of these criticisms seem to be of some uses made of the system, but not inherent in the system.

Perhaps fairer criticism is made by A.G. Hind[1] in his thesis on the comprehensive school when he says that there is a possibility of narrowing the students' outlook and interest, and of creating excessive loyalty to the house. Hind gives more advantages than disadvantages and says the house system is needed in schools of more than 1000 pupils.

Roger Cole[2] feels that the English housemaster is the equivalent of the American guidance counselor, and more, in that he spends more time with his students in situations other than guidance and often visits the parents.

Since the house system is new in the American public school, it is used only where the school staff and community want to do so. As a result, the schools using it are highly in favor of it.

If it is true that one of America's social ills is impersonalization, then certainly the house system, or "schools-within-schools", is a good attempt in the education of children.

The American system is really quite different from the British. Although some American boarding schools historically used it as the British do, the main emphasis here is as it has developed in the large urban public high school. Its advantages are the same as those claimed in the similar sized English school, to give the child a sense of belonging and of being a member of a community. No stress is laid on competition as such by houses in the American

[1]A.G. Hind, "The Comprehensive School with Special Reference to the House System".

[2]Roger Cole, Comprehensive Schools in Action, 72-73.

schools. There is rather an attempt to make the house a more complete school from the standpoint of a wider range of social classes. The attempt to schedule the major academic subjects within the house is completely American and here is where a difficulty or disadvantage is found.

Difficulty in scheduling is found in a house of less than 500 students. Teachers have to be able to teach the whole range of subjects within their field. When the system is introduced, teachers who are friends may be separated as though they went to other schools. Sometimes students resent the differences in the manner of dealing with discipline from one housemaster to another. This, of course, is the same criticism as is found between different schools in the same district but it is easier to recognize on the same campus. Some students reported disliking having the same home room teacher year after year, but this again is a criticism of the individual, rather than the system.

Some advantages noted from the administrative side were: first, that the chief education, guidance and discipline of the student were given by those who knew him well. Communication was excellent. Supervision of teachers by the housemaster or assistant principals is much easier than for the principal to know all the teachers well. It also provides an excellent opportunity for educational experimentation as was noted in England. One school head called it a "climate for innovation".

SECTION V - Counseling Students and Other Pupil Personnel Problems in Comprehensive Schools in England and Wales in Comparison to American Schools

Some aspects of the house system are similar to the work done by counselors in the United States. However, much of the pastoral care, as the British tend to call counseling, is divided and done by many different people.

Vocational Guidance

Let us look first at vocational guidance. The questions on the interview sheet asked, "Who is responsible for giving careers information and help?"

At this point, the Youth Employment Service of England should be explained. It is financially supported by both the Department of Education and of Labor. This would seem to be an arrangement of benefit to the school. The guidance in vocations (or careers) given by this service is consistent throughout England and Wales. Its aim is to counsel with each fifteen-year-old school leaver, as well as those who are college bound, who wish to be so counseled. The fifteen-year-old school leaver is generally put in touch with a job that he can have if he wishes. In that respect, the service differs in practice from that offered in the United States--at least that of our experience.

The Youth Employment Service has test records and school records on every pupil interviewed. In many cases the parents, one or both, attend the interview. There are also career evenings sponsored by this service for the general information of students and their parents. In some small rural schools this service, together with the help of the headmaster, constitutes the vocational guidance. In the same size school in the United States there would probably be no individual vocational counseling.

The work of the Careers Master is a very real service in most of the schools that were studied. This person is a teacher, chosen by the headmaster, who is responsible for getting vocational material to the student. In some schools it was found to be a part of the teachers' daily scheduled work, up to half-time in rare instances. In other smaller schools it was the teacher's extra duty, for example, instead of managing a club. Most of these responsibilities get a rating for extra pay.

The Career Masters are not especially trained but are chosen, in the main, because of their interest and their ability to work closely with students. Often they were found to be personality types similar to the ideal for guidance counselors in the United States. Dr. H. Lytton of Exeter sees the counseling taught there as "providing a suitable professional qualification for existing house teachers and careers teachers."[1] The amount of work done depended on the school, its headmaster, and on the careers man or woman himself. In some schools this service was highly efficient, in others it could have been left out. Much of the material used was supplied by Youth Employment, but put to use at such times as the student wished to seek out the Careers Master.

One of the most active Careers Masters in the study was a mistress in a girls' school. She had previously worked for the Youth Employment, but left it for teaching. She showed interest in all of the problems of her students, while she gave vocational guidance, at which she was most efficient.

Often the vocational guidance is set up only for the fifteen year old leaver. Many times the college-bound student is counseled by someone else. The person responsible for them is also designated by the head and is perhaps most often a teacher called the "sixth form master".

There are also, in some schools, year masters for each year, who take some responsibility for vocational counseling. It should be mentioned at this point that deputy heads or senior masters may do the same work as described for the headmaster in the field of career guidance.

One thing, however, is certain--the career choice for the college bound must be pretty well determined by age fourteen since English schools are so specialized in the upper school. It would seem that parents are the chief counselors at this early age.

Again, in the small rural school, the headmaster often counseled the college bound as he did the school leaver.

Two schools in Type I[2] used house masters for their vocational guidance. Other schools in this group must have used the house masters help unofficially since the housemaster usually knew his students well.

[1]"Counseling in Schools: A Study of the Present Situation in Great Britain". P. 10. Working Paper No. 15. Schools' Council London. Her Majesty's Stationery Office, 1967.

[2]For definition of Type I, II, III, and IV Schools for the purpose of this study, see page 40 of Section III.

Of the eight Type I schools, five listed the Careers Masters as chief source of career information, one used the Deputy Head to coordinate career materials and one used Year Masters for this purpose. Youth Employment was named four times as a contributing source.

In Type II schools, all five gave Career Masters as chief source. One school gave Deputy Head for college bound students as secondary source. Youth Employment, Year Tutors, and a lone Guidance Counselor were named.

In Type III, made up of twelve schools, nine named Career Masters as primary sources, two gave Headmasters and one gave Year Master.

In Type IV of two schools, two named Career Masters first and one added Youth Employment second.

It was also asked to what extent parents were involved in Careers Guidance.

Type I - six schools reported career conventions for parents and students. Two schools did not report.

Type II - one school has career conventions that parents may attend. A junior school has third year parent conferences. In one, Careers Master sees parents once a year.

Type III - seven schools had parent conferences with the Youth Employment. Two had career conventions; one, no data; one junior school did nothing.

Other Guidance - Related Matters

One item on the Interview Record Sheet asked how the schools gave sex education.

Type I - All schools reported making an effort in this direction and all eight named biology and/or science classes and four named religious education as the source of instruction. Films were mentioned twice. A BBC television program was named once;especially invited lecturers were named twice and house masters with parent meetings were named once.

Type II - Three of the five schools made efforts similar to those in Type I.

Type III - Seven out of twelve schools said they did little or nothing.

Summaries for all twenty-six schools:

9 did little or nothing
18 schools said biology and science classes
6 schools gave religious education
3 schools listed television programs
3 schools listed films
2 schools gave a course for fifteen-year old leavers
4 schools had speakers
2 schools said physical education gave instructions

How is ethical or moral training provided? There was no need to tabulate this by type as there was no appreciable difference from one type to the other. In summary,

18 schools named religious education and assembly
5 schools said throughout the whole school
Form periods were named twice and one school named the art class
Most English school people seemed to feel that the school as a whole is an ethical institution.

In response to the question as to who sees a child who is upset emotionally, there was a rather general pattern.

In Type I schools, the house masters were mentioned as involved in six out of eight schools. The house staff was not mentioned in the other two types (IIand III). The general pattern is from any staff member, usually a classroom teacher, to their immediate superior, whether that be a year level master, a house master, or senior master, deputy head, or head, from that point to parents and through school head and parents to the child guidance department of county welfare. Some staff members stated frankly that little was done by the school in this matter.

The next item was attendance problems. No objective figures on attendance seemed available, but every school had a pattern for handling problems. In all cases the actual checking in the home is done by the county attendance officer who is a part of the Welfare Department. Form teachers check attendance and their report is sent on to some one in administration.

In Type I, four of the eight schools involved the house masters but the house masters were not mentioned in Types II and III.

In one case a teacher gave part time to attendance work for his school and in two cases a secretary took care of reporting the problems from the school to the County Attendance Department.

Twelve schools reported very little absence, six said there was some absence, two reported no problems, three reported considering it a problem. No objective evidence was made available and what one calls very little may be a problem to someone else. In the discussion with head masters about attendance, it was learned that where there is a problem, it is apt to occur just before the fifteen year old leaver becomes fifteen; he no longer sees the use of going to school.

The problem of poverty and need among students in England is again a county welfare problem. There are a few English parents who squander their welfare money and only by chance is this caught in exploring the needs of the student. Most schools had funds for temporary emergencies. A teacher or senior mistress or master, when aware of a welfare problem, would bring it to the attention of the head master who would then bring it to the attention of the County Welfare Office.

Head masters and teachers were asked if the welfare service was adequate to help the pupil and only one head master and one teacher said no. Another teacher said because of so much "red tape" it was not always used.

Sources of Help for Student Problems

Students interviewed were asked to what adult they went with school problems.

In Type I the housemasters were cited in twelve out of thirty answers; the subject teacher and the headmaster tied with five each; the other seven were scattered among every one on the staff.

In Type II there were eighteen answers of which the housemaster was included seven times with all the rest scattered; the form teacher and subject teacher each getting three.

In Type III the form teacher or tutor teacher and the deputy head were mentioned most often.

In Type IV one answer--the senior mistress.

On the item of personal problems the following persons were consulted:

Type I - Housemaster and mistresses, five; favorite teacher, five; head and deputy head, three each; parents, four; sister, two; peer, one; sixth form master, one; and the one half-time counselor, six out of eight for his school. It could be noted here that the same counselor was named only twice for school problems. The total number of answerw were thirty.

In Type II the headmaster received six out of the total of eighteen; parents were next with four; favorite teacher, four; and one each to head mistress, senior mistress and two named friends.

Type III - Ten named parents and family, with school staff members getting nine votes scattered among them; friends were mentioned three times; the parish priest, once.

Type IV - The one answer here went to mother.

Data on American Schools

Four questions regarding matters for individual student welfare and development were the same in the American study as in the British questionnaire. The tabulation is on thirty-four schools.

Who is responsible for vocational guidance?

Thirty-one named their counselors as the chief source with other secondary sources. In one school deans were named but they may be counselors. The report does not ask for their training. One school used career units in classes and another home-room discussion. As secondary, home-room teachers and class-room teachers were named three times.

How is sex education given?

Eight schools either said they had none or none as yet. Health and hygiene were named ten times, biology is named seven times, home economics is named six times, and science and physical education were each mentioned four times. One school seemed to have a strong program as the subject was begun in the ninth social studies, then in tenth home economics, eleventh social studies again, and then in the twelfth as an elective course in family life. Counselors, nurses, and doctors came in for consultation and individual guidance a few times in answer to this question.

As to the teaching of ethics and morals, many American schools like the British said that they felt that the school as a whole taught this. Eighteen schools said "throughout in general", "total

school", "through all classes", etc. Three said in English and social studies, two by teacher's example, three stated by home room discussion, two by assemblies, and by group counseling, one in home economics, family life, one student council and bulletin boards and one by individuals. One school has a tenth grade program and another has a class in philosophy and ethics.

What happens when a student is emotionally upset?

The answer to this is the statement of a chain of events as it was in the British study.

Typical are nine schools who say the problem goes first to counselor, then to the special services provided by school district. A variation on this theme says teacher to counselor, to headmaster or principal, to special services. Sometimes the order was counselor to nurse or to psychologist. Two schools listed school social workers as the originator in the chain of events. Eight schools said the case went first to the housemaster, then to counselor, to outside help. Some schools had their own psychologist with psychiatrists on a consulting basis.

General Comparison

It would serve no real purpose to make an elaborate comparison between the English and American schools on the few items that were the same on the two questionnaires.

In talking with British school pupils sometimes reticence was found on their part to talk about their school and their teachers. They had, as no doubt we did, preconceived ideas about the other's educational system. Explanation of our questions was needed. "What is a school problem" or "What do you mean by personal problems" was asked by students many times.

However, it is easy to note that the chief source of vocational information in our English study was the careers master in 78 per cent of the answers. In the American study it was the guidance counselor 90 per cent of the time. When the seeming extra strength of the English Youth Employment Service is recognized over America's similar service, there is a more complete picture.

On the question, "How is sex education given?", of twenty-six schools, nine reported none and of the thirty-four American schools, eight had none. Since the schools are not statistically paired, this information is only a "straw in the wind". It must be remembered that the American schools represent those using the "house" system and certainly were not the "average American school".

Conclusion

Since this study was done in the new comprehensive type schools in England, a good proportion of young educators (and old ones)were those willing to try something new. The views of these educators are new to the English educational world. Much of the thinking in this group mirrored American education.

Counselors are beginning to be trained and their source of material is American and their courses are often taught by visiting American teachers. Two trained guidance counselors were found, but both were teaching at least half of their time and both had been trained in the last two years. One was not known as a "guidance counselor" as such, but was Careers Master in what time was not given to teaching.

The tradition of the grammar school is the view found most often among the English lay people. General statement, "the school exists to make knowledge available to the pupil and guidance is the function of the parents", seems to express this view.

With the advent of the comprehensive school, interest is developing in the disadvantaged and remedial student. These interests foster pastoral care or guidance. Even among staffs with new ideas, the separation of discipline and guidance is not often understood. We met a number of people who were thinking about this. One housemaster, when asked if his students discussed their problems with him, said, "Now why would he, when he knows I'll punish him for what he did wrong in the situation?"

Another young woman teacher told us that only recently did the school attempt to know the pupil. She said, "If a boy's father died and the boy was tardy he would have been scolded or punished and no one would have asked why he was late". Perhaps this seems extreme but it does express the old view.

There was ataff interest everywhere in the work of the American counselor. One school head had a tea after school for all staff members and asked us to talk with them. When the fact that an American student talks to his counselor about his troubles with a teacher was stated, one teacher seemed to speak for all when she said, "We would feel disloyal if we listened to any criticism of another staff member".

At a meeting of the Comprehensive School Committee (London), the view of the American counselor was put forth very well by a school head who had studied in America and he said that the English Comprehensive Schools should introduce counselors as soon as they could be trained.

It would be untrue to leave the impression that good pastoral care was not found in the schools studied. Many headmasters made excellent father figures, perhaps on the whole better than American principals because they are freer from meetings and extensive city or county organization. In one of the representative British schools visited it was noted that the headmaster knew all of his nine hundred and fifty students, knew who was absent, whose parents were ill and how each was doing in school. He had a remarkable memory. We found warm teachers everywhere and in almost every school someone could be approached by the student for personal help. Many times the careers master really served as a personal counselor.

The remedial teacher was often a good example of one who teaches the whole child. One such teacher was found in a Welsh mining town--her care, interest, and insight in her pupils would serve as an example anywhere.

It will be interesting to see how the guidance effort will evolve in England. The careers master is an important staff member, the senior mistress now takes care of "girl problems". The housemaster and the year master look after the school problems. The headmaster and deputy master may work in all these ways.

No doubt, if more schools go comprehensive, thus getting larger in order to offer better curriculum, some division of labor will result.

SECTION VI - Anecdotal Comparisons of Typical British Comprehensive Schools of Each Type and of Typical American Schools in the Study

Perhaps the description of representative schools from each of the four types in anecdotal style will present more clearly the working of the house system in the British study. Following, two examples of each are given to show what the house does when used in its most extensive form, Type I; and in moderate use, Type II; and in minimal use, Type III; and one example is given of a Type IV school in which no houses are used. Following these descriptions, there are also included two examples of the use of the house system in American schools.

Description of Type I British Schools

A visit to School A, a large (1,800 pupils) metropolitan school, revealed excellent use being made of the house system. Here there were eight houses, four for girls and four for boys, with women in charge of the girls' houses and men in those for boys. There are about 250 in each house. The insignia of each house is its necktie; since girls wear shirts as part of the school uniform, the tie is a common denominator. Honor buttons are worn on girls' ties.

There is no place assigned as a home for each house, but they met weekly and dined together daily. There is a pairing system between the boys' and girls' houses for social occasions. Assignment to houses is made at random except for family related placements, that is, allowing brothers or sisters to be in the same house.

This school chooses its house prefects by vote of the house staff from each house. They are used for general supervision of buildings and playgrounds and are given authority to refer infractions to housemasters for attention. The housemaster or mistress is really running a small school within a big school. Student problems rarely get to the headmaster. He and his deputy are concerned with problems similar to those of a head of a small school system.

The houses are the basis for games, other competition, for school social life (such as dining by houses) and for the guidance and discipline of pupils. In this school complete files on pupils are kept in each house. The housemasters in their school get both extra time and pay for this special duty.

The second school (School B) used to illustrate Type I is much smaller than the first illustration, having eight hundred pupils as compared with one thousand, eight hundred.

There are six houses made up of both boys and girls, but all house heads are male. Each house has approximately 130 members and has five or six registration groups. Discipline is left to the housemasters and some allow a small amount of pupil self-discipline.

The pupils eat lunch by houses and have separate assemblies every other week. Thus, only half the student body meets in assembly at the same time. Some such arrangement is needed in many schools due to lack of auditorium space.

In this school the only house competition was in games. Some parent evenings were held by houses but the parent association was school wide.

It is interesting to note that this school had the new, fully trained guidance counselor who spent half-time as a counselor to all students and the other half-time as a music teacher.

The careers master also served all students. In the United States jurisdictional lines frequently get crossed in pupil personnel. How much more difficult it is in this English school, with its house masters, counselor, careers master, senior mistress, deputy headmaster, head master, and also in this school a director of remedial work.

Both students and faculty felt the house system worth while as a means of social integration, for a sense of belonging, for wholesome competition in games and as an administrative help.

The housemasters have five periods a week free from teaching for work as housemasters, but they get no extra pay.

This was one of a very few schools visited that had a representative student government. Each tutor group (or homeroom) elected a representative.

Description of Type II British Schools

School C is an excellent example of an English comprehensive school which has taken enough scholarship places at Oxford to satisfy its critics.

It has 950 students, all of whom are known personally to its headmaster. It has four houses with all men as housemasters. No Time or special allowance is made for these housemasters. The houses meet for their own assemblies once every two weeks and they use the four large stairways for meeting places.

There are two main features of the houses in this school; namely, sports competition and the scheduling of non-academic classes in Forms I and II, corresponding to American seventh and eighth grades. In other words, the boys and girls go to art, physical education, music and manual and domestic arts by houses in the first two years of this secondary school.

The headmaster here is the source of guidance and discipline. He is assisted by a senior master and senior mistress. He sets a strong moral and idealist tone for his school. His teaching field is Religious Instruction and he does teach one class himself.

School D (also Type II) had 1100 students divided into lower and upper schools. There are four houses in the lower school and four in the upper. Each had a man as housemaster with a woman assisting as deputy. There are approximately 150 in each lower house and 200 in each upper school house.

Participation by houses in dramatic, music and debates was found. There is competition in sports, games, and even chess. This school used merits and demerits for school work and behavior and these were assigned by houses.

However, the real discipline and guidance here seemed to rest in the administrative personnel. The senior mistress of each school visited seemed usually to have responsibility for the control of the girls. This senior mistress, a moderate and charming lady in manner, was the only one found who admitted to having caned girls. However, she said she did not believe it did any good.

Here the trend is toward year tutors for guidance and student responsibility.

Description of Type III British Schools

Two type III schools are next discussed. They have houses only for competition, as in sports. School E has 1160 boys enrolled. There are four so-called houses, but no housemasters. The physical education teachers take care of the distribution of boys to houses to balance them athletically. They are used for sports and games

competition only. In the future, the headmaster sees the same sort of groups for the lower school, but sees year groups for the upper school.

The man interviewed in this school called the senior housemaster turned out to be the senior master in charge of a year group, their use of the term "housemaster". The "houses" were not related to the school organization and administration. The Physical Education Department simply "chose up" for games.

School F was a Welsh school located in a mining town and differs from School E in one aspect of the use made of the house system. Being Welsh means taking part in the Eisteddfod competition. Therefore, the houses were used both for sports and for the cultural competitions of the Eisteddfod. This included creative writing, singing, sewing, mathematics contests, and many other things. However, it can be noted that all of this is competitive by houses. There is mention of competition of weekly test scores on a house basis also.

The houses had no other use. The basic organization of the school was really along the line of year groups. The staff member relating most to the student was the year master. The head of the remedial work indicated that the remedial students took no part in the house competition. "It is not for mine", she said.

Description of a Type IV British School

A visit was made to a school (School G) that had no house (Type IV). It had 900 students but due to expansion will have 1300 or more in the near future. A new building program was going on and, when completed, there will be four house areas with a dining center in each.

Here the headmaster was near retirement and that perhaps accounts for the low morale of the whole set up. The head, the senior mistress and senior master seemed to do all the discipline and guidance. Games seemed to be managed solely by the physical education department, as in the United States.

Description of Typical American Public Schools in The Study

In studying the reports of the thirty-four American public schools having houses, or schools-within-schools, variance was found in the

basic structure. Two thirds followed the vertical principle having, as in England, all ages and abilities in each house, and one-third were by years, with one school reporting houses based on ability and interest grouping. Two schools report houses to be used for guidance only and are directed by the counselors. The following two schools will illustrate in fact how the house system is working in the United States.

School A is a large eastern city school having 1,692 students and three houses, thus making the average house size 575 students. A housemaster is a trained administrator, in reality an assistant principal, and with him, working closely, was one or more counselors. Each house has one secretary. The major classes such as English, social studies, mathematics and science, are scheduled within the house as, of course, is the homeroom and study hall. There are common rooms or lounges for students connected with each house. Students were interviewed in one of the lounges for this study. Honor students are allowed to use these rooms instead of the study hall.

Each house has three or four assemblies of its own each year and intra-mural athletics are carried on by houses. Dining in the main cafeteria brings some members of a house together, but not all, due to schedules of special classes taken by people from all houses. Another school in this same district has given up scheduling major subjects by houses as it found this to be too difficult.

School B is a middle west city school having 1,439 students and three houses having approximately 475 students each. The housemasters are men with women counselors as assistants. There is clerical assistance for each house. The houses are used for administration, guidance and instruction. Unlike England, the houses are not used for intra-mural athletics. They do have house meetings for parents and they report that communication with parents is better, due to the house system. This school does not have separate dining or separate student clubs or activities. Each housemaster teaches one hour a day.

CONCLUSIONS

AND

RECOMMENDATIONS

SECTION VII - Summary, Conclusions and Recommendations

Summary

This is the summary of a study made during a visit to a representative sample of thirty-three comprehensive schools in England and Wales directed primarily toward the use of the house system. The data collected were compared to those from forty-two American schools which indicated that they had made some use of the house system or a similar type of organization, sometimes called in the United States "schools-within-schools". It was found that around ninety per cent of the comprehensive schools in England employ some type of house system. However, the extent of the use of houses varies greatly among the British schools, making it necessary to divide the schools, for the purpose of tabulation, into four Types.

Type I schools, having the most extensive use of houses, numbered eleven schools in the sample, or 33.3 per cent.

Type II schools, having a moderate use of houses, numbered seven schools, having 21.2 per cent.

Type III schools, having a minimal use of houses largely for competition, numbered thirteen, or 39.4 per cent.

Type IV had no houses at all and there were just two of these in the study, or 6.1 per cent.

In the American sample, only those schools which indicated innovations as to the use of houses or some other type of school-within-school innovations were used. This means that the American sample of forty-two schools was similar to the Type I British schools because to them it was a relatively new venture and the houses on the whole are more extensively used in those American schools that used them than in many of the British.

In some British schools, they were used only because of tradition. Consequently, there was little but a token or minimal use. It was for this reason that the tabulations for the British school were usually made by the type of schools as related to the extent of their use of houses.

The use of the house system is a tradition in British education going back to the use of the houses for the purpose of teams for games in the boarding schools in England. They were

largely used in the Public Schools, the schools with a long history and high prestige. As other grammar schools developed and as graduates of these schools started day schools similar in type to the boarding schools, the idea of the houses spread to these schools as well.

After 1944 with the development of the secondary modern schools and later the comprehensive schools to which all three of the parts of British education - namely, grammar schools, secondary modern, and technical schools were being brought together into one school, the house system still continued to be used.

The houses,then, began, however, to take on some additional functions. Because these schools enroll pupils from a wide range of different social classes and different ranges of ability, the houses were one means of bringing them together through some type of association within the school. Many times in their classes they were separated by ability grouping, or streaming, widely used in British education.

Basically in the house system the pupils are assigned on entrance to school on some random s cheme and typically there are approximately four houses in a school, although the number of houses varies considerably. The houses were used for a wide variety of activities. However, in Type III schools they were limited largely to games. Moreover, in Type I schools they are used for many school purposes, including disciplining. In the Type I schools the houses are also used quite frequently for guidance and other personnel purposes.

When the schools of England and Wales in the sample were asked to list the one central purpose of their houses, fifteen out of the total schools in the study, thirty-three, listed competition only. The rest of the schools listed a wide variety of purposes but still a large number, sixteen, listed games, making a total of thirty-one schools in which competition or games are the exclusive or primary purpose. The games are a means to an end, of course, and not the end itself. The end is to develop loyalty, leadership and sportsmanship. Twelve schools also list the pastoral purpose (guidance and counseling) as important (36.4 per cent).

By far the largest majority of the schools, twenty-five out of thirty for which data on this item were available, list that the members of the staff are assigned to a house. Only seventeen of the thirty schools giving this information have meetings of house masters with his staff. All but eight of the schools do have assemblies by houses at some time throughout the year,

although the number of assemblies vary greatly throughout the houses, with most schools having them infrequently. Only six of the schools have situations where pupils in a house are able to dine together. In eight of the schools, most of them Type I schools (seven), the pupil discipline is the basic responsibility of the house staff. In only three of the schools are the classes scheduled by house groups. The houses do not keep records for pupils. In thirteen out of the twenty-five schools for which data were available on this item, thirteen kept no records of students in the houses. Only three schools kept what could be called complete records by houses.

After the interviews had been held in each of the schools, the interviewers attempted to judge the future role of the house system in British schools as they were seen. The overall summary of the appraised changes in the role of the houses in the future is as follows: Out of the twenty-seven schools (of the total of thirty-three in the study of which an evaluation can be made), in four (14.4 per cent) the role of the house was seen as decreasing; in twenty (74.8 per cent) little or no change was seen in the role of the houses; in three (11.1 per cent) an increase was seen.

In the case of the American schools in the sample, the most common or modal number of houses in the American schools studies was three as compared with the most frequent number of four in the British schools. The American schools tended to have a larger sized house due to the larger pupil-staff ratio and, on the whole, the larger schools. The median in the American school had 538 in a house as compared to 118 for the median of the British schools.

In the comparison of the schools with respect to the one primary purpose, the following is a summary of the responses: In the case of the British schools, fourteen schools of the total of twenty-two answering the questions gave competition (that is, the use of the houses to promote team spirit by games and other competition) as the primary purpose of the houses. Five schools (22.7 per cent) stated the primary purpose was advisory - in England called "pastoral care" - as compared to eighteen out of thirty-five schools in the American sample (47.4 per cent). It is interesting here that none of the American schools gave competition as the main purpose, although it is indicated in nineteen schools that competitive sports was one of the purposes but not the central one for having houses. The difference here may well be, of course, that in the United States competition is stressed greatly in the inter-school activities and not so greatly in intramural (or intra-school). Further, of course, the competition between houses in England is not an end in itself, that is, for competition alone, but as a means to an end.

The predominant central purpose of the use of houses in British schools was for competitive purposes, i.e., as a vehicle for games and team sports. The next largest group of schools indicated the central purpose of houses to be an advisory function. This order is to be contrasted with the American schools in which the largest number indicated an advisory purpose, with the rest of them scattered through other miscellaneous purposes.

Conclusions

The following is a condensed summary as to the advantages of the use of houses, drawing from the material uncovered in both the American and the British studies and in the literature. Then, following later is a list of some of the weakensses, or disadvantages, of the house system.

Advantages

1 - The house system breaks the large school down into smaller units which assists in administrative problems.

2 - By breaking the school into smaller units and making the housemaster and other small unit officials responsible for working with pupils, it assists in the pupils' personal development and enables guidance functions to be carried out so that each pupil can be given individual attention.

3 - It provides a basis for competitive sports.

4 - It provides a basis for pupils' social affairs in smaller groups than that of the large impersonal school system.

5 - It gives the pupil a sense of belonging by being a part of a group and finding that his participation in the house activities is desired because of the contribution which he might make, not only in competitive affairs but also in leadership responsibilities.

6 - It provides a basis for mixing students of different social backgrounds in a relatively small group which makes it possible for them to get to know one another better. This is particularly important in a school that enrolls pupils from different social classes.

7 - It gives an opportunity for pupils to develop leadership and to participate in a wider range of activities. The participation or lack of participation of a pupil in activities sometimes has an effect on the standing of the house, and the pupil feels a loyalty to the house, therefore he tends to participate and in participating he gets a greater advantage out of the activity itself. In so many of the American schools participation in the extra-class activities is very low percentage-wise.

In the next section some of the aspects of guidance and personnel practices will be summarized and following this a summary of the advantages and disadvantages as seen by the schools in the study and as found in the literature will be presented.

The guidance aspect of the house system is one that would be expected to be of much importance. In schools where houses were really sub-schools this was found to be true. The English and Welsh do not separate guidance, teaching, and discipline from each other. It would be fair to say that the guidance function, as defined in the United States, is divided among many people in the British schools comprising this study.

Vocational counseling is quite well done by a careers master in every school studied. He is very well supported by the Youth Employment Service. This service is financed by both the Department of Labor and the Department of Education and Science. Every fifteen-year-old school leaver has an opportunity to be placed in a job.

The schools studied are doing a comparable job in sex education and in moral and ethical education to the American schools studied.

In general, the pattern of the care of the emotionally upset student runs similar to the American pattern with the exception of the omission of the counselor and the use of other members of staff instead.

In a welfare state there seems to be not so many needy students but schools do have emergency funds for their assistance.

There are attendance problems in some schools, particularly with some students just before they are fifteen.

The teacher in the comprehensive school is often young and where he is older he is open to newer ideas. Teachers sensitive to students and warm in their reactions to persons were found everywhere. The senior mistress acted as dean of girls and took care of girl problems. Both the headmaster and the deputy head were generally willing to spend considerable time with individual students.

Guidance counselors are now being trained in England. Two counselors were seen in the British school sample--both taught half-time. The curriculum used for their training is often that adapted from American training program for counselors.

8 - Another advantage which is sometimes indicated by the schools is that it gives the pupil more security by feeling himself an important part of a smaller group.

9 - The scheduling of classes entirely within houses (except for highly specialized courses) may lead to improvement in subject matter integration and better continuity.

10 - House organization and staff may take care of many problems satisfactorily and thus leave the teaching staff free from administrative details and routine.

11 - New staff members may be more readily oriented and house staffs may develop a better group spirit.

12 - Some experience indicates that the use of houses is not more expensive and particularly not as expensive as would be a series of completely separate schools of the same size as houses.

Disadvantages

1 - There tends at times to be a confusion in the administrative structure, with older administrative structures, such as the authority of the principal or department head, conflicting with the newer authority of the housemaster and there may be problems of scheduling classes in the smaller house units.

2 - Sometimes the assignment of pupils to houses appears to be rather artificial and sometimes the activities of the houses are rather narrowing.

3 - In many of the schools both in England and the United States the buildings are not adapted to the use of the house system and the functioning of the houses may not be as effective as it might be.

4 - The leadership of the houses sometimes may be inferior and there may be variations in the quality and methods of the housemaster, thus leading to some confusion with respect to discipline and other activities.

5 - Sometimes the loyalty to the house may clash with the loyalty to the school. The student's interest and outlook may be narrowed by being somewhat confined to one house.

6 - It may be used by the school to further force the students into conformity. An almost opposite point relates to the houses encouraging too much freedom and individualism to the detriment of the school.

7 - Sometimes assignment of pupils to houses separates them from their friends.

8 - It may lead to waste of time in forcing the pupil to participate in more activities when he might be using his time better.

9 - House structure may be used by headmaster and housemaster in such a way to cause over-organization.

10 - (English) Because of its origin related to the "elitest" British school, it is considered anachronistic in the modern democratic world.

11 - The use of the house system may be more expensive per pupil than the large school not broken down into smaller groups.

It can be readily seen that the above-listed advantages and disadvantages are at times contradictory and in some cases relate more to method than to substance. A look at the advantages will indicate that many of those which are claimed, and perhaps rightly so, for the use of the house system also might be secured in other ways. For example, smaller units within the school could be set up in other ways than through the use of the house system. It still remains to be seen whether or not the house organization as such is better than the other types of organizations which also tend to break the school down to avoid the impersonality found in the larger schools. The house system does have the advantages in that it is readily known to students (includes student activities), the staff are usually assigned to houses, and the houses, although varied in nature from school to school, usually are heterogeneous across all social class lines.

It can be seen that most of the disadvantages of the house system listed are not necessarily found intrinsically in the system itself but in the methods used in putting it into operation. Such things as the adaptation of the building or the leadership of the house administrative officials, or improper uses of the houses are, of course, a result of methods and not inherent in the organization itself. It is only in the cases of disadvantages 10 (of historical significance in Great Britain and therefore opposition has developed there to it on that basis) or, in case of disadvantage 11, in that houses are more expensive than a large school not broken down into smaller groups would be. It is very likely any method of breaking the school down into smaller groups similar to houses but on some other basis would have somewhat the same cost factor as would the house system.

Recommendations

This study of houses arose at first merely because the writer was curious to find out more about the use of the house system in British schools. It developed, however, into a study with much wider implications in terms of trying to meet some of the problems faced by the large high schools in the United States, including those in the inner-city. The writer is convinced that the house method of internal organization in the schools may have some positive implications for helping to solve the problem of meeting the needs of the student in the large high school who tends to get lost in the impersonality of the organization.

Thus far a careful study of the literature has indicated that although a great deal of experimentation has been done and much literature has been written concerning some of the results of the experimentation, there has as yet been no controlled experimental study to indicate by empirical evidence the effects of organizing a large high school by using houses or "schools-within-schools".

With experimental and control schools would it not be possible to demonstrate whether or not there are measurable positive results in the use of the house system, and also perhaps to test different forms of internal organization along house lines for the most effectiveness with regard to educational purposes?

Most of the schools in the United States which have houses indicate that they are desirable. These schools plan to continue using them. In England where the house system has been used for a number of years and it is traditional, and where, in many cases, little use has actually been made of it, some are not so sure. However, there were some headmasters in England who were enthusiastic and feel that the only way they would be willing to organize a large secondary school would be by dividing the school into smaller units such as houses.

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APPENDICES

To be filled out by interviewer

Interview Guide Sheet
Survey of House System in British Comprehensive School
General Interview Record Sheet - for each School (Headmaster)

A. Identifying Data

School _____ L.E.A. _____

Headmaster _____ C.E.O. _____

Address _____ Address _____

_____ _____

Type of School: 1. Boys _____ Gilrs _____ Mixed _____

2. Boarding _____ Day _____ Both_____; (% of boys_____; % of girls____)

3. What other schools serve that locality? _____

4. Type of Administration: Church _____(Denomination? _____);

L. E. A. _____; Other _____

5. Size of school: Number of pupils _____ Number in staff _____

6. Streaming _____ Criteria _____ Years operating _____

7. Setting _____ Criteria _____

8. Type of Organization: _____

B. House System Information

9. Does the school have a house system of organization? _____

10. Number of Houses: Male _____ Female _____ Mixed _____

11. Number of housemasters: Male _____ Female _____

12. Do housemasters get special allowances and/or lighter teaching load? _____

_____

13. Teachers assigned to house _____ Clerical assistance? _____

14. Approximate number of pupils in each house _____

15. At what point are pupils allocated houses? _____

On what basis are pupils assigned to houses _____

For what purposes is the assignment made? _____

_____

Types of activities carried on by houses:

16. Separate assemblies _____ how often? _____

17. Separate dining facilities _____

18. Pupil self-discipline _____ 19. staff discipline _____

20. Pupil activities _____ List _____

_____

Inter-house competition occurs in which sports? _____

_____

21A. Do houses participate in dramatics? _____

22A. Do houses prepare assembly programs for the school? _____

23A. Do houses have tutor groups? _____

24. Are houses used as a basis for competition for "ordinary" academic subjects? _____

25. Are houses used for any other basis of competition? _____

26. Do houses have separate rooms (meeting rooms, etc.) in the building? _____

If so, describe nature _____

_____

27. Are there school prefects in this school? _____ How appointed? _____

Duties _____

28. Are there house prefects? _____ How appointed? _____

Duties _____

29A. Do houses have parent-teacher associations? _____

30A. What other plans are there for internal organization of the school, in addition to, or in place of, the house system? _____

C. General School Information

31. How is staff chosen and appointed (relative role of L.E.A., Headmaster, and Board of Governors)?_____

32. Who is responsible for pupil placement in streams? _____

When a pupil changes streams who makes the arrangements? _____

_____. Who can recommend for this? _____

Can a teacher? _____

33A. Who decides when a student is better off in a new tutor group? _____

_____

34A. Who is responsible for giving careers information and help? _____

35. To what extent are parents involved in vocational choices? _____

_____

36A. How does the school give sex education? _____

37A. How is ethical or moral training provided? _____

38A. If a child is upset emotionally, who sees him and what is the procedure?

_____

39A. Are there any attendance problems? _____

40A. Who checks on reasons for absence? _____

41. Who handles welfare problems:

Money? _____ Family Problems? _____

Other? _____

School literature (appended to guide sheet) _____

D. Appraisal of Values Achieved by House System as seen by Headmaster

42A. Are houses primarily competitive? _____; primarily advisory?_____

Other _____

43A. List of values of house system _____

_____

To be completed later by Interviewer

45. Distinctive features of school (in general) _____

46. Appraisal of role of hcuse system _____ 47. _____

48. General philosophy and point of view of the school _____

30B. Trends in school organization _____

(Use other side of this sheet for more complete statement by interviewer of of overall view of the school)

To be filled out by interviewer

Interview Guide Sheet
Survey of House Systems in British Comprehensive Schools
Interview Record Sheet for Masters with Special Duties (deputy, senior, house, tutor, form, etc.)

A. Identifying Data

Name of School _____ Address _____

Name of person interviewed _____

Position of person interviewed _____

Male _____ Type of Certificate: University _____

Female _____ Training College _____ Other _____

Length of experience: Teaching _____ In present post _____

B. House System Information (Housemasters only)

10B. Size of house _____ Characteristics of house: Male ____ Female ____

Mixed _____

49. How often do houses meet? _____

50. Is there a house insignia? _____

29B. Do houses have parent-teacher associations? _____

21B. Do houses participate in dramatics? _____

22B. Do houses present programs to the assembly? _____

51. What records are kept by houses? _____

52. Does the housemaster visit the homes? _____If not, or in addition, who visits the homes? _____

23B. Do houses have tutor groups? _____

33B. Who decides when a student is better off in a new tutor group? _____

_____

24B. By whom or by what means is careers information given to pupils? _____

_____

C. General Information

53. Do the young people in this community in general have adequate information to make vocational choices that are satisfactory? _____

54. Are there ever career days, or equivalent? _____

36B. How does the school give sex education? _____

37B. How is ethical or moral training provided? _____

38B. If a child is upset emotionally, who sees him and what is the procedure?

_____

39B. Are there any attendance problems? _____

40B. How are reasons for absence checked? _____

55. Do the social welfare services available help the pupil? _____

D. Appraisal of Values Achieved by House System as Seen by Interviewee.

42B. Are houses primarily competitive? _____primarily advisory? _____

Other _____

43B. List of values of house system _____

_____

_____

44B. List of disadvantages of house system _____

_____

_____

To be filled out by interviewer

Interview Guide Sheet
Survey of House System in British Comprehensive School
Interview Record Sheet for Teachers

A. Identifying Data

Name of School _____ Address _____

Name of person interviewed _____

Position of person interviewed _____ Dept. _____

Male _____ Type of Certificate: University _____

Female ____ Training College _____ Other _____

Length of experience: Teaching _____ In present post _____

B. House System Information

56. Have you taught in a comprehensive school without the house system? _____

57. Are housemasters' personalities and skills reflected to some extent in the attitude and behavior of the students in his house? _____

58. Are there any differences in pupil attitudes between different houses in your school? _____

59. Does the house system give the student security? _____

60. Do you find the influence of pupil leaders to be helpful or harmful to younger students? _____

61. How helpful? _____

62. How harmful? _____

43C. List of values of house system: _____

_____

44C. List of disadvantages of house system: _____

_____

(Use opposite side of interview sheet if more room is needed)

To be filled out by interviewer

Interview Guide Sheet
Survey of House System in British Comprehensive School
Interview Record Sheet for Pupils

A. Identifying Data

Name of School _____ Address _____

Male _____ Female _____ Form Level _____ Courses _____

Length of time in comprehensive school _____

Holds pupil post? _____ Name of post _____

B. House System Information and Appraisal

To what house do you belong? _____

How many pupils are in your house? _____

63. Do you belong to a tutor group? _____

64. Do pupils of different ages belong to this group? _____

65. Would you prefer a group of your own age? _____

66. Does the tutor group improve your class work? _____

67. Have you taken part in a program put on by your house for the school? ____

68. Describe briefly any special activity that your house puts on _____

_____

69. Do you take part in inter-house games? _____

70. Do your best friends belong to your house or to another? _____

71. Do you find the pupil that you most admire in your house? _____

72. To what adult do you go for help with school problems? _____

73. With personal problems? _____

43D. What do you consider to be advantages (or values) of the house system? ___

_____

44D. Disadvantages? _____

(Use opposite side of interview sheet if more room is needed)

APPENDIX B

QUESTIONNAIRE

(AMERICAN STUDY)

QUESTIONNAIRE

Survey of the House System in Comprehensive Schools in England and Wales
Supplementary Survey of House System in Selected Schools in the United States

A. Identifying Data

School _____

Headmaster (or Principal) _____

Address _____

Type of School: Boys_____ Girls_____ Coed_____

Boarding _____ Day _____ Both _____ (% of boys _____; % of girls _____)

Type of Administration: Church _____ (Denomination)_____

Public _____; Other _____

Size of School: Number of students _____ Number in professional staff _____

How many years of school do you provide? _____

Do you have ability grouping?_____ During what schools years does it operate?_____

On what basis do you group?_____

B. House System (or other internal school organization) Information

1. Does the school have a house system or organization? Yes___ No____
   (If "No" proceed to Question 22)

2. Number of houses: Male _____ Female _____ Mixed _____

3. Number of housemasters (or house administrators"):
   Male _____ Female _____

4. Do housemasters get special allowance and/or lighter teaching load? _____

5. Do housemasters have assistance? _____ Is there a deputy housemaster?_____

6. Are all teachers assigned to a house?_____ Is there clerical assistance provided to housemasters?_____

7. Approximate number of students in each house_____

8. At what point are students allocated to houses?_____

9. On what basis are students assigned to houses?_____

10. For what purposes is the assignment made?_____

_____

11. Types of activities carried on by houses:_____

Separate assemblies _____ How often?_____

Separate dining facilities._____

Pupil self-discipline _____ Staff discipline _____

Pupil activities_____ List _____

_____

12. Inter-house competition occurs in which sports?_____

_____

13. Do houses participate in dramatics?_____

14. Do houses prepare assembly programs for the school?_____

15. Do houses have tutor groups?_____

16. Are houses used as a basis for competition for "ordinary" academic subjects?_____

17. Are houses used for any other basis of competition?_____

18. Do houses have separate rooms (meeting rooms, etc.) in the building_____

If so, describe nature _____

_____

19. Are there school prefects (or monitors) in this school?_____

How appointed?_____ Duties _____

20. Are there house prefects (or other officers?) _____

How appointed?_____ Duties_____

21. Do houses have parent associations (or meetings?) _____

22. What other plans are there for internal organization of the school for more effective working with the individual student, in addition to, or in place of, the house system?_____

_____

23. Who is responsible for giving vocational information and help?

_____

24. How does the school give sex education?_____

_____

25. How is ethical and moral training provided?_____

_____

26. If a child is upset emotionally, who sees him and what is the procedure?_____

_____

C. Appraisal of Values Achieved by House System

(or other internal administrative units) as seen

by the Principal or Headmaster

27. Are "houses" in this school primarily for competitive purposes?

_____; primarily for advisory purposes?_____

Other (or combination)? _____

28. List of values of "house" system (or other, question 22) as used in this school _____

_____

_____

29. Disadvantages of "house" system (or other, question 22) as used in this school _____

_____

_____

_____

_____

* * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * *

Would you help us in locating additional American schools which may have some form of house system or other "schools-within-schools" type of internal organization so that we may include them in our study? A list of the ones now known has been sent you with this questionnaire and you may keep that list for reference if you desire. Please indicate additional school (s) below, together with the name of the headmaster and the address, if known:

APPENDIX C

1. British Comprehensive Schools in Sample Visited

School — **Location**

Ashton Park School - Blackmoors Lane, Long Ashton, Bristol
Headmaster - Mr. A. Hinchley, M.A., Ed.

Beaminster Comprehensive School - Newtown, Beaminster, Dorset
Headmaster - Mr. A. W. Hepburn

Belle Vue School for Girls - Bradford, 8
Headmistress - Miss E. W. Walker, M.A.

Drummond Boys County Junior High School - Bradford, 8
Headmaster - Mr. C. Styles

Duffryn High School - Newport, Mon.
Headmaster - Dr. G. Williams

Eccleshill County High School, Harrogate Road, Idle, Bradford, Yorks
Headmaster - Mr. J. Wootton, B.A., M.Ed.

Elliott School - Pullman Gardens, London S. W. 15
Headmaster - Mr. Maurice Holmes

Hartridge High School - Newport, Mon.
Headmaster - Mr. R. Jones, B.A.

Havelock Comprehensive School - Grimsby, Lincs.
Headmaster - Mr. Hill

John Marlay - Wellfield Lane, Newcastle-upon-Tyne, 5
Headmaster - Mr. G. R. Nicholls

Longslade Upper School - Birstall, Leicester
Headmaster - Mr. Finch

Myers Grove Comprehensive School - Wood Lane, Sheffield 6
Deputy Headmaster - Mr. Hunt

Maesydderwen County County Comprehensive School - Ystradgynlais, Swansea
Headmaster - Mr. A. Thomas, B.A.

School	Location

Monks Park School - Filton Road, Bristol, 7
Headmaster - Mr. C. R. Thackery

Newbridge Secondary School - Forest Road, Coalville, Leicester
Headmaster - Mr. S. F. Kendall, B.A.

Passmores Comprehensive School - Tendring Road, Harlow, Essex
Headmaster - Mr. John Hart, M.A.

Penistone Grammar School - North Sheffield, Yorkshire
Headmaster - Mr. W. Simms, M.A.

Regis Comprehensive School - Tettenhall, Staffordshire
Headmaster - Sir W. Godfrey Cretney

St. Mary's Boys' Secondary School - Hummersknott, Darlington
Headmaster - The Rev. J. McKeown, M.A.

Sir J. Smith's School - Camelford, Cornwall
Headmaster - Mr. K. A. Sprayson

Swanhurst Bilateral Girls' School - Brook Lane, Birmingham, 14
Headmistress - Miss R. M. Radford, B.A.

The Thomas Bennett School - Ashdown Drive, Tilgate, Sussex
Headmaster - Mr. P. F. Daunt, M.A.

Towyn School - Towyn, Merioneth
Headmaster - Mr. R. Foster Evans, M.A.

Tredegar Comprehensive School - Tredegar, Mon.
Headmaster - Mr. D. J. Davies

Tregaron County Secondary School - Tregaron, Aberystwyth, Cardiganshire
Headmaster - Mr. G. Evans, M.A.

Yew Tree Comprehensive School - Wythenshawe, Manchester 23
Headmaster - Dr. W. E. Davies

APPENDIX C

2. British Schools in Representative Sample

But Not Visited

School	Location

Bainsbury Boys' School - Camden Road, London, N.7
Headmaster - Mr. T.J.H. Davies, B.A.

Battersea County Secondary School - Culvert Road, London S.W. 11
Headmaster - Mr. D. J. Bomford, B.Sc.

Crown Woods Comprehensive School - Riefield Road, London S.E. 9
Headmaster - Mr. M. K. Ross, M.A.

Friern Secondary School - Dunstans Road, London, S.E. 22
Headmistress - Miss V.I. Thompson

Holloway Comprehensive School - Hilldrop Road, N.7
Headmaster - Mr. C. F. Lewis, B.A.

Sarah Siddons School - North Wharf Road, London W.2
Headmistress - Mrs. A. Macfillan

Tulse Hill Comprehensive School - Upper Tulse Hill, London, S.W.2
Headmaster - Mr. R. Long, B.Com.

APPENDIX C

3. British Schools Visited

But Not In The Sample

School	Location

Castleview County Primary School - Slough, Bucks
Headmaster - Mr. P.R. Williams

Cranhill Secondary School - 40, Startpoint Street, Glasgow, E.3
Headmaster - Mr. K. MacRae

David Lister High School - Rustenburg Street, Kingston-upon-Hull
Headmaster - Mr. A.W. Rowe, B.A., M.Phil., L.R.A.M.

Durrants Secondary School - Manor Way, Croxley Green, Rickmansworth
Headmaster - Mr. D. J. Tayler, M.A.

John Lyon School - Middle Road, Harrow, Middlesex
Headmaster - Mr. R.F.B. Campbell, M.A.

Knightswood Secondary School - 60 Knightswood Road, Glasgow, W.3
Headmaster - Mr. J. Christie

Park Parade Secondary School - Belfast 6
Headmaster - Mr. T. Holland, M.B.E., B.A., H.Dip. Ed.

Slough Grammar School - Lascelles Road, Slough, Bucks
Headmaster - Mr. G. H. Painter

Woodlands Comprehensive School - Broad Lane, Coventry, Warwicks
Headmaster - Mr. D. Thomason, M.A., M.Ed., B.Sc.

APPENDIX D

1. AMERICAN SCHOOLS USING HOUSE SYSTEM

(Alphabetical by States)

School	Location	Principal
Hueytown High School	Hueytown, Alabama	Louis Marty
Glendora High School	Glendora, California	Leonard F. Dalton
Mayfair High School	Lakewood, California	Richard E. Oswald
Roger Ludlow High School	Fairfield, Connecticut	Roger L. Warner
Andrew Warde High School	Fairfield, Connecticut	Kenneth R. Petersen
Conard High School	West Hartford, Connecticut	Henry A. Weyland
Evanston Township High School	Evanston, Illinois	Lloyd S. Michael, Sup't.
Joliet Township High School, East Campus	Joliet, Illinois	William H. Odenthal
Niles Township High School, N.	Skokie, Illinois	Dr. Gilbert Weldy
Topeka West High School	Topeka, Kansas	Owen M. Henson
Jardine Junior High School	Topeka, Kansas	C. W. Skinner
Eisenhower Junior High School	Topeka, Kansas	Melvin E. Bailey
Frederick High School	Frederick, Maryland	Warren C. Smith
Herring Run Jr. High School	Baltimore, Maryland	Dr. Virginia Roeder
North Hagerstown High School	Hagerstown, Md.	James R. Lemmert
Brooks School	North Andover, Massachusetts	Frank D. Ashburn
Waltham High School	Waltham, Massachusetts	George E.P.Husson
Middlesex School	Concord, Massachusetts	David F. Sheldon
Newton High School	Newtonville, Massachusetts	Richard Meecham

School	Location	Principal
Newton High School S.	Newton Centre, Massachusetts	William D. Geer
Brookline High School	Brookline, Massachusetts	Bertram H. Holland
Lincoln-Sudbury Regional High School	Sudbury, Massachusetts	Willard A. Ruliffson
Milton Academy	Milton, Massachusetts	David D. Wicks
Eastern High School	Detroit, Michigan	Robert C. Brantox
Muskegon Senior High School	Muskegon, Michigan	Murel Burdick
The Meeting School	Rindge, New Hampshire	Christian Ravndal
St. Paul's School	Concord, New Hampshire	Rev. Matthew Warren
Proctor Academy	Andover, New Hampshire	Lyle H. Farrell
Lawrenceville School	Lawrenceville, New Jersey	Bruce McClellan
Millbrook School	Millbrook, New York	George C. Buell
Van Antwerp Junior High	Schenectady, New York	Francis R. Taormina
Scarsdale Junior High	Scarsdale, New York	William M. Nichols
Massena Central High School	Massena, New York	Richard W. Farrell
Shaker Junior High School	Latham, New York	Thomas O'Brien
Burnt Hills-Ballston Lake Junior High School	Burnt Hills, New York	Donald Gertenbach
Fairmont West High School	Kettering, Ohio	A. M. Bolender
Kettering Fairmont East	Kettering, Ohio	Charles L. Nolan
Newark Senior High School	Newark, Ohio	Robert W. Barclay
Heights High School	Cleveland Heights, Ohio	Eugene Myslenski
Patrick Henry High School	Roanoke, Virginia	C. Lewis Pitzer
William Fleming High School	Roanoke, Virginia	F.W. Beahm, Jr.
Lakes High School	Lakewood Center, Washington	Loren J. Mann

APPENDIX D

2. American Schools Using House System

(Questionnaires sent in too late to be used in study)

School #57, Lombard and Caroline Streets, Baltimore, Maryland

School #80, 201 North Bend Road, Baltimore, Maryland

School #75, Lafayette and Whitemore Avenues, Baltimore, Maryland

School #78, Harlem Avenue and Gilmore Street, Baltimore, Maryland

Beverly High School, Manchester, Massachusetts

APPENDIX D

3. American Schools Replying

That Do Not Use The House System

School	Location
Junior-Senior High School,	Old Saybrook, Connecticut
North Central High School,	Indianapolis, Indiana
Newton Junior High School,	Newton, Kansas
Hancock High School,	Hancock, Maryland
Traverse City High School,	Traverse City, Michigan
Wayzata Senior High School,	Wayzata, Minnesota
Edina-Morningside High School,	Edina, Minnesota
Ithaca High School,	Ithaca, New York
Forest Hills High School,	Forest Hills, New York
Garinger High School,	Charlotte, North Carolina
Johnson City High School,	Johnson City, Tennessee
Mount Tacoma High School,	Tacoma, Washington
Escondido High School,	Escondido, California
Fitch Senior High School,	Groton, Connecticut
Maine Township High School, West,	Des Plaines, Illinois
Glenbrook South High School,	Glenview, Illinois
Joliet West Campus,	Joliet, Illinois
New Trier High School, East,	Wilmette, Illinois
South Hagerstown High School,	Hagerstown, Maryland

School	Location
Bryant Community Junior High School	Flint, Michigan
Loy Norrix High School	Kalamazoo, Michigan
Syosset High School	Syosset, New York
Brecksville Senior High School	Brecksville, Ohio
A. C. FloraHigh School	Columbia, South Carolina
Cayce High School	Cayce, South Carolina
Central High School	San Angelo, Texas
Lowell P. Goodrich High School	Fond du Lac, Wisconsin
Frederick High School	West College Terrace, Maryland

APPENDIX E

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Film

Great Britain. (LeMont Films) Twenty-two minutes.

APPENDIX F

SUPPLEMENTARY TABLES

CODES FOR TABLE F-1

Column 1 - item 42	C - Competition only R - Registration Rooms P - Pastoral D - Discipline Schd. - Scheduling G - Games M - Morale and Stimulation Soc. - Social
Column 2 - items 12 and 77	A - Getting additional allowances as housemaster B - Getting lighter teaching load C - Getting clerical assistance D - Getting deputy to assist None - None of these
Column 3 - item 13	Yes. All or most of staff are assigned to house.
Column 4 - items 89 and 90	Yes. Has staff meetings of heads with housemasters or have staff meetings
Column 5 - item 28	Yes or no
Column 6 - item 16	No, or the number of times. Once a year - 1. Once a term - 3. Other numbers indicate approximate number of times per year
Column 7 - item 17	Yes or no
Column 8 - item 19	Yes or no
Column 9 - item 23	Yes (if in Forms other than VIth)
Column 10 - items 6 and 30	(I, II, III, IV) indicate Forms and P for part of classes and A for all classes

Column 11 - items 24 and 25

M - merit point
E - Eisteddfod
D - demerit point
F - other cultural competitions
None - none of these

Column 12 - item 26 — Yes or no

Column 13 - item 51

M - student's name only
C - complete records
A - student's house activities (Eisteddfod, merit and demerit), only

Column 14 - item 47

\+ - increasing role of houses
o - little or no change
\- - decreasing role of houses

CODES FOR TABLE F-2

Columns 1 and 2 same as 1 and 2 for Table F-1

Table F-1 ,a Selected Miscellaneous Items
Indicating the Use of the House System
University of Cincinnati House Study
Representative Sample
Comprehensive Schools in England and Wales

Items / Schools	1 House Purposes								2	3	4	5	6
	C	R	P	D	Sched.	G	M	Social	H. Admin. Allowances	H. Staff Assignmts.	H. Staff Meetings	H. Pupil Posts	H. Assemblies
Item Number / School Code Number	42								12 & 77	13	89 & 90	28	16
Type I Schools *													
038			X	X		X		X	A,D	Yes	Yes	Yes	80
058		X	X	X		X			A,B	Yes	Yes	No	20
086		X	X			X		X	A	Yes	Yes	Yes	--
108		X	X			X		X	A	Yes	Yes	No	--
113			X	X		X		X	A,B	Yes	Yes	No	40
116		X		X		X		X	A	Yes	Yes	Yes	--
188		X	X	X	X	X		X	A,D	Yes	Yes	Yes	80
236			X	X		X		X	A,B,D	Yes	Yes	Yes	40
264		X	X	X		X			A,D	Yes	Yes	No	80
273			X	X		X			A,B	Yes	Yes	No	40
303		X	X	X	X	X			A,D	Yes	No	Yes	350
Type II Schools													
029					X	X			None	Yes	Yes	No	3
072			X			X			None	No	No	No	9
146		X		X		X		X	A	No	No	Yes	--
153			X			X			A	Yes	Yes	---	""
176					X	X	X		None	Yes	Yes	No	25
220	X								None	No	No	No	18
314	X								D	Yes	---	No	18

* For explanation of types, see Section III, page 40

Table F1.b Selected Miscellaneous Items
Indicating The Use of the House System in England and Wales
(Continued)

Schools / Item Number	1								2	3	4	5	6
	House Purposes												
School Code No.	C	R	P	D	Scheduling	G	M	Social	H. Admin. Allowances	H. Staff Assigmts.	H. Staff Meetings	H. Pupil Post	H. Assemblies
	42								12 & 77	13	89 & 90	28	16
Group III Schools													
002	X								None	Yes	No	Yes	3
156	X								None	Yes	Yes	No	--
206	X								D	Yes	Yes	Yes	2
250	X								None	Yes	No	No	9
253	X								None	Yes	No	No	None
289	X								None	No	No	No	None
308	X								None	Yes	Yes	No	None
335	X								None	Yes	No	No	None
343	X								None	No	No	Yes	None
361	X								None	Yes	No	No	None
365	X								None	No	No	Yes	None
380	X								D	Yes	Yes	Yes	40
381	X								None	Yes	No	No	None
Group IV Schools	None have houses												

Table F-1, c Selected Miscellaneous Items
(Continued)

Schools \ Items	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
	H. Dining	H. Staff Discipline	H. Tutor Groups	H. Class Schedules	Other House Compets.	Separate H. Rooms	Records kept by H.	Change in Role of H.
Item Number / Code No.	17	19	23	6 & 30	24 & 25	26	51	47
Group I Schools								
038	No	Yes	No	No	F	Yes	A	0
058	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	None	No	None	0
086	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
108	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
113	Yes	Yes	No	No	None	No	C	0
116	--	--	Yes	--	--	--	--	--
188	Yes	Yes	Yes	I-II P	M	Yes	C	0
236	Yes	Yes	No	No	M	Yes	M	0
264	No	Yes	Yes	No	M, D F	No	C	0
273	Yes	Yes	No	No	M, D	No	None	+
303	No	No	No	No	None	No	None	0
Group II Schools								
029	No	No	No	I - II - III -A	None	No	A	0
072	No	No	No	No	M	No	A	0
146	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
153	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
176	No	No	No	I-II P	M	No	None	--
220	No	No	No	No	F	No	None	0
314	No	No	No	No	M, D	No	M	0

Table F-1 , d Selected Miscellaneous Items
Use of the House System
(Continued)

Schools \ Items	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
	H. Dining	H. Staff Discipline	H. Tutor Groups	H. Class Schedules	Other House Compets.	Separate H. Rooms	Records kept by H.	Change in Role of H.
Item Numbers / Code No.	17	19	23	6 & 30	24 & 25	26	51	47
Type III Schools								
002	No	No	No	No	M, D	No	A	0
156	--	No	No	--	--	--	--	--
206	No	No	No	No	None	No	A	--
250	No	No	No	No	None	No	None	0
253	No	No	No	No	M	No	None	0
289	No	No	No	No	M, D	No	None	+
308	No	No	No	No	None	No	None	0
335	No	No	No	No	E	No	None	0
343	No	No	No	No	E	No	None	0
361	No	No	No	No	E	No	None	0
365	No	No	No	No	E	No	A	--
380	No	No	No	No	E	No	A	--
381	No	No	No	No	E	No	A	0
Type IV Schools								
099								0
291		None have houses						+

Table F - 2-a, Selected Miscellaneous Items
University of Cincinnati House Study
Schools in the United States Using the House System

Schools \ Items	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	Main House Main House Purposes	H. Admin. Allowances	H. Staff Assigmnts.	H. Pupil Posts	House Assemblies	House Dining	H. Staff Discipline	Separate House Rooms
Items Code No.	27	4	6	20	11 (a)	11 (b)	11 (c)	18
Independent Boarding								
1	H, G	C, D	No	Yes	No	No	No	Yes
2	G, H	A	No	Yes	No	No	Yes	No
Independent Day & Boarding								
3	C, D, Soc.	B, D	No	Yes	No	No	Yes	No
4	H, D	None	No	No	Yes	No	Yes	No
5	C, D, H	C	No	Yes	40	No	Yes	Yes
6	C, H	A,B, C,D	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	--	Yes
7	D, C, G	A,B, C,D	No	Yes	40	Yes	Yes	Yes
8	D, G	C, D	No	Yes	No	No	Yes	Yes
Public								
9	D, G	A, B	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Yes
10	D, G	A,B, C,D	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
11	D, G	C	--	No	No	No	Yes	No
12	G	A,B,C	Yes	No	No	No	No	No
13	C, G	A, B	No	Yes	Yes	No	No	No
14	G	A, D	Yes	No	No	No	No	Yes

Table F-2, b - Selected Miscellaneous Items
University of Cincinnati House Study
Schools in the United States Using the House System
(Page 2)

Schools \ Items	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	Main House Purposes	H. Admin. Allowances	H. Staff Assigmnts.	H. Pupil Posts	House Assemblies	House Dining	H. Staff Discipline	Separate House Rooms
Schools \ Items	27	4	6	20	11 (a)	11 (b)	11 (c)	18
Public (Continued)								
15	D, C	A, B, C, D	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	Yes
16	D, C	A, B, C, D	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No
17	D, C, G	A, B, C, D	No	--	---	No	Yes	Yes
18	C, G	B, C, D	Yes	--	12	No	--	Yes
19	C, G, D	A, B, C	No	Yes	No	No	Yes	Yes
20	G, D	A, B, C, D	Yes	No	No	No	Yes	No
21	G	A, B	Yes	Yes	No	No	--	Yes
22	G	A, B	No	No	Yes	No	--	Yes
23	G	A, B, C	No	--	No	Yes	--	Yes
24	D, C	A, B	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	No
25	D, C	A, B, C, D	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	Yes
26	D, C, G	A, B, C, D	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
27	G	A, B, C, D	No	Yes	Yes	No	--	Yes
28	D, G	A, B, C, D	No	No	No	No	Yes	Yes
29	D, C, G	A, B	Yes	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
30	D, C, G	A, B, C	Yes	Yes	No	No	Yes	Yes
31	D, C, G	A, B, C	Yes	Yes	No	No	Yes	Yes

Table F-2, c Selected Miscellaneous Items
University of Cincinnati House Study
Schools in the United States Using the House System
(Page 3)

Items / Schools	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	Main House Purposes	H. Admin. Allowances	H. Staff Assigmnts.	H. Pupil Posts	House Assemblies	House Dining	H. Staff Discipline	Separate House Rooms
Items / Code No.	27	4	6	20	11 (a)	11 (b)	11 (c)	18
Public (Continued)								
32	D, C, G	A, B	--	No	--	Yes	Yes	Yes
33	D, G	A, B	Yes	No	No	No	Yes	Yes
34	G	A, B	Yes	No	No	No	--	Yes
35	D, G	A, B	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	No
36	D, C	A, B, C	Yes	--	Yes	No	Yes	Yes
37	C	A, B, C	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	--	Yes
38	G	A, B	Yes	--	No	No	--	Yes
39	D	C	--	No	No	No	Yes	No
40	D, G	B	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
41	G	A, B	No	No	Yes	Yes	--	Yes
42	G, Soc.	B	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	No

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TITLE

THE USE OF THE HOUSE SYSTEM IN COMPREHENSIVE SCHOOLS IN ENGLAND AND WALES

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ABSTRACT: A study of the use of the house system in representative comprehensive schools in England and Wales using data collected through interviews-in-depth with headmasters, administrative masters, masters (teachers), and pupils in a thirty-three school random-stratified sample (approximately ten per cent of the comprehensive schools in England and Wales), classified into four Types: I, using the house system extensively; II, using it moderately; III, using it minimally; IV, not having the house system. Compared with similar data secured by questionnaire from a sample of forty-two (eight private and independent and thirty-four public) American schools. A brief history of British education with special reference to comprehensive schools was presented. A summary of the literature with respect to the use of the house system in the United States and Great Britain was made. Among other items, information concerning number of houses per school, size of houses, uses made of houses, allowances granted to housemasters, central purposes, advantages, and disadvantages was presented. The use of houses in counseling and other personnel activities in the British sample of schools was presented and, where appropriate, compared with similar American data. Brief anecdotal descriptions of uses of houses were made of seven representative British schools and two American judgments were made as to the extent to which the role of houses would increase, decrease, or remain the same. Not much change was noted as contemplated in England. Implications were drawn for promising changes in internal organization of large heterogeneous high schools in the United States - the need for empirically based studies related to internal school organization was indicated.

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