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ABSTRACT
                 This report summarizes an international workshop held
in 1970 to consider new approaches to Italian secondary education. At
the conference, educational experts from the United Kingdom, France,
West Germany, the United States, Norway, Sweden, and Yugoslavia, as
well as two members of the Centre for Educational Research and
Innovation met with 23 Italian educators, at the request of the
Italian Ministry of Education. The report contains a number of papers
prepared by conference participants, a summary of the opening address
delivered to the conference by the Italian minister of education,
reports of the small working groups at the conference, and the ten
conclusions and recommendations adopted by workshop participants. In
addition, Appendix 1 presents a variety of educational statistics
relevant to upper secondary schools in Italy. (JG)

ORGANISATION FOR ECONOMIC
CO-OPERATION AND DEVELOPMENT

Paris, 3rd November, 1971

Or. Engl.

Centre for Educational Research
and Innovation

NEW APPROACHES TO SECONDARY EDUCATION:

ITALIAN PROBLEMS AND PROSPECTS

Report on a Workshop
held at Villa Falconieri, Frascati, Italy,
May 4th-8th, 1970.

82.656

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FOREWORD

Toward the end of 1969, the Italian Authorities requested the help of the Centre for Educational Research and Innovation to organise an international workshop on the theme "New Approaches to Secondary Education". Central to the project was the prospective reorganisation of Italian upper secondary education which had been commonly recognised as a very urgent need after unification of the lower level in 1962. It was felt - and I believe the workshop proceedings justified the feeling - that Italian school planners and educators could benefit from an exchange of international experience in the same area.

Accordingly, CERI called together a group of experts from the United Kingdom, France, West Germany, the United States, Norway, Sweden and Yugoslavia. These experts and two CERI Secretariat members met with 23 Italian educators from May 4th to 8th, 1970, as guests of the Italian Ministry of Education at the Centro Europeo dell' Educazione, Villa Falconieri, Frascati. The Director of this Centre, Prof. Giovanni Gozzer, had previously prepared a paper outlining the historical background to current problems which was sent to all participants together with other background materials. Also two distinguished educational experts, Stuart Maclure (United Kingdom) and Nils-Eric Svensson (Sweden), had travelled through Italy interviewing various Italian experts as preparation for a basic report written by the former as a working paper for the Workshop. During the Workshop, which was opened by a very constructive address given by the Italian Minister of Education, the theme of reorganisation was discussed in all its aspects: the rationale and objectives of such a plan; structures and strategies which could be created to meet the objectives; problems and styles of implementation.

At the end of the week, the participants adopted Ten Points of Conclusion calling for a radical departure from the past and for the progressively planned institutionalisation of a comprehensive, flexible, and democratic system of upper secondary education. This document was presented to the Italian Minister of Education who has already indicated in many ways the importance he attaches to it. The actual form reorganisation will take and the time needed for its implementation may be still uncertain. The Frascati conclusions however have already become the necessary frame of reference for both political actions and further discussions in the field. The final "Personal Comment" in this volume written by Stuart Maclure, general rapporteur of the conference, gives a challenging idea of the complexity and seriousness of the issues involved in the implementation of "new approaches" in the Italian educational scene.

It is hoped that this volume provides a fair summary of the intensive work carried on at Frascati. It is also hoped that it raises many of the important issues which face any nation seeking nothing less than radical reform.

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The CERI Secretariat member responsible for planning and directing the Frascati Workshop was Mr. Per Dalin, who deserves much of the credit for its success.

Aldo Visalberghi

Member of CERI Governing Board
Chairman of the Frascati Workshop

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SUMMARY OF THE OPENING ADDRESS DELIVERED BY THE

ITALIAN MINISTER OF EDUCATION, Dr. RICCARDO MISASI

Stressing the importance of the conference's theme, Dr. Misasi
said the conference "deserves today to get the maximum attention in
Italian political circles, on account of its topicality, joined with
the country's urgent need for thorough-going reforms in higher secondary
education.

"This, together with the more general one of the educational
system, is our top problem", he went on. "It is linked, indeed, with
persistent social inequalities that a modern democracy should tend
to eliminate.

"To a certain extent, the reform of the higher secondary school
has had good guide-lines laid down for it. All future reform is now
conditioned by the important ruling that recently liberalised access
to university. This law allows practically all higher secondary school
graduates — from whichever type of institution they come — to enrol at
any university faculty.

"Of necessity, the new higher secondary school will have to fit
in with this provision. And it is for this reason that we are thinking
of a comprehensive school," Dr. Misasi said. "With it, we think we
could take definite steps towards guaranteeing the right to study for
all young people.

"In the public mind, there is the justified recognition that,
under our arrangements for the higher secondary sector, there are schools
of differing levels and differing prestige. If we set out to establish
a single comprehensive secondary school, rich in internal options and
able to allow students to make choices in study and training gradually,
we would also have a way to eliminate this unjust discrimination.

"This is why I am thinking in terms of a school which awards an
undifferentiated diploma of secondary studies as valid for entering a
factory as a university.'

"Obviously," Dr. Misasi went on, "we realise that the implementation
of successful reforms on these lines will in practice only come about
if innumerable obstacles are overcome. Even so, I feel that we need
to have this trend clear in our minds.

"We also know that this reform assumes an almost completely new
policy of re-distributing educational institutions; it may even assume
the creation of educational districts and other structures.

"Furthermore, it raises the problem of who should provide facilities
for specialised training should a school - however rich in options -
take on itself the job of specialised vocational training; or should

there be a call to other institutions, such as those of trade unions or industry, to collaborate in this task ? The problems are many.

"The new school could also require a progressive adjustment to current university reform.

"In any case, we believe that a comprehensive secondary school is the most appropriate solution. But we also feel that reforms must not be considered as giving final answers to the question. They should instead be the beginning of a process that can be later modified on the basis of the experience gained from carrying out the reform itself. In this sense we believe that the concept of experimentation should be widely introduced and applied.

"In any case," the Minister went on, "we are convinced that there is a real need for quick and decisive reform in the upper secondary school. Its present structure is a tangle; into it are twisted the problems created on the one hand by compulsory school, and on the other by the university. It is on the unravelling of that tangle that the future of the whole education structure in this country depends."

On the question of the school in European community, the Minister said that comparisons should be made as work went on between the hypothesis of reform and what was happening in other European schools.

"Politically speaking," he said, "we believe in Europe; we will firmly and continually strive towards the unification of the European countries. It is for this reason also that we deeply feel the need to give our country an educational structure that can fit into the perspective of European education.

"And it is because of this that we are looking at what you are doing with the deepest interest. We do not feel that this is the moment to call a referendum from which the course of reform could be worked out; but we do think it is above all the moment for listening to a symposium as rich and as full of stimulus as yours.

"For this reason we regard your discussion as a valuable occasion for receiving suggestions and indications to inspire us in our action."

NEW APPROACHES IN ITALIAN SECONDARY EDUCATION

by Stuart MACLURE
Editor,
The Times Educational Supplement

1. INTRODUCTION

This paper is based on three questions. First, what are the main
models being put forward for the reorganisation of Italian Secondary
education?   Second, what are the main constraints on change in Italian
education? Third, what kind of strategy for change - what combination
of policies - would most effectively contribute to educational inno-
vation in the Italian setting?

It is inevitable that in the process of trying to set this down
in a short report of this kind that many matters will appear to be
over-simplified. But to be of any use it must raise questions without
pretending to be able to answer them, and by so doing, help to delin-
eate some of the areas of discussion. One way of doing this is to
record some of the impressions of a small group of interested foreign
visitors who have been given the opportunity to spend some days in
interviews with Italian experts inside and outside the Ministry of
Public Instruction. Some of these impressions may well prove to be ill-
founded, but they may yet provide a point of departure by spotlighting
some of the issues.

Italy, like almost every other European country is faced with the
need to reorganise secondary education in the face of social and
economic change. As elsewhere the general direction of the change is
clear: it is a change away from the early separation of children into
different types of school, towards unified forms of secondary education
in which the decisions which limit opportunity are delayed as long as
possible. When consideration passes beyond the stage of generalisation
about the direction of reform, this raises profound issues of social
policy on the one hand, of pedagogy on the other. Different forms of
education imply different views of society and quite properly reflect
basic political theories and views of the individual and the State.
And even given a measure of agreement about aims there is room for wide
disagreement about the way these aims should be reflected in educational
institutions and their curricula.

A major factor in the Italian situation is the lack of any strong
political consensus about educational reform. Clear policies of
educational reform demand strong political leadership which in turn
depends on clarity concerning social goals. In present circumstances
where governments are based on a coalition of political groups and
interests, positive policies for educational reform are more likely
to divide than to unite. And the long-term initiatives which they
demand - which may well require adjustments in relationships between
Church and State - can only be forthcoming given a broad community of

view. Yet ultimately educational reform is a political responsibility; without leadership from those who hold political office in a democratic society, change in the systems and structures of education must be slow.

This has to be set down at the outset because of the character of the Italian education system which is highly centralised and therefore largely dependent on the central administration for any change of direction. A strong central direction as, for example, in Sweden, can be a powerful agent of change; based on firm and settled social policies and goals clearly laid down by democratic procedures, to which the whole education system can be orientated. In a country like England, on the other hand, with a decentralised system of educational administration, the lack of a forceful central direction can, to a certain extent be made good by local initiative and spontaneous innovation - out of which new nationally accepted goals can be developed. This, at any rate, is how the English like to rationalise their own activities. But a highly centralised system without the dynamic of a strong political consensus for educational reform could find it had the disadvantages of control by a central bureaucracy without the (possibly) saving grace of local innovation.

Present organisation

The Italian School System(1) provides for primary schools for children from 6 to 11, followed by a middle (or lower secondary) school from 11 to 14 which is the minimum legal school leaving age.

At 14, a pupil with a middle school leaving certificate may apply for entry to the upper secondary schools. These are divided into three main categories - general, technical and vocational, each of which is divided into sub-categories.

Till 1969, only certain categories of school could give qualification for university entry, and particular types of school only gave admittance to particular faculties. These limitations are set out below but new legislation at the end of 1969 has radically changed this, as will be indicated later.

A. General Schools

These comprise the classical lycée, the scientific lycée and the istituto magistrale.

(i) The classical lycée is the traditional grammar school or gymnasium "most deeply rooted in Italian tradition. Its chief aim is to train students for the university through general education with special emphasis on the humanities in the narrow sense". The lycée has two sections: the first is a two-year cycle from 14 to 16. The second covering a three-year cycle from 16 to 19 is the classical lycée proper. There is an examination at the end of the first cycle for admittance to

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(1) See also Secondary Education and its Historical Evolution (background paper) and Italy in the OECD series "Reviews of National Policies for Education", 1969.

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the lycée proper, and at the end of the full five year course comes the maturità classica which qualifies the pupil for admission to any university faculty except the facoltà di magistero or higher teacher training college.

Admission to the classical lycée requires a pass in a Latin test taken at the end of the middle school course, as well as the middle school certificate. There is, therefore, an elective introductory one year Latin course within the middle school for pupils in the last grade.

(ii) The scientific lycée provides general education at the same level as the classical lycée, but with more emphasis on scientific subjects. No Latin test is required for entry. At the end of the five year course the maturità scientifica is taken which till now has given entry to all university faculties except literature and philosophy.

(iii) The Istituto Magistrale is a school providing a four year course of secondary education which also serves as a training course for primary school teachers. The academic studiés are supplemented by teaching practice in primary schools under the supervision of other teachers. At the end of the four year course there is an examination for the teacher's proficiency certificate.

As well as being a qualification for employment as a teacher (or rather for being considered for employment, for the output of these schools greatly exceeds the demand for primary teachers) this certificate is a qualification for entry to the facoltà di magistero, the university institutes where secondary school teachers, elementary school headmasters and other education specialists are trained. It has also been accepted for various university language courses. Under the new law it is intended that a supplementary course of one year should be offered on top of the istituto magistrale's four year course and that successful completion of this should give access to any university faculty.

B. Technical Schools (with certain very rare exceptions referred to later) offer courses lasting five years. They are divided into eight groups - agricultural, industrial, commercial and business studies, domestic science, tourism, nautical education, and surveying. There are further sub-groups: for example, the industrial category includes 31 separate technologies. The policy is that the first two years of this course should be common to all and their more specialised technological biases should be introduced in the second cycle. The agricultural institutes specialising in "vini-culture" run six year courses. Some industrial institutes have two year higher technological courses after first graduation.

The diplomas of the technical institutes have in the past given access only to university and polytechnic institutes with courses in fields related to those studied at the secondary level.

C. Vocational Schools - the istituto professionale - offer courses lasting two years for agricultural trades and three years for most others. Altogether, they provide for a total of 112 different specialised types of course within the general categories of agriculture, industry, craft trades, the merchant navy, women's occupations, and the hotel and catering industry.

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Art education is provided in various specialised institutions such as the arts lycée which gives a four year course leading to the Fine Arts Academy or to professional studies in architecture on completion of the <u>maturità artistica</u>. The arts and crafts institutes with a three year diploma course also give entrance to the Fine Arts Academy. There are also a number of other specialist colleges of music, drama and dancing.

The impact of the new laws – 754, dated 27th October, 1969 and 910, dated 11th December, 1969 – has yet to be fully felt. They aim to open up opportunities in higher education to pupils who have not been to the <u>lycées</u>, the traditional preparatory institutions for higher education. This is to be achieved in two ways. The first step is to set up complementary courses at the vocational schools in order to extend the length of study to five years, adding more general and theoretical education after the first highly practical course of vocational training. On completion of the additional course of study, students will be eligible for a new <u>maturità professionale</u>.

The second step is contained in law 910 which is prefaced with a proviso that it is an interim measure "pending the enactment of a university reform bill". Under the new law all degree courses are to be open to all holders of diplomas issued by five year second degree schools – i.e. the lycées – and to all others who have completed specified complementary courses, at vocational schools and teacher training schools. No other special university entrance requirements can be applied nor must there be any kind of <u>numerus clausus</u>.

The following table shows the drop-out rate from the age of 11 onwards. The figures are provided by Centre Studi Investimenti Sociali (CENSIS).

<u>Percentage in School</u> (1967)

<u>Age</u>	<u>Boys</u>	<u>Girls</u>
10	99	97.7
11	94.5	88.1
12	90.2	78.4
13	80.9	66.6
14	61.6	43.2
15	49.0	37.1
16	39.0	28.0
17	31.6	21.0
18	25.4	15.6

To this may be added the figures for the way in which the first year enrolment of upper secondary school pupils is divided between the different types of institutions. The figures are given for 1965 and 1969 and show the rapid growth of the scientific lycée and the vocational school.

Type of School	1st Year Pupils		Percentages	
	1965	1969	1965	1969
Classical lycée	43,873	44,431	12	10
Scientific lycée	26,806	60,230	7.4	13.5
Scuole e istitute magistral	64,637	69,134	17.8	15.5
Technical school	162,562	171,181	44.6	38.5
Vocational school	66,380	100,285	18.2	22.5
Total	364,288	445,261	100	100

2. CRITICISMS AND SUGGESTED REFORMS

Criticism of the present system can be found in Chapter Three of the first section (contributed by the Italian Authorities) of the OECD report on the Italian education policies, already referred to.

There is some way to go yet, for instance, in achieving an effective middle school throughout the country, owing to the proportion of pupils dropping out between the ages of 12 and 14, and because of the number who have to repeat years. The figures appear to be rapidly improving. In 1960 only 61.6 per cent of 13 year old boys and 44.1 per cent of 13 year old girls were attending school. By 1967 the percentages had risen to 80.9 for boys and 66.6 for girls. But clearly the achievement of a universal middle school is a basic condition of a more equitable system of upper secondary schools. In 1967 only 61.1 per cent of the age group attained a middle school leaving certificate, the prior requirement of all forms of secondary schooling. Where the rate of repeating is high it may well mean that a number of pupils are not able to enter the upper secondary school - particularly the vocational school which can expect to receive some of the less able - till they are 15 or 16.

Already no doubt these statistics are out of date and the middle school position has continued to improve. A more radical critic might wish to ask questions about the place which the teaching of Latin holds in the middle school, in view of its importance to those seeking entrance to the classical lycée. In terms of curriculum, the classical lycées expect their new entrants to have made a start with the classical language. In practice, however, this makes Latin into an instrument of selection, and for this purpose, quite a blunt instrument. It is frequently suggested that it will take more time before the teachers within the middle school fully accept the implication of unification and resist the temptation to introduce what amount in practice to forms of premature differentiation.

The main criticism is directed at the degree of separateness which distinguishes the different forms of secondary education. It seems to be widely recognised that the first two years of the upper secondary school (14 to 16) needs to be reviewed and a common biennium of some kind established. The view put forward in the OECD report was that "in present-day Italy, at least for the time being", a thorough-going unification of the five years of secondary education was impracticable, but that "the distinction must be retained between the different basic orientations, particularly in the second three year cycle of the upper secondary system, while adopting homogeneous structures in the first two year cycle to make it possible for pupils to switch from one type of school to the other".

In this context, the istituto magistrale is the target for much hostile comment, and any programme for the reform of secondary education is certain to include some modifi   the role of these teacher training schools. Already, it s   perform a more general function than just that of trai   rimary school teachers: only a small proportion of their pupils enter the ranks of the teachers. They offer a secondary education of a less rigorous kind than that held out by the classical or scientific lycée, not requiring classical languages, and lasting for four years instead of five. In a more unified system it would seem, on the face of it, this general education function might be performed by a "modern" lycée course within some wider secondary school, holding out the prospect of easier movement sideways into and out of the classical and scientific sides.

As for the teacher training function, this too is criticised widely on the grounds that it provides an inadequate academic and pedagogic preparation for primary school teachers, and prevents the emergence of strong teacher training institutions concerned with primary education within the structure of higher education.

In defence of the istituto magistrale are powerful social institutions which control many of them - and through them seek to retain influence in the primary schools themselves. Two-thirds of these schools are private institutions, a majority of them run by the Church. No doubt in any reform scheme these institutions would seek to keep some kind of teacher training function at least in the second cycle. There is also said to be resistance to the idea of incorporation of this schooling within the lycée from some of the lycée teachers who see the istituto magistrale as a buttress to the higher prestige of the lycée.

The highly specialised and vocational character of the rapidly growing vocational or trade schools is another aspect of the Italian educational scene which makes a move towards unification difficult. The vocational schools aim to provide a technical training and preparation for industrial employment which can be immediately useful to a boy or girl who enters employment at 16 or 17 as a semi-skilled worker. There is a strong tradition of trade-training in the schools, and although some of the larger industrialists are said to have begun to doubt its efficiency as a form of skill training - and the expedience of initiating boys and girls at so early an age into forms of industrial training which commit them to particular jobs - the employers' organisations reflect the view of the majority of small emp. yers who rely heavily on the vocational schools for a supply of pre-trained workers.   13

The development of advanced courses in the vocational schools in order to provide routes to intermediate supervisory level jobs and also to the university in the light of the latest legislation seems likely to lead to a re-appraisal of the whole of the vocational school programme.

The out and out comprehensive school enthusiast would incorporate the vocational school within a unified biennium with the minimum of options, seeking to retain a common core curriculum to 16.

A more middle-of-the-road line would be to divide the biennium to two halves, one based on the lycees and the other on the technical and vocational schools, while coordinating the curriculum in both the sections. This would pre-suppose the postponement of specialised vocational instruction which would have to be provided by an intensive third year course.

The third line of thought is more revolutionary and implies a larger leap in the dark. This is based on the hypothesis that gifted students coming up through an intensive vocational course during the first biennium could find this a psychologically beneficial preparation for the theoretical studies at the top of the vocational school. This looks a bit like a rationalisation of the arrangements which are now being improvised under law 754, but it is suggested that they may be sound pedagogic reasons for experimenting along these lines. Many people might feel that whatever view is taken of this theoretical speculation, it would be unlikely that a meaningful five year programme could be divised without also revising the contents of the biennium. Even those who believed that the best way to approach the theory was through the practical application, would not want to divorce the two parts of the course entirely. But on the resolution of any debate between these two schools of thought depends whether or not the vocational school should or should not be incorporated in larger plans for the reform of secondary education from 14 plus, or whether the vocational school studies continue while the other streams are incorporated into a comprehensive secondary school.

One question which must arise in many people's minds is how appropriate an intensive two or three year course of vocational training is for this mid-teen age range, in view of the fact that demands for particular skills are changing fast and versatility and the capacity for re-training may, in future, come to be a greater asset than a narrow proficiency in a single trade. This, some would agree, could in any case be provided fairly quickly by intensive training at a later stage. But these considerations raise far-reaching social and industrial questions, the answers to which are unlikely to lie entirely within the educational sector. Given parental pressure for early employment and for "useful" education which can be assessed in terms of a financial return, the scope for reform may be limited in important respects.

Models

The discussion points, then, towards a unified biennium for the first two years of upper secondary school, and a model in diagramatic form, something like this.

18 17 16	Classical Scientific lycées Modern	Technical institute	Advanced and complementary vocational courses

Unified 15 biennium 14	lycée options	technical-vocational options

Unified   13
Middle
School   12
           11

This general purpose model would have to be modified in various ways to accommodate more or less radical views. What options should be allowed in this biennium would, for example, be a matter of keen dispute. At the one extreme there would be the wholehearted devotees of comprehensive education who would advocate the minimum differentiation (and would certainly condemn the Latin option in the middle school). At the other there would be those who could happily see the development of a tripartite organisation within the unified biennium which would permit a considerable amount of specialised vocational instruction for those choosing the vocational option. About the only thing which seems really certain is that in the course of time the pressure will build up behind the more comprehensive rather than the less comprehensive models.

From the educational point of view, perhaps the least controversial proposition would be the elimination of the istituto magistrale, but this, as has been indicated, only serves to indicate the wider social and political pressures which would have to be taken into account.

The vocational option remains the greatest cause of difficulty in devising a common two year core. A large part of the curriculum for the vocational and technical option could be dove-tailed - though there is also criticism now in certain quarters that the technical curriculum should be more, not less, scientific - but so long as it is felt that these boys and girls should receive specialised instruction in a craft or trade and leave school ready to earn their living as semi-skilled workers, it is hard to see how this can be squared with the larger aim of postponing irrevocable life choices and keeping educational doors open.

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A factor in the discussion is the possibility that at some point within the next 10 years the school leaving age might be raised to 16. This would clinch the case for the unified biennium, but not dispose of the argument about early vocational specialisation, which is a socio-logical as well as an educating argument. To reduce the vocational specialisation without raising the school leaving age would be to remove one of the incentives to stay at school voluntarily. It would also suggest the possibility that private educational institutions might step in to offer this kind of trade training and thereby undermine the unified biennium.

The larger social issues raised by the vocational option can only be dealt with by social and industrial policies as a whole. Outside the narrowly educational field, they might, for example, suggest the need for larger social payments to encourage parents in the lower income groups to keep their children at school. Equally, they might require new policies for industrial training and retraining, and new attitudes to the induction of young workers into employment.

Among the many variations on the model which have been put forward with more or less enthusiasm by various reformers, is a more radical proposal which depends on the reduction of the age of entry into primary schools from 6 to 5, the completion of primary education by the age of 10, and the advancement of the middle school starting age from 11 to 10. This would then enable the year from 13 to 14 to be an orientation period, followed by four years of upper secondary education from 14 to 18, with separate streams and option for the humanistic, scientific, technical and vocational traditions.

It is claimed on behalf of this approach that it would enable pupils to complete secondary school by the age of 18 and thus be economical and allow pupils to start earning earlier. It would also allow a sensible orientation process without preventing a period of specialised vocational training by the age of 16 for those who wanted it.

On the other hand, it would not satisfy those whose object is to postpone choices of this kind, and institutionally it causes an upheaval for every kind of school.

One question which arises from many of the proposals concerns the distinction between a unification of the school system and a unification of the curriculum. Among the variations which could be devised are some which would introduce a more unified system of schools, while allowing each school to be organised in several different "sides". Others would retain the differences between types of school, while aiming at the co-ordination of the curriculum offered by these separate types of school. One of the differences of principle, therefore, will be between those whose prime aim is social - to avoid the division of the adolescent community into separate schools, each with its own position in a hier-archy of schools, and those who believe that what is important is to retain a common core of curriculum in all schools in order to facilitate transfer and keep opportunities open.

Experience elsewhere may suggest that these two principles are two sides of the same coin - that a hierarchic organisation of schools in itself makes interchange difficult, even when the common core of the

curriculum makes this theoretically possible; and that as social institutions, schools impose on the pupils who attend them, scales of values and levels of aspiration which belong to the institutions themselves, thus serving to limit individual choice and establish recognised social roles.

If this applies in the Italian context, it must - like the insistence on early trade-training for those planning to enter employment at 16 plus - reinforce the divisions in the system. And in a system where half the children have left school by 15 plus, the pressure for early vocational studies will come from parents who, by definition, are ambitious for their children and willing to make sacrifices to fit them into an acceptable social and vocational slot at an early age.

Constraints on Change

The visitor who asks about the obstacles to adaptation in Italian education will be given answers which fall into several groups - perhaps these could be grouped under the headings of "societal", "institutional" and "instructional" used by John I. Goodlad in his attempt to build a framework for the study of curriculum theory. For the purpose of this paper, which is mainly concerned to set down hear-say comment as the basis of further discussion, no very neat or tidy arrangement is possible, because many kinds of constraint seem to apply at several levels.

At the societal level there is the general political situation already referred to - the difficulty of obtaining the mandate for a clear-cut policy of educational reform in the context of a series of coalition governments.

Also at the societal level would come those constraints which are exercised by the dominant tradition of the present educational tradition, represented at the institutional level by the lycée. It is suggested that this strongly humanistic and historical tradition rooted and grounded in the ancient languages and ancient history - the legacy of the traditional philosophy of secondary education - must exercise a powerful influence on those who now hold responsibility at every level; human nature being what it is, they are likely to feel that their own security is involved in the validity of the educational criteria used in this educational tradition to distinguish between varying talents.

It can be argued generally that the effect of early separation into separate and parallel institution, each committed to different social goals (in terms of employment and social class) as well as different educational goals, puts a premium on educational opportunity as the prime agent of social mobility. The paradox of making education the key to social mobility is that this also makes the educational system the instrument by which all social roles are defined, i.e. an agent of social immobility as well. On this analysis, the more people feel their own social position is derived from divisions within the educational system, the more their attitude to change is likely to be tempered by a fear that change may threaten their own particular niche in society.

At the institutional level, the importance of the teachers themselves as allies or opponents of change is clearly of paramount importance. Here again the dominant traditional humanistic tradition

is highly relevant. The teachers' unions are many and mainly concerned with the immediate needs of their members; they are not widely regarded as an important pressure group for educational reform.

Much attention has been directed to the way in which secondary school teachers are recruited and to the lack of any requirement that their training should include any pedagogic studies. This inevitably means that the teacher whose own educational attitudes are formed in a traditional lycée and university returns to teach and himself reinforce the tradition. As the Italian contribution to the OECD report, already referred to, pointed out, this was less obvious when the tradition of secondary education was more narrowly restricted and more secure, but it is of manifest significance when social changes are widening the entry to secondary education and bringing in "a vast quantity of youngsters who were traditionally excluded from secondary education".

Plans of various kinds are being discussed, including interim plans, pending a larger reform. These could include the reform of primary school teachers' training in the event of the elimination of the istituto magistrale, and the provision of post-graduate professional courses in education - sociology, psychology and so on - in education departments in the universities, as a prior condition of the abilitazione qualifying a teacher for employment in a secondary school. Tied up with all this is the question of the "concourse" method of filling established posts in the teaching service.

At the instructional level, the traditional curriculum and trad-itional method of initiating graduates into teaching tend to encourage formal methods of teaching. They put the accent on the transmission of a given culture rather than a critical attitude towards received inform-ation. This too has implications for the innovation process, if inno-vation is to involve transferring more of the responsibility of learning from the teacher to the pupil and a consequent change in the nature of the teacher's authority. Implicit in any serious move to provide mass secondary education is the attempt to match the education to the pupil rather than blame the pupil for failing to correspond to the kind of education which is on offer.

It would follow from this that teachers who are wedded to a clearly defined, traditional, humanistic curriculum and formal, authoritarian methods of teaching will find it difficult to lead the process of innovation, and are more likely to resist it because it must cause an upheaval which is disagreeable to them.

Also at the instructional level, there is the question of the central control of the curriculum by the Ministry of Public Instruction and how far this encourages or discourages initiative among the teachers, and hence prepares for participation in innovation.

The Ministry, being a government department headed by a leading politician, can only be as progressive as its current political leader-ship will permit. The Ministry's officers are at pains to point out the restriction on their own initiative which they see mainly as being limited to advising on the most effective method of carrying out the policies adopted by their ministers. (No doubt this is clumsily expressed, but is the gist of views put forward at a meeting with officers of the Ministry).

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How far does this modest attitude affect the Ministry in its more directly pedagogic responsibilities for the content of the curriculum? Government departments are usually the targets of fairly indiscriminate criticism. But it would not be surprising if, in the absence of a positive policy of reform and innovation from the top, the bureaucratic machine adopted an attitude of hostile neutrality towards curriculum innovation - not out of any spirit of malice but simply because it is in the nature of bureaucracy - given the opportunity - to do again next year what was done last year.

Strategy of change

One of the aspects of the Italian secondary school situation which is likely to concern an international workshop is what kind of strategy could be worked out, given a desire to change the system in particular ways. If certain goals can be established, what co-ordinated programme of action could be devised to achieve the stated goals? To achieve certain effects, what are the right levers to pull?

Strategies of innovation are of more than national interest. Throughout the OECD countries curriculum reform and secondary re-organisation have been the subject of obsessive interest. How far are these ideas interchangeable across national frontiers?

1. Parliamentary

In the Italian setting, it seems agreed that the starting point for another instalment in the reform of secondary education is legislative - that however much could be done by administrative action by a determined Minister, the controversial importance of the kind of changes which are needed would be so great that no Minister could act without explicit Parliamentary support; without legislation no major, co-ordinated strategy of change is likely. This raises a number of questions to which no answers can be offered. Not, of course, that legislation is in itself a guarantee of co-ordinated strategy of change. The latest legislative interventions - laws 754 and 910 - are examples of how the law may be changed in a way which must have important consequences, without introducing any general plan for reform at the same time. The same might apply to reforms of the maturità and other aspects of the piecemeal reform of higher education.

How to use these piecemeal reforms to promote a general programme of reform is clearly something which must call for close study. What will be the result of an influx of potential university students whose school preparation has been quite different from the students who till now have entered the universities? (Other more radical proposals would open up university entry to students over 25 under still more liberal conditions). Will the result simply be a larger drop-out at the end of the first year with the attendant discontent this will cause?

How far will the prestige of the vocational schools have been altered by the new law which theoretically opens up an avenue to higher education for every type of school? Only the most optimistic can believe this is likely to make a great deal of difference to the hierarchy of institutions so long as the hierarchy of institutions correlates with the social class of the pupils who attend them.

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What part will student unrest, both at the secondary school and at the university level, play in inducing the political parties to support educational reform (or in making educational reform unpopular)?

Progressive educators tend to assume that student unrest arises from faults in the education system (and outside it) which their own policies would eliminate. How far are the things which the students protest about, those which educational reformers would do something about? On one view, the discontent among students is evidence that "the educational system has ceased to serve the needs of a changed society and in so far as it is elitist in conception, is representative of decadent forces in society struggling to defend their own interests". In idealogical terms, Marxists and radical Catholics may find themselves at one in a critique of the educational system as a creature of business and capital. On another view, the anarchism of the student left expresses a nihilism which has little positive to say about the shape that educational reform should take. On either view, there is evidence that the effect of student unrest is to speed up the pace of educational change and persuade some to support reform out of expediency who are unconvinced of the principles on which the reforms are based.

Assuming there is to be a legislative initiative, what part will, or should, the Ministry of Public Instruction play in this, and what part will be played by special commission set up by the political parties?

The self-deprecating attitude which the Ministry cultivates is understandable in the circumstances but hardly consistent with the emergence of what may be called a "departmental point of view" which would be necessary to sustain a continuing plan for educational reform. (One thing is clear: educational reform has to be long-term or it is nothing). No doubt one aspect of a coherent strategy of reform would be to review the internal plan of the Ministry and to consider how the departmental organisation could best be arranged to favour the achievement of a unified biennium. For example, if the departmental structure at present corresponds to the divisions within the secondary system it might be reasonable to question whether this is conducive to the reduction of barriers between the different types of schooling.

Plans have been announced for the establishment within the Ministry of an "Institute of Educational Planning" which could become an important instrument in the direction of educational reform provided it is staffed by experts of sufficient calibre and has access to the Minister himself and his chief advisers. Alternatively, it could amount to little more than a re-arrangement of the present organisation for statistical information and planning.

Ideally, this might lead to the establishment of clearly defined goals for the educational reform - a kind of credo of the kind which in, say Sweden, provides a criterion by which all educational policies can be judged. In some other countries, such as England, the overall Education Act implies certain goals, but these are seldom spelt out, and the achievement of some sort of consensus takes place tacitly, rather than explicitly. Sometimes it is easier to do good by stealth than openly. Where politics are uncertain and governments come and go, clearly defined long-term objectives may be impossible to set out.

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2. Supporting Policies

What kind of supporting policies will be required to carry through a further instalment in the reform of secondary education - and to prepare for it - supposing that the political and parliamentary leadership can be forthcoming?

(i) Teachers

As has already been indicated, a reform of teacher training is generally regarded as overdue and this would certainly form an essential element in any strategy. It would be unrealistic to look for short-term results. But the establishment of university education departments (in one form or another) for the pedagogic training of secondary school teachers, and eventually perhaps, able to offer education courses at the undergraduate level as well, would be a way of changing basic attitudes. The importance would not, of course, only lie in the studies which the future teachers would pursue but also in the establishment within the universities of powerful centres of study and research at a higher level, and the encouragement which this would give to the social scientists to direct their attention to educational questions. In this context, the Government's intention to establish a university based National Institute of Educational Research is relevant in long-term.

The establishment of professional colleges of education attached to universities where primary school teachers would be trained would also be an important development which would, in the course of time, begin to affect the schools, as methods and attitudes tend to move upwards through the system.

The natural and essential complement to the reform of initial training would logically be the expansion of in-service training and a determined effort to persuade the body of practising teachers to accept the philosophy behind the reform.

Without the acceptance of the teachers - more or less wholehearted - the changes in organisation will fail to achieve the intended result.

Given the widespread belief among liberal educationists that the teachers themselves represent a conservative force and one of the constraints on change, the involvement and implication of the teachers in the practical and theoretical preparation for reform and in its execution, is clearly difficult, but likely to be an essential part of the innovation technique.

(ii) Curriculum development

To give meaning and reality to a change of organisation, a major programme of curriculum development would seem logically to be required. Here again, the benefits of implicating the teachers and through the processes of testing and validating new materials, involving as many schools as possible, would seem to be obvious. This raises questions about existing curriculum centres (including that at the Villa Falconieri) and the part which they should play in the next stage of educational reform, including whether or not the continued separation of centres for particular kinds of secondary education would make sense, given a will to move towards unification.

Curriculum development in highly centralised systems demands a strong and positive lead from the centre, but it also requires the opportunity for local experiment and development.

A number of experimental schemes already exist and doubtless more would have to follow, including the institution of experimental schools in which the unified biennium would be applied more or less rigorously. These would require careful monitoring, but it might well be their object would not be to test the intrinsic validity of a more unified biennium so much as to study the practical problems to which it gave rise. Some would agree that this kind of experimental development would require a measure of local initiative and decentralisation with more decision-making at regional or provincial levels and the emergence of local development teams able to keep in close touch with progress at the ground level.

Clearly these questions go deep into administrative policy and far beyond the immediate problem of curriculum reform, but however they are answered the need to foster initiative at the local level will remain.

A fully articulated strategy might include the use of many different innovative techniques(1) including:

- the <u>pilot project</u>, in which a limited number of pupils and teachers experiment with new materials or methods or both;

- the <u>cadre approach</u>, in which special teachers - heads, inspectors, subject specialists - are released from their normal duties to help to introduce a new method or new materials as "agents of change";

- the <u>experimental sub-system</u>, where new methods or models are introduced in a limited area, large enough to be influential, yet small enough to be manageable;

- the <u>re-arranged setting</u>, in which by the introduction of a change in the physical environment - say by a new school design or the provision of language laboratories - new methods of teaching and learning are encouraged;

- <u>methods - materials - systems</u>, where new materials demanding their own methods and geared to their own objectives, influence the way teachers and pupils go about their work;

- experimental developments arising from close <u>co-operation between schools and universities</u>.

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(1) See Edward J. Mead's contribution to the Third International Curriculum Conference, Oxford, 1967: <u>Curriculum Innovation in Practice</u>, London, H.M.S.O.

3. Transfer between Institutions

A third line of strategy which suggests itself, particularly if more ambitious plans are not adopted, would be directed at facilitating movement within the educational system. The attempt to open up a path to the university via the vocational school is intended to do this in a particularly dramatic form. No doubt there are other ways in which bridges could be built between the separate secondary school courses to encourage a greater two-way traffic by reducing to the minimum the complementary studies which are demanded for transfer. This might also suggest a need for new ways of picking up those who drop out early, possibly by reducing the amount of part time study required to re-enter the main stream of education, or by the development of other forms of technical education, linked to industrial needs, to provide alternative routes to professional qualifications.

CONCLUSION

To sum up, the reform of Italian Secondary Education raises complex political and pedagogic questions which cannot be resolved by either politics or pedagogy alone. The direction of future educational reform seems fairly clear: the next step in terms of organisation is likely to be towards some kind of unitary, polyvalent or comprehensive system, beginning with a unification of the first biennium of the upper secondary schools, with options corresponding to some of the present divisions within the system.

There seems to be agreement that a change of organisation also implies changes in the curriculum and in teaching philosophy and method. This in turn would suggest a need for a positive attitude to innovation as a whole and a strategy for promoting it.

A consideration of the constraints on change in Italian education raises questions about the role of the central administration, and about the teachers who do not now seem to be regarded as a source of ideas or active pressure for educational reform. Proposals for the reform of teacher education have an obvious bearing on this, on the part which universities should play in the promotion of the study of education, and on the complementary programme of in-service training which would have to accompany the introduction of initial professional training for graduate teachers.

Finally, in an ideal world, the strategy of change would have to include a combination of policies, some of which have been touched upon, political, administrative, pedagogic, calculated to alter attitudes and long established practice and re-orientate the whole of the secondary education system in the new direction. To achieve this demands clear objectives and single-minded policies: luxuries which few countries in Western Europe can enjoy. But in the absence of these pre-requisites of perfect planning some kind of ad hoc framework becomes all the more necessary, as scaffolding around which the eventual edifice can rise.

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A BRIEF HISTORY OF ITALIAN EDUCATIONAL REFORM

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A. SECONDARY EDUCATION AND ITS HISTORICAL EVOLUTION

The starting point of Italy's structural system was given by the
Casati Law of 1859, promulgated before the Unification of Italy (1861),
for the provinces of the Kingdom of Piedmont-Sardinia and of Lombardy.
The norms and regulations of this Law were successively extended to the
other Italian provinces.

With regard to secondary education, which is the subject of the
present historical survey, the Casati Law introduced the following
structures:

(a) a "liceo ginnasio" (classical secondary school), students
from 10 to 18 years of age, sub-divided into a 5 year
gymnasium and a 3 year lyceum;

(b) a three-year technical school, followed by a three year
"istituto tecnico", which was later extended to four years;

(c) a "scuola normale" (teacher training school) for the training
of elementary school teachers.

The scuola normale had no lower course and accepted students only
if they were aged sixteen or above.

As for geographical distribution, the Casati Law established that
there should be a gymnasium in the chief town of every district; a
lyceum and a technical school in the chief town of every province; and
a technical institute (sub-divided into several specialised branches)
in the major industrial and commercial centres. Thirty scuole normali
were opened.

From the time of the Casati Law until 1923, the year of the reform
that took its name from Giovanni Gentile, secondary education remained
more or less unchanged. However, the Orlando Law of 1904 raised the age
of admission to eleven years of age, when the length of primary school-
ing passed from 4 to 5 years.

The classical lyceum's structure remained unaltered, although there
were frequent and notable changes in its internal regulations. For
instance, an optional system between Greek and mathematics was adopted

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from 1904 to 1911. In 1911, Minister Credaro created a series of experimental schools called "sections" of modern gymnasium and lyceum. The technical institutes, which had become quadrennial, were consolidated into three fundamental types or sections (physics and mathematics, surveying, commerce and administration). Meanwhile the specialised sections (for industry, for agriculture, for naval activities) depended, with special regulations, on their respective Ministries; they were placed under the Ministry of Education's control only in 1930.

The technical schools, which served as preparation for minor occupations in industry, agriculture, and commerce, flourished rather rapidly; they also served as lower or preparatory courses for the scuola normale (teacher training school), and, of course, for the technical institutes.

The scuola normale underwent various modifications in its organisation. It was in particular the object of innovative suggestions made by famous educators of the time such as Aristide Gabelli. A definitive re-organisation took place in 1896, when the title of primary school master became universal - previously the diploma had been divided into two grades, lower and higher. The Law of 1896 also created the institution of the scuola complementare (3 years, after primary school) which became the inferior or preparatory course for the female teacher training schools.

During the second half of the nineteenth century there was a constant and uninterrupted elaboration of proposals and reforms for the secondary schools. Among them were such interesting projects as the one presented by Terenzio Mamiani (1861), who supported even then the idea of a unified middle school; by Carlo Matteucci (1863), author of a "project on secondary education"; by Michele Amari, who in 1864 formed a special commission for the study of a new discipline of secondary schools. Also in 1864 the philosopher G.M. Bertini presented a well-known study in which he too supported the idea of unified lower grades in the gymnasium and in the technical systems. In 1866 Domenico Berti again proposed the idea of unifying the two types, but basing it exclusively on classical culture.

It is useless to enumerate all the Ministers who defended innovations or modifications of secondary education.

However, the constitution of the so-called Martini Parliamentary Commission, in 1888, can be considered as an important stage. In 1893 the Commission presented an extensive report, the most notable element of which was the proposed abolition of Latin in an unified lower school.

The year 1905 saw the birth of a Royal Commission for the Arrangement of Secondary Studies, consisting of the most famous representatives of culture and pedagogy; for the first time in our educational history the Commission worked with "questionnaires" which had been sent to the various representatives of scientific, cultural and educational activities.

For the Royal Commission too the crucial issue was the unification of the lower middle school, which should have been followed by separate schools for classical or general education, for technical education and for teacher training. But the findings of the Commission led to few

practical results and only in 1911 did they lead to the foundation of
a few sections of modern lyceum, which were, however, very quickly
suppressed.

Yet the recurrent idea of unity in the lower school must not be
misunderstood: it was always conceived of as unity of the existing
schools, attended by only a tiny fraction of the population (not more
than 10 per cent until 1915), and not as compulsory schooling permitting
all citizens to be educated until 14-15 years of age.

The first major innovations, after the Casati Law, are to be found
in the transformations promoted by G. Gentile. In the Gentile Reform
the classical lyceum maintained its traditional structure; a <u>scientific
lyceum</u> (4 years, 15-19 years) was brought into being; there was no lower
course - the students were admitted after the lower course of the
technical institute. Technical school and technical institutes were
merged into a unique 8 year structure (4 years of lower course and 4
years of higher course); the mathematics and physics section became the
scientific lyceum; the two other sections (administration and surveying)
remained unchanged. The <u>istituto magistrale</u> (teacher training school)
took the place of the old <u>scuola normale</u>, and consisted of a 7 year
course (4 years of lower course and 3 years of higher course). The
<u>scuola complementare</u>, created in 1896, practically took the place of
the old <u>scuola tecnica</u> (technical school). A <u>girls' lyceum</u> was founded
but it only lasted very few years.

This is the structure of secondary education. The Gentile Reform
also gave new didactical content to the school, a fundamentally
historical-critical approach, an outlook radically oriented in the
sense of idealistic philosophy. With the introduction of the <u>State
school leaving examination</u> (equal for everybody) a new type of relation-
ship between State schools and private-confessional schools came into
effect. (Previously the students of private schools had to pass their
final examination in a public school).

Between 1923 and 1945 the most relevant innovations in the
secondary sector were the following: transformation of the triennial
(11-14 years) <u>scuole complementari</u> into <u>scuole secondarie di avviamento
al lavoro</u> (lower secondary preparatory schools) sub-divided into the
following branches: agriculture, commerce, industry, domestic economy,
naval. The industrial, agrarian, naval and commercial schools that
did not depend on the Ministry of Education were absorbed by the school
system (the 1931 Law defined the precise structure of the Technical
Institutes). Finally, the Schools of Art (scuole d'arte, istituti d'arte,
licei artistici) begin to appear as a separate and distinct branch of
the secondary educational system. University entrance is, of course,
limited in the Gentile Reform. The classical lyceum gives free access
to all faculties. For students leaving the scientific lyceum, law and
humanities are out of reach. From the technical institutes, some
faculties are accessible (rarely those corresponding to the relevant
specialisation) and always with notable restrictions.

The authoritarian government of 1939 enacted the School Charter
with an annexed plan of reforms. The only part of this programme that
was carried out, however, concerned the introduction of the so-called
<u>unified middle school</u> (1940). In fact, this new institution only unified
the lower courses (3 years) of the gymnasium, of the technical

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institutes and of the teacher training schools. The preparatory schools (avviamento) and the post-primary courses were not included. The unified middle school was gradually introduced, between 1940 and 1943, in extremely difficult years. Successively, "liaison-classes" had to be created in the scientifical lyceums and in the technical and training institutes, so as to substitute the fourth class of the old lower courses.

After 1945, planning for the restructuring of secondary education was resumed zealously enough. First of all, some urgent measures to purge the programmes from fascist influences were undertaken. In teacher training schools psychology and direct training were reintroduced (they had been eliminated under the Gentile administration). And from all sides came agreement that extensive reforms were necessary. A first official project was elaborated in 1951 by the then Minister Mr. Gonella. A tripartite middle school was to be introduced (humanistic school, technical school, post-elementary school) leading to the traditional quinquennial courses. Also in this period, the problem of "middle school for all" was tackled for the first time: not a simple unification of the existing secondary courses, but an unified extension of primary compulsory education, which until that time was in fact compulsory only to 11 years of age. Compulsory schooling until 14 years of age existed, but only on paper and in those situations where preparatory schools (avviamento) existed ensuring that all boys and girls could benefit from this unique institution until their fourteenth birthday.

After a long and intense debate, lasting virtually from 1945 to 1960, the introduction of the new unified middle school, compulsory for all, was decided (Law of 31st December, 1962, No.1859). This is the school that we have today. On the other hand, the debate on the structures of higher secondary education came to a halt. Furthermore, between 1950-1960 another branch of education – the vocational schools – had grown to a considerable importance. They were biennial or more oftenly triennial institutes, with admittance at 14 years of age, and the task of giving qualifications for executive work (qualified workers).

In 1962 an Enquiry Commission (composed of Members of Parliament and experts) was created to propose new educational structures. These were the proposals of the Commission for secondary schools:

(a) a lyceum consisting of the traditional classical type and in a modern section, sub-divided into science, social studies and, as a part of the Commission insisted, teacher training;

(b) technical schools, with a common two year period and a differential three year period;

(c) for the arts sector, a concentration of the existing but extremely diversified institutions;

(d) vocational training, in the Commission's proposals, was isolated from the rest of secondary education, and formed as a separate system albeit with some connections with the technical schools.

After the conclusion of the Enquiry Commission's works, the Minister of Education Mr. Gui elaborated a series of projects on the re-organisation of secondary education. However, these projects never reached

Parliament. The hypothesis of modification is included in the document "Directive Lines of the Development Plan" presented on 30th September, 1964, which is notably different from the proposals of the Commission.

The "Directive Lines" give the following suggestions: short-term vocational training, in the old vocational training schools; technical education, for which the proposals of the Enquiry Commission are accepted (a common two year period and different three year periods of specialisation - commercial, industrial, naval, agrarian, domestic); the lyceums, of five different sorts: classical, scientific, linguistic, teacher training, artistic. The first two year period of all lyceums should have "substantially similar study programmes". In addition to these schools, a teacher training school for infant school mistresses and artistic schools for arts and music were to remain as well. These proposals brought no effective results although they did influence the successive debate on the reform of secondary education.

Towards the end of the legislature (1968) a project of reform was presented in Parliament (the Donati Project).The modification of the structure of two year periods was proposed, bringing to 16 the age of compulsory schooling, and introducing, practically, biennial "unified" schools in the respective technical, classical and teacher training branches. This project too was not carried out. The end of the 1968 legislature and the beginning of the new legislature rendered the re-organisation of secondary education still more urgent, but no proposals permitting even the possibility of consensus were advanced. The only relevant fact is an agreement between the parties forming Mr. Rumor's centre-left government in November 1968 in which the hypotheses for renovation of secondary education repeated those included in the "Directive Lines".

Today we have reached the situation where it has to be decided whether the projects elaborated in 1967-68 in three different plans (vocational education, technical education, lyceums) can be redrawn and simply brought up to date or if a radical renovation is necessary in our secondary education.

B. INNOVATION AND EXPERIMENTATION

The situation has been significantly modified by two very recent legal dispositions that came into effect in the very first months of the current year: the "Law on experimentation in Vocational schools" (No.754, dated 27th of October 1969), and the Law providing "Urgent dispositions for the Universities" (No.910, dated 11th of December 1969).

The first law introduces, in fact, a profoundly new situation. on the one hand it consents to the creation of 50 "experimental" courses within the limits of the actual schools (lasting two years), in which "the cultural component of the professional biennial is accentuated". On the other hand, the law consents to the institution of 350 "special courses", lasting one, two or three years, apt to consent to "a cultural and applicative secondary level formation", equal to that of the technical schools. Therefore, where the courses last three years, we have a true and proper quinquennial course, at the end of which the students can pass the "professional maturity" examination, equivalent to all other school leaving examinations; the title obtained corresponds

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to a qualification similar to the one delivered in technical schools and also gives admission to all University faculties in conformity with the recent No.910 law, mentioned above. In other words, we now have a new "experimental" vocational school, which, instead of lasting two or three years, now lasts five years, like the other secondary schools (14-19), and admits graduates to the University.

The problems connected with this innovation are relevant. The conception of a vocational sector or approach, separate and autonomous from the technical sector, intended to equip young people with simple working and executive qualifications and without further outlets (except integrative exams to pass into the technical system) is now definitively surpassed. The vocational school, in fact, becomes a "qualification course for intermediary technical professions", and at the same time a general pre-university secondary course, and for this reason an alternative problem will soon have to be resolved: either, reunification of the technical and vocational sectors, or, transformation, albeit on special basis, of the "experimental" vocational schools which have chosen a five year structure, into technical schools.

The second Law (No.910) although it concerns the University, contains a very important article which has crucial consequences for all secondary education. The article prescribes: "Pending the enactment of the University Reform Bill, all degree courses are open to:
(a) holders of diplomas issued by five years, second degree secondary schools, including linguist lyceums recognised by law, as well as those who have completed the complementary courses specified by the law authorising their experimentation in vocational training schools;
(b) holders of diplomas issued by teacher training schools and art schools who have successfully completed a one-year complementary course to be organised in every province by the Provincial Board of Education, under the University's didactic and scientific responsibility, on the basis of the instructions which shall be issued by the Ministry of Education."

With this decree, known as the "Liberalisation of University entrance" Law, all the five-year secondary schools following compulsory school (6-14 years) give possibility of access to all University faculties with no numerus clausus limitations and no entrance examination.

With regard to four-year schools (artistic lyceum and teacher training schools), the circular No.3350, dated 29/12/1969, has already introduced complementary courses to be held in 32 universities, for a number of teacher training schools determined by the Provincial Board of Education; similar decisions have been taken for Art schools.

Vocational schools too now admit to the Universities: the above mentioned No.754 Law, by introducing, albeit experimentally, a three-year complementary course, held after the first two-year course, has brought the complete course to five years, thus opening it to the University. For the arts and crafts schools (consisting of a three-year course after middle school) an appropriate Bill (No.2076) has been presented to the Chamber of Deputies; this Law should provide the creation of an experimental course similar to that of vocational schools, and likewise admitting to University entry.

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It is now evident that practically no secondary school today constitutionally excludes the possibility of reaching University; and furthermore, admittance to all faculties is permitted, independently from the secondary school attended.

Opinions and points of view on Law No.910 have, of course, been completely opposite: to some it seemed a bold liberal, egalitarian and democratic measure; to others it has been seen as a demagogic measure, apt to disrupt the whole secondary and universitary education system. Substantially, it is stigmatized because it permits indiscriminate access to University, without any control or guidance; and, for instance, a student who has never done any Latin or Greek could very well attend a degree course of classical letters; on the other hand, it is answered, the secondary system is not necessarily the only channel fit to consent or evaluate modes and types of structure. It will then be in the University itself that the student will have to give proof of his preparation or his lack of preparation in the subjects he has decided to study.

But then again it is said that if the University has to have the function of "controlling", which up until yesterday was the specific role of the secondary school, this is such a heavy burden that the academical institutions will be thrown completely head over tails and will not be able to cope with the non-motivated rise in the number of students.

The debate could, of course, go on for ever. It is, however, necessary to say that, in the present conditions, the consequences of the No.910 Law are not at all clear. There is no way of saying whether its effects will be positive or negative: everything depends on the ways in which the "liberalised demand" will grow, on the reaction of the academic institutions, and above all on the strategic direction capacities of the administration.

For all we know no other European country has adopted such a "phisiocratic" system for its education policy. It would be extremely interesting if the Italian experience could be followed with particular attention by those research bodies particularly interested in the study of innovations which introduce such radical transformations in traditional education systems.

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LAW OF 27th OCTOBER, 1969, No.754

Art.1 – Beginning with the school year 1969-70 special courses aimed at enhancing the cultural component of the first professional two-year period shall be established in State vocational training schools institutes by way of experiment and pending the reform of second-degree secondary education, by decree of the President of the Republic following a proposal by the Minister of Education and with the advice of a commission of experts appointed and presided over by the Minister himself.

Likewise by way of experiment and pending the reform of second-degree secondary education, after ascertaining that conditions are adequate, one-year or two-year or three-year courses shall be established as specified in the preceding paragraph in State professional institutes of the whole national territory, with the aim of extending their length to five years and providing students with the cultural and practical training of five-year second-degree secondary school level.

The courses specified in the preceding paragraph can also be established at technical institutes.

The number of special courses to be established as specified in the first paragraph of this article shall not be higher than fifty; the courses as specified in paragraphs two and three above shall not be more than three hundred and fifty.

The results of the experiment shall be evaluated by the commission mentioned in the first paragraph and its conclusions shall be made known to Parliament.

Art.2 – Students attending the courses specified by the preceding article shall be entitled to apply for the scholarships especially provided for students of higher secondary schools.

The Minister of Education is authorised to use, also for the purpose of setting up scholarships for the above mentioned students, moneys granted but not used for free or subsidized places in residential colleges as specified by art.19 of the Law of 31st October, 1966, No.942.

Local administrations and boards shall be entitled to allocate additional moneys to those as specified by the preceding paragraphs both to increase the amount of moneys allocated and to increase the number of scholarships granted by the State. Any expenditures voted by local administrations for this purpose shall be considered mandatory.

Art.3 – At the end of the courses specified by paragraphs two and three of the preceding article 1, students shall undergo a State examination for the purpose of obtaining a diploma of professional maturity equivalent to the diploma obtained at technical institutes of the corresponding type and valid for admission to the intermediate grades of the Civil Service and to University degree courses. To the President of the Republic's decree mentioned by the preceding article 1 shall be annexed a list specifying the validity of diplomas issued by vocational training schools with no corresponding type of school in the technical education sector, for the purpose of the above-mentioned admission to the intermediate grades of the Civil Service and to University degree courses.

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Art.4 — The guiding programmes and timetables of instruction and examination for the courses specified by the first, second and third paragraphs of the preceding article 1, as well as the manner in which the examinations mentioned by article 3 above shall be carried out, shall be established by the Minister of Education on the advice of the Higher Council for Public Education and the commission mentioned by article 1 above, and may be changed from time to time on the basis of the results of the experiment.

Art.5 — Theoretical and practical instruction in the courses specified by the first three paragraphs of the preceding article 1 shall be entrusted to staff having particular, specific cultural training and proved teaching experience, to be selected according to principles established by order of the Minister of Education with the advice of the commission specified by the first paragraph of the same article 1.

Art.6 — The courses mentioned by paragraphs two and three of article 1 shall be open to students who have completed successfully the courses of vocational training schools of the same type.

Art.7 — The first paragraph of the single article of the Law of 31st March, 1966, No.205, is substituted by the following:

"A student who has passed or passes the final examination in vocational training school obtains a diploma of qualification which shall become valid in employer-employee relations after a period of practical activity whose length shall be determined by collective bargaining but shall not, in any case, exceed three months.

Art.8 — Recognition of diplomas of professional qualifications and of diplomas issued by former State technical schools and professional schools for girls and by those schools of the same type which were legally recognised within the meaning of article 3 of the Law of 21st April, 1965, No.449, may be granted for three years from the date of coming into effect of this Law.

Art.9 — The expenditures deriving from the coming into effect of this Law shall be covered by normal budget allocations as well as by those specified by the Law of 31st October, 1966, No.942, under items 2004, 2005, 2007, 2032, 2033, 2035 and 2037 of the Ministry of Education Expense Estimates for the fiscal year 1969, and corresponding items of following years.

LAW OF 11th DECEMBER, 1969, No.910

Art.1 - Pending enactment of the University Reform Bill all degree courses are open to:

(a) holders of diplomas issued by five-year, second degree secondary schools, including linguistic lyceums recognised by law, as well as those who have completed the complementary courses specified by the law authorising their experimentation in vocational training schools;

(b) holders of diplomas issued by teacher training schools and art schools who have successfully completed a one-year complementary course to be organised in every province by the Provincial Board of Education, under the Universities' didactic and scientific responsibility, on the basis of instructions which shall be issued by the Ministry of Education.

Students following the above-mentioned one-year complementary courses are entitled to a deferment of their military service according to existing legislation on this matter.

Pending enactment of the Higher Secondary School Reform, diploma holders issued from teacher training schools and art schools shall still be entitled to admission to those degree courses to which they are entitled under the laws existing at the date of enactment of this Law; during the same period of time, moreover, the validity shall continue of Decree-Law of 22nd December, 1968, No.1241, converted into the Law of 12th February, 1969, No.8, concerning admission to University Teacher Training Courses (facoltà di magistero) and Higher Schools of Teacher Training (Istituti superiori di magistero).

Staff teaching in second-degree higher secondary schools, entrusted with teaching in the courses specified by paragraph 1(b) of this article, can be exempted for a corresponding number of hours from normal teaching duties. Any excess hours above the mandatory number of hours shall be paid at the rate of one-eighteenth of the salary due for each weekly hour and for the actual length of the course.

Independently from the higher secondary school diploma held, any degree holder is entitled to admission to any other degree course.

For the academic year 1969-70 students entitled to University admission under this article shall hand in their application forms not later than 31st December, 1969.

Art.2 - For the academic year 1969-70 students can submit curricula different from those laid down by existing didactic rules, provided the subjects are selected among those actually taught and their number is that laid down by existing rules.

The curricula are submitted for approval, not later than the month of December, to the Faculty Board which issues its decision taking account of the cultural formation and professional preparation required of the students.

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Art.3 - Students receiving the study grants laid down by the Law of 21st April, 1969, No.162, are exempted from payment of any University taxes, surtaxes, secretarial dues and any other charges.

Art.4 - Staff in charge of teaching in Universities or University-level Institutes, including Schools of specialisation or perfecting school, in both academic year 1968-69 and 1969-70, are entitled to confirmation in their posts for the academic year 1970-71 on their own request, following an application to be handed in within 90 days from the date of coming into force of this Law, except in cases of earlier cassation as laid down by the second paragraph of article 10 of the Law of 24th February, 1967, No.62.

Assistant Professors are entitled to the provisions of the preceding paragraph even if they have been in charge of courses only during the academic year 1969-70.

The provisions of this article do not apply to Ordinary and Extraordinary University Professors in charge of supplementary courses.

The term of validity of the three-man selection lists for University professorships as specified by existing legislation is extended by one year.

Art.5 - As from 31st October, 1969, articles 8 and 28-ter, last para- graph, of the Legislative Decree of 7th May, 1948, No.1172, as ratified with modifications by the Law of 24th June, 1950, No.465 and following modifications, are abrogated.

Paragraphs one and two of article 4 of the Law of 18th March, 1958, No.349, as substituted by article 8 of the Law of 26th January, 1962, No.16, being still valid, an Assistant Professor who is not Free Professor (Libero docente) is entitled to the second and first salary grade on completing respectively the sixth and fourth year in the preceding grade.

An Assistant Professor who is not a Free Professor is entitled, on reaching the second grade of salary, to the provisions of existing legislature in respect of Assistant Professors who are Free Professors.

The period of service served by an Assistant Professor who is not a Free Professor in the third salary grade in excess of the period laid down by the second paragraph of this article for passage to the second salary grade can be computed for the purpose of passage to the first grade.

Art.6 - The greater sum to be allocated in the year 1970 under article 28 of the Law of 31st October, 1966, No.942, is increased by 5,000,000,000 Lire.

Art.7 - The expenditure deriving from application of this Law in the financial year 1970, estimated at 8,000,000,000 Lire, is to be covered by reduction of the allocations under item 3523 of the Ministry of the Treasury Expense Estimates for the same financial year.

The Minister of the Treasury is authorised to provide by his own decrees for the necessary budget variations.

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Table 1 - ITALIAN EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM BY LEVELS,

TYPES AND STUDENTS ENROLMENT

(1968 - 1969)

School Year	Age Year	
1	6	
2	7	PRIMARY SCHOOL
3	8	4,706,000
4	9	
5	10	
6	11	
7	12	MIDDLE SCHOOL
8	13	1,982,000

School Year	Age Year	Primary Teachers School	Art. Schools	Classical Lyceum	Scientific Lyceum	Technical Institutes (*)	Vocational Institutes 214,000	Extra school vocational systems
9	14							
10	15							
11	16						Experimental 3 years type	
12	17	249,000	48,000	198,000	185,000	619,000		
13	18	Propedeutical year to Univ.						
14	19							

School Year	Age Year	UNIVERSITY FACULTIES	
15	20	Archt. (4)	11,638
16	21	Litter. Phil. (4)	143,991
		Sciences (4)	68,026
		Medicine (6)	48,701
17	22	Law (4)	43,064
		Pol. Sciences (4)	9,469
18	23	Engineering (5)	50,530
		Agronomy (4)	6,434
19	24	Statistics (4)	2,722
		Economics (4)	93,252
20	25	Pharmacy (4)	6,979
		Veterinary (4)	1,332
		Phys. education (3)	3,291
		Naval inst. (4)	2,477
		Others	1,706
		T O T A L	496,406

> Admission to any faculty from any type of five year secondary school: neither entrance examinations nor enrolment limitations.

(*) = 8 types : commerce, agronomy, surveyors, naval, girls, industrial, tourism, firm secretariat.

Table 2 - PUPILS' ENROLMENT BY AGE IN DIFFERENT TYPES OF SCHOOLS

1966 - 67

AGE	LIVING PUPILS	PRIMARY SCHOOL	MIDDLE SCHOOL	VOCATIONAL SCHOOLS	TECHNICAL INSTITUTES	TEACHER SCHOOL	LYCEUM	ART SCHOOLS	TOT. ENROL. N.	out of 100 living
up to 6	—	6,645	—	—	—	—	—	—	6,645	—
6-7	859,000	860,407	—	—	—	—	—	—	860,407	100.16
7-8	855,000	852,784	—	—	—	—	—	—	852,784	99.74
8-9	822,000	820,907	—	—	—	—	—	—	820,907	99.87
9-10	824,000	813,893	—	—	—	—	—	—	813,893	98.77
10-11	812,000	755,156	45,497	—	—	—	—	—	800,653	98.60
11-12	814,000	291,274	452,908	—	—	—	—	—	844,182	91.42
12-13	803,000	138,005	538,927	1,332	20	14	155	4	678,457	84.49
13-14	776,000	51,847	488,828	3,275	7,061	5,060	18,147	359	574,577	74.56
14-15	774,000	8,030	198,886	27,652	77,959	46,908	70,736	3,688	433,859	56.05
15-16	784,000	2,500	70,057	38,883	96,538	54,797	64,655	5,156	332,586	42.42
16-17	827,000	—	20,548	40,610	101,450	51,961	57,597	5,956	272,167	32.91
17-18	830,000	—	5,355	27,019	97,974	40,896	50,302	5,533	227,079	27.36
18-19	885,000	—	1,970	15,262	92,445	23,514	37,029	4,134	174,354	19.70
19-20	879,000	—	862	6,818	60,585	12,130	14,733	2,603	97,771	11.12
20-21	883,000	—	376	2,654	32,603	5,817	6,001	1,386	48,838	5.53
21-22	698,000	—	260	1,071	13,955	2,289	1,707	680	19,962	2.86
22-23	723,000	—	211	745	7,280	1,093	538	314	10,181	1.41
23-24	741,000	—	200	572	4,349	677	200	187	6,185	0.83
older than 24 years	—	—	806	2,609	10,350	1,545	240	403	16,038	—
6-11	4,172,000	4,103,147	45,497	—	—	—	—	—	4,148,644	99.44
11-14	2,393,000	481,126	1,480,663	4,607	7,081	5,074	18,302	363	1,997,216	83.46
14-19	4,100,000	10,530	296,816	149,426	446,366	218,077	280,319	24,467	1,426,001	34.78

Table 2 - PUPILS' ENROLMENT IN PUBLIC AND PRIVATE SCHOOLS

	Public %	Private %
Primary	94.33	5.67
Middle	96.65	3.35
Secondary	84.85	15.15
University	92.60	7.40

	Male %	Female %
Secondary	63.30	36.70
University	62.97	37.03

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TABLE 3

YEARLY GRADUATION IN DIFFERENT
TYPES AND LEVELS OF SCHOOLS

(1967)

SCHOOLS	NUMBER OF GRADUATES	
	TOTAL	OUT OF 100 LIVING IN THE GROUP AGE
PRIMARY SCHOOL	744,600	91.3
MIDDLE SCHOOL	478,900	61.1
VOCATIONAL SCHOOL (2 years)	60,405	7.5
SECONDARY SCHOOLS (4-5 years)	164,800	18.7
Classical Lyceum	30,330	3.4
Scientific Lyceum	16,813	1.9
Primary Teachers Training School	33,462	3.8
Technical Institutes	82,583	9.4
Art School	1,648	0.2
UNIVERSITY	29,420	3.9
Sciences	4,665	0.62
Medicine	2,645	0.35
Engineering	3,284	0.44
Agronomy	601	0.08
Economics	4,314	0.58
Law - Political Sciences	5,508	0.73
Literature - Philosophy	7,446	0.99
Other	957	0.13

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EXAMPLES OF SECONDARY REORGANISATION IN EUROPE

by Susanne MOWAT
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One of the main purposes of an international workshop is to facilitate the sharing of experience on an international basis. Therefore it was not surprising that methods and plans for the restructuring of upper secondary education in Member countries other than Italy was a topic that received much attention at the Frascati Workshop. As experts from the various countries represented discussed their experience and their plans for the future it became obvious that similar problems and concerns faced all of them. Under these circumstances, the placing of Italian plans into an international context was a valuable exercise.

The following pages attempt to summarise the trends that emerged from the discussions and to present in detail some of the national plans that were discussed. It is not an exhaustive summary, either of upper secondary school reform in general or of the particular plans that were discussed in the workshop proceedings.

The overwhelming fact facing most educators is that more students are staying in school for a longer period of time. Partly this trend reflects economic necessity; partly it results from conscious government decision and partly from individual choice. In order to meet the demands of both students and society, educational systems are changing in structure and in curriculum. At the upper secondary level these changes manifest themselves in a number of ways. Differentiation or streaming, for example, takes place at a later stage; rather than being selected for a particular academic and therefore social future at (perhaps) age 11, students are receiving a common curriculum for a longer period of time. When it does occur differentiation tends to be more flexible with structures designed to permit lateral switching between programmes. Gradually the emphasis is moving away from 'selection' to 'options'.

At the same time curriculum is becoming less standardised, more responsive to local needs and to the individual needs of students. The concept of vocational training is changing; it starts later and at its most advanced stage tends to concentrate on fairly specific preparation for particular job opportunities. A vocational training programme may be incorporated into the curriculum as a lateral outlet that provides students with opportunities to re-enter the general stream at a later stage.

These developments are not taking place overnight, nor in the space of a year or two. The vast reallocations of human and financial resources involved require long-range planning and step-by-step implementation. Most of the current national developments discussed at the Frascati

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Workshop are extensions of reform movements which began at least 25 years ago. Especially when new plans represent a radical departure from the past, their implementation has to be a thoughtful and cautious process.

A clear difference in national style can be seen in the extent to which planning takes place on a national or central scale or the extent to which authority is decentralised. Of all the countries represented at the workshop, it is England which functions with the greatest local autonomy. Reorganisation of secondary schooling along comprehensive lines has been taking place since 1945. As local education authorities traditionally have been responsible for drawing up their own plans for reorganisation there is a great variety of structure among various authorities. (There is also a great variety of structure to be found within them where, for example, the existence of voluntary and grammar schools beyond the authority's control have made total abolition of selection impossible). The most common reorganisation scheme is 11 to 18 schools; many more recent plans propose middle school schemes, two-tier schemes[1] and sixth form colleges. Several combinations of different schemes have been developed to suit existing buildings and resources. Curriculum remains the responsibility of the individual headmaster.

Somerset is one County in England that is planning a post-16 college to replace the existing grammar and secondary modern schools by 1974. Under this scheme, which is presented in Fig.I, all students in the community will receive a common curriculum until they reach the age of 16, at which point all who wish to continue their education will enter a community "college". It is expected that about 50 per cent of the 16-year-old age group will become full-time students taking a one-year or two-year programme; about half of the other 50 per cent who take up employment at the age of 16 will become part-time students at the college on one or two-year programmes, perhaps studying one day a week. Adults already at work will also be able to take advantage of the part-time education facilities. The college will consist of about 1,000 full-time students and 2,000-3,000 part-time students thus enabling a full range of options to be presented. Courses to some extent will be determined by local needs.

The Scandinavian countries clearly show a pattern of long-term national planning directed from a central government source. Sweden in 1940 launched a ten-year investigation into what society and the individual required of a modern educational system. Ten years later the

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(1) The Leicestershire scheme indicates what is meant by "two-tier". In 1957 the authority proposed that all children should go to the same "high" school at 11 and at age 14 those whose parents wished them to do so could transfer to an "upper" school, provided they stayed there until 16 at least. Gradually this scheme was extended and in 1969 transfer to the upper school became automatic for all. The high schools therefore enjoyed the full range of pupils, graduate staff, and equipment better than that of their secondary modern days. Examination pressures were confined to the upper schools although these schools too have gradually become more comprehensive. Furthermore, the schools have remained small (500-600 students) and have been able to use the previously existing small buildings.

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Figure I

THE POST-16 COLLEGE

To higher education
or employment

18

30 %

17

College   20 %

16

Part-time students

To employment

Academic and
Vocational
Courses

50 %   to employment with or
                        without part-time education

Schools 11-16

Minimum entry
120 per annum
to each school

N.B. Age of transfer now
under review. Maybe
12 or even 13.

Schools 5-11   OR   7-11

5-7

10

Swedish Parliament decided that the traditional school system comprising
a six or seven-year elementary school followed by a large variety of
lower secondary schools should be replaced by a nine-year comprehensive
school comprising primary education during the six first years and a
lower secondary education for all during the last three years. Nation-
wide experiments on the functioning of this new school were started in
1950 and lasted until 1962, during which time more than half the nation
turned over to the new system.

In 1962 Parliament decided that the nine-year comprehensive school
(with some modifications of the tryout models) should be introduced all
over the nation during the 1960's. During this decade upper secondary
education was broadened to include different types of education and in
1969 Parliament decided that all vocational education would, from 1971,
be given within a comprehensive "gymnasium".

The gradual changes are shown in Fig.II which indicates the
relationships between different types of education and also rough
estimates of the total numbers of students that attend different types
of schools.

The 1945 diagram shows the old system with primary and secondary
schools partly parallel to each other and with very few students
receiving secondary education.

In 1955 the comprehensive school experiments had been conducted
for a few years. During this time students in grades 7-9 were
usually streamed into academic, pre-vocational or general
programmes. At the same time the building up of the vocational
school system was started on a broad scale and lasted until the
middle of the 1960's.

The 1965 diagram shows the results of a 1962 parliament decision
that grades 7 and 8 should be non-streamed. Differentiation thus
occurred when a student reached 15. Reformation of upper secondary
education began with the introduction of a new two-year gymnasium
("fackskola") and a new three-year gymnasium or four years for the
technical stream.

From 1970 the entire nine-year comprehensive school is non-streamed,
which means that pupils are not divided up according to their
electives. The different types of upper secondary schools ("gymnas-
ium", "fackskola" and vocational schools) are from 1971 coordinated
into a comprehensive gymnasium with 21 streams, within which
gradual differentiation takes place.

The general aim of the gymnasial school is to give the students
of the former vocational lines a much better basis for their future
profession and also to give them a chance to transfer from one stream
to another during their secondary education. Some of the 21 lines
within the new gymnasial school include 2-year courses in building and
construction, office work, economics, motor vehicle mechanics, agri-
culture, social sciences, technology, workshop mechanics or nursing;
3-year courses in economics, liberal arts, natural sciences, or civics;

Figure II
SWEDISH EDUCATIONAL REFORM

Age   Grade

20
19   13
18   12
17   11
16   10
15   9
14   8
13   7
12   6
11   5
10   4
9   3
8   2
7   1
6

1945   1955   1965   1970

───────── Compulsory-school leaving age

━ ━ ━ ━ ━ Level of organizational pupil diversification

Primary,
non-comprehensive
(«folkskola»)

Primary,
comprehensive
(«grundskola»)

Lower secondary,
non-comprehensive
(«realskola»)

Lower secondary,
comprehensive
(«grundskola»)

Upper secondary,
non-comprehensive

Upper secondary,
comprehensive from 1971,
including vocational education

Higher education

Pre-primary
education

12

4-year courses in technology. Some of these courses were formerly offered in the continuation school, while others (e.g. the 3 and 4-year courses) are of gymnasium origin.

The curriculum for the vocational sector is characterised by the concept of block training in which the vocational preparation of young people will be built up in stages from a broad basic introduction phase through gradually increasing specialisation. Occupations of similar type will be brought together in occupational "families". The base block will contain training useful to the entire family of occupations. In the next block, training will be differentiated to some extent according to requirements of the different occupations, and finally there will be a block with vocational training adequate for each specific occupation.

Vocational training will also include three general compulsory subjects: Swedish, civics and physical training. Students also may choose voluntarily another general subject from other lines of the gymnasial school. This choice would involve 3 hours weekly. In the second-year course, it is possible for students to exchange up to 12 hours weekly within the professional skill training section and choose among general subjects. This choice must be confirmed by the headmaster and must be of some value for the pupils' future profession.

Norway provides another example of how a school system has developed a new structure over a long period of time. In 1935 a law was introduced which divided the pupils into two different school systems after seven years of primary school. When they were fourteen one group went to the Realskole with the possibility of later study at the gymnasium. The other group went to the continuation school and received a more practical education designed for people going on to vocational schools. In 1955 a law was introduced which allowed communities, if they wished, to build common schools combining these two types. In the next five years many communities built common schools containing two very different tracks more or less equivalent to the previously existing Realskole and the continuation school.

In 1960 schools were rearranged so that the 7th grade became an orientation route for all students; the last two years were divided into two tracks, each containing many subjects. In 1964 tracking was abolished in the last two years and students followed a programme of core curriculum and electives through the 9th grade. In mathematics, Norwegian, English and German, however, a student could choose to study at one of three different levels and only the students who chose the most difficult level could enter the gymnasia. Since 1964 experiments have been conducted in individualised learning in these four subjects including self-instructional material and new teaching/learning systems. From 1968 schools could offer individualised instruction combined with a flexible teaching in Norwegian and mathematics. Therefore, the 9-year school can be made completely flexible when the system is fully developed.

The future pattern of the Norwegian school system will consist of a 6-year elementary school, a 3-year comprehensive junior high school and a 3-year senior high school. The senior high school has just begun to experiment with combined vocational and gymnasium training[1].

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(1) Plans for this project are discussed extensively in a background paper written for the Frascati Workshop, Petterson K. Fr., Education for the Age Group 16-19 years in Norway (CERI/EI/I/70.01). The following description borrows heavily from Mr. Petterson's material.

This combined school began with the appointment in 1965 of a Committee to evaluate the need for education and training of the 16-19 age group and to present a plan for the development of a school system that would offer students of this age group equal opportunities for their education and personality growth. It was the Committee's feeling that all students should have the opportunity to attend at least three years of upper secondary school; that the choice of an educational course should be free and transition from one course or study to another possible; that it must be possible to combine general education and vocational training and to provide supplementary training in those subjects where necessary. Furthermore it was felt that instruction must, as far as possible, be adapted to the individual's qualifications, abilities and interests.

The Committee therefore proposed that pupils who choose upper secondary schooling may choose between a one-year basic course (fundamental vocational training as well as some instruction in general subjects) and a two-year basic course (a nucleus of general subjects, with possibilities to add vocational subjects which over a period of two years would produce the same competence as the one-year basic vocational training course, or to add special subjects such as art or athletics, or to supplement extensively the general subjects). Pupils taking the one-year basic course should be able to apply for vocational training through a second or third year. Pupils from the two-year basic course should be able to apply for the same vocational training as pupils from the one-year basic course or for a third additional year of general subjects. Pupils who choose only general subjects in the two-year basic course and the third additional year will follow the new gymnasium structure with slight changes.

The Committee's model for the future upper secondary school system can be seen in Fig.III.

The National Council for Innovation in Education (NCIE) has planned experiments with the new school reform according to a time-schedule covering at least the next seven years. It is felt that institution of this new structure represents the greatest school reform in Norway in this century.

Another radical break from the past is represented in the plan recently published in Bildungsbericht 70, the report on education policy of the Federal Republic of Germany. As can be seen by comparing Fig.IV, which represents the existing structure, and Fig.V, the new plan calls for a lengthening of general education and a greater flexibility to allow individual needs of students to be met. An orientation phase in the first secondary level is followed by the introduction of some optional courses; the second secondary level includes core subjects, special subjects and optional courses as well as vocational branching.

Other national plans were presented to the workshop participants and it is unfortunate that space does not allow an exposition of them all. It is also unfortunate that exercises such as the Frascati Workshop do not take place more frequently. Judging from the similarity of the plans presented, it seems that a strengthening of the informal network of educators concerned with secondary school reform would be mutually beneficial.

Figure III
FRAMEWORK OF THE NORWEGIAN UPPER SECONDARY SCHOOL

Hours per week

One-year Basic Course

General subjects (Norwegian, social sciences,
maths., general science, English, physical
education) . . . .   approx. 10

Vocational subjects . . . .   26 - 28

36 - 38

Two-year Basic Course

Hours per week

Compulsory subjects (nucleus of subjects):	1st. yr.	2nd. yr.
Norwegian	4	4
Religion or philosophy	1	1
English	4	3
Social sciences	3	4
General sciences	2 (5)	3 (0)
Physical education	3	3
	17 (20)	18 (15)

Block of subjects (points out direction of
            studies)   9-13   8-13

Subjects as electives and for independent work
at school   6-10   5-10

36   36

Figure IV
EXISTING EDUCATIONAL STRUCTURE
IN THE FEDERAL REPUBLIC OF GERMANY

University

Teacher training college

Other instit. for higher educ.

d

Higher vocational college

b

Vocational education

b

Post appr. ship schools

d

b

Second educ. chance or option

d
13

c

High vocat. school

c

Secondary technical college

b

12

Gymnasium

b

Vocational school

11

b

10th class

Vocational school

Vocational school

Part-time (2-3 years)

10

b

a

9

Middle school

8

Hauptschule (advanced or continued primary school)

7

6

5

Trial stage

Orientation stage

Observation stage

4

3

2

PRIMARY SCHOOL

1

Kindergarden

a. final Hauptschule exam;
b. final exam equivalent to middle school;
c. qualification equivalent to enter higher vocational college;
d. university entrance qualification.

Figure V

EDUCATION STRUCTURE FOR THE FUTURE
IN THE FEDERAL REPUBLIC OF GERMANY

Further education

Comprehensive University

Special
post-secondary
vocational schools

b
(13)
12   Core subjects, special subject and optional courses

Practical
vocational
training

SECONDARY LEVEL II
Including vocational training

11

a
10   Core subjects, special subject and optional courses

9

8   SECONDARY LEVEL I

7

6

5   Orientation phase

4

3

2   PRIMARY LEVEL

1

Schoolyear

Kindergarden and Preschool

Qualifications :   a = Abitur I   b = Abitur II
                       [(GCE) o-level]   [(GCE)-A level]

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REPORTS OF THE SMALL WORKING GROUPS

GROUP 1: OBJECTIVES OF THE NEW SECONDARY SCHOOL

A.   <u>Secondary education as a stage complete in itself, contrasted with
the propaedeutic function</u> (i.e. preparation for further study and voca-
tional training). It was agreed that in general too much importance is
given to the preparatory function of higher secondary education. In
Italy until now, too much importance has been given to literary rather
than to other studies. Even the sciences, to which not enough time has
been devoted anyway, have suffered from a method of teaching which is
more descriptive than experimental. There are few indications of the
value of the methods used at present. We feel authorised to hypothesise
that a scientific and technical training based on practical experiment,
which does not necessarily coincide with the traditional scientific
subjects of study, but which is extended to include the social sciences
and the humanities, could be extremely effective.

        As regards the requirements of vocational preparation, there was
general agreement that the senior secondary school could be given the
responsibility for general training which, together with a well-planned
system of options, would guarantee a readiness for vocational special-
isation. Such emphasis on general training is not a matter of principle,
but corresponds to the present and increasingly widening tendency for
education to give more importance to cultural preparation than to spec-
ific training for industry.

        This theory is upheld by all indications coming from the techno-
logically advanced societies. However, it must not be forgotten that,
although industrial demands must be satisfied, the primary goal of edu-
cation is to form a self-sufficient personality capable of contributing
effectively and decisively to his society.

B.   <u>Functions and objectives of vocational training</u>. A level of general
education which for the moment is completed at the age of 16, after 10
years of compulsory schooling, is a precondition of vocational training
in the proposed unified secondary school. A student could begin voca-
tional training, therefore, either after two years or after four years
of secondary education, according to whether or not compulsory education
is extended until the age of 18. Should the age of starting school be
lowered to 5 years of age, the number of years of schooling and the age
limit for the beginning of professional training remain unchanged.

        In the future, vocational training must consist of a wide diversity
of choice of study material and subject matter. All this will be offered
outside the basic scholastic curriculum, but should be organised within
the particular geographic area by authorities, including representatives
of local government, labour and industry.

The school should make full use of its existing resources and equipment.

C.   Equality of opportunity. As far as equality of opportunity is concerned, one must point out the necessity of achieving this goal by endeavouring to provide:

(a) an adequate distribution of schools;

(b) economic assistance to pupils and their families;

(c) provision of the necessary infrastructure;

(d) use of every means at hand to overcome deficiencies caused by environmental conditioning.

D.   Individualisation. From the instructional point of view the problem is extremely complex, but not impossible.   There was general agreement upon the following points:

(a) usefulness of work in small groups guided by student teachers;

(b) remedial education, especially for the basic skills, where necessary;

(c) use of new techniques and methods of learning and quality control (including programmed instruction, teaching machines, etc.);

(d) experiments of teachers teaching each other and of encouragement of self-assessment. It is necessary, however, that the problem of teachers' preparation and keeping up to date should be faced seriously.

E.   Freedom of choice of content and method of learning. It is advisable that the pupil proceeds from group work to individual study according to his age and experience. This gradual process should take into account both the practical behaviour but also the intellectual behaviour of the student. The difficulties of such a procedure are notable: psychological difficulties inherent in the developing child and difficulties inherent to the paternalistic attitudes which have prevailed until now in education. In this sector noteworthy experiments in democratisation are being made possible and carried out even if first examples have been ineffective.

GROUP 2: RELATIONSHIPS TO OTHER EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS

The first problem considered was that of deciding the optimum age for university entrance. Psychological, pedagogical, sociological and economic arguments lead to the recommendation that preparatory studies should end at the age of 18, quite apart from the question of beginning elementary schooling at age 5. Fixing the elementary schooling from 5-10 years would help to eliminate a certain scholastic discrimination which takes place in the pre-school years and has lasting adverse consequences of disorientation. (Research and experiments in Italy as well as elsewhere bear out this theory of discrimination and disorientation).

This change in the age of school attendance from 5 to 18 years requires a change in teaching methods which, together with the earlier maturity of pupils, generally existing today, should lead to a reduction in the age at which the student finishes high school.

The group also agreed that lowering the university entrance age to 18 years cannot be achieved immediately without the danger of a breakdown of the university system. Following the experience of the German Federal Republic, the following possibility was considered, namely the introduction of special courses allowing for greater flexibility in the duration of the high school studies. These courses could be given without provoking undue social as opposed to intellectual discrimination because they would lack traditionalism and would be independent from the normal curriculum. Large groups would be given to technical, social and economic subjects.

As regards the relationship of the new secondary school to the university, it seems advisable that the university itself be able to provide two or three-year programmes leading to more practical qualifications than those of the present degree programmes, but which would permit continuation of higher studies.

As regards free access to the university by any student who has completed a five-year course in a secondary school, no matter what type it may be, it was clearly affirmed that the present regulation regarding unqualified admission to any department cannot necessarily be considered feasible for the future. (This does not mean that the value of the innovation which took place in the present situation is not recognised). In the future it would seem wise to suggest a single high school diploma with 6 or 7 streams or branches of study which could be connected to the options taken in the course of high school study and which would permit free access to a faculty of the university corresponding to these branches of study. For other institutes, faculties, or degree courses, the student should be admitted on a 6-month trial period in which special preparatory courses are given as already provided for in the existing draft law approved by the Education Committee of the Senate. This law provides for compulsory examination at the end of said courses.

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With regard to the final examinations (esame di maturità) of the secondary schools, general dissatisfaction was expressed with the present form (experimental). It was emphasised that the examination should refer specifically to the optional subjects chosen in the new type of secondary school and that it should include questions of a general and interdisciplinary nature. This would provide a comprehensive evaluation including a judgement on the basic subjects common to all pupils graduating from that particular school.

Two plans were submitted with regard to remedial education and for reorientation. The first is a "vertical" plan and concerns those students who have not followed a normal course of study because they ha dropped out or for some other reason, and who wish to catch up with their studies. The second, "horizontal" plan is for reorientation and concerns those students who have requested to change their field of study or to enter another course. It is necessary to distinguish between the terms "permanent education" (educazione permanente) and "recurrent education" (educazione ricorrente). The former is more vague and includes non-school forms of instruction and sources of information such as mass media, etc. The latter involves a periodic return to institutionalised education. These refresher courses are essential today because of the rapid obsolescence of technical and scientific knowledge.

According to this way of thinking, it was strongly reaffirmed that all men, from the most skilled to the least skilled (and particularly the latter) have an inalienable right to the same amount of organised education throughout their lives. As continuing education obviously concerns mainly adults and workers, it is to be hoped that the problem will be studied at the political and trade union levels (government, union, industry) before the scholastic level. A law is considered necessary whereby the financial burden of such instruction should be borne by the community and whereby an adult worker temporarily on leave in order to study or retrain should continue to receive his full salary.

The firm should be obliged to retain the employee's place for his return and to contribute to the financial costs of his study, in the same way as it does for social security.

The problem of the training of teachers for this specific task of adult education (this applies particularly to teachers of scientific and technical subjects) must be given the most profound attention. It has been suggested that public and private industry should grant leave to enable their executives and technicians to attend university seminars giving the necessary teachers' training in view of their possible collaboration in continuing education to which their contribution could be invaluable.

The necessity for a teaching system which, by avoiding horizontal "breaks" or "divisions" corresponding to traditional scholastic levels, would assure a continuity between elementary and secondary schools was pointed out. This teaching system would be appropriate to the degree of psychological development of its students with balanced programmes avoiding harmful emphasis on particular types of education of the sort which are traditional in the Italian schools.

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The central administrative structure of the school with its "vertical" divisions completely independent of one another (elementary, middle and upper schools) and "horizontal" compartments (classical,technical, vocational and artistic) should be replaced by departments responsible for the various general problems of the scholastic development. The delegates from Berlin and Sweden contributed valuable information to this discussion.

Relating to evaluation or "grades" (paper presented by Professor Visalberghi), the Italian educational system's serious lack of preparation on this subject was noted. Teaching staff lack knowledge of evaluation procedures and preparation in psychology; there is no practice of objective evaluation and joint discussion of programmes and pupils' level of achievement, apart from recent experiments with teachers' meetings in the middle schools. At the present stage, however, the evaluations made are more or less subjective and intuitive. The group unanimously agreed that the following steps should be adopted:

(a) the establishing of a central office dealing with evaluation,

(b) adequate educational research on this subject,

(c) the establishing of departments of educational science as part of the future university reforms,

(d) preparation and training of teachers in this specific field,

(e) an efficient medical-psychological service for guidance in each school.

The group emphasised that work leading to the solution of scholastic problems related to evaluation and grading is urgent and necessary even before any action may be taken on reforming the secondary schools. A sound solution to the former problem could contribute positively to a solution to the latter.

GROUP 3: PROGRAMMES, CURRICULA, DIFFERENTIATION

In accordance with the general guidelines approved by the plenary session, the Group began by discussing points (d) and (e) of the Topics for Discussion indicated, i.e. the steps to be taken for the carrying out of the proposed curriculum reform and the possible stages of development for the realisation of this reform in a new comprehensive secondary school.

However, it soon became necessary to refer back to points (a), (b) and (c) which appeared to be crucial, i.e. to define the role and the relationship respectively between the common core curriculum and the group of possible options, and how differentiation would arise and develop from this relationship.

Agreement was reached on a statement of principle that all pupils should receive a common core of instruction, especially in the first phase of the curriculum, i.e. the orientation phase of 1 or 2 years. There was no disagreement on the proposal that differentiation should be increased gradually.

Basically, the assumptions which emerged can be reduced to two general points:

(a) A group of common subjects and activities (common core) and a group of optional subjects and activities, plus a certain amount of time to be made available in the school timetable (as well as the necessary equipment, resources and staff) for activities, to be freely chosen on the students' own initiatives, independently of the streams that they are following.

The common core can be fixed according to either (i) content considered essential for all students or (ii) on the basis of a central axis of the "formal preparation" type (that is, of subjects which may be preliminary instruments for other subjects, e.g. logic, mathematics, theoretical and practical technology).

Options, according to the various views expressed, may be disciplines or activities not contemplated in the core, or may be more advanced studies, for example where a basic level is provided for all disciplines and for all pupils, and at least two advanced courses can be followed (only one in the final year).

(b) After a period of common studies, in which all pupils are taught in all fields, which is mainly a period of orientation (six months or a year), the pupil chooses among various "constellations", in which 4 or 5 types of courses already discussed in the plenary sessions (linguistic, social, artistic, scientific, and/or technological) are all present but with different emphases.

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At this point the group agreed not to speak of "subjects" or "subject-matters" in order to avoid using old terminology which might compromise the need for radical innovation in curriculum, but rather of "fields" or related groups of disciplines, open to different inter-disciplinary combinations.

The majority of the group, although appreciating and approving the desire for radical reform underlying hypothesis (b), which would certainly merit a trial, preferred hypothesis (a), or rather the various alternatives possible within the framework of hypothesis (a).

Whatever the solution or solutions adopted in the future, certain pre-conditions appear necessary, without which any change in the curriculum might well remain academic.

(1) The new school should be full time, and should unite all the various internal arrangements under one roof.

(2) The abolition of the rigid separation into classes and years by adopting systems along the lines of non-graded instruction.

(3) The endeavour to secure the maximum degree of individualisation both in instructional procedures and in the orientation of choices which should be as flexible as possible.

(4) Maximum flexibility in the individual and general curriculum with maximum freedom for teachers and students.

(5) Maximum switching possible between options.

(6) Maximum indicative approach in general instruction in order to eliminate wherever possible the separation between "subjects" and fields and the consequent arbitrary fixation of opinions as to content and methodology.

Finally, as regards stages and levels of execution, the group preferred to indicate only certain measures which should be taken prior to the reform or simultaneously with the first phase of its execution.

(a) Revision of the curriculum of the Middle School (Scuola Media) and in particular the abolition of the teaching of Latin in any form.

(b) Institution of an immediate general building programme on comprehensive lines.

(c) Experimentation for one or two years with a range of possible solutions to be guided by a special institute (to be set up) for school experimentation, which would co-ordinate and promote combined actions of university research, of teachers and of the administration.

(d) Preliminary retraining of teachers for their new tasks and the immediate institution of team-teaching, of psychological observation and guidance services, new forms of teacher-pupil relationships, etc.

(e) Control of education to be removed from the central Ministry of Public Instruction and to be given to the organisations to be set up as under (c).

GROUP 4:   TRAINING AND RETRAINING OF SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHERS

The Group dealt with the following themes:

(a) how teachers already in schools should be retrained;

(b) how to train new teachers for the secondary schools of tomorrow.

With regard to the first problem, the Group made the following recommendations:

(1) That the new legal status of secondary school teachers should provide for differentiation of functions (e.g. teaching, guid-ance, organisation, assistance, etc.) and mobility between them in relation to the future comprehensive community school.

(2) That encouragement should be given to the institution of per-manent regional centres for in-service teacher-training.

 (i) These centres should be established with the co-operation of the universities and of the existing administrative and professional organisations, especially as regards their organisation.

 (ii) They should promote the retraining of teachers, even those belonging to different grades of instruction, corresponding to reasonably sized areas, developing methods based on the active exchange of practical experience, and avoiding the academic forms of the traditional lecture, and promoting scientific study of problems, practical experimentation and the verification of methods. Such educational research will be supported by a National Institute for Educational Research and by local University Departments of Pedagogy.

 (iii) The centres must be granted complete autonomy and indepen-dence and should be managed by the teachers themselves, in conjunction with experts and the school administration. For this purpose, it is recommended that there should be a reform in the school administration to permit self-government and participation of representatives of local administration, parents, labour, etc.

(3) Visits of representatives of the administration and of leading teachers to foreign countries should be organised in order that they become acquainted with foreign experience in school reform.

As regards the second problem, the Group consider that:

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(1) The professional training of primary school teachers should come after they have completed their secondary studies and should consist of a two-year University course in the educational sciences and a semester of practice-teaching in schools.

(2) The training of secondary teachers should take place after the university degree course, in the form of an additional year devoted to the study of education and a semester of teaching practice.

(3) University courses and particularly those devoted to teacher training should develop research and study groups, should abandon academic and authoritarian methods, and should develop co-operation with serving teachers and the professional organisations concerned.

GROUP 5: THE STRATEGY AND MECHANISMS FOR CHANGE

The fifth work group was instructed to study strategies and mechanisms needed to bring about the change in existing school structures. This Group noted in the first place the great difficulty of bringing about innovations on a vast scale in Italian schools at any level in view of the rigidity of the Italian legal and administrative structures. After a lengthy and profitable discussion, the Group formulated a model for decentralisation of decision-making and of educational experimentation which to some extent takes account of Italy's administrative structures, but above all of the prevailing tendencies to modify them.

In school, teachers should be concerned not only with teaching, but also with other research and experimental activities. In addition to the teachers there should be an expert responsible for promoting change in conjunction with other schools and research centres.

At provincial level, an "Innovation Office" should promote "qualitative" programming, that is should be concerned with teaching methods and instruments, and should transmit the results of the various experiments to a regional co-ordination and programming service. The regional services in turn would report to a central office for the co-ordination of all national educational activities, including the creation of new types of school. Furthermore, this office would be responsible for documentation and information activities. All ministries concerned with education problems and Parliament itself would refer to this office.

Apart from this central office, there should be an office responsible for studying possible alternatives for the future, based on experiments carried out.

Parallel to this organisation there should be provincial research centres responsible for studying, in conjunction with the universities (or within them), problems arising from activities in education, and to inform the experts of the results achieved. The publishing world could play its part in this scheme by preparing the necessary learning materials.

The following diagram was proposed for discussion:

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        OFFICE FOR
      FUTURE ACTIVITIES


   M 2      M 1      MINISTRY      M 3      M 4


              INNOVATION OFFICE                    INRP


  REGION    SERVICE FOR REGIONAL              U
            CO-ORDINATION OF INNOVATIONS
                                                          E

  LOCAL        SERVICE FOR INNOVATIONS         R


  TEACHERS        SCHOOL      INNOVATION
                              CENTRE
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M = Project   R = Research Centre
U = University   E = Industry (Publishing, etc.)
    INRP = National Institute for Pedagogic Research

Obviously, these regional or provincial services would have to be
disengaged from bureaucratic organisations and entrusted to committees
representing the various local communities and groups concerned with
school life.

In order that this scheme may be put into effect, it seems necess-
ary to undertake a large-scale training and retraining activity for
teaching and administrative staff and for researchers, by involving
them in the processes required for the transformation and by making them
aware of the significance of the transformations themselves.

For this purpose it would be possible to use the method of Indivi-
dualised Prescribed Instruction, IPI, (Research for Better Schools,Inc.
(RBS), Philadelphia) starting from one or more central units from which
clusters of other units would spread out, according to the following
diagram:

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                        University

          2              2              2

     3    3    3      O  O  O       O  O  O

   4 4 4   O O O
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Both these models might be tested in various ways in 3 or 4 regions during a given period of time and in relation to a particular sector of the school system, possibly the first two-year course of the Senior Secondary School.

As an alternative to these models, consideration might be given to the method of pioject programming at present under study at the ISPE.

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TEN POINTS OF CONCLUSION ADOPTED BY THE WORKSHOP

At the conclusion of the international Workshop, after examining and discussing the documents prepared by the various small groups, the participants indicate in the following ten points the broad lines for the gradual restructuring of education at senior secondary level which they consider most appropriate to meet educational, social and economic needs of the Italian nation, within a framework of similar developments throughout Europe.

1. The senior secondary school should consist of a unitary structure, within which would exist some·common subjects or activities, some optional ones and some elective (1), so as to permit a gradual educational orientation in specific directions. The common pedagogical axis ensures, in a flexible form, an education in the linguistic, logical and mathematical fields, and in the technological and scientific ones, and a critical introduction to historical and social problems. The individual choices integrate it without creating water-tight compartments.

2. The senior secondary school leads, after a five-year course, to a single final certificate or diploma, in which the educational stream followed is stated.

3. After an initial period of common instruction likely to develop the pupil and to determine his individual aptitudes and interests, differentiation is achieved in such a way as to encourage common activities and exchange of experience between pupils in different streams or tracks throughout the whole secondary course. Thus every secondary school should offer its pupils the opportunity to choose between all the curricula provided. These might be broadly classified as literary-linguistic, social studies, scientific, technological and artistic.

4. Secondary studies are not themselves of a vocational nature. The school offers the opportunity for pre-vocational training at various levels and allows lateral outlets. Vocational training proper takes place after these outlets (not earlier than the third year of study) and is the responsibility of the regional authorities or of private initiatives co-ordinated by the latter, in which professional and trade union associations also co-operate. Higher technical and vocational training takes place within the scope of the university, or in any case at university level, through two or three-year courses, all of which give access to further university studies on higher degree programmes.

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(1) The distinction is between courses which are parallel (optional choices) and elective extras.

5. The comprehensive senior secondary school is located and is of such a size as to meet the educational requirements of a definite school district. It will have to be free and fully allow the right to access without any discrimination. Free transport services and/or accommodation should make full-time attendance possible. In addition, it should be a centre for permanent or continuing education and for this purpose organise evening courses and correspondence courses, if necessary supplemented by the use of appropriate instructional technology. The right to benefit from continuing education in its various forms is guaranteed by law. The school and its facilities are at the disposal of the students for their own voluntary activities and of the community as a whole for cultural activities.

6. The gradual orientation of the pupils is made more effective by guidance and counselling services inside the school itself, in which all teachers co-operate. The effectiveness of each institution's teaching methods will be tested by regular national surveys, using modern methods. The methodical holding of such surveys or assessments will make it possible to accredit the school to make a final opinion on the fitness of its pupils, which would be valid for university entrance.

7. Students should complete the senior secondary school by the 18th year of age. For this purpose to be attained gradually by flexible procedures, it will be necessary to provide for improvement in instruction, by means of individualised teaching, the use of modern technologies of instruction and evaluation, and the stimulation of creative capacities; as well as by the reducing of negative environmental conditioning. For this purpose, compulsory schooling should begin at 5 years of age rather than 6, which would imply retraining primary school teachers for the new and delicate tasks involved. The school-leaving age should be raised immediately to 15 and subsequently to 16.

8. The training and retraining of teachers should be achieved by means of a basic programme for which the universities and appropriate regional organisations would be responsible. All future teachers will be trained in the universities, receiving thorough scientific training as well as completing appropriate practice-teaching aiming at degree level for all. This will make possible a substantial degree of unification of primary and secondary (middle) schools and a smooth transition to the senior secondary school.

9. School government must be democratic, with self-management co-ordinated at the level of the commune, the province, and the region and open to the participation of students and their families, and organised civil society. At the national level, the broad lines of the programmes and the inspection of experiments are the responsibility of a mixed body consisting of Members of Parliament and educational experts nominated by the latter. A National Institute of Educational Research is responsible for inspection and scientific experimentation and will avail itself of university co-operation at regional and local levels.

6.

10. The new higher secondary school should be brought into operation by carefully planned successive stages, with particular regard to an organic plan for school building, planned from the beginning along the principles of comprehensive schooling and of the concept of a self-sufficing school district, and by means of a continuous process of experimentation and innovation, such as to draw the maximum advantages from the structural flexibility which should be permanently guaranteed to the new institution by the law.

A PERSONAL COMMENT

by

Stuart MACLURE, Editor,
The Times Educational Supplement

To a foreign participant the Frascati Workshop was a strange, sometimes frustrating, yet ultimately impressive affair.

It was strange because for much of the time - especially during the plenary sessions - the visitors from outside Italy were mildly baffled by what was going on. Few of them were closely acquainted with the Italian educational scene before they came. Each knew enough about comparative education to know its first principle - that education is intimately connected with the total social circumstances in which it takes place. For the foreign visitors, then, the workshop was as much a learning experience as an occasion for the sharing of expertise. Expert knowledge at an elevated level of generalisation was of limited value. What was needed was the testing of experience gleaned elsewhere in different conditions against the facts of the Italian situation (which themselves had to be established) - an unremitting search for those aspects of the international experience which were relevant in the Italian setting.

This was what the international part of the workshop was all about, and for much of the time communications were imperfect. It is no criticism of the indefatigable simultaneous translators to say that there were periods when a foreign participant might wait for a long time on the threshold of comprehension without actually crossing over and entering fully into a real understanding of what was being said. There were those (among the translators) who were prepared to put some of the blame for this on the complexities and the richness of the Italian language; others blamed the banalities of educational jargon which is unique among specialised languages in being designed to make communication not more precise but less; yet others suggested that there were times when the obscurity of the translation reflected obscurities in the discussion among the Italian members of the workshop - who understood each other well enough to read between the lines.

To add to this there were the moments when national traditions and temperaments collided. The OECD contribution tended to reflect a certain briskness and brashness which could be loosely linked with Scandinavia and Northern Europe. The Italian representatives observed this with tolerance and good humour - fascinated, it may be, by the administrative patterns expounded, and the administrative styles which went with them, yet determined to maintain their own tempo and their own cultural mores. It may be thought frivolous to start on this note. Yet it was everyone's effort to penetrate the barriers of language, temperament and culture,

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which made the workshop a genuine international occasion. This was the impressive side of it: when, mainly in the small group discussions and the social contacts which a residential meeting made possible, the mists of obscurity began to clear and the workshop came into its own, sorting out the multiplicity of ideas into some order, and formulating a series of conclusions and recommendations.

The cultural clash helped to crystalise ideas. The discussion was led away from abstract philosophical disputation to practical matters - the nuts and bolts of educational reform. Attention was concentrated on the alternative models for the superior secondary schools, and in particular for the first biennium. The models provided shorthand comments on the philosophy: they represented an attempt to build on what appeared to be some kind of consensus as to the possible next steps in Italian educational reform. Not everyone present was happy with this technique.

On the whole those who opposed a move towards a more comprehensive or unified secondary system forebore to say so straight out. This seemed strange to the outsiders present. In England, for example any representative group of educators meeting to discuss the reorganisation of secondary education would be likely to have some fairly eloquent defenders of the <u>status quo</u>. But the absence of direct and open opposition to the next stage in Italian educational reform meant that many of the doubts which some felt about the projected models for reform were expressed indirectly, in a desire to talk about - say - the philosophical and cultural basis of secondary education which could be said to be a proper prior consideration to any discussion of any particular organisational model.

This was the key to the first day's plenary sessions, obscure as these seemed at times to those outside Italian educational circles. Large questions were being raised which were not answered. What should be the common core of Italian culture which should provide the basis of a unified secondary education? Implicit in some of the doubts expressed (or unexpressed) about the idea of a unified system, was an inclination to regard the high prestige curricula of the existing general secondary schools - the lyceums through which all or most of those present at the conference had themselves passed - as the core of secondary education <u>per se</u>. They had many criticisms to voice on methods of approach and points of detail but, for them, the process of secondary education, as a link between primary education below and university education above, was the initiation into a common cultural heritage, a set of common languages, verbal and numerical, artistic, historical and philosophical; an idea aimed at producing the cultured and cultivated Italian citizen, noble in itself, but raising all the fundamental questions about the nature of social and cultural values, and the relationship between culture (elite or otherwise) and society as a whole.

Here the unspoken question was still whether there can, either in theory or in practice really be a common core curriculum which at the same time takes due account of individual difference among pupils of the whole range of intellectual ability and social background, and yet also provides a genuine initiation into the Italian cultural heritage.

This question was never fully confronted, and the inevitable vagueness with which the common core curriculum tends to be discussed shrouds a profound ambiguity on this issue. Some would say - and have gone to great lengths to demonstrate - that a true common core can be created

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which is flexible enough to allow for the differences of learning pace and of motivation among children whose capabilities and interests vary widely. They would argue for the common school and the unified curriculum as the instrument for achieving a less divided community as well as for widening educational opportunity.

Others would argue for the common school on exactly opposite arguments. They would start by recognising the pluralistic nature of the cultural heritage, and the pluralistic values which the schools must increasingly re-elect. They would see the common core curriculum and the common cultural heritage as a chimera serving only to mislead and distract the schools from what should be their larger aims: the matching of individual educational opportunity to individual need. They would argue that the broadly historical basis of many educational traditions must be undermined by what Professor J.H. Plumb has called "the death of the past" - the de-mythologising of national history, the liberation of historiography from its more obvious dependence on cultural tradition; the end of history's role as the handmaid of national self-consciousness and cultural imperialism.

On this hypothesis, too, the likely introduction of the social sciences into the secondary school curriculum will have the same effect of undermining the idea of the single, unifying, cultural concept, and substituting for it a battery of competing curricular themes, all influenced by the pluralism reigning in society beyond the classroom. Discovery methods, learning through experience, integrated studies - all these fashionable ingredients of progressive education pre-suppose a combination of individual goals and objectives - some of them, it may be, in conflict with each other - matching the multiple goals of education in general.

All these conflicting views were latent in the discussion, but usually were only indirectly expressed. This is important in connection with the recommendations of Group 3 (see page 54) where two alternative curricular designs are presented. It must also influence any consideration of the merits of a comprehensive system compared with those of a polyvalent scheme of organisation. According to what philosophical, cultural - and it should be added, sociological - premises you intend to build your reformed secondary system on will depend whether you envisage the unified school as a single community sharing a common curriculum (with an increasing number of elective subjects and options as the pupil progresses through the school) or as an institution or group of institutions combining a series of largely separate courses corresponding more or less with the present divisions.

Paradoxically, it will be those who have the clearest idea of the lineaments of the Italian high cultural tradition who are most likely to want the latter (or polyvalent) solution, while those whose conception of the common core is most vague or sceptical who will, all the same, insist most strongly on the former or comprehensive model, for compelling social reasons.

This is not a controversy which can be resolved by any appeal to authority - the evidence is, by its nature, not such that educational research can relieve individual educators or individual citizens of their own responsibilities of judgement. Where good men continue to differ, progress can only be on the basis of compromise. Tacitly, this

was what the workshop concluded; it is a compromise which emerges from the resolutions and group reports. The biennium would have to be an analgam between the common core and the principle of progressive differentiation. There will be endless argument about how much differentiation is acceptable, how soon, and how much the differentiation should be by the choice of optional extras or by the choice between curricular alternatives which automatically sets up critical periods of decision-making where the road forks and children begin to be sorted out according to their unequal talents.

Within the terms adopted in the resolution there ould be a wide variation in form and content, possibly necessary to take account of regional as well as ideological differences. The critical questions arise, as could have been predicted, over vocational studies and the extent to which a future unified structure should include among its "sides", "tracks" or "streams" courses corresponding to those now offered in the vocational schools.

The view which prevailed at the workshop (and which is reflected in the recommendations and the small group reports) was that vocational education should follow the main secondary school course and be provided under different auspices from those responsible for schools. On this reading of the educational scene, the schools should draw from the tradition of vocational education its understanding of handicrafts and practical work, and these should become a part of general education, but should recognise that, as recommendation number 4 puts it, "secondary studies are not of themselves of a vocational nature". This assumes that secondary education to 16 should be a "precondition of vocational training" (Group I) and envisages it as taking place "outside the basic scholastic curriculum ... organised ... by authorities including representatives of local government, labour and industry".

All this, of course, implies a major change which would demand consequential adjustments on the part of industry. Much time was devoted to discussing this, and as a foreign observer, one had the feeling that only the angels were represented in the discussion which might have been modified somewhat had the powers of darkness been more in evidence. But this was perfectly understandable and does not invalidate the point which the educators were making.

A caveat, however, was entered with some force by Professor A. Prost, one of the French experts who pointed out the high motivation which vocational studies can draw upon. France like Italy has had highly developed vocational studies and on the basis of French experience he argued for the integration of vocational studies within a unified secondary system rather than the stipulation on grounds of principle that all vocational studies must be postponed till 16 plus.

This was not a view which commanded much support, though it was widely recognised that till the school leaving age was raised by law, schools would have to offer courses which were attractive enough to pupils and parents to persuade them to stay on at school voluntarily. The prospect of vocational courses with a direct utilitarian value in employment appeal to many potential school-leavers as the figures for the growth of the vocational schools show. To ignore this and exclude vocational studies without a general overhaul of vocational training would be to invite other bodies, public and private, to compete for the

full-time attendance of 15 and 16 year olds at trade schools, outside the main education system.

This seemed a real enough danger, but one to be met if necessary by changes in organisation and by the payment of grants to encourage pupils from poor homes to stay on at school. Much of the discussion on this and related issues suffered from diffuseness and from a lack of background information about juvenile employment (and unemployment) and the true level of earnings foregone by youngsters staying on at school. What was quite clear was that in its present form, the vocational school is manifestly incompatible with unified secondary education and that the way in which vocational studies - in some modified form - are incorporated in the new comprehensive school will be of critical importance to its success.

One proposition which seemed to collect almost universal support at the Frascati meeting was that differentiation in the middle school would be unacceptable, given the concept of a unified biennium from 14 to 16. In particular this implied the abolition of Latin in the middle school with its powerful sociological and academic function as an academic selector holding high prestige for middle class parents. More than this, it implied that the completion of the middle school reform was in itself, a prerequisite of the reformed secondary school, with an end to the widespread repeating which now keeps many pupils in the middle school during their fifteenth year. There was some discussion about the validity of the middle school leaving certificate, and some pertinent questions were asked as to whether a middle school leaving certificate would be required at all, if all pupils were to transfer automatically to the superior secondary school. This, of course, is tied up with the leaving age, and the various reasons of a legal or administrative nature why teenagers may be required to produce a certificate for employment or for other purposes. It seemed that there were those who were less than convinced that this dependence on certificates of doubtful value was necessary, and reference was made to parliamentary attempts to strip examination certificates of their legal significance.

Clearly what can and cannot be done depends on the national attitude towards examinations. But no one can mistake the unsatisfactory nature of the present situation, or doubt that the middle school leaving certificate examination exercises a malign influence on the reform of secondary education. As one of the small groups concluded, there are other ways of monitoring the quality of the education offered by the middle schools than by the operation of a pass-fail leaving examination whose importance is enhanced by the administrative uses to which it is put.

At the heart of the discussion of the secondary school curriculum was the idea of the single school, five years successful attendance at which would qualify a boy or girl for university entrance, irrespective of which kind of course had been taken. Here again the influence of recent radical legislation was obvious, together with all the consequential uncertainty about university reform. The attempt to ensure "parity of esteem" between different "sides" of the unified secondary school by granting open entry to higher education to all who get a secondary school certificate, is both bold and ingenious, provided that the resulting disparity of standards among candidates for university education does not discredit the whole approach.

This was one of the considerations which caused the workshop to revert from time to time to the topic of remedial education and recurrent education - the first as a means of enabling pupils to catch up lost ground in basic subjects, the second, as a gesture to those who develop late, having dropped out into employment before completion of the secondary course. It was assumed that this work of recurrent education was a job for the schools in the evening or by correspondence, not for specially created institutions for "further" education. It seemed that one obvious need was to prune the courses which late developers had to follow of all inessential elements, and to tailor courses specially for their needs, limiting the course material strictly to what is relevant and required. The advantage of making the school sensitive to the needs of those who have only discovered their educational interests after reaching mature years is obvious. But nothing should conceal the fact that the teaching methods and social atmosphere appropriate for the older age-groups in recurrent education will be totally different from those normally prevailing in the school, and that the mature student, picking up lost threads, needs to be considered in his own right, not as a superannuated schoolboy.

Much of the discussion on the links between secondary and higher education concentrated on the age of transfer, it being widely thought that there would be merit in completing the secondary course at 18 instead of 19. This sparked off the inevitable debate on over-crowded syllabuses and what to leave out. The technical difficulties were enormous - so great, in fact, that it was plain that if left for decision at a purely technical level, nothing would happen. Some interest attached to a study of ways in which there could be alternative outlets from the secondary school, some at 18, others at 19, all leading on to further studies.

For some members of the workshop these ideas were linked with an earlier school starting age - 5 instead of 6. It was forcibly argued from Sweden that the two questions were entirely separate. In Sweden, where the school starting age is seven, it is claimed that the secondary school leaving age does not need to be correspondingly delayed, and that achievements in early adolescence do not reflect differences in school starting age.

Against this, the English experience (where the starting age is five) shows that pupils' performance at 11 is directly related to the number of terms of primary education they have received. This, of course, does nothing to confirm or dispute the suggestion that an earlier starting age could be linked with an earlier age for finishing secondary education, but it may suggest that a certain agnosticism is in order. At all events, the trend towards early education seems to be generally independent of any implication at the top end of the age range and should be considered on its own merits and on the needs of young children themselves. Much depends on what kind of programme is envisaged for five year olds in school. Having taught the world much about the education of young children, this is no doubt something on which the Italians have strong views.

Simple solutions to secondary school reform can be discounted by the nature of the problem and by the formidable pressure groups in defence of doing nothing - always the least controversial of policies. One thing which the workshop showed to those who attended from outside

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Italy was a remarkable measure of agreement about what needs to be done, given the political determination needed to tackle any concerted, organisational change. No mere foreign observer could assess the political implication of this consensus, nor yet appraise the political realism of the educational experts. But considering the intensely controversial issues which were under discussion, the points of agreement were far more impressive than the points of disagreement.

Under the stimulus of the OECD representation, the workshop devoted some time to the technique of innovation and the possible steps towards reform which need to be taken alongside any legislative initiation. It was again depressing to discover how little confidence the Italian experts had in the Italian teachers' capacity to play a leading part in educational reform. Many people would argue that the training and retraining of the teachers is a _sine qua non_ of any successful programme of reform, and that the teachers themselves must be persuaded to play a leading part in it. The gulf between the teachers and the professional students of education in the universities was distressingly wide and calculated to perpetuate the lack of understanding.

This made the suggestion for local teachers' centres to spear-head in-service training of considerable interest, provided the circumstances were such that the teachers themselves could be given a genuine measure of control over the way they develop.

This again offered a reminder of a theme which ran right through the workshop. This was that while for much of the time the workshop was concerned with organisation and the structure of different types of course in one or more schools, it was also, all the time concerned also, with teaching attitudes and methods. Criticism of school structure, for example, could not be separated from criticism of the pedagogic methods and assumption which these structures incorporated.

Thus heuristic methods of science teaching demand changed attitudes on the part of teachers, no less than do the unification of the first biennium of superior secondary school; the retraining to help teachers adjust their methods to mixed ability groups and individualisation has to be regarded as part and parcel of the introduction of modern methods elsewhere in the curriculum.

It would be easy to underestimate the importance of this - the unified secondary school will provide a stiff and very probably unwelcome challenge for those now accustomed to the present different kinds of secondary school. Many will be out of sympathy with the new methods, as with the changes of organisation, and as indicated already, their lack of sympathy will be clothed in philosophical terms about the nature of culture. Add to these doubts, the technical difficulties which reorganisation will present them with - the mixed ability teaching groups, the broader syllabuses, the disciplinary problems implied by, say, a raising of the school leaving age, coupled with the demand for a less authoritarian mode of pedagogy, and more school democracy - and the importance of retraining the teachers and winning their support so that reform becomes a movement from within the schools, not imposed from outside, is abundantly obvious.

As for teacher education generally, the workshop had little difficulty in agreeing on the need for a proper method of training graduates

for secondary school teaching, and putting the training of primary school teachers on a proper footing as a post-secondary course to be carried out in institutions associated with the universities. The need for these long-term changes in initial training has been recognised for some years; when action comes, it will not replace the immediate need also to retrain and refresh the existing teachers by recurrent education of one form and another.

Any programme of reform is likely to make heavy demands on the present structure of educational administration and throughout the workshop there were suggestions for more decentralisation and new forms of innovative institutions. The need for a central educational research institution has already been recognised and great hopes are being set upon this as a long term asset to Italian education. But no less important, was the need for agencies devoted to development, so that new ideas and techniques could be introduced as quickly and as effectively as possible. There was considerable interest in the Scandinavian suggestion for the creation of some national body concerned with the sponsoring of innovation, alongside the Ministry of Public Instruction, and linked to local centres of innovation throughout Italy. Some of these suggestions would only make any sense at all, given a political commitment to decentralisation no less strong than the political commitment which is needed to educational reforms. No one at the workshop was disposed to expect the present central administration to welcome an initiation of this kind. Some of the foreign members of the workshop had some misgivings about the relationships between the educational experts and the administration which seemed to be as bad as their relationship with the teachers. A minister who was determined to press ahead with the radical reform of secondary education would look for ways of strengthening the machinery of consultation which brings together school teachers, university teachers, politicians and administrators to share their expertise and get to know each other, breaking down the suspicion which now impedes the formulation of policy and its translation into action.

On one topic the workshop was, not surprisingly, remarkably uninformative. It had nothing to say about the cost of the "new approaches to superior secondary education" which it outlined. It goes without saying that to will the ends without willing the means would be to ensure that any reform programme was still born. Some of the costs would be very considerable, consider, for example, the added expense of a bigger uptake of secondary education - the wider participation in extended education which is a principal objective of all the suggested reforms. The statistics show that, already, Italian secondary education is expanding fast. If the suggested new approaches are successful, they must quicken the demand for secondary education still more. This has a price attached to it - the price of simply providing more. Other costs are attached to providing better.

Teacher training, for example, in the form advocated by the workshop, must cost more than it does not. In-service training is expensive to organise on a large-scale. More curriculum innovation means bumping up the sums now allocated to experimental work and the development of new materials. Here the sums involved may not be very large but they all add up.

One of the recommendations is for a secondary school building programme. Just how much building would be needed depends on many factors

outside the detailed knowledge of the workshop. But it also depends in some measure on an aspect of secondary school reorganisation which was touched upon. This concerns the extent to which a unified school system can be achieved using the present buildings of the various separate and distinct types of school. Common sense decrees that it must be organised in existing buildings as far as is practicable - the capital value of the buildings is too great to be replaced quickly by new custom-built comprehensive schools if this can possibly be avoided.

But one important conclusion of the workshop was that "every secondary school should offer its pupils the opportunity to choose between all the courses provided" (recommendation number 3). In other words whatever else progressive differentiation comes to mean, it must not mean the existing types of schools continuing as separate entities after unification has taken place. And whether there will be four or five separate constellations of subjects for each pupil to choose from which will, to some extent, correspond to the former types of school, the suggestion is that each institution should have the whole range of options.

The Scandinavians were at pains to point out that this means a unification of curriculum but not necessarily of physical structures - courses, not schools. In Sweden each group of schools, primary as well as secondary, which forma a comprehensive unit is brought under the pedagogic direction of a <u>rector</u> who ensures that it operates as a single system and that, therefore, the curricular opportunities of no children prejudiced by which school building they happen to be in.

But it is plain that this implies big programmes of improvement for the less good buildings if a common standard is to be achieved throughout each school system. And it also implies that each school unit must be big enough to provide the full range of options for each child up to the minimum age at which differentiation has begun to affect the whole of the course.

In England where reorganisation within existing schools is proceeding at an uneven speed, with political and pedagogic controversy still abounding, the concept of a "school" is such that teachers and parents would not readily accept the idea that a series of disparate units, coordinated from above by a rector, constitutes the kind of community which has been traditionally regarded as a school. There is, therefore, more inclination to argue that the speed at which reorganisation can take place must depend on the existence of suitably sited buildings which can easily be adapted to a wider range of pupils, or the availability of funds for school building, the size of each unit being determined by the age-range for whom it is intended, the range of courses which must be programmed, and the particular teaching skills which must be provided.

In the Italian context, therefore, the cost will depend on what answer is given to the question of differentiation - how far this is to be equated with existing schools - and what kind of a school community is envisaged. Plainly there is a large and open-ended financial commitment which it would be a mistake in a document of this kind to overlook.

<u>SUMMARY OF STATEMENTS RELEASED TO THE PRESS</u>
<u>FOLLOWING THE FRASCATI WORKSHOP</u>

by

Oddo BIASINI
Under-Secretary of Education

Under-Secretary Biasini described the urgency of the problem aris-
ing from the tension between economic and social development on the one
hand and the static nature of educational structures on the other. He
noted that this tension had by now reached a point "beyond which the
risk is no longer that of merely increasing the time-lag or gap, but
that of triggering an abrupt and violent social dislocation which would
spare nothing of existing structures".

The Frascati workshop demonstrated that similar problems are being
tackled in many countries and that approaches to these problems are re-
markably similar. The Under-Secretary summed up in seven points the
trends most clearly endorsed during the workshop, especially as they
related to Italian prospects. These trends, he felt, should be included
in a lex generalis which would be aimed at their progressive realisation.

1. First, it is recognised that there is a need to <u>unify</u> the sec-
    ondary system. Unification, however, does not mean a single
    school equal for all. Rather it means a system based on poly-
    valence and complex inter-dependencies existing within a uni-
    tary framework of goals and furthermore on the identical value
    given to the results. To some extent such unity exists in the
    university which tends to achieve, through flexible, inter-
    changeable and individualised timetables, a common educational
    result, an identical level of preparation, regardless of the
    methods or guidelines through which this education is achieved.

2. The shift from the existing multiplicity to a unified, compre-
    hensive and polyvalent system must be achieved <u>gradually</u>. A
    step-by-step timetable must be worked out which takes the entire
    education system into account, as well as all necessary stages
    involved in the change. Co-ordinated enactment of strategies
    must give support to the political will.

3. The fundamental characteristic of the changes to be made in
    the secondary system is the guarantee that a <u>democratic proce-
    dure</u> will be followed at all levels. Such procedure would not
    only take into account the proposals of experienced professional
    educators but would also provide consistent answers to the de-
    mands of youth for participation and shared responsibility as

well as to the involvement of the family, trade unions, and the representatives of business and industry. The existence of democratic procedure is also reflected in the internal relationships between students and institutions and teachers and students. Democratic procedure is reflected above all in the teaching-learning process in which individual characteristics and differences are respected and possibilities are offered that satisfy the interests of each and every student. Thus the rhythms and methods of teaching itself are individualised as well.

4. Another fundamental principle is that·of basic autonomies which cut off the obsessive spiral of legislation and extreme centralisation and give joint responsibility to all levels, including those of a public nature as represented by regional and local agencies and those of intermediate groups directly concerned with education. One autonomy which must be broadened concerns the essential element in education, the relationship between the teacher and the student. This means that the concept of autonomy coincides with that of didactic freedom, of research, experimentation and innovation.

5. A fundamental point of reference for the suggestions that emerged from the workshop is that of the need to promote new methods, stimuli and activities in order to prepare teachers for their new .tasks and functions, for different methods of teaching, for the new levels of professional requalification (particularly in the fields of psychology and evaluation) demanded by the new secondary school. Heretofore our personnel policies have been policies of concessions, either freely offered or extorted, in a climate of disheartenment. Access to the lists of state teachers and permanent positions, security, and a career are just rewards and unquestionable rights of labour; however qualification and the ability to carry out what may be considered a most delicate social function cannot be replaced by systems of benevolent understanding or set aside merely to substitute for an overdue compensation for services rendered. They must fit into a framework of vigorous and serious policies of verification. Moreover, such matters must not be handled from above alone, which is the case with qualifying examinations and competitions for various posts that are offered; they must also be handled from below, with the participation and objective evaluation of those benefitting from the social service of education, operated by public action and supported by public expenditures.

6. Another important point is that the intervention on the secondary school cannot be confined merely to the setting up of models and organisational patterns, unitary though they may be. They must go deeper. It is the ways of actual educational interactions that confirm the value of these models, that ratify or reject them. The new didactic methods must take into account the various forms of personal participation, the techniques of s lf-instruction, the new communication media, the interdisciplinary nature of scholastic activity, the breaching of rigid distinctions between subject and subject, and the global nature of evaluation.

7. This new policy also presupposes determined action in the
establishment of bodies that do not conflict with the fulfil-
ment of administrative or educational functions, but which in
a certain sense fulfil a function of osmosis, of promotion,
of research and development. If a broadly based pedagogical
research organisation must be created on the national level,
it is no less necessary and urgent that regional educational
innovation organisations be established capable of carrying
out the double task of research in innovation and updating of
teachers. The time appears to have come, therefore, even to
recast in this light a number of organisations - already con-
tested and no longer vital - which until now were called upon
by law to carry out the didactic and pedagogical promotion
function whose concepts have now become outdated and which
must be brought into line with new needs and situations. The
reform of organisations such as the Didactic Centres or the
Centre for Audiovisual Aids and similar institutions must fit
into the framework of a global view of the restructuring of
secondary institutions.

Having defined the principles upon which there was most agreement,
Under-Secretary Biasini indicated a restructuralisation of the Ministry,
a sweeping decentralisation, and the establishment of new democratic
agencies on various levels as instruments indispensable for putting these
principles into effect. It will then be necessary to ensure that the new
schools are all unitary schools and centres of both experimentation and
dissemination of the new orientations. It will also be necessary to en-
sure use of new evaluation methodologies and didactic technologies and
careful selection and training of future teachers; these, combined with
more democratic procedures of running the school itself, may pave the
way for the spreading of the new orientations. The updating of teachers
already employed must be functionally and critically linked to other
innovative trends. Finally, a national pedagogical research organisation
which makes use of the collaboration of autonomous regional research
centres will provide continuous and scientific feedback of the entire
process.

"Whatever manner we may choose", the Under-Secretary concluded,
"it is now time to undertake concrete action. It would be a fine thing
if this action were to begin precisely as a result and as an attempted
practical application of the discussion that came to an end here this
morning".

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APPENDIX I

STATISTICAL DOCUMENTATION ON SENIOR
SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN ITALY

(Provisional text without comments)

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February 1970

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Table 1.1. - STUDENTS AND TEACHERS BY TYPE OF SENIOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS

1946-47 to 1968-69

VOCATIONAL INSTITUTES

School Year	State schools				Non-State schools				Total			
	N°.	students MF	students F	teachers	N°.	students MF	students F	teachers	N°.	students MF	students F	teachers
1946-47	345	20,858	5,788	2,924	87	3,318	681	787	432	24,176	6,469	3,711
1947-48	347	17,912	4,570	2,844	84	2,771	518	772	431	20,683	5,088	3,616
1948-49	347	18,987	4,733	2,922	88	2,989	473	749	435	21,976	5,206	3,671
1949-50	346	22,520	5,649	3,554	79	2,916	545	711	425	25,436	6,194	4,265
1950-51	350	25,561	6,593	3,622	90	3,279	533	817	440	28,840	7,126	4,439
1951-52	365	34,625	9,310	4,253	78	3,447	656	731	443	38,072	9,966	4,984
1952-53	371	43,185	12,068	4,634	84	3,954	810	806	455	47,139	12,878	5,440
1953-54	370	51,106	14,274	4,999	91	4,686	1,328	922	461	55,792	15,602	5,921
1954-55	382	57,383	16,685	5,253	92	5,126	1,417	951	474	62,509	18,102	6,204
1955-56	394	62,312	18,046	5,656	95	5,662	1,630	1,037	489	67,974	19,676	6,693
1956-57	407	64,707	18,759	6,014	90	5,297	1,840	933	497	70,004	20,599	6,947
1957-58	400	69,357	20,044	5,889	97	6,321	1,989	955	497	75,658	22,033	6,844
1958-59	394	72,906	21,336	6,569	106	7,392	2,643	1,085	500	80,298	23,979	7,654
1959-60	422	76,739	22,953	7,434	115	8,191	3,879	1,202	537	84,930	26,812	8,636
1960-61	461	90,896	28,234	9,138	127	8,865	4,794	1,361	588	99,761	33,028	10,499
1961-62	526	113,356	36,208	11,498	141	10,230	5,490	1,547	667	123,586	41,698	13,045
1962-63	497	139,851	46,967	12,837	149	12,008	6,655	1,441	646	151,859	53,622	14,278
1963-64	468	170,670	62,161	13,959	158	12,518	7,050	1,393	626	183,188	69,211	15,352
1964-65	480	163,706	60,860	15,399	150	9,572	5,042	1,362	630	173,278	65,902	16,761
1965-66	469	163,138	59,563	16,127	129	6,789	3,388	997	598	169,927	62,951	17,124
1966-67	481	163,120	60,016	16,299	119	6,152	3,141	970	600	169,272	63,157	17,269
1967-68	511	183,188	69,145	17,428	102	6,482	3,312	846	613	189,670	72,457	18,274
1968-69		208,503	80,976	18,749		6,378	3,130	828		214,881	84,106	19,577

SOURCE: ISTAT

Table 1.1 (Cont'd)

TECHNICAL INSTITUTES

School year	State schools				Non-State schools				Total			
	No.	students MF	F	teachers	No.	students MF	F	teachers	No.	students MF	F	teachers
1946-47...	305	90,798	15,692	7,056	220	19,995	3,165	2,954	525	110,793	18,857	10,010
1947-48...	320	91,837	16,677	7,601	184	19,317	2,891	2,921	504	111,154	19,568	10,522
1948-49...	323	95,085	18,050	7,910	204	21,335	3,365	3,056	527	116,420	21,415	10,966
1949-50...	323	98,030	18,992	8,742	206	20,664	3,691	3,095	529	118,694	22,683	11,837
1950-51...	328	102,348	20,003	8,989	208	21,108	3,996	3,467	536	123,456	23,999	12,456
1951-52...	330	110,712	21,776	9,701	200	22,352	4,779	3,638	530	133,064	26,555	13,339
1952-53...	350	124,280	24,394	10,244	210	24,511	5,634	3,358	560	148,791	30,028	13,602
1953-54...	353	141,764	28,224	10,799	222	28,179	6,940	3,580	575	169,943	35,164	14,379
1954-55...	347	161,649	32,812	11,744	223	31,639	7,871	3,730	570	193,288	40,683	15,474
1955-56...	361	182,686	38,117	12,634	232	35,139	8,720	4,035	593	217,825	46,837	16,669
1956-57...	362	202,670	43,585	13,782	260	38,087	9,627	4,293	622	240,757	53,212	18,075
1957-58...	362	220,431	48,080	14,250	249	41,551	10,166	4,618	611	261,982	58,246	18,868
1958-59...	388	235,763	51,919	15,952	256	43,632	10,741	4,754	644	279,395	62,600	20,706
1959-60...	439	255,847	56,384	17,859	253	43,730	10,951	4,868	692	299,577	67,335	22,727
1960-61...	467	280,688	61,850	19,932	258	45,228	10,918	5,027	725	325,916	72,768	24,959
1961-62...	503	312,010	68,892	23,597	245	47,747	11,428	5,181	748	359,757	80,320	28,778
1962-63...	574	345,103	76,112	26,519	250	50,125	11,995	4,862	824	395,228	88,107	31,381
1963-64...	592	380,073	80,431	28,389	316	51,530	11,991	5,059	908	431,603	92,422	33,428
1964-65...	618	456,263	97,787	32,328	320	54,915	12,785	5,478	938	511,178	110,572	37,806
1965-66...	669	503,737	108,761	36,090	296	58,053	13,793	6,155	965	561,790	122,554	42,245
1966-67...	660	542,666	117,949	38,511	333	61,227	13,866	6,281	993	603,893	131,815	44,792
1967-68...	705	549,468	120,196	39,851	361	59,616	13,405	6,005	1,066	609,084	133,601	45,856
1968-69...		560,642	121,634	40,840		58,358	13,138		1,723	619,000	134,772	46,848

SOURCE : ISTAT

Table 1.1 (Cont'd)

TEACHER TRAINING COLLEGES

School year	State schools				Non-State schools				Total			
	No.	students MF	students F	teachers	No.	students MF	students F	teachers	No.	students MF	students F	teachers
1946-47...	145	34,983	29,291	4,141	271	23,366	21,692	3,087	416	58,349	50,983	7,228
1947-48...	146	32,015	27,563	4,049	288	22,318	20,735	2,921	434	54,333	48,298	6,970
1948-49...	146	33,373	28,597	4,181	299	23,230	21,911	3,542	445	56,603	50,508	7,723
1949-50...	146	36,208	30,333	4,636	289	23,353	21,953	3,329	435	59,561	52,286	7,965
1950-51...	146	44,512	35,669	4,898	320	25,951	23,922	3,687	466	70,463	59,591	8,585
1951-52...	147	51,390	40,028	5,071	330	28,071	25,777	3,778	477	79,467	65,805	8,849
1952-53...	152	60,859	47,114	5,702	340	30,497	28,146	3,974	492	91,352	75,260	9,676
1953-54...	167	67,991	53,062	5,746	336	32,371	29,991	3,925	503	100,362	83,053	9,671
1954-55...	176	72,961	58,060	6,193	349	34,281	32,086	4,074	525	107,244	90,146	10,267
1955-56...	176	73,88	59,926	6,271	341	34,280	32,116	4,022	517	108,161	92,042	10,293
1956-57...	176	74,044	61,083	6,316	347	35,060	32,919	4,272	523	109,104	94,022	10,588
1957-58...	177	73,337	61,101	6,311	352	35,118	32,946	4,447	529	108,455	94,047	10,758
1958-59...	177	70,840	59,243	6,296	352	34,592	32,425	4,466	529	105,432	91,668	10,762
1959-60...	179	69,048	58,092	6,451	352	34,120	31,941	4,487	531	103,168	90,033	10,938
1960-61...	183	71,799	60,378	6,800	351	34,661	32,642	4,414	534	106,460	93,020	11,214
1961-62...	201	78,803	66,691	7,402	403	41,206	39,278	5,130	604	120,009	105,969	12,532
1962-63...	212	88,323	75,208	7,699	396	43,520	41,724	4,613	608	131,843	116,932	12,312
1963-64...	215	102,470	86,934	7,963	402	47,774	45,390	4,602	617	150,244	132,824	12,565
1964-65...	220	126,268	105,881	9,090	406	53,579	51,387	4,724	626	179,847	157,268	13,814
1965-66...	221	150,940	125,476	10,461	413	59,691	57,098	4,796	634	210,631	182,574	15,257
1966-67...	228	177,911	147,775	12,050	444	68,578	65,517	5,339	672	246,489	213,292	17,389
1967-68...	242	177,763	148,543	12,143	468	71,973	68,845	5,727	710	249,736	217,388	17,870
1968-69...		175,572	148,823	12,239		73,879	70,629	5,946		249,451	218,912	18,185

SOURCE : ISTAT

TABLE 1.1.   (Contd.)

SENIOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS (SCIENCE)

School year	State schools				Non-State schools				Total			
	No.	students MF	F	teachers	No.	students MF	F	teachers	No.	students MF	F	teachers
1946-47	87	34,862	7,887	2,390	118	8,476	1,043	1,242	205	43,338	8,935	3,631
1947-48	88	35,753	7,796	2,714	114	8,786	1,126	1,319	202	44,539	8,922	4,033
1948-49	88	34,499	7,417	2,781	129	9,231	1,244	1,451	217	43,730	8,661	4,242
1949-50	88	32,483	6,778	2,903	119	9,186	1,156	1,434	297	44,669	7,934	4,337
1950-51	91	30,790	6,175	2,899	119	9,269	1,164	1,453	210	40,059	7,339	4,357
1951-52	97	30,340	5,953	3,023	116	9,136	1,089	1,430	213	39,476	7,042	4,453
1952-53	102	31,707	6,067	3,038	113	9,079	1,012	1,329	215	40,736	7,079	4,367
1953-54	129	32,724	6,171	3,034	114	9,162	1,082	1,324	243	41,586	7,253	4,358
1954-55	137	35,076	6,571	3,159	115	9,425	1,161	1,391	252	44,501	7,732	4,550
1955-56	138	36,771	6,984	3,183	108	9,700	1,226	1,327	246	45,471	8,210	4,510
1956-57	139	37,773	7,207	3,243	106	9,939	1,185	1,360	245	47,712	8,392	4,603
1957-58	139	40,794	7,685	3,480	104	10,173	1,201	1,538	243	50,967	8,886	4,818
1958-59	141	43,479	8,238	3,524	102	10,219	1,191	1,331	243	53,693	9,429	4,855
1959-60	165	48,003	9,314	3,966	88	9,210	854	1,215	253	57,203	10,168	5,181
1960-61	194	52,994	10,821	4,446	82	9,128	760	1,164	270	62,122	1,581	5,610
1961-62	168	58,607	12,591	4,975	83	9,148	770	1,152	261	67,933	3,364	6,127
1962-63	177	64,566	14,767	5,092	82	9,572	733	999	269	73,933	5,500	6,191
1963-64	188	70,734	16,982	5,141	85	10,073	830	1,098	273	80,807	17,012	6,439
1964-65	187	82,710	21,100	6,041	86	10,599	924	1,025	273	93,309	22,024	7,060
1965-66	187	93,460	24,960	6,582	86	11,103	972	982	273	104,563	25,932	7,564
1966-67	192	118,901	35,230	7,945	90	12,114	1,096	1,048	282	131,045	36,326	8,993
1967-68	211	144,807	46,848	9,417	96	13,110	1,285	1,082	307	157,917	48,133	10,499
1968-69		171,208	59,119	10,858		14,001	1,599	1,133		185,209	60,718	11,991

SOURCE: ISTAT

TABLE 1.1. (Cont'd)

SENIOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS (CLASSICS)

School year	State schools				Non-State schools				Total			
	No.	students MF	F	teachers	No.	students MF	F	teachers	No.	students MF	F	teachers
1946-47	337	105,705	45,205	7,604	475	33,016	10,036	4,796	812	138,721	55,241	12,400
1947-48	341	101,119	43,530	7,417	464	32,899	10,069	4,067	805	134,018	53,599	11,484
1948-49	344	97,564	41,569	7,657	471	34,075	10,487	4,088	815	131,639	52,056	11,745
1949-50	343	92,708	37,867	8,308	426	31,506	9,504	4,179	769	124,214	47,441	12,487
1950-51	343	87,951	34,908	8,218	423	31,960	9,504	4,446	766	119,911	44,412	12,664
1951-52	346	89,105	34,285	8,288	412	30,956	8,713	4,400	758	120,061	42,998	12,688
1952-53	346	94,257	35,269	8,407	395	30,921	8,809	4,149	741	125,178	44,078	12,556
1953-54	356	98,968	36,360	8,157	383	31,313	8,935	3,169	739	130,281	45,295	11,326
1954-55	360	106,328	38,994	8,795	375	31,672	8,969	3,083	735	138,000	47,963	11,778
1955-56	359	111,511	41,190	9,084	366	30,940	8,667	3,742	725	142,451	49,857	12,826
1956-57	361	114,297	42,870	9,245	356	30,386	8,251	3,962	717	144,683	51,121	13,207
1957-58	363	115,550	43,803	9,323	344	31,311	8,579	3,992	707	146,861	52,382	13,315
1958-59	362	114,547	44,673	9,010	334	29,733	8,280	3,899	696	144,280	52,953	12,909
1959-60	373	115,188	46,592	9,369	313	28,862	8,352	3,811	686	144,050	54,944	13,180
1960-61	370	116,207	49,408	9,440	305	29,036	8,530	3,663	675	147,243	57,938	13,103
1961-62	375	120,952	52,994	9,839	296	29,219	8,589	3,683	671	150,171	61,583	13,522
1962-63	382	124,835	56,616	9,535	287	29,378	8,979	3,121	669	154,213	65,595	12,656
1963-64	383	133,744	62,426	9,223	276	29,952	9,151	3,100	659	163,696	71,577	12,323
1964-65	380	142,530	69,051	9,574	266	30,077	9,705	3,014	646	172,607	78,756	12,588
1965-66	380	153,221	75,319	9,879	263	30,875	10,130	2,842	643	184,096	85,449	12,721
1966-67	379	159,761	80,830	10,230	260	31,304	10,287	2,882	689	191,065	91,117	13,112
1967-68	391	163,683	84,545	10,461	257	31,095	10,887	2,782	648	194,778	94,632	13,243
1968-69		167,635	88,377	10,985	468	30,955	9,910	2,796		198,590	48,287	13,731

TABLE 1.2. INCREASE IN NUMBER OF SECONDARY SCHOOL
STUDENTS OVER THE PERIOD 1961-1969
(1961 = 100)

Type of School	1961	1965	1968	1969.	Average annual increase 1965-69
Vocational institutes	100	173.7	190.1	215.4	+ 5.55
Technical institutes	100	156.8	186.9	189.9	+ 4.90
Teacher training colleges	100	168.9	4.6	234.3	+ 8.50
Senior secondary schools (Science)	100	150.2	254.2	298.1	+18.7
Senior secondary schools (Classics)	100	117.2	132.3	134.9	+ 3.55
Senior secondary schools (Fine Arts)	100	198.8	320.7	376.1	+17.3
TOTAL	100	152.7	189.7	198.8	+ 6.85
Absolute values	745,649	1,138,463	1,414,483	1,482,729	

SOURCE: ISTAT - CENSIS calculation

Increase in student enrolments (+) in university education:

1961 = 100 (268,181)
1968 = 186.5 (500,215)

Average annual increase 1965-69 = +8.35

(+) intramural and extramural

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TABLE 1.3.   PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF STUDENTS
BY TYPE OF SCHOOL - 1961-1969

Type of School	1961	1965	1968	1969
Vocational institutes	13.4	15.2	13.4	14.5
Technical institutes	43.7	44.9	43.1	41.8
Teacher training colleges	14.3	15.8	17.6	16.8
Senior secondary schools (Science)	8.3	8.2	11.2	12.5
Senior secondary schools (Classics)	19.7	15.2	13.8	13.4
Senior secondary schools (Fine Arts)	0.6	0.7	0.9	1.0
TOTAL	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: ISTAT - CENSIS calculation

TABLE 1.4.   PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF FIRST-YEAR
ENROLMENTS BY TYPE OF SCHOOL IN 1965
AND 1969

Type of School	Absolute values		Percentages	
	1965	1969	1965	1969
Vocational institutes	66,380	100,285	18.2	22.5
Technical institutes	162,562	171,181	44.6	38.5
Teacher training colleges	64,667	69,134	17.8	15.5
Senior secondary schools (Science)	26,806	60,230	7.4	13.5
Senior secondary schools (Classics)	43,873	44,431	12.0	10.0
TOTAL	364,288	445,261	100.0	100.0

Source: ISTAT - CENSIS calculation

TABLE 1.5. PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF TECHNICAL INSTITUTE
STUDENTS BY STUDY COURSE IN 1965 AND 1969

Type of Technical Institute	1965	1969
Agriculture	2.4	2.4
Nautical studies	1.7	1.9
Tourism	0.2	0.3
Commerce	36.4	36.1
Surveying	12.8	17.4
Business management	1.5	1.8
Industry	41.5	38.1
Women's Technical Institute	3.5	2.0
TOTAL	100.0	100.0
Absolute values	511,178	619,000

Source: ISTAT - CENSIS calculation

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TABLE 1.6. PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF VOCATIONAL INSTITUTE
STUDENTS BY STUDY COURSE IN 1965 AND 1968

Type of Vocational Institute	1965	1968
Agriculture	11.1	12.1
Industry	42.1	42.6
Nautical studies	1.3	2.3
Commerce	38.1	32.8
Hotel industry	2.4	4.0
Women's Vocational Institute	5.0	6.2
TOTAL	100.0	100.0
Absolute values	173,278	189,670

Source: ISTAT - CENSIS calculation

TABLE 1.7. GRADUATES BY TYPE OF SENIOR SECONDARY
SCHOOL FROM 1959-60 to 1966-67

Type of school	1959-60	1960-61	1961-62	1962-63	1963-64	1964-65	1965-66	1966-67
Vocational institutes	21,771	22,433	22,602	25,491	41,403	46,805	51,710	42,260
Technical institutes	44,369	47,124	49,378	49,109	52,956	63,064	73,005	86,320
Teacher training colleges	23,044	25,516	25,062	24,966	28,623	33,029	37,123	42,555
Senior secondary schools (Science)	7,994	8,274	8,514	8,953	10,038	12,177	13,727	14,701
Senior secondary schools (Classics)	24,023	23,684	23,913	22,134	24,106	27,187	28,583	29,721
Senior secondary schools (Fine Arts)	735	824	866	1,052	1,260	1,531	1,911	2,076
TOTAL	121,936	127,855	130,335	131,705	158,386	183,793	206,059	217,633

Source: ISTAT

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TABLE 2.1. ATTENDANCE RATES IN 1960 AND 1967 BY SEX

Age	Males		Females	
	1960	1967	1960	1967
10	95.7	99.0	94.0	97.7
11	87.4	94.5	76.2	88.1
12	74.3	90.2	56.9	78.4
13	61.6	80.9	44.1	66.6
14	39.8	61.6	26.2	48.2
15	31.5	49.0	20.4	37.1
16	25.4	39.0	16.0	28.0
17	20.6	31.6	12.3	21.0
18	16.6	25.4	9.3	15.6

Source: ISTAT

TABLE 2.2 ATTENDANCE RATES BY OCCUPATIONAL STATUS OF HEAD
OF HOUSEHOLD AND AGE OF STUDENT (1967)

Occupational status of head of household	Age groups			
	11-13	14-18	19-23	24-26
Entrepreneurs, professional, managerial and clerical workers	99.0	87.2	47.5	17.4
Self-employed workers, assistants	91.2	44.8	13.7	4.1
Dependant workers	90.4	41.5	14.5	0.1
No occupational activity	88.8	36.8	12.1	5.8
TOTAL	91.6	47.2	14.7	4.8

Source: ISTAT

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TABLE 2.3. ATTENDANCE RATES BY EDUCATIONAL LEVEL OF
HEAD OF HOUSEHOLD AND AGE OF STUDENT (1967)

Educational level of head of household	Age group				
	11-13	14-18	19-23	24-26	Total
University degree	100.0	97.6	80.0	32.6	82.0
2nd level diploma	100.0	91.4	52.3	15.8	62.5
Lower secondary leaving certificate	99.1	82.3	32.1	7.9	54.0
Primary leaving certificate	93.5	47.4	12.1	3.4	38.9
Literates with no certificates	84.7	29.6	5.4	1.4	26.0
Illiterates	72.3	18.9	3.6	1.1	20.6
TOTAL	91.6	47.2	14.7	4.8	37.8

Source: CENSIS estimates

TABLE 2.4.   PERCENTAGE OF GRADUATES LEAVING SCHOOL
OR CONTINUING TO HIGHER LEVELS (1964-1968)

Level of education	1964	1965	1966	1967	1968
Primary school					
Total graduates	87.1	88.2	88.9	91.3	93.0
of which: continuing to 1st cycle secondary	74.4	76.6	78.1	81.0	83.3
school leavers	12.7	11.6	10.8	10.3	9.7
Lower secondary school					
Total graduates	50.9	55.9	60.9	59.0	60.7
of which: continuing to senior secondary	40.8	43.8	49.4	49.4	51.5
school leavers	10.1	12.1	11.5	9.6	9.2
Senior secondary school (a)					
Total graduates	15.8	16.6	16.8	19.1	22.0
of which: continuing to senior secondary	12.1	13.3	13.0	14.0	16.5
school leavers	3.7	3.3	3.8	5.1	5.5
University					
Total graduates	3.2	3.5	3.9	4.3	-

(a) excluding vocational education

Source: CENSIS calculation

TABLE 3.1. REGULARITY OF ATTENDANCE IN SENIOR SECONDARY
SCHOOLS BY TYPE OF SCHOOL IN 1960 AND 1967

Position of Students	Type of School				Total
	Technical and voca-tional institutes (a)	Technical institutes	Teacher training colleges	Senior sec-ondary schools (classics + science)	
1960					
Normal	30.5 (b)	33.5 (c)	42.2	66.9	44.2
1 year retarded	26.3 (b)	27.8 (c)	25.2	20.3	25.0
2 or more years retarded	43.2 (b)	38.7 (c)	32.6	12.8	30.8
	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
1967					
Normal	34.3	37.7	48.0	73.3	47.3
1 year retarded	29.1	28.9	27.3	18.3	26.1
2 or more years retarded	36.6	33.4	.24.7	8.4	26.6
	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: ISTAT-CENSIS calculation

(a) The preparatory course of vocational institutes is considered together with the
    3rd year lower secondary.

(b) including schools of art.

(c) including senior seco᠎ary schools (fine arts).

TABLE 3.2. RETARDATION OF VOCATIONAL INSTITUTE
2ND-YEAR STUDENTS IN 1967

Position of Students	1967	
	Males	Females
Normal (or in advance)	28.2	43.0
1 year retarded	30.1	29.9
2 or more years retarded	41.7	27.1
TOTAL	100.0	100.0

Source: ISTAT

TABLE 3.3

RATES OF SUCCESS IN SENIOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Type of School	1st year enrolments		Graduates		Graduates as percentage of 1st-year enrolments
	year	students	year	students	
Vocational institutes (3 years)	1957–58	38,989	1959–60	21,771	55.8
	1962–63	76,987	1964–65	46,805	60.8
	1964–65	66,380	1966–67	42,260	63.7
Teacher training colleges (4 years)	1956–57	28,827	1959–60	23,044	79.9
	1961–62	39,136	1964–65	33,029	84.4
	1963–64	49,938	1966–67	42,555	85.2
Technical institutes (5 years)	1955–56	61,269	1959–60	44,369	72.4
	1960–61	89,563	1964–65	63,064	70.4
	1962–63	118,780	1966–67	86,320	72.7
Senior secondary schools (Science) (5 years)	1955–56	11,667	1959–60	7,994	68.5
	1960–61	17,434	1964–65	12,177	69.8
	1962–63	20,239	1966–67	14,701	72.6
Senior secondary schools (Classics) (5 years)	1955–56	35,253	1959–60	24,023	68.1
	1960–61	37,836	1964–65	27,187	71.9
	1962–63	38,942	1966–67	29,721	76.3

Source: ISTAT – CENSIS calculation

TABLE 4.1.   GRADUATES BY SOCIAL STATUS OF FATHER (1967)

Type of graduate	Status of Father				Total
	Profes-sional	Manage-rial and clerical	Self-employed	Dependent	
Technical institutes, of which:	6.4	29.7	30.0	33.9	100.0
industrial	3.4	25.2	29.4	42.0	100.0
commercial	7.8	33.9	29.8	28.5	100.0
Teacher training colleges	6.2	33.6	34.6	25.6	100.0
Senior secondary schools (classics)	19.6	48.3	21.5	10.6	100.0
Senior secondary schools (science)	15.6	50.3	23.3	10.8	100.0

Source: ISTAT-CENSIS calculation

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TABLE 4.2. SENIOR SECONDARY SCHOOL STUDENTS
BY SOCIAL STATUS OF FATHER

Occupational status of father	Technical and vocational institutes	Teacher training colleges	Senior secondary schools
Entrepreneurs	1.1	0.7	3.0
Professional workers	0.6	1.1	6.1
Managerial workers	1.1	1.8	8.5
Clerical workers	16.0	20.3	31.8
Self-employed workers	26.1	28.5	22.4
Dependent workers	42.5	34.5	17.3
Assistants	0.4	0.7	0.3
No occupational status	12.2	12.4	10.6
	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: ISTAT-CENSIS calculation.

TABLE 5.1. RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SECONDARY SCHOOL GRADUATES
AND UNIVERSITY ENTRANTS IN THE FOLLOWING YEAR

Type of education	Graduates in 1966-67	1st-year enrolments in 1967-68	Transition coefficient (1)
Technical proficiency certificate:			
- industrial	29,148	15,135	51.9
- nautical	1,438	1,014	70.5
- agricultural	2,125	1,941	91.3
- commercial	30,984	18,899	70.0
- surveying	11,786	7,664	65.0
- women's	4,122	2,017	48.9
"Maturity" certificate:			
- science	14,701	16,865	114.7
- classics	29,721	35,547	119.6
- fine arts	2,076	873	42.1
Teacher training certificate	42,555	22,700	53.3
TOTAL	168,656	122,655	72.7

Source: ISTAT-CENSIS calculation

(1) Transition coefficients are overestimated since they include
    students enrolling for the second time in 1st-year courses owing
    to change of Faculty or for other reasons.

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APPENDIX II

PARTICIPANTS AND OBSERVERS

A. OFFICIAL PARTICIPANTS

AASE Lars	– Forsøksradet for Skoleverket, Sandakervn 56 (vi), Oslo-Dep (Norway)
ARDIGO' Achille	– Professor of Sociology, Università di Bologna (Italy)
ARMSTRONG Michael	– School Teacher and Educational Researcher, Countesthorpe College, Winchester Road, Countesthorpe, Leicester (England)
BERTIN Giovanni Maria	– Professor of Education, Università di Bologna (Italy)
CARUSO Emanuele	– Direttore di Divisione, Ministero della P.I., Roma (Italy)
CORDA COSTA Maria	– Professor of Education, Università di Roma (Italy)
DALIN Per	– Head of Project Group, CERI/OECD, 2, rue André Pascal, Paris XVIème
EVERS Carl-Heinz	– Former Senator for Education (Berlin) Am Schlachtensee 120 A, Berlin 38
FLORES D'ARCAIS Giuseppe	– Professor of Education, Università di Padova (Italy)
FRANKOVIC' Dragutin	– Director for the Educational Institute, Ul Draze Pavlovisa 25, Belgrado (Yugoslavia)
GLIOZZI Mario	– Professor of History of Science, Università di Torino (Italy)

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GOZZER Giovanni	- Direttore Centro Europeo Educazione, Villa Falconieri, Frascati (Italy)
GRUSSU Silvino	- Ricercatore Ist. Studi e Programmazione Economica (ISPE) Via F. Cornaro, 37 - Rome (Italy)
IANNI Francis	- Director, Horace Mann - Lincoln Institute, Columbia University - New York 10027 (USA)
MACLURE Stuart	- Editor, The Times Educational Supplement - Times Newspapers Ltd., Printing House Square, London, E.C.4. (England)
MANACORDA Mario Alighiero	- Professor of Education, Università di Cagliari (Italy)
MARKLUND Sixten	- Head of Division, National Board of Education - 104 22 Stockholm (Sweden)
MOWAT Susanne	- CERI/OECD, 2, rue André Pascal, Paris XVIème
PARKER Robert	- Chief Education Officer, Somerset County Council Education Department, County Hall, Taunton, Somerset (England)
PESCIA Livio	- Researcher - CENSIS - Via Torre Rossa, 94 - Rome (Italy)
PROST Antoine	- Université d'Orléans - Orléans, (France)
REGUZZONI Mario	- Writer - P.za San Fedele, 4, Milano (Italy)
SANTORO Arles	- School Principal, Via S. Giordani, 6 - Firenze (Italy)
SAJEVA Benedetto	- High School Teacher, Via della Lupa, 22 - Rome (Italy)
SANTONI RUGIU Antonio	- Professor of Education, Università di Firenze (Italy)
SILVESTRI Eduardo	- Direttore di Divisione, Ministero P.I. Rome (Italy)

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TROTTA Antonio	- Ispettore Centrale Ministero della P.I. Rome (Italy)
TELMON Vittorio	- Institute of Education, Università di Bologna (Italy)
VEBERSCHLAG Roger	- Inspecteur d'Enseignement, 3, Avenue Buisson, Paris (France)
VALITUTTI Salvatore	- Consigliere di Stato, Via L. Magalotti, 2 - Rome (Italy)
VISALBERGHI Aldo	- Professor of Education, Università degli Studi di Roma, (Italy)
VITA Matteo	- Dirigente ANCIFAP, National Association of IPI Centers for Vocational Training, Viale Tito Livio, 28A, Rome (Italy)

B. **OBSERVERS**

AMATO Antonio	- Università di Roma, (Italy)
COLIN David T.	- Educational Consultant, Via Palestrina, 28, Rome (Italy)
GOZZER Vittorio	- Università Cattolica di Milano, (Italy)
TINI Laura	- Institute of Education, Università di Roma (Italy)

APPENDIX III

WORKING DOCUMENTS

CERI/EI/I/70.01	Education for the Age Group 16-19 Years in Norway - Plans Under Consideration for Reforms in the 'Seventies	K.Fr.Pettersen (National Council for Innovation in Education, Norway)
CERI/EI/I/70.02*	New Approaches in Italian Secondary Education	S. Maclure, (Editor, Times Educational Supplement, United Kingdom)
CERI/EI/I/70.03**	Problems and Conditions of Italian Secondary Education	Prof. G. Gozzer (European Centre of Education, Frascati, Italy)
CERI/EI/I/70.04	Secondary Re-organisation in England	A. Corbett (Education Correspondent for the New Society, United Kingdom)
CERI/EI/I/70.06	The Swedish Gymnasia School from 1971	L. Cervall (National Board of Education, Sweden)

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* Reproduced pp. 9- 24 of this volume.

** Reproduced pp. 25 - 38 of this volume under the title "A Brief History of Italian Educational Reform".

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Counselors and Faculty who have participated in the CMU – Honolulu
Model Cities program.

COUNSELORS	DEGREE
Bunyan, Clancy	M.A. Education
Friedman, Dan	M.A. Psychology (Ph.D. Candidate)
King, Phillip	M.A. Psychology (Ph.D. Candidate)
Lee, George	M.A. Theology
Prizzia, Ross	Ph.D. Political Science
Warfel, George	M.A. Urban Studies

FACULTY

Brein, Michael	Ph.D. Social Psychology
Bu:hans, Daniel	Ph.D. Political Science
Cade, Theo	Ph.D. Psychology
Cahill, Amy	Ph.D. Political Science
Ching, Russell	L.L.M. Law (Taxation)
Chong, Amanda	M.A. Social Work
Dator, James	Ph.D. Political Science
Deutch, James	D.S.W. Social Work
Diamond, Michael	Ph.D. Social Psychology
Dixon, Michael	M.A. Political Science (Ph.D. Candidate)
Dohemann, Warren	M.A. Elementary Education
Duran, Ramon	B.S. Architecture
Ebel, Robert	Ph.D. Economics
Eblem, Cliff	
Faires, Dena	Ph.D. Speech
Fujita, George	Ph.D. Education Psychology
Geisler, John	Ph.D. Guidance & Counseling

FACULTY (continued)

Gilbert, Fred	M.D.	Medicine
Hymer, Sylvia	M.A.	Speech
Johnson, Walter	Ph.D.	History
Kamakawiwoole, Larry	M.A.	Education
King, Phillip	M.A.	Political Science (Ph.D. Candidate)
Lee, Michael	M.A.	Political Science
Lefton, Norman	Ph.D.	Economics
Lind, Meda	M.A.	Sociology (Ph.D. Candidate)
Mansson, Helge	Ph.D.	Psychology
Neubauer, Deane	Ph.D.	Political Science
Perry, William	Ph.D.	Psychology
Portwood, Charles	Ph.D.	Business Administration
Pratt, Richard	Ph.D.	Political Science
Prizzia, Ross	Ph.D.	Political Science
Pollock, Richard	Ph.D.	Economics
Rahsaan, Om	M.A.	Sociology
Rea, Ruben	M.A.	Speech
Rohter, Ira	Ph.D.	Political Science
Savage, Adam	M.A.	Speech (Ph.D. Candidate)
Schwind, Paul	Ph.D.	Geography
Shapiro, Jerrold	Ph.D.	Psychology
Staudohar, Paul	Ph.D.	Economics
Tavares, Charmain	M.A.	Education
Wachs, Melvin	Ph.D.	Political Science
Walker, Wayne	M.S.	Information Science
Warfel, George	M.A.	Urban Studies
White, John	M.A.	Political Science (Ph.D. Candidate)

COMPREHENSIVE TRAINING PROGRAM STAFF

> Ms. Marion P. Dunning, Director
>
> Ms. Alohalani Pang, Assistant to Director

COMPREHENSIVE TRAINING PROGRAM ADVISORY BOARD

Resident Participation Organization (RPOs)

> Ms. Margaret Apo, Deputy Director, W-N
>
> Ms. Fay Hidalgo, Secretary, K-P

Student Representatives

> Mr. Floyd Loving (W-N), City Demonstration Agency (CDA)
>
> Ms. Alohalani Pang (W-N), Comprehensive Training Program (CTP)
>
> Ms. Ruth Boggs (K-P), Housing
>
> Ms. Roweena Kahaleiwi (K-P), Comprehensive Legal Services(CLS)

Task Force Representatives

> Ms. Rose Jackman (W-N), Chairman, Education
>
> Sister Grace Lim (K-P), Human Services

Model Cities Directors Representatives

> Sister Mary Heenan (W-N), Education Center
>
> Dr. Dorothy Douthit (K-P), Education Center

City Demonstration Agency Representative

> Ms. Judy Gordon, CTP Evaluator

Central Michigan University Representatives

> Mr. Christ P. Zivalich, Jr., Program Manager
>
> Mr. George Warfel, Counselor
>
> Dr. Ross Prizzia, Instructor

University of Hawaii (UH) Research Corporation Representative

> Mr. Gus Higuchi

UH College of Continuing Education Representative

> Dr. Frederich Mayer

UH Manoa Representative

> Dr. James Misajon, Director of Special Services

Comprehensive Training Program (CTP) Representative

> Ms. Marion P. Dunning, Director

Section VIII

By Laws, Comprehensive Training Program Advisory

Board and Minutes of the July 31, 1973 Meeting

BY LAWS

COMPREHENSIVE TRAINING PROGRAM

ADVISORY BOARD

ARTICLE I

NAME AND OFFICE

The name of this organization shall be Comprehensive Training Program Advisory Board.

The Operating Agency is the Research Corporation of the University of Hawaii which has delegated day to day operations to the College of Continuing Education. The principal office for the transaction of business of the organization shall be the Comprehensive Training Program office, Control Data Building at 2828 Paa Street.

ARTICLE II

GENERAL PURPOSES AND OBJECTIVES

(1) To insure resident participation in implementing a training program designed to provide sufficient education to make Model Neighborhood Area (MNA) residents educationally competitive on the job market in a career of their choice.

(2) To organize and operate exclusively for educational purposes.

ARTICLE III

BOARD MEMBERS

Section 1. <u>Functional Responsibilities</u>
The CTP Advisory Board member a.. have the following functional responsibilities:

a. Advise the Project Director regarding program planning, scheduling, evaluation, coordination, resident involvement, and policies and procedures of the CTP.
b. Elect a Chairman, Vice-Chairman and Recorder, and prescribe his/her lawful powers and duties.
c. Appoint committees and delegate to the committees any responsibilities of the Board.

Section 2. <u>Number</u>
The number of members of the CTP Advisory Board shall not be more than 20 or less than 10.

Section 3. <u>Composition of the CTP Advisory Board Membership</u>
The composition of the original Board shall include the following representation:

Two CTP/CMU students	KP
Two CTP/CMU students	WN
One RPO	KP
One RPO	WN
One College of Continuing Education	
One RCUH	
One CDA	
One CMU Counselor	
One CMU Instructor	
Chairman Human Service Task Force	KP
Chairman Education Task Force	WN
Director Education Center	KP
Director Education Center	WN
Project Coordinator Upward Mobility Program	
Director CMU	
Director CTP	

Section 4. <u>Vacancies</u>
Vacancies shall be filled by recommendation of the agency represented with the exception of student vacancies. Student vacancies shall be filled by a majority vote of the remaining Board members on recommendations received from students.

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Sec   J.   Term
A term is defined as twelve months that corresponds to
Model Cities 4th Program Year.

ARTICLE IV

MEETINGS

Section 1.   Place of Meetings
All meetings shall be held in the CDA Conference Room
in the Data Control Building or at any place agreeable
to the majority of Board Members in attendance when the
issue is considered.

Section 2.   Regular Meetings
Meetings shall be held on Wednesday morning every six
weeks or less if there is need. A notice announcing the
meeting shall be sent by the CTP office at least one
week previous to such meeting.

Section 3.   Special Meetings
Special meetings of the members for any purpose
whatsoever may be called at any time by the Chairman of
the Board. They may also be called by members who
constitute not less than one fourth of the total
membership that shall submit their request in writing
or verbally to the Chairman or Director and may
specify the time, place and purpose of the proposed
meeting. Written notice of each such special meeting
shall be given to each member in similar manner as
prescribed herein for the regular meeting with the exception
that notice may be given closer to the meeting time if
necessary.

Section 4.   Adjourned Meetings
Any meeting of the membership, regular or special,
whether or not a quorum is present may be adjourned
by the vote of a majority of members present; however,
in the absence of a quorum, no other business may be
transacted at such meeting.

Section 5.   Voting
Each member, shall have one vote in all matters which
are proper subjects for action by membership.

Section 6.   <u>Quorum</u>
The presence of a simple majority of members at any meeting shall constitute a quorum for the transaction of business.

Members present at a duly called or held meeting at which a quorum is present may continue to do business until adjournment, not withstanding the withdrawal of some members leaving less than a quorum.

Section 7.   <u>Substitutes</u>
Any member of the Board has the option of sending a substitute to represent him/her or the agency in the event that he/she is unable to attend a meeting. This substitute shall have the right to vote.

ARTICLE V

RULES AND PROCEDURES

Robert's <u>Rules of Order</u>, as modified, will be followed.

ARTICLE VI

ADOPTION OF THE BY-LAWS AND AMENDMENTS

The By-Laws or any amendment to the By-Laws must be presented and discussed at least one meeting prior to the vote on the By-Laws or amendment. The By-Laws and amendments to the By-Laws shall be adopted by a simple majority vote of the total membership.

July 31, 1973

ADVISORY BOARD MEETING (COMPREHENSIVE TRAINING PROGRAM CURRICULUM COMM.)

MINUTES

Meeting held July 11, 1973

1) Purpose of this meeting was to:

    a. Present new members of the Board
    b. Review CMU's End of Year Report.
    c. Discuss program directions for 4th Program Year
    d. Elect chairman

2) Attendance:

    a. Representing the RPOs:

WN Margaret Apo, Deputy Director	present
KP Fay Hidalgo, Secretary	present

    b. Representing the students:

WN Floyd Loving, CDA	present
WN Alohalani Pang, CTP	present
KP Ruth Boggs, Housing, Recorder	present
KP Roweena Kahaleiwi, CLS	absent

    c. Representing the Task Forces:

WN Rose Jackman, Chairman, Education	absent
KP Sister Grace Lim, Human Service	present

    d. Representing MC's Directors:

WN Mary Heenan, Education Center	present
KP Dorothy Douthit, Education Center	absent

    e. Representing CDA:

Judy Gordon, CTP Evaluator	present

    f. Representing Central Michigan University:

Christ Zivalich, Jr., Program Director	present
Clancy Bunyan, Counselor	present
Dr. Rosario Prizzia, Instructor	present

    g. Representing Research Corporation:

Gus Higuchi	present

h. Representing College of Continuing Education:

Dean Fred Mayer   present

i. Representing UH Manoa:

James Misajon, Director of Special Services   absent

j. Representing CTP:

Marty Dunning, Director   present

3) Agenda

a. Current Status of CTP.

M. Dunning brought the meeting to order and stated that the master
contract with the UH/College of Continuing Education has been signed
and sealed; also that the contract with Central Michigan University
is in the process of being negotiated and should be completed soon.
CTP will not be moving to the University of Hawaii but will remain at
the same location (at CDA). M. Dunning stated that Dean Mayer will
be the liaison with the UH.

b. Dean Maver expressed his hope of learning from his association with
the project and told about his visit to the CMU campus.

c. Progress Report.

Christ Zivalich elaborated on the status of the program and what has
happened so far, noting the fact that there have been two graduates
-- one for a Master's and one for a BS Degree. There was some con-
cern about graduate courses being held on Fridays and the fact that
graduate students cannot be excused from their jobs. The question
was brought up as to whether classes could be held in the evenings
and on Saturdays. Christ Zivalich suggested that graduate students
could make arrangements with the instructors to do extra work in a
400 level course to get credit at 500 level. He also suggested that
a survey be made to determine whether some night classes should be
held for those who cannot get off on Fridays.

d. Independent Study.

Independent study was also discussed. Ross Prizzia said that no such
study should go beyond eight weeks and should be completed by six
weeks. Ross Prizzia stated that this should not be given to just any-
body but only those who are really interested in having a particular
course. Ross Prizzia thought this should be recommended for graduate
students. CMU indicated that fifteen independent studies will equal
one course.

C. Zivalich questioned whether the independent studies should be
equally divided between WN and KP. M. Dunning stated that the

independent study program should also be publicized so that each person would know exactly how this works.

.e.   M. Dunning questioned whether the group wished to follow the suggestion that a survey should be made to find out whether CTF should expand or "concentrate" on demonstrating impact on a small number.

f.   Judy Gordon, evaluator for this project, described how an impact analysis could be done to see how much of an effect the project has on residents or how much they were able to get out of it.

.g.   Floyd Loving felt that independent studies should be open to either area and not split with so many for each area. In other words, there should be no restrictions on people who really want to better themselves. Floyd Loving thought that this Board should be flexible in regard to courses.

Dean Mayer agreed with Floyd Loving that the number of students should exceed what the contract allowed for each class or over enroll in an attempt to compensate for students who sign up but don't attend. Dean Mayer suggested an outreach type of approach instead of a questionnaire.

Floyd Loving felt that an all-out effort should be made to enroll, even to the extent of seeing their employers and citing the good it will do the employer for the enrollee to participate in this program.

h.   Aloha Pang suggested that for the next three months (October, November, December) a different type of schedule be tried.

i.   It was brought up by Clancy Bunyan that some class titles might be misleading, and that maybe the course title should "fit" the course.

j.   Floyd Loving (pinch-hitting for Jim Collins) conducted nominations for the office of Chairman of the Board. Sister Grace nominated Floyd Loving as Chairman of the Board. Sister Grace moved that the nominations be closed, seconded by Fay Hidalgo. Motion carried.

It was brought out that since Floyd Loving is an undergraduate, he is eligible for this nomination. Floyd Loving suggested that a Vice-chairman be nominated also in case the chairman is not available. Marty Dunning stated that according to the not yet adopted by-laws, a vice-chairman is not called for. Floyd Loving overruled this. Christ Zivalich nominated Sister Grace; Margaret Apo moved that Sister Grace be vice-chairman; seconded by Aloha Pang. Motion carried.

k.   Floyd Loving stated that concentration should be made on information available to the people, including those in Group III; they should be told that they can take courses offered by CMU.

l.   Christ Zivalich was asked to clarify whether a high school diploma or GED was absolutely necessary for the CMU program. He stated that a high school diploma is not really necessary when evidence shows that the student is capable of doing work of an undergraduate, but stated that

everyone should have a high school diploma or a GED in order to process their application for a degree through the Registrar's office.

m. CMU will consider as a candidate for a degree, a student who has completed 34 credit hours. The remaining 90 credits may be taken at other colleges to complete the degree.

n. Aloha Pang thought that a booklet of some sort should be published to inform people of KP and WN about educational programs that are available to them. A motion that some kind of sub-committee should be formed to compile an educational booklet to publicize this was made by Mary Heenan; seconded by Margaret Apo. Motion carried. Floyd Loving appointed Mary Heenan as chairman of this committee; she will report on this at the next meeting. Mary Heenan also has full power to draft members for this sub-committee on booklet to be publicized.

o. Floyd Loving asked for all the names of the members of the Board be made available to him at the next meeting which will be August 22, 1973 at 9:00 a.m., CDA Conference room.

Sister Grace moved that the meeting be adjourned; seconded by Fay Hidalgo. Motion carried.

The next meeting of the CTP Advisory Board will be held in the CDA conference room on August 22, 1973 from 9:00 a.m. to 11:00 a.m.

MARION P. DUNNING, Director
Comprehensive Training Program

Section IX

Information on the Institute for Personal and

Career Development, Including the

    A. Degree Options

    B. Curriculum Guidelines for the

        Bachelor of Science/Arts Degree

    C. Curriculum Guidelines for the

        Master of Arts Degree

THE INSTITUTE FOR PERSONAL & CAREER DEVELOPMENT

Academic programs that provide equal access to education—to provide either personal enrichment or career alternatives—are major goals of Central Michigan University. The Institute for Personal and Career Development represents an effort to extend those goals beyond the physical campus of the University. It offers educational opportunity to all who are qualified to benefit from it but who cannot do so through traditional methods because of job or personal circumstances. The Institute incorporates the University's high academic standards with innovative teaching technologies; faculty drawn from educational institutions, business and governmental agencies; and courses offered wherever students are and whenever they are available to take them.

The Institute's programs are designed to serve people whose career and personal responsibilities limit their access to education, who plan to interrupt their career or educational sequence, or who have been educationally disenfranchised because of economic circumstances, physical handicaps or other reasons. Courses and degree programs that build upon the student's knowledge, ability, interests, and work and life experiences are offered through an individualized approach to counseling, teaching and career planning.

The following information is offered to assist you as you embark on your program in this innovative approach to higher education:

DEGREE PROGRAMS

MASTER OF ARTS

Management and Supervision
Community Leadership

BACHELOR OF SCIENCE AND
BACHELOR OF ARTS

Management and Supervision
Community Development

ADMISSIONS REQUIREMENTS

UNDERGRADUATE

A high school diploma or successful completion of the GED examination.

GRADUATE

A four-year baccalaureate degree from an approved institution.

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HOW TO APPLY

Have transcripts sent from your high school or college to the regional center.

Complete the "Application for Admission" form available from all Institute offices and pay the $15 admission fee.

TRANSFER CREDIT

UNDERGRADUATE

Up to 90 semester hours of transfer credit may be applied to your degree program. Evaluation will take place automatically when all undergraduate transcripts and documentation verifying completion of service schools are received.* Upon receipt of the evaluation, you will meet with your learning consultant to determine which credits will apply to your program. Since credit from some unaccredited schools may be transferred, all such work should be submitted.

*To document Armed Forces Schools for transfer you must present your certificate of completion, DD214 or certification from the Adjutant General, listing dates of course, location, number of weeks duration, and correct title of the course.

GRADUATE

Up to 15 semester hours of graduate credit from universities with accredited schools of graduate studies may be applied to your program, providing such credit is applicable to your program. Six semester hours used to fulfill requirements of one Master's Degree may be transferred to another Master's Degree program.

To have such credit considered, submit a "Request for Transfer Credit," available from the regional office, to your learning consultant.

DEVELOPMENTAL EXPERIENCE CREDIT

Undergraduate--60 semester hours maximum.

Graduate--10 semester hours maximum.

Entered on official record after successfully completing 5 semester hours of course work.

Obtain forms and guides for preparation from Regional Center.

Normally evaluation takes from 6 to 8 weeks.

INDEPENDENT STUDY

Most students will be encouraged to take some independent studies (i.e. internship, readings, independent problems, etc.).

To apply for independent study submit an Application for Independent Study, available from the regional center, to your advisor.

VETERANS' BENEFITS

Applications for benefits are available from the regional center.

All VA paperwork should be processed thru the Institute Regional Office.

Either a certificate of availability or a Veteran's Benefits Card must be submitted at the time of enrollment for each course.

VA will not reimburse you for Developmental Experience Credit.

Make a copy of all VA paperwork for your own file.

If you are having VA problems submit a "VA Gripe" available at your regional center.

CORRESPONDENCE COURSES

(UNDERGRADUATE ONLY)

Correspondence Bulletins are available in the regional center offices.

YOUR DEGREE PROGRAM

After applying for admission, make an appointment thru your regional center with the learning consultant representing the area of concentration of your choice. The two of you will develop your personal degree program.

Your program guide is not "chiseled in stone." If you see a course that appeals to you but which is not on your program, check with your advisor about substituting it for one that does appear. You are encouraged to meet with him as often as you like.

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WITHDRAWAL FROM CLASSES AND REFUND OF TUITION

Requests to withdraw from a course must be made to the Director of the Institute.

Normally full refunds will be made if the course is not yet one-third completed and will not be allowed after the last class session.

If a course is more than one-third completed, a full or partial refund may or may not be made, depending on the reason for the request.

GRADUATION REQUIREMENTS

UNDERGRADUATE

124 semester hours--at least 34 from CMU.

Completion of all courses required by the Program Guide.

A 2.00 ("C") cumulative grade point average.

GRADUATE

30 semester hours--at least 15 from CMU.

Completion of all requirements stated on the Program Guide.

A 3.00 ("B") cumulative grade point average.

APPLICATION FOR GRADUATION

The deadlines for applying for graduation are:

February 1 for May Graduation
July 1 for September Graduation
September 15 for December Graduation

Applications are available from your regional center.

You must make application in order to graduate.

You may participate in the on-campus ceremonies, on-site ceremonies (if available) or both.

YOUR UNIVERSITY

As a new CMU student you are cordially invited to visit the main campus of your university. We think you will be pleased with its physical appearance as well as with its atmosphere of vigor, cordiality and inquiry.

There are about 14,000 students and 650·full-time faculty on the campus. The great majority of our students come from Michigan although some 35 other states and 22 foreign countries are also re,·resented. Undergraduates comprise about 90 per cent of the student body.

The University has five schools plus a graduate school and a division of Off Campus Education. Thirty-five academic departments are contained in the schools, offering eight bachelor's degrees, six master's degrees and four specialist degrees. Since its founding in 1892, CMU has graduated nearly 40,000 students and currently graduates about 3,200 a year. CMU gained university status in 1959.

Physically, the main campus consists of about 85 major buildings located on 872 acres. Reflecting CMU's programs, the campus offers both traditional and contemporary settings--trees shaded walkways near stately buildings and "moonscape" malls connecting sleek modern structures. While near several metropolitan centers, the campus is off the urban path, providing an excellent environment for learning. CMU is located in Mt. Pleasant, a community of 21,000 situated within easy access of the lakes, woodlands and ski slopes for which northern Michigan is famous.

CMU athletic teams have a respected tradition of excellence. As an NCAA University Division school, CMU participates in intercollegiate competition in 10 sports and is a member of the highly respected Mid-American Conference.

A.   APPROVED IPCD CURRICULA & OPTIONS
MASTER OF ARTS

MANAGEMENT & SUPERVISION

Financial Management
   Corporation Finance
   Governmental Finance
Personnel Management
Marketing Management
Industrial Management
Business Management
Health Care Administration

COMMUNITY LEADERSHIP

Community Services
Day Care & Nursery School
   Administration
Educational Administration
   General Ed. Administration
   Ele. School Administration
   Sec. School Administration
Human Dynamics in the
   Community Environment
Public Administration.
Recreation Administration
Recreation & Park Administration
Urban & Regional Planning
   Urban Planning
   Regional Planning

BACHELOR OF ARTS/SCIENCE

MANAGEMENT & SUPERVISION

Personnel Management
Production Management
Distribution & Marketing
Finance
Business Management
Office Administration
Health Care Administration

COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT

Community Services
Community Behavior
Recreation
Urban Affairs
Public Administration
School Health
Public Health

B.   CURRICULUM GUIDELINE FOR
BACHELOR OF SCIENCE DEGREE/BACHELOR OF ARTS DEGREE

COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT

The undergraduate program in Community Development is centered around
human needs and the structure and organization of the community. Oppor-
tunities are provided for the student to develop competencies of leadership
to function effectively as community planners to solve human problems, and
to innovate community change.

The program includes a sound basis in research, theory and experience in
understanding the functions and structures of the community. The range of
problems and tasks includes the scope of human needs as seen in areas such
as human relations, leisure, housing, health, education, transportation,
human rights, and ecology.

Degree Requirements

I.   General Education . . . . 50 sem. hrs.

The intent of General Education courses is to expose the individual to
such areas as: (a) Organization and Communication of Ideas, (b) Phy-
sical Environment and Biological Inheritance, (c) Social Inheritance
and Responsibilities, and (d) Insight and Appreciation. Each student
shall select a minimum of 50 semester hours of courses outside the area
of specialization. A specialization in (b) or (c) leads to a Bachelor
of Science Degree. A specialization in (a) or (d) leads to a Bachelor
of Arts Degree.

II. Area of Concentration . . . . 30-74 sem. hrs.
Total . . . . . 124 sem. hrs.

III. Competencies in Community Development

To fulfill the requirements for the Degree the student must be able
to demonstrate specific competencies which are inherent in a community
development specialization. These competencies are described in general
terms in points A through F. These competencies may be fulfilled by
courses in the general education block and/or in the area of concentra-
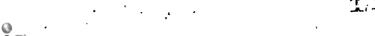tion.

There are four alternatives available to the student in demonstrating
those competencies or others that may be developed with an advisor on
an individual basis.

1. The student may have already demonstrated the specified compe-
tency through previous career or personal experience. These

abilities may be translated into academic credit through a professional evaluative process, utilizing the "Application for Developmental Experience", D-72.

2. Appropriate courses from the listings below and/or others may be used in formulating an individual program.

3. Special readings, independent studies and individual research may be arranged.

4. Internship and work-study may be established.

A. Basic competencies in process of human development.

1. Understanding growth, maturation, and death as related to the pre-natal period, infancy, childhood, adolescence, adult and geriatric age groups.

2. Possible course selections:

HED 106   Personal Health
HEC 109   Child Development: Introduction
REC 200   Problems in Recreation
PSY 2C2   Child Psychology
PED 203   Activity Program for Early Elementary Grades
REC 206   Activities of the Recreation Program
SOC 206   Social Psychology
HEC 208   Perspectives on Marriage
HEC 210   Child Development: Pre-school
HED 211   Human Anatomy and Physiology
HED 212   Applied Physiology and Kinesiology
PSY 212   Adolescent Psychology
HEC 309   Child Development: Middle Childhood
HED 318   Evaluation Procedures for Classroom Teachers
          in Health, Physical Education and Recreation
BIO 328   Human Animal
HEC 333   Family Relations
SOC 398   Special Topics in Sociology
HED 400   Methods and Materials in Nutrition Education
REC 400   Issues in Recreation
HED 401   Workshop on Health Fitness
REC 403   Independent Reading
HEC 409   Child Development - Adolescence
HEC 410   Seminar: Child Development
HEC 413   Readings in Child Development
PSY 422   Experimental Child Psychology
PSY 427   Human Motivation

B. Basic competencies in the functioning and interaction in community organizations.

1. Understanding fundamental principles of human interaction and the process of group formation and function, with special focus

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on institutions (political, economic, religion, educational,
family, racial and ethnic groups, bureaucratic organization
and special interest groups).

2. Possible course selections:

PSC 100   Introduction to Political Science
REC 200   Problems in Recreation
PSC 201   Introduction to American Government and Politics
HEC 204   Education for Consumers
ENG 302   Technical and Professional Report Writing
ENG 313   Popular Culture in America
ENG 397   Independent Study: In the Speculative Literature of
          urban civilization
ENG 480   Seminar in American Studies
HEC 208   Perspective on Marriage
SOC 208   Social Organization
SOC 260   The Sociology of Religion
PSC 261   State and Local Government
SOC 305   Educational Sociology
HEC 312   Family Management Theory
PSC 310   Public Bureaucracies and Policy Formation
GEO 313   Manufacturing Industries
GEO 314   World Agriculture and Commerce
REC 316   Field course in Organizational Recreation
PSC 320   The American Legislative Process
PSC 323   American Parties and Politics
PSC 324   Black Politics
PSC 329   American National Government
HED 333   Family Relations
HEC 334   The American Family in the Twentieth Century
GEO 340   Urban Geography
HED 366   Supervised Field Training
PSC 398   Special Topics in Political Science
REC 400   Issues in Recreation
HEC 401   Seminar: Sexism in America
HEC 408   Education for Home and Family Living
PSY 409   Group Dynamics
GEO 415   Michigan
HEC 417   Seminar: Family Relations
PSC 421   American Constitutional Law: Powers of Government.
PSC 422   American Constitutional Law: Civil Liberties
HEC 450   Seminar: Functions and Future of the Family
HEC 460   Readings in the Family
PSC 465   American Local Rural Government
PSC 466   Politics and Policy in Urban Communities
PSC 481   Special Topics in Political Behavior
PSC NEW   Public Policy Making

C. Basic competencies in working with and alleviating community problems.

1. Understanding those developments in individuals, and groups that
   threaten the viability of life and the reaching of goals established

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by the community (delinquency, human rights, poverty, population pressures, aging, leisure, health, disability, etc.).

2. Possible course selections:

REC 200   Problems in Recreation
SOC 204   Social Problems
PSY 205   Abnormal Psychology
HED 209   Safety Education
SOC 216   Juvenile Delinquency
HED 219   Emergency Health Care
HED 222   Sexuality in Health Education
HED 235   Mood Modifiers: Personal, School and Community
SOC 275   Urban Sociology
SOC 302   Sociology of Health and Illness
SOC 310   Minorities
HED 315   First Aid Instructors
REC 315   Field Course in Municipal Recreation
HED 319   Laboratory in Methods and Materials in
          Community Health Education
PSC 324   Black Politics
HED 327   Problems in Health Education
HEC 330   Nutrition
HEC 333   Family Relations
HEC 334   The American Family in the Twentieth Century
BIO 338   Conservation, Man and the Environment
BIO 340   Ecology
HST 345   The Negro in America
HED 352   Environmental Health
HEC 353   Child Development and Parents
HED 366   Supervised Field Training
HED 380   Practicum in Health Education
HED 400   Methods and Materials in Nutrition Education
REC 400   Issues in Recreation
HED 401   Workshops on Health Fitness
HEC 401   Seminar: Sexism in America
REC 405   Administration of Recreation and Parks
REC 406   Seminar in Recreation and Park Administration
SOC 407   Sociology of the Handicapped
REC 410   Recreation for Senior Citizens
SOC 411   Criminology
HEC 413   Readings in Child Development
PED 413   Programming for Youth Fitness
HED 416   Travel Course in Health Education
SOC 416   Problems in Juvenile Delinquency
REC 418   Philosophy of Recreation
HEC 419   Seminar: Human Sexuality
HEC 420   Family Housing
HED 420   Public Health Administration
PED 420   Problems in Inner-City Secondary Schools
          Physical Education
HED 421   Seminar: Management Problem of Low Income Families
HED 425   Venereal Disease Workshop

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HED 426   Mental Health Workshop
HED 427   Sex Education Workshop
HED 428   Smoking and Health Education Workshop
HED 429   Alcohol Education Workshop
HED 430   Drug Abuse Workshop
HED 431   School and Public Health Workshop
SOC 435   Society and Mental Illness
HEC 443   The Consumer in the Market
HEC 444   Family Finance
HEC 450   Seminar: Functions and Future of the Family
PED 451   Physical Education for the Handicapped
BIO 458   Conservation – Biology Camp
REC 460   Readings in the Family
HST 471   American Radicalism
PSC 472   American Political Thought

D. Basic competencies in understanding the effects of demography and human ecology.

1. Understanding trends in population growth and distribution and the interrelationships of people with their environment.

2. Possible course selections:

REC 200   Problems in Recreation
GEO 240   Population
GEO 250   The Cities of Man
SOC 275   Urban Sociology
SOC 311   Population
REC 315   Field course in Municipal Recreation
HEC 334   The American Family in the Twentieth Century
SOC 375   Rural Sociology
REC 400   Issues in Recreation
HEC 413   Readings in Child Development
HEC 417   Seminar: Family Relations
BIO 428   Population Ecology
REC 453   Family Camping
HEC 460   Readings in the Family
IET 497   Special Studies: Ecology and Technology

E. Basic competencies in community planning.

1. Understanding proposals for change and the elements involved in bringing about change to enhance the quality of life for the individual, the group and the community.

2. Possible course selections:

REC 118   Introduction to Recreation
REC 200   Problems in Recreation
BIO 240   Conservation of Michigan Resources
SOC 275   Urban Sociology
PSC 310   Public Bureacracies and Policy Formation
PSC 311   Public Administration Organization

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HEC 312	Family Management Theory
PSC 313	Budgetary Processes in the United States
HED 317	Community Health
GEO 322	Resource Perception and Utilization
HEC 333	Family Relations
HEC 334	The American Family in the Twentieth Century
HED 352	Environmental Health
HED 366	Supervised Field Training
REC 400	Issues in Recreation
REC 405	Administration of Recreation and Parks
REC 406	Seminar in Recreation and Park Administration
PSC 411	Personnel and Organization in Public Bureaucracies
REC 418	Philosophy of Recreation
HEC 420	Family Housing
HED 421	Seminar: Management Problems of Low Income Families
SOC 421	Analysis of Social Change
HEC 422	Seminar: Family Management
SOC 431	Seminar in the Community
HED 432	School Health Services Workshop
HEC 460	Readings in the Family
PSC 464	American State Government and Administration
PSC 465	American Local Rural Government
PSC 466	Politics and Policy in Urban Communities
GEO 475	Special Studies in Geography
PSC 483	Survey Research
BIO 494	Conservation of Natural Resources

F. Basic Competencies in management and administrative decision making.

1. Ability to select and use appropriate leadership styles in keeping with the accepted culture and climate of the organization.

2. Ability to develop an organizational climate to maximize the effectiveness of the individual within the organization.

3. Possible course selections:

BED 221	Introduction to Data Processing
B&A 312	Administration
B&A 320	Personnel Management
IET 325	Industrial Internship
B&A 329	Management Information Systems.
B&A 348	Dynamics of Organizational Behavior
B&A 385	Techniques of Decision Making I
B&A 386	Techniques of Decision Making II
IET 401	Application of Industrial Management Principles
IET 402	Computer Applications in Industry
BED 384	Systems and Procedures

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IV. Areas of Concentration

A. Community Services

1. Possible Course Selections

SOC 151   Introductory Sociology
PSC 201   Introduction to American Government and Politics
SOC 208   Social Organization
SOC 275   Urban Sociology
SOC 302   Sociology of Health and Illness
SOC 311   Population
SOC 317   Fields of Social Work
SOC 414   The Family
SOC 431   Seminar in the Community

B. Community Behavior

1. Possible Course Selections

SOC 151   Introductory Sociology
SOC 204   Social Problems
SOC 208   Social Organization
SOC 216   Juvenile Delinquency
SOC 307   Deviant Behavior
SOC 329   Collective Behavior
SOC 330   Public Opinion
SOC 411   Criminology
SOC 421   Analysis of Social Change

C. Recreation

1. Possible Course Selections

REC 118   Introduction to Recreation
REC 119   Lifesaving and Lifeguard Training
REC 200   Problems in Recreation
REC 270   Camp Counseling and Campcraft
REC 302   Playgrounds and Community Centers
REC 315   Field Courses in Municipal Recreation
REC 318   Field Course in Recreation Specialization
REC 400   Issues in Recreation
REC 410   Recreation for Senior Citizens

D. Urban Affairs

1. Possible Course Selections

B&A 110   Social Environment of Business
SOC 151   Introductory Sociology

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SOC 204 Social Problems
SOC 208 Social Organization
SOC 275 Urban Sociology
PSY 309 Social Psychology
SOC 311 Population
SOC 330 Public Opinion
BIO 340 Ecology
SOC 407 Sociology of the Handicapped
SOC 414 The Family
SOC 431 Seminar in the Community

E. Public Administration

1. Possible Course Selections

SOC 261 Introduction to Research Methods
PSC 261 State and Local Government
PSC 310 Public Bureaucracies and Policy Formation
PSC 311 Public Administration Organization
PSC 313 Budgetary Process in the United States
PSC 315 Public Administration in Developing Nations
PSC 320 The American Legislative Process
ECO 401 Contemporary Economic Issues
ECO 403 Seminar in Urban Economics
JRN 404 Public Relations Techniques
PSC 411 Public Personnel Administration
SOC 431 Seminar in the Community
B&A 445 Wage and Salary Administration
ECO 460 Public Finance
ECO 471 Seminar in State and Local Taxation

MANAGEMENT AND SUPERVISION

The undergraduate program in management and supervision is a broad base curri-
culum designed to provide students with the opportunity to develop competencies
in management and supervision at all levels of leadership in the areas of mar-
keting, finance, personnel, industrial management, and an individualized option
to meet specific needs of the individual.

The program provides background in general education and management. These
studies will include traditional classroom work, independent studies and re-
search, and interships appropriate to the individuals' needs. Emphasis is
placed on the human dynamics aspect of the organizational framework.

Degree Requirements

I. General Education . . . . 50 sem. hrs.

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The intent of General Education courses is to expose the individual
to such areas as: (a) Organization and Communication of Ideas,
(b) Physical Environment and Biological Inheritance, (c) Social
Inheritance and Responsibilities and (d) Insight and Appreciation.
Each student shall select a minimum of 50 semester hours of courses
outside the area of specialization. A specialization in (b) or (c)
leads to a Bachelor of Science Degree. A specialization in (a) or
(d) leads to a Bachelor of Arts Degree.

II. Area of Specialization . . . . 30-74 sem. hrs.

Total 124 sem. hrs.

III. Competencies in Management and Supervision

To fulfill the requirements for the Degree the student must be able to
demonstrate specific competencies which are inherent in a management and
supervision specialization. These competencies are described in general
terms in points A through G below. These competencies may be fulfilled by
courses in the general education block and/or in the area of concentration.

There are four alternatives available to the student in demonstrating these
competencies or others that may be developed with an advisor on an indivi-
dual basis.

1. The student may have already demonstrated the specified competency
   through previous career or personal experience. These abilities
   may be translated into academic credit through a professional eva-
   luative process utilizing the "Application for Developmental
   Experience", D-72.

2. Appropriate courses from the listings below and/or others may be
   used in formulating an individual program.

3. Special readings, independent studies, and indivividual research
   may be arranged.

4. Internship and work-study programs may be established.

A. Basic competencies in organizational theory in terms of establishment,
   development and operation.

   1. Ability to specify the proper legal requirements, establish purpose
      and delineate the structures.

   2. Ability to select the optimum organizational structure and assign
      responsibilities and delegation of authority.

   3. Ability to determine the optimum operational mode (line and/or
      staff) in keeping with the objectives and personnel talents and
      product or service.

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4. Possible course selections:

B&A 202   Legal Environment of Business
B&A 232   Law of Contracts and Business Organizations
B&A 312   Administration
B&A 402   Law of Commercial Transactions

B. Basic competencies in establishing organizational objectives at all levels and departments of the establishment.

1. Ability to establish and/or interpret department objectives consistent with organizational goals.

2. Ability to use creative planning to meet unexpected developments to establish routine operational procedures.

3. Possible course selections:

B&A 312   Administration
IET 325   Industrial Intership
B&A 329   Management Information Systems
B&A 348   Dynamics of Organizational Behavior
B&A 385   Techniques of Decision Making I
B&A 386   Techniques of Decision Making II
IET 401   Application of Industrial Management Principles
B&A 495   Business Policy and Practices

C. Basic competencies in determining and establishing policies.

1. Ability to translate organizational objectives to organizational policies through all levels of the organization.

2. Ability to establish the general and operational policies in relation to personnel, production, distribution, servicing and finance.

3. Ability to develop procedures to update or modify policies as required through the initiation of new policies, their approval and issuance, and enforcement.

4. Possible course selections:

B&A 312   Administration
B&A 332   Managerial Finance
IET 400   Production Concepts
IET 421   Study of American Industry
B&A 440   Production Management
B&A 463   Marketing Management

E. Basic competencies in internal organizational operations

1. Ability to establish and maintain daily operations such as wage

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and salary administration, employee evaluation, human organization.

2. Ability to evaluate success level of current internal operations and project future needs and implement the necessary action to meet the necessary needs.

3. Possible course selections:

BED 221   Introduction to Data Processing
IET 402   Computer Applications in Industry
ACC 422   Managerial Cost Control and Analysis
B&A 442   Production Planning and Control
B&A 446   Industrial Relations
PSY 469   Special issues: Contemporary Issues in Industry
          and Organized Psychology

F. Basic competencies in identifying the role of the organization in the society.

1. Ability to analyze the role in relation to other similar organizations in terms of economic environment, social environment, ecological environment.

2. Ability to analyze product life cycle, substantiality of product, and new product development.

3. Ability to determine the advisability of vertical or horizontal integration.

4. Possible course selections:

B&A 110   Social Environment of Business
B&A 310   Business Entrepreneurship
B&A 390   Field Studies in Business
B&A 520   Foundations of American Enterprise

G. Basic competencies in management and supervisory knowledge and skills associated with people, production, distribution, and financing.

1. Ability to successfully achieve organization goals through the employee performances.
2. Ability to demonstrate the knowledge of management of production, or distribution, or finance.

Courses selected in cooperation with advisor to reflect area of special interest in personnel, production, distribution, and/or financing. Possible courses may be found in the areas of concentration listed below.

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IV. Areas of Concentration (possible course selections):

A. Personnel Management

B&A 320   Personnel Management
PSY 326   Industrial Psychology
B&A 445   Wage and Salary Administration
B&A 446   Industrial Relations

B. Production Management

B&A 333   Purchasing
IET 400   Production Concepts
IET 401   Application of Industrial Management Principles
B&A 442   Production Planning and Control
B&A 443   The Management of Quality Control
IET 497   Successful Leadership Action

C. Distribution and Marketing

B&A 323   Markets and Marketing
B&A 352   Industrial Marketing
B&A 354   Sales Management
B&A 355   Advertising Management
B&A 420   Fundamentals of Retailing
B&A 463   Marketing Management
B&A 464   Marketing Problems

D. Finance

ACC 101   Principles of Accounting - Introduction I
ACC 102   Principles of Accounting - Introduction II
HEC 204   Education for Consumers
ACC 227   Principles of Accounting - Intermediate I
ACC 228   Principles of Accounting - Intermediate II
ACC 321   Cost Accounting
B&A 332   Managerial Finance
ACC 410   Auditing
ACC 422   Managerial Cost Control and Analysis
HEC 443   The Consumer in the Market
HEC 444   Family Finance
ACC 458   Principles of Accounting - Advanced
ACC 462   Accounting Information Systems and Analysis
B&A 474   Advanced Financial Management

E. Business Management

B&A 202   Legal Environment of Business
B&A 312   Administration

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> B&A 329 Management Information Systems
> B&A 385 Techniques of Decision Making I
> B&A 386 Techniques of Decision Making II

F. Office Management

> BED 197 Secretarial Accounting
> BED 221 Introduction to Data Processing
> BED 318 Office Management
> BED 320 Records Management and Control
> B&A 312 Administration
> B&A 445 Wage and Salary Administration
> BED 384 Systems and Procedures
> BED 222 Computer Programing - RPB Disk

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C. CURRICULUM GUIDELINE FOR
MASTER OF ARTS DEGREE

COMMUNITY LEADERSHIP

The graduate program in Community Leadership provides opportunities to
develop competencies in dealing with the human needs of individuals and
groups. The program places emphasis on the theory and nature of community
culture and its values and processes blended with dissemination techniques
to better solve the problems related to neighborhood housing, education,
poverty, leisure, health, etc. Special consideration is given to those
groups that have had limited educational opportunity and to those individuals
who are involved in social decision making.

The primary goal of the program is on developing an understanding of the pro-
cess of mobilizing the resources relevant to affect both community maintenance
and necessary local change. Several aspects of personal development are neces-
sary for individuals to be able to recognize these conditions. The following
general competency goals constitute the core of the program. This set of inter-
related goals should develop the conceptual skills on which more specific areas
of specialization could be based.

Degree Requirements

Individualized Nature of the Program

The central goal of the program is to meet the needs of the student; to
do this a flexible approach, embracing a close relationship between
student and advisor, coupled with a strong educational experience, is
required. Therefore, little more can be formally specified beyond stating
a minimum total of thirty semester hours. The competency goals and the
general competency areas and an area of specialization, if one is de-
sired by the student, are determined jointly by the student and the
advisor. As a general guide a variety of courses which might meet the
competency goals are provided below. Likewise, a variety of courses
are listed for several specialty areas, although neither these areas nor
the listed courses should be considered definitive.

I. Areas of Competency in Community Leadership.

To fulfill the requirements for the Degree the student must be able to
demonstrate specific competencies which are inherent in a community
leadership concentration. These competencies are described in general
terms in points A through F below.

There are four alternatives available to the student in demonstrating these
competencies or others that may be developed with an advisor on an indi-
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1. The student may have already demonstrated the specified competency through previous career or personal experiences. These abilities may be translated into academic credit through a professional evaluative process utilizing the "Application for Developmental Experience", D-72.

2. Appropriate courses from the listings below and/or others may be used in formulating an individual program.

3. Special readings, independent studies and individual research.

4. Internship and work-study programs may be established.

A. Basic competencies in understanding the community process.

1. Cognitive awareness of the general environment of communities should be developed as well as the various component parts and the external mechanisms that support them. These include the:

   a. Economic means of private and public production, consumption, and distribution of goods;

   b. Social control mechanisms of the informal polity of the community as well as the formal government and its legal powers;

   c. Socialization processes of education and learning;

   d. Mutual aid mechanisms providing constitutent services;

   e. Social participation of the population as it becomes involved in voluntary associationship and recreational activity.

2. Possible course selections:

   SOC 423   Social Stratification
   SOC 424   Political Sociology
   SOC 431   Seminar in the Community
   PSC 466   Politics and Policy in Urban Communities
   EAD 467   Principles of Community Education
   EAD 561   School and Community Relations
   EAD 567   Administration of Community Education
   GEO NEW   Community Material Resources

B. Basic competencies in the critical use of empirical observations

1. Use of previously collected data should be emphasized. The student should be made aware of what resources are available and how to use them. There is a special need to facilitate the correct use of these data.

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2. Understand both the formal and informal communication structures
and be able to utilize them. Course work should thus be taken
that stresses the relevant channels the student would be expected
to deal with in the future. Such themes as community opinion
leaders and information distortio- should be emphasized.

3. Po ible course selections:

JRN 404   Public Relations Techniques
SDA 406   Studies in Discussion Leadership
B&A 455   Communication and Management
SDA 460   Communication and Change: The Diffusion of Ideas
          and ormation
PSC 466   Politic nd Policy in Urban Communities
B&A 510   Methods of Business Research
PSC 510   Seminar in Public Bureaucracies and Policy Formation
EAD 561   School and Community Relations

4. Possible course selections:

PSY 409   Group Dynamics
GCE 483   Guidance in Secondary Schools
GCE 484   Guidance in Elementary Schools
GCE 532   Group Techniques in Guidance
SED 537   Mental Hygiene
B&A 548   Organizational Behavior and Change
PSY NEW   Personal Awareness Seminar

II. Areas of Specialization

To develop depth in the area of Community Leadership, the student may
wish to select, in consultation with his advisor a series of courses
in an area of specialty. The availability of these specializations vary
according to the number of students interested in a particular option in
the specific location. These courses should consist of approximately
half of the required minimum total of the thirty semester hours in the
program. In cases of demonstrated previously obtained ability, again, only
about half of the program should be considered as constituting an area
of specialty. In developing a student's program, both the student and
advisor must be alert to the selection of courses of a special nature
which also fulfill the six general competency goals cited above.

A. Specialty in Community Services

ECO 401   Contemporary Economic Issues
HEC 401   Seminar: Sexism in America
REC 405   Administration of Recreation and Parks
SOC 407   Sociology of the Handicapped
HEC 409   Child Development: Adolescence
SOC 411   Criminology
SOC 416   Problems in Juvenile Delinquency -

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UEC 419 Seminar: Human Sexuality
HED 420 Public Health Administration
HEC 420 Family Housing
HED 425 Venereal Disease Workshop
HED 426 Mental Health Workshop
HED 427 Sex Education Workshop
HED 428 Smoking and Health Education Workshop
HED 429 Alcohol Education Workshop
HED 430 Drug Abuse Workshop
HED 431 School and Public Safety Workshop
SOC 431 Seminar in the Community
SOC 435 Society and Mental Illness
SOC 438 Sociology of Occupations
SOC 454 Sociology of Adolescence
EAD 467 Principles of Community Education
HEC 450 Seminar: Functions and Future of the Family
HEC 460 Readings in the Family
SOC 501 Educational Sociology
HED 526 Community and Public Health
HED 567 Administration of Community Education
EAD 570 Administration of the Elementary School
EAD 571 Administration of the Middle School
EAD 572 Administration of the Secondary School
SOC NEW Advanced Medical Sociology
SOC NEW Social Welfare

B. Day Care and Nursery School Administration

HEC 410 Seminar: Child Development
HEC 413 Readings in Child Development
HEC 414 Nutrition Work with Children
HEC 421 Seminar: Management Problems of Low Income Families
HEC 436 Occupational Field Experience
HEC 455 Seminar: Supervision and Planning of the Pre-School
HEC 458 Pre-School Administration
HEC 460 Readings in the Family

C. Specialty in Educational Administration

General Education Administration

EAD 467 Principles of Community Education
EAD 492 Workshop in Educational Administration
SOC 501 Seminar in Educational Sociology
EAD 560 Principles of Educational Administration
EAD 561 School and Community Relations
EAD 562 School and Business Administration
EAD 563 Personnel Administration
EAD 564 Public School Finance
EAD 565 School Plant: Planning, Management and Operation
EAD 566 Public School Law

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EAD 567 Administration of Community Education
EAD 569 Negotiations in Education
EAD 576 Administration of Community Colleges
EAD 580 Seminar in Educational Administration

Elementary School Administration

ELE 405 Contemporary trends in Elementary Education
EAD 492 Workshop in Educational Administration
SOC 501 Seminar in Educational Sociology
ELE 504 Supervision of Elementary School Instruction
ELE 536 Advanced Educational Psychology
EAD 560 Principles of Educational Administration
EAD 561 School and Community Relations
EAD 563 Personnel Administration
EAD 564 Public School Finance
EAD 566 Public School Law
EAD 570 Administration of Elementary Schools
EAD 571 Administration of Middle Schools
EAD 580 Seminar in Educational Administration

Secondary School Administration

EAD 492 Workshop in Educational Administration
SED 501 Jr. High School Programs and Practices
SOC 501 Seminar in Educational Sociology
SED 502 Sr. High School Programs and Practices
SED 510 History of Education
SED 541 Adolescent Psychology
SED 553 Supervision of Secondary Education
EAD 560 Principles of Educational Administration
EAD 561 School and Community Relations
EAD 564 Public School Finance
EAD 566 Public School Law
EAD 567 Administration of Community Education
EAD 571 Administration of Middle Schools
EAD 572 Secondary School Administration
EAD 580 Seminar in Educational Administration

D. Specialty in Human Dynamics in the Community Environment

JRN 404 Public Relations Techniques
SOC 407 Sociology of the Handicapped
PSY 409 Group Dynamics
SOC 411 Criminology,
SOC 414 The Family
HEC 417 Seminar: Family Relations
SOC 419 Sociology of Small Groups
SOC 424 Political Sociology
PSY 427 Human Motivation
BIO 428 Population Ecology
SOC 431 Seminar in the Community

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SOC 438   Sociology of Occupations
B&A 446   Industrial Relations
B&A 455   Communication and Management
SOC 456   Studies in Social Psychology
SOC 469   Society and Sex
HST 471   American Radicalism
PSC 481   Political Behavior: Special Topics
IET 497   Special Studies: Planning and Decision Making
IET 497   Special Studies: Successful Leadership Action
B&A 548   Organizational Behavior and Change
B&A 550   Executive Leadership and Leaders
EAD 563   Personnel Administration
GEO 575   Cultural Geography: Seminar
SOC 576   Seminar in Culture and Personality
B&A 581   Administrative Problems and Practices
B&A 584   Management Development
GEO 585   Seminar in Regional Concepts
SOC NEW   Advanced Urban Sociology

E. Specialty in Public Administration

JRN 400   Press and Society
ECO 401   Contemporary Economic Issues
ECO 403   Seminar in Urban Economics
JRN 404   Public Relations Techniques
ECO 410   Government and Business
PSC 411   Public Personnel Administration
PSC 415   Comparative Bureaucracies
HED 420   Public Health Administration
SOC 431   Seminar in the Community
SOC 439   Industrial Sociology
PSC 442   Politics of Modernization
B&A 445   Wage and Salary Administration
B&A 446   Industrial Relations
B&A 455   Communications and Management
ECO 460   Public Finance
PSC 464   American State Government and Administration
PSC 465   American Local Rural Government
PSC 466   Politics and Policy in Urban Communities
ECO 471   Seminar in State and Local Taxation
HST 471   American Radicalism
B&A 474   Advanced Financial Management
PSC 481   Special Topics in Political Behavior
IET 497   Special Studies: Planning and Decision Making
IET 497   Special Studies: Successful Leadership Action
PSC 510   Seminar in Public Bureaucracy and Policy Formation
PSC 511   Seminar in Comparative Public Administration
PSC 520   Seminar in American National Government
PSC 521   Seminar in the American Judicial Process
PSC 524   Seminar in American Political Parties
B&A 530   Public Policy and American Enterprise
BED 540   A Survey of Data Processing

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SED 545	Methods of Educational Research
B&A 548	Organization Behavior and Change
B&A 550	Executive Leadership and Leaders
EAD 563	Personnel Administration
PSC 564	Seminar in American State Government
PSC 565	Seminar in Local Government and Politics
B&A 575	Managerial Economics
B&A 577	Development of Management Thought
B&A 580	Quantitative Decision Making
B&A 581	Administrative Problems and Practices
B&A 584	Management Development
B&A 585	Principles of Managerial Productivity
B&A 587	Managerial Measurements and Control
B&A NEW	Project Planning and Budgeting Systems
B&A NEW	Manpower Administration and Planning
SOC NEW	Cultural Awareness
PSC NEW	Public Policy Making

F. Specialty in Recreation and Park Administration

REC 400	Issues in Recreation
REC 405	Administration of Recreation and Parks
REC 406	Seminar in Recreation and Park Administration
REC 418	Philosophy in Recreation
REC 453	Family Camping
REC 460	Outdoor Education - School Camping
REC 475	The Undergraduate Curriculum in Recreation and Parks Education
REC 500	Advanced Issues in Recreation
REC 503	Advanced Independent Readings in Recreation
REC 515	Practicum in Recreation Supervision and Administration
REC 520	Planning, Development, and Maintenance of Park and Recreation Facilities
REC 552	Outdoor Recreation
REC 553	Organized Camping
REC 554	Seminar in Recreation
REC 575	The Graduate Curriculum in Recreation and Parks Education
REC NEW	Recreation in Community Organizations

G. Specialty in Urban and Regional Planning

Urban Planning

SOC 419	Sociology of Small Groups
ECO 460	Public Finance
PSC 466	Politics and Policy in Urban Communities
B&A 470	Real Estate Law
IET 497	Special Studies: Planning and Decision Making
GEO NEW	Spatial Systems and Planning
GEO NEW	Community Material Resources

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    REC NEW   Recreation in Community Organization
    SOC NEW   Urban Sociology
    PSC NEW   Public Policy Making

Regional Planning

    SOC 419   Sociology of Small Groups
    GEO 422   Problems in Resource Utilization
    BIO 428   Population Ecology
    PSC 465   American Local Rural Government
    B&A 470   Real Estate Law
    BIO 494   Conservation of Natural Resources
    IET 497   Special Studies: Planning and Decision Making
    REC 520   Planning, Development, and Maintenance of Park
                 and Recreation Facilities
    GEO NEW   Spatial Systems and Planning
    GEO NEW   Environmental Issues in Planning

MANAGEMENT AND SUPERVISION

The graduate program in Management and Supervision provides opportunities
for breadth of education as well as for a reasonable amount of specializa-
tion. It includes courses which assure the development of a basic
understanding of the principles and practices involved in the management
of business and industrial firms and other organizations in the dynamic eco-
nomic, social, and political environment of the world today. Students are
expected to gain administrative, human relations, and technical competencies
in relationship to their area of specialization.

The primary objective of the program is to prepare prospective administrators
and supervisors to deal with problems of choice, complexity, and change in-
volved in the successful management of various types of organizations in an
everchanging environment. This preparation includes not only a thorough
grounding in the basic fundamentals of current knowledge but also development
of the ability to adapt, to initiate, and even to control change itself.

Degree Requirements

I. Individualized Nature of the Program

    The options available in the program provide numerous alternatives for
    the student. There are specific areas of specialization, such as
    finance, personnel, and industrial management, or an individualized
    option, all of which are designed within specified guidelines and com-
    petencies to serve the student. The manner in which these are fulfilled
    are determined jointly by the student and the advisor. As a general
    guide, a variety of courses which might meet the competency goals are
    provided below. Likewise, a variety of courses are listed for several
    specialty areas, although neither these areas nor the listed courses
    should be considered definitive.

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II. Areas of Competency in Management and Supervision

To fulfill the requirements for the Degree the student must be able
to demonstrate specific competencies which are inherent in a management
and supervision specialization. These competencies are described in
general terms in points A through C.

There are four alternatives available to the student in demonstrating
these competencies or others that may be developed with an advisor on
an individual basis.

1. The student may have already demonstrated the specified com-
petency through previous career or personal experiences.
These abilities may be translated into academic credit through
a professional evaluative process utilizing the "Application
for Developmental Experience", D-72.

2. Appropriate courses from the listings below and/or others may
be used in formulating an individual program.

3. Special readings, independent studies, and individual research
may be arranged.

4. Internship and work-study programs may be established.

A. Basic competencies required to perform the specific tasks involved
in the area of specialization.

1. Ability to use pertinent knowledge, methods, techniques, and
equipment necessary to perform specific tasks in management and
supervision.

2. The specific technical competencies required in the specializa-
tions and possible course selections for marketing, finance,
personnel, and industrial management are stated under each spe-
cialty area. The competencies for the individualized option
are designed specifically on an individual basis.

B. Basic competencies in human relation abilities in dealing with emo-
tional and motivational development in interpersonal relations.

1. Ability to use pertinent knowledge of methods and working with
and through people associated with varied business and industrial
roles.

2. Ability to integrate the goals of an individual with the objectives
of the organization.

3. Ability to work with other people effectively, understand them,
and communicate with them.

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   4. Possible course selections:

       IET 401 Application of Industrial Management Principles
       JRN 404 Public Relations Techniques
       SDA 406 Studies in Discussion Leadership
       PSY 409 Group Dynamics
       SOC 419 The Sociology of Small Groups
       SOC 431 Seminar in the Community
       PSY 427 Human Motivation
       B&A 446 Industrial Relations
       SDA 460 Communication and Change: The Diffusion of Ideas
                   and Information
       PSC 481 Special Topics in Political Behavior
       B&A 548 Organization Behavior and Change
       IET 597 Special Studies: Industrial Ecology
       IET NEW Industrial Organizations
       PSY NEW Industrial Psychology

C. Basic competencies in meeting the demands of an organization for
    unified activity and integrative action.

   1. Ability to think and act in terms of the total organizational
       system.

   2. Ability to function in complex problem-solving situations for
       the purpose of attaining particular objectives related to the
       organization.

   3. Ability to plan, program, and organize business and industrial
       tasks and activities.

   4. Possible course selections:

       IET 401 Application of Industrial Management Principles
       IET 402 Computer Applications in Industry
       B&A 480 Business Statistics
       SED 481 Statistics in Education
       B&A 510 Methods of Business Research
       B&A 520 Foundations of American Enterprise
       B&A 548 Organization Behavior and Change
       B&A 550 Executive Leadership and Leaders
       B&A 581 Administrative Problems and Practices
       B&A 585 Principles of Managerial Productivity
       B&A 590 Business Organization and Policy
       IET 597 Special Studies: Successful Leadership Action

III. Area of Specialization

      To develop in the area of Management and Supervision, the student may
      select, in consultation with his advisor, a series of courses in
      specialty areas of marketing, finance, personnel, or industrial

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management; or an individualized option. The availability of these
specializations vary according to the number of students interested
in a particular option in the specific location. These courses
should consist of approximately two thirds of the required minimum
total of thirty semester hours in the program. In developing a stu-
dent's program, both the student and advisor must be alert to the
selection of courses that fulfill the general competencies as stated
above.

A. Specialty in Finance

Corporation Finance

1. Inter-relationships between area of finance and all other
areas in a business enterprise.

B&A 574 Financing and Management of Corporate Assets
B&A 578 Long Term Financial Policies
B&A NEW Managerial Finance

2. Measurement of Financial Matters - accounting

ACC 531 Accounting for Business Management
B&A 574 Financing and Management of Corporate Assets
B&A 578 Long Term Financial Policies
B&A NEW Managerial Finance

3. Automation in finance and accounting - computer systems

ACC 462 Accounting Information Systems and Analysis
B&A 574 Financing and Management of Corporate Assets
B&A NEW Managerial Finance

4. Reporting of financial matters. Reporting requirements for
purposes of taxation (federal, state, local income taxes,
payroll taxes, franchise taxes, property taxes, inventory
taxes, etc.). Reporting requirements for SEC, stockholders,
stock exchanges.

B&A 574 Financing and Management of Corporate Assets
B&A 578 Long Term Financial Policies
B&A NEW Managerial Finance

Governmental Finance

1. Financial problems and approaches in local, state, and
federal agencies.

2. Possible course selections:

ECO 460 Public Finance
ECO 471 Seminar in State and Local Taxation
ECO NEW Money and Banking

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B. Specialty in Personnel

1. Knowledge of personnel procedures and methods in functional
    personnel areas such as forecasting manpower requirements,
    conducting wage and salary surveys or constructing employee
    evaluation and improvement programs.

    B&A 440   Production Management
    B&A 445   Wage and Salary Administration
    B&A 583   Business Personnel Management
    B&A 584   Management Development
    PSY NEW   Industrial Psychology

2. Skill in formulating proposals covering desired personnel
    programs and the ability to present these in a suitable
    persuasive manner to top management.

    B&A 450   Business Report Writing
    B&A 455   Communication and Management
    SDA 460   Communication and Change: The Diffusion of
              Lines and Information

3. Skills in interpersonal and group communication. This
    would involve a working knowledge of semantics and the
    technical methods of interviewing.

    PSY 409   Group Dynamics
    SDA 460   Communication and Change: The Diffusion of Ideas
              and Information

4. Insight and skill in judging or assessing human qualities,
    needs, motivations and responses. This would include an
    effective understanding of the use of psychological tests,
    with emphasis on their administration and interpretation.

    SOC 439   Industrial Sociology
    B&A 550   Executive Leadership and Leaders

5. Possession of professional insight relative to the dynamics of
    individual and group behavior within organizations.

    B&A 540   Organization Behavior and Change

6. Knowledge of law governing labor relations and of the strategies
    involved in the negotiation of labor agreements and the handling
    of grievances.

    ECO 414   Labor Economics
    ECO 415   Collective Bargaining and Labor Law
    B&A 446   Industrial Relations

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C. Specialty in Marketing

1. Knowledge of Vocabulary used in marketing

   B&A NEW Marketing and Markets

2. Concept of the marketing process including the "Marketing Concept".

   B&A 563 Development of Marketing Thought

3. A concept of the interdisciplinary nature of marketing, including such areas as economics, psychology, sociology, etc.

   B&A 463 Marketing Management

4. A concept of pricing as used by various institutions in marketing.

   B&A 463 Marketing Management
   B&A 561 Marketing Strategy

5. A concept of the "marketing mix" or "strategy in marketing".

   B&A 463 Marketing Management

6. Concept of "consumer buying behavior".

   B&A 560 Seminar in Marketing Problems

7. Concept of the environment for making marketing decisions including Government and Marketing and Ethics in marketing.

D. Specialty in Industrial Management

1. Ability to use pertinent knowledge, methods, techniques necessary for the performance of specific tasks and activities in industry.

   IET 400 Production Concepts
   IET 402 Computer Applications in Industry
   IET 421 Study of American Industry
   IET 423 Field Study in Industry
   IET 597 Special Studies: Industrial Ecology

2. Ability to plan for and manage production functions and to supervise personnel performing the functions.

   IET 400 Production Concepts
   IET 401 Application of Industrial Management Principles
   IET 421 Study of American Industry

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  IET 423 Field Study in Industry
  B&A 440 Production Management
  B&A 442 Production Planning and Control
  B&A 443 The Management of Quality Control
  IET 597 Special Studies: Successful Leadership Action

3. Ability to use appropriate motor skills of doing industrial tasks as well as the abstract orientations and basic frames of reference that are normally associated with the industrial environment.

  IET 467 New Materials and Processes
  IET 476 Numerical Control Programming
  IET 478 Materials Testing
  IET 482 Power Technology
  IET 492 Electronics Technology

E. Specialty in Business Management

1. General knowledge of the field of quantitative analysis including basic techniques.

  B&A 480 Business Statistics
  B&A 580 Quantitative Decision Making
  B&A 587 Managerial Measurements and Control

2. General knowledge of the use of computers.

  BED 540 A Survey of Data Processing

3. General knowledge of behavior of individuals in groups, social organizations, human motivations, etc.

  B&A 548 Organization Behavior and Change
  PSY 409 Group Dynamics
  PSY 527 Motivation and Emotion

4. General awareness of management through place in society, responsibilities, and influences on management thought.

  B&A 520 Foundations of American Enterprise
  B&A 530 Public Policy and American Enterprise
  B&A 577 Development of Management Thought
  B&A 590 Business Organizations and Policy

F. Individualized Specialty

This option allows the student to select a program, with the consent of his advisor, that allows him to attain a particular set of objectives. These objectives must be commensurate with his employer's requirement, his career aspirations, or with his past experimental or academic background.

Section X

A. FY 1974 Contract for Services Agreement

B. HUD's "University Without Walls" -- An Article

by Dr. Melvin Wachs

CONTRACT FOR SERVICES

AGREEMENT

THIS AGREEMENT made and entered into this _____

day of _____197___, effective as of July 1, 1973, by and between

THE RESEAR CORPORATION OF THE UNIVERSITY OF HAWAII (RCUH) and Central

Michigan University (CMU), a Michigan Constitutional Educational Corporation,

herein defined as CMU.

WITNESSETH:

WHEREAS, The Research Corporation of the University of Hawaii

has entered into a contract with the United States of America for a grant

for the planning and implementation of the Comprehensive City Demonstration

Program for the Model Neighborhood Areas of Kalihi-Palama and Waianae-

Nanakuli, hereinafter referred to as the "MNAs," pursuant to Title I of the

Demonstration Cities and Metropolitan Development Act of 1966; and

WHEREAS, in utilizing the HUD University Without Walls Program,

the CMU will conduct employment-related training and education for the

Honolulu Model Neighborhood Areas, residents; and

WHEREAS, the training will combine academic and on-the-job compo-

nents; and

WHEREAS, The Research Corporation of the University of Hawaii and

CMU desire that the educational objectives of the "University Without Walls"

concept be advanced and that the goals set forth above be accomplished and

enter into this Agreement for that purpose; and

WHEREAS, The Research Corporation of the University of Hawaii desires

to engage an Independent Contractor with the ability to undertake the unique

requirements of the project and to render certain services on a contract basis

which do not admit of competition;

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WHEREAS, for purposes of this contract CMU is considered to be a "Contractor" within the meaning of the definitions contained in CDA Letter Number 8, Part II dated June 1969, HUD Handbook.

NOW, THEREFORE, The parties hereto do mutually agree as follows:

A. SCOPE OF SERVICES

1. CMU shall perform but not be limited to the following services:

   a. Make available the equivalent of 30 courses, each giving 3 semester hours of credit with the required size of class not to be larger than 30 students, except that CMU may allow a larger enrollment in classes where the larger size will not have a detrimental effect on the quality of instruction provided according to university standards.

   b. Make available trained counselors to counsel participants on course selection, career and degree objectives, supplemental or remedial training, (subject to screening paragraph 2 a,b), and such other matters bearing on each student's individual development. In this regard, counseling shall assist participants in selecting courses which are employment oriented and which would enhance the student's chances to seek or improve employment status.

   c. Make available textbooks and course materials without additional charge. Assemble and deliver to the RCUH or its representative all necessary pre-course reading materials, course outlines and other learning materials

prior to the beginning of each class.

d. Assign a program manager to be regularly present in
the City of Honolulu who shall be responsible for
administering the project and acting as a coordinator
during the term of the contract period, and who shall
operate from an established office. CMU shall bear the
cost of the office operation and rental.

e. Provide each student participant in the program who
completes an application for Developmental Experience
with an analysis of his work and past academic record,
granting academic credit as appropriate within existing
standards established by CMU. Evaluation of Developmental
Experience will be completed within three months of the
date that all relevant data are submitted. Developmental
Experience credit will be entered on offici student
records after the student has successfully completed 5
semester hours of course work. A minimum of 150 such
analyses shall be the program goal and the maximum shall be
300 including the analyses and Developmental Experiences
processed since February 1, 1972. To the extent possible
all analyses shall be completed not later than January 21,
1974.

f. Furnish RCUH or its representative with grade reports on
each student at the completion of each course, provided
students give their consent for such reports (in accordance
with CMU's Student Information Policy). In addition, furnish
evaluation reports of the program at regular, agreed upon

intervals.

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g. If the total number of qualified participants and
duly authorized auditors enrolled in any course is less·
than 10, to reschedule the course at a later date. If
upon rescheduling, enrollment for the course is not 10
or more, CMU will schedule another mutually agreed upon
course.

h. To make available 100 independent studies (3 sem. hrs.
each) for those students who request such a study program.

i. CMU reserves the right to make all determinations relevant
to academic assessment of students and their continued
enrollment as degree-seeking participants in its program.
Any Model Cities sponsored student may audit courses on
a non-credit, non-degree earning status. Auditors who
later qualify for admission to the degree program of the
Institute for Personal and Career Development will have
their performance in the audit considered when granting
academic credit (as provided in paragraph A-1-e).

j. CMU agrees to offer the 30 courses referred to earlier
(see A1a) within 12 months from July 1, 1973. In addition,
independent studies shall also be completed within the
time limits established for the particular type of independent
study undertaken, with students encouraged to complete their
work within the time limits of the contract.

k. As part of its agreement with RCUH, CMU will pay for all
instructional services required under this contract and,
in addition, will pay the salaries of its own Hawaii-based
employees. CMU will also pay all travel and per diem costs

of all independent contractors and project staff according to CMU policy. The RCUH will not be responsible for any additional fees or charges except to the extent of the entire contract amount of $151,000.00.

1. CMU agrees to make reasonable schedule adjustments as the the release time of the student groups change and as the learning styles of the student group become more apparent.

   a. CMU agrees to designate one member of its staff to act as a regular, identifiable channel of communication and source of information with a person designated by RCUH.

2. The Research Corporation of the University of Hawaii (through the UH Manoa College of Continuing Education) shall perform, but not be limited to, the following services:

   a. Screen participants to determine their eligibility in the program with the understanding that CMU shall determine under its requirements, uniformly applied, which participants are qualified to enroll for credit and which participants, if not qualified for credit, may audit CMU courses.

   b. Provide necessary background on each program participant as required by CMU; and arrange, upon request, visits between students and supervisors.

   c. Provide classroom facilities, including any necessary audio-visual aids and equipment for the program, and arrange for necessary discussion rooms.

   d. Provide, when requested, appropriate space for student counseling, in addition to the CMU office, and schedule

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students for counseling.

e. Register students and distribute course materials and course outlines well in advance of the course so that students may have an opportunity for proper preparation according to a schedule to be developed by the CMU program manager (described in paragraph 1 (d) above) and the RCUH designated member of staff who has the responsibility for administration of the program (described in paragraph 2 (i) below).

f. Collect take-home examinations, papers and other student assignments for CMU, and provide secure space for the storage of these documents.

g. Publicize regularly and in a timely manner to all MNA residents CMU course offerings and counseling services.

h. In the event that classes cannot be filled to capacity of 30 students from the MNAs, RCUH may open enrollment to other than MNA residents.

i. UH Manoa College of Continuing Education agrees to designate one staff member who shall have the responsibility for administration of the program and who shall serve as a regular identifiable channel of communication and source of information.

B. TIME FOR PERFORMANCE

The services of CMU are to commence as soon as practicable after the execution of this Contract. Such services shall be undertaken and completed in such sequence as to assure its expeditious completion in the light of the purpose of this

Contract, but in any event all of the services required hereunder shall be completed on or before June 30, 1974 except as provided in paragraph A-1-e,j.

C. COMPENSATION

The RCUH agrees to pay CMU the sum of ONE HUNDRED FIFTY-ONE THOUSAND DOLLARS ($151,000.00) as full compensation for the performance of this Contract subject to the provisions listed hereinbelow.

1. Twelve monthly payments of $11,325.00 upon receipt of invoice. It is specifically understood that these payments are considered to commence August 1, 1973 and continue on a monthly basis from that date.

2. The sum of $15,100.00 the percent (10%) of the contract payment ($151,000.00), shall be withheld and final payment of said sum shall be made with the written approval of RCUH which shall be given upon satisfactory completion of the Contract. Satisfactory completion of the Contract will be based upon the following criteria:

a. Thirty courses will have been made available.

b. One hundred independent studies of 3 credit hours each will have been made available.

c. Students who have requested counseling and who have been scheduled by RCUH for counseling will have been counseled.

d. Students who have applied for developmental experience evaluation will have had their experiences evaluated and the results of these evaluations made available to them.

e. An end-of-year report summarizing the status of all

enrollees as of June 30, 1974, will have been provided.

3. Salaries of both local CMU instructional personnel and

all travel and per diem costs will be covered in the above

stated amount. There will be no additional charges of any

nature incident to carrying out the agreed upon CMU com-

ponent of CTP.

D. OTHER PROVISIONS

Attached hereto and by this reference made a part of this

contract:

Exhibit A -- Special Terms and Conditions for Educational

Contract (7/12/72).

Exhibit B -- Supplementary General Conditions--HUD 7050

(11-70).

Exhibit C -- Economic Stabilization Act of 1970 as amended.

IN WITNESS WHEREOF, the parties hereto have caused this agreement to

be signed as of the day and year first above written.

RESEARCH CORPORATION of
the UNIVERSITY OF HAWAII

BY _____
    Executive Director

Approved: _____
          College of Continuing
          Education   153

CENTRAL MICHIGAN UNIVERSITY

BY _____

Title   President _____

By _____

Title Vice-President of Business
              and Finance

February 8, 1972

HUD's "UNIVERSITY WITHOUT WALLS":
A LITTLE PUBLICIZED EDUCATIONAL INNOVATION

Dr. Melvin W. Wachs
Senior Program Officer
Community Planning and Management
U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development

This article is an exception to an unwritten "rule" that public
agencies strive to publicize their most interesting and innovative
programs --- literally before they are "off the ground." HUD ini-
tiated and has nutured an intriguing experiment in "open universities"
since 1969, almost without benefit of press release. Our response
was to long felt needs of Federal, State and local agencies for well-
prepared professionals and paraprofessionals, and to the almost
desperate pleas of the inner city minority and disadvantaged for
access to those educational opportunities available to their more
affluent neighbors. Ours has also been a response to the frequent
criticism voiced by the academic community, students, industrial
and public executives, that contrmpory universities are not "rele-
vant" and do not prepare persons for a life's work. Indeed, the
experience of Federal, State and local agencies indicates that
graduates of even the most distinguished universities in many of
the most "pragmatically" oriented fields of study have to be exten-
sively retrained on-the-job.

In response to this and other educational needs, HUD sought to assist
a number of institutions in the creation of a university truly
"without walls." In order to achieve this goal, with advice from
a host of academic and managerial consultants, HUD suggested that
the best of managerial technology be combined by interested univer-
sities with the best of traditional academic practices, to produce
an all-inclusive external degree system.

Brief Program Description

Concisely put, HUD's "university without walls" project involves
a highly flexible educational format, encompassing a "new" educa-
tional technology in the sense of a combination of formal instruction
through intensive seminars, on-the-job training, and work experience;
a very liberal and quite flexible academic mix of requirements --
credit for life and work experience, an opportunity to "challenge"
the system through examinations, and other features; and the ability
to literally take the university anywhere, hence "without walls", and

*This article has been prepared for the California State College system
at its request.

to use the very best people as faculty, wherever they may be physically locatied, by bringing them (as well as the counselors and classes) to the students. Unlike most of the "without walls" programs now in existence, where the student must come to the university, HUD's concept is that the university is there to serve the student, and must come to him. Its service concept provides that the objective of the UWW is to provide a first-rate, relevant educational experience within the context of service. Thus, the university must provide the best in instructional technology, new materials, and the most qualified instructorial staff (whether or not they work for the university full-time is irrelevant). Personal contact is an essential, provided for through a corps of highly skilled, well trained counselors, who must also be specialists in their fields; and all must be complimented by a smoothly run, technically integrated managerial system responsive to student needs. I shall describe this concept more fully as we go along.

HUD's approach to teaching technology involves literally bringing the university to the student. The traditional concept of a university has it fixed in geographic site, in faculty, in approach to educational technology and in transferability of educational and social institutions. HUD's program moves the classes to the student body, wherever they may be; provides a teaching technology suited to inservice hours and work requirements (intensive one week, or three day - two day sessions, plus readings, assignments and course outlines offered far in advance); curricula pragmatically tailored to the needs of students and agencies with both general theoretical exposure and highly work oriented programs of education; equivalency examinations, and recognition of work experience credited towards a degree or certification goal; complete compatability and exchange of credit with every other university or institution in the system, includ'ng a network of consortia nationwide; accreditation of certain university-level training experiences the individual may have had through Federal, State, local or private sources; highly trained counselors with regular visitations; university-agency liaison; special on-the-job work study programs; tutorial and research work done in the agency environment; team and individual teaching done by the best qualified instructors drawn from universities, government agencies, professional associations, the private sector; special audio-visual materials, and timely, newly developed readings; programmed learning and tele-teaching techniques; and other features. About 12,000 students will be enrolled in this project nation and worldwide by June, 1972.

Educational Approach

I have said that HUD and its advisors suggested use of the best of the past in a new approach to educational technology, and we have sought to revive long successful experiences in traditional education. We have sought, for instance, revival of the long held but recently little acknowledged tenet that what an individual already knows

through life and work experience, and/or forms of training and
education other than those derived from formal courses at academic
institutions, can be worthy, meaningful, and substitute in whole or
in part for rigidly defined course work. American higher education
has succumbed to the fetish that one cannot be educated without
subscription to formal coursework, administered by a certified faculty
member, although for centuries it has been possible to defend one's
higher degree by examination at many of the great universities of
the world, such as the Sorbonne and Oxbridge!

Universities participating in HUD's program have sought the advice
of many of the most distinguished academics and practitioners, in
scores of occupational fields to assist them in rendering judgements
as to how much practical experience at what levels might substitute
for how much, and what kinds, of academic work. For example,
assume that a recent enrollee had never taken formal training of any
kind in financial management, but now sought to round-out and pursue
studies in that field, and seek a BA in Public Administration.

Through our intensive counseling process this student (an actual case
among thousands), who had worked in a local governmental unit's
budget and finance office for five years, was counseled in depth by
a highly trained counselor. His work record was examined in detail,
to determine how much actual knowledge he had of public finance,
auditing, accounting, and administration, so that formal course
work could be relinquished in favor of acknowledgement of life
experience. The counselor also analysed non-university training
experiences the student had undertaken (such as workshops in muni-
cipal finance, orientation sessions run by consultants and state,
local and Federal governmental units, institutes run by local uni-
versities and junior colleges, and so forth), in terms of academic
content. The counselor also met in joint session with the student's
direct supervisor, to review the real range of his responsibilities
and experiences. This student received sixty semester hour equi-
valants towards his BA degree, or about half his formal course training
experience requirement. The range offered by participating insti-
tutions has been from six to ninety hours for the BA, and up to
half of graduate degree requirements.

On the basis of this analysis, further butressed by guidance tables
with respect to level and field of experience supplied the counselor
by distinguished professionals and professional organizations in
each field, the counselor arrives at a mutual assessment of the
student's present level of knowledge and ability. On this basis,
he tentatively awards a "credit equivalent" for life and work experience.
This equivalent might be further tested, if the counselor and/or
specialist(s) in the student's field wish to do so, by submission of
a formal paper, and/or by oral and/or written examinations. The
formal credit equivalent, by the way, is not recorded automatically
on a student's transcript by the university. Students must demon-
strate their level of ability by taking formal courses, by examinations,
and/or by work study experiences at the higher level of competence
and knowledge accredited through counselling before a transcript
credit release is authorized by their counselor.

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Students also have access to advanced accreditation in the already
widespread CLEP system, which we find highly academic in approach
and limited in applicability to traditional academic sub ect matter,
but none-the-less a "start". There is another tailor-made "CLEP"
system available to participants in our program: "Challenge
Examinations." These exams are reversions to an almost forgotten
academic past, to the time when students did not have to attend
formal courses (attendance was never taken) and could prove them-
selves, (as they still do by the thousands at the University of
London or the Sorbonne) by examination alone. In certain univer-
sities in HUD's system, students may elect to demonstrate their
mastery of any subject field, any subject, or even any degree,
through an examination conceived for them by academics and specialists
in the field, and administered at their behest and on a schedule
convenient to them.

All recommended work/study and formal courses must, of course,
be fit into some sort of curriculum or course of study focused on
an educational objective. HUD's approach to this requirement has
been systematic in development, yet flexible in application.

As a former academic, I well remember the annual departmental and
college curriculum committee agony sessions, and the weary months
spent in meetings discussing what requirements should be invoked
for graduation. We few faculty gathered about the table, even less
of us possessed of extensive life rather than teaching experience
in our fields of specialization, to decide that every student grad-
uating from our institution needed Stat 101 (because "statistics
are good and useful,") or Gov. 103 (because "everyone should know
about government,") and on and on. At times, we were rarely if
ever cognizant of the real needs of the world outside our meeting
room for trained individuals in our fields, and what ingredients
could be added to the academic course "mix" to fulfill the recipe
to meet those needs. More often than not, we were unconciously
preparing students not for an outside job but for potential future
university faculty membership.

HUD has established a self-operative, voluntary, cooperative system,
with professionals and professional societies, to help overcome
the limitations of inhouse faculty in determining life-related
educational needs, and in planning life related curricula. In
about twenty fields, participati universities and HUD have worked
with panels of highly qualified practicioners drawn from government
and industry, and with scores of leaders from academia, in creating
new and relevant curricula. We have in these and other fields
even gone so far as to design complete courses, list suggested
readings, suggest how to apportion "eyeball" classroom and study
time in each course, and relate the whole to a new dimension of flow
of study through work, classroom exposure, tutorial and other kinds
of educational experiences. The curricula are then modified even
further, as applicable, in counselor, student and supervisor con-
ferences. This technique could easily be adopted by universities
as a _sine qua non_ in curricular planning.

I noted that HUD's program incorporates as an enormously important facet, work experience. Since our objective was to provide a form of what has in recent years been referred to as "continuing education" for those already in or about to enter jobs, we sought to make education an important part of a student's work, and vice versa. That is one of the reasons why supervisors are usually counseled along with students. Thus a student together with his or her supervisor will work out with a counselor, faculty member, and/or academic specialist, a program that combines reading and tutorial experiences and work assignments. He will be judged by the totality of his product, against a clearly defined educational objective in his field, set by counselor, faculty, supervisor, and student. His work/study program (not internship, please!) will be intensive, and may also yield a better immediate work product to his agency as a bonus.

Teaching Technology

Aside from work/study, tutorial, challenge examination, assessment of life and work experience, and other "proofs of the pudding," there is also formal learning garbed in a less traditional guise. With the basic objective of fitting learning to needs of the student rather than to the cycle of the seasons, we have divorced our academic structure of formal learning experiences from harvests and holidays. Since our students do not, as in contemporary academic scheduling hangovers from a rural society, need to take off summers to assist Dad in the harvest, nor require education in fifteen week batches, we have eliminated (except for record keeping purposes) semester systems and vacation gaps. Classes are held whenever and wherever they are needed. We have also eliminated the fetish of classroom "eyeball contact hours." How faculty have for decades bemoaned the "eyeball" timekeeper method, yet done nothing about it! HUD's associated universities have organized their classes in a different manner. Some are in intensive, dawn till dusk, week long experiences, with readings, assignments, and complete course outlines sent to students six to eight weeks in advance. Others are fit around specialized student schedules -- e.g. , two days of intensive work with two or three days again, held several weeks later. There is even, for example, one series of classes organized by a participating university for Strategic Air Command crews down in the silos of the Midwest (not HUD students,) two days on and two days off, to accomodate to the missle commands job assignment needs.

HUD's "University Without Walls" associates do not ask students to drag off to class weekly after a long day's work from 7 to 9 pm on the thesis that sixteen weeks are needed in all cases to learn, and that is that. Rather, students are released from the job to take formal training, and go back to work with the fruits of knowledge and exposure the next Monday, or Wednesday, or whatever. The results are oftimes amazing for information, approaches, and even theories, are almost immediately applied to job and life situations.

This system has also permitted our university associates to organize and run classes in an entirely different manner than in the past. They have, for example, set up "track" courses -- e.g., at different academic levels of sophistication with the more advanced assisting the less advanced to learn, while reinforcing their own experiences. This teaching technology has also made it possible for participating institutions to utilize the very best faculty that can be found anywhere -- meant literally, for they may be brought from all parts of the nation and may be career academics, agency and/or private sector people, with high qualifications. To teach, one need only spare a complete week off the job, rather than four to twelve months. Preparation time and followup, while very very intensive, are usually done at home. Participating universities are also able to pay visiting professors at about double the going rate for contemporary "big university" continuing education expenses because the programs are self-reimburseable. HUD has also begun a project designed to radically change the nature of traditional correspondence instruction, so that its "University Without Walls" may reach clientele with first-rate study materials anywhere in the nation, in situations where actual physical classes are not practical. Individual student learning packages (instead of the traditional series of readings and questions followed by an examination) will include lectures recorded on easy-to-use tape cassettes; tape-slide presentations (cheaply made for the individual student, more complex for agency use;) videotapes and movies for agencies. HUD anticipates that this approach will make undergraduate instruction available at low cost to thousands of State-local personnel, and will have particular appeal to minority and disadvantaged persons wishing to enter public employment. Special orientation sessions have been designed to train students, supervisors and employee development staff in use of the new programs.

The UWW and Local Educational Needs

HUD is also arranging complete educational programs with jurisdictions, literally transporting its "Universities Without Walls" physically to them to serve their total range of needs for staff training. Involved are Urban Renewal, Model Cities, Housing, Planning, Codes, administrative and other HUD related agencies. When feasible, local school systems, police, public health and other affiliated agencies in the jurisdiction have joined the total program using PHS, Justice, OE and other available Federal funds, plus local supplementation and even student derived prorata contributions. Federal agencies have also adopted HUD's "University Without Walls" technology and programs for internal staff training purposes, and HUD is cooperating with the Bureau of Training of the U.S. Civil Service Commission. We soon expect to add a television teaching series designed to bring instruction to blocs of individuals in a geographic area, coupled with learning packages and "challenge" systems; assistance to elementary and secondary school teachers and school systems in training teachers to incorporate urban related materials in students' curricula at these levels; new and innovative materials to assist university faculty in revitalizing curricula and courses in HUD related areas of

interest, drawn from materials incorporated in HUD programs.

.r program has been accepted everywhere it has been introduced,
even in situations where local universities were many in number,
long on tenure, and significant. in size and streng" . Local
authorities have been the prime movers even in the latter situation,
requesting aid from HUD in establishing a "university without walls."
We conclude, on the basis of local requests and analysis, that the
reason why HUD's UWW is so much wanted is basically because there
exists a void in higher education -- a gap that traditional insti-
tutions do not and cannot fill through contemporary management and
educational policies. We have also assisted in establishing complete
"universities without campuses." if you will, in towns and cities
where none existed. In many instances these new programs range
from arts associate to masters, or even PhD degree levels.

We have been continually amazed at the rapid spread of our UWW
program. It is now available in one form or another in about twenty
states, and in dozens of metropolitan areas. The military have
adopted it on scores of bases, and it is open to servicemen in the
Far East, Europe, Africa and Latin America. Many of the military
programs, all paid for by the Department of Defense or the Veterans'
Administration (not HUD), are meshed with local programs involving
urban educational needs of nearby communities.

I do not want to leave the impression that all of the students are
government employees or military people. We have not as of this
time encouraged our associates to go beyond our immediate Federal,
State and local educational needs. But in the course of implementing
the program, hundreds of housewives, businessmen, employees of local
banks and corporations and just plain "men in the street" have
enrolled, eager to advance their education. We even have a small
number of old-fashioned, "green behind the ears", twenty-year-old
full time students.

We follow with great interest the other UWW projects that seem to
incorporate a bit of the HUD system (or do we incorporate a portion
of their goals and organization?) such as the State University of New
York residential centers system, combining a limited approach to
off campus education with a liberalized curriculum; the bold and
interesting new Minnesota experiment, literally a "university without
campus," and in some respects apparently a bit like our UWW system;
the interesting, campus-based Union of Experimental Colleges system,
funded by the Office of Education and the Ford Foundation; and the
many, many scattered responses. During the past two years we have
communicated with about 300 institutions at their request, about our
program. About 120 have indicated that they would like to actually
try to do it, and about thirty have really had a go at it. Thus
far HUD has limited its full support only to those that have gotten
through the developmental stages. It is interesting to note that
our system can be set up and put in full operation for an outlay of
under $10,000, none of which HUD pays. We are willing to assist
most interested parties, and have done so regularly. The system is

rather fully set forth in practice and experience, although not in
detail on paper. It must be adopted and adapted to each university's
needs, and each institution's capacity to respond.

The Managerial System

In order to make the academic system "go," HUD suggests that interested
schools set up an entirely new and different management system.
We have found the old, emplaced system too cumbersome. It is not
student-oriented (it tends to serve its natural clientele, faculty
and administration,) cannot cope with the new educational situation,
and does not respond rapidly enough. Our suggested system is simple
in concept, although quite sophisticated in detail and difficult
in some respects in implementation. The entire program, despite its
intricacies, can be and has been set up from start to finish in as
little as three to four months. The lengthy and agonizing (and many
say, wasted) "developmental period" so traditional to academe is
dispensed with, and the institution is in business with a "UWW" with-
out delay.

Through our suggested system about fifteen administrative employees
can actually run a UWW program for as many as 6,000 students at widely
scattered locations. If the locations are too scattered, of course,
enough time will be consumed in staff travel to require additional
people. The keyman is the Director, who reports directly to the
Provost, President, or Chancellor of the institution. His is a role
with completely delegated authority to run programs, to admit
students (we do not suggest that admissions be referred back to the
regular Registrar and Admissions staff for processing,) to contract,
and so forth. He in effect runs a miniature university, and perhaps
even in some cases a ultiversity. Under him may be an Associate or
Deputy Director for Program Development. This is not the university
job so often termed "Development," which is a euphemism for dollar-
getting. Dollars in the form of students and contracts seem to flow
the way of successful UWW projects. This man actually develops
and carries programs to completion, with the aid of the third adminis-
trative cog -- the Program Manager.

The keyman in the system at delivery level, is the Program Manager or
Program Coordinator -- an adaption of the familiar and/successful
industrial technique. This man is fully responsible to the director
for full delivery of academic, counseling, records, materials and
other components of the educational product to the user onsite --
students and agencies. The manager sees to it that each project
runs smoothly, that course scheduling and counseling sessions take
place, that books and library loan resources are promptly delivered,
and that all clientele needs are satisfied. He is an expediter and
a coordinator, serving students, administrators, and faculty through
scheduling, selection accreditation, briefing, and evaluation. We
suggest that the Program Manager is paralleled by the industrial systems
engineer who coordinates all phases of an intricate project, and
has full responsibility for seeing to it that the system ticks along,

producing a complete product at the end of the assembly line.

In addition to these positions, other major components include a
complete, internalized financial management system apart from the
university's (although it may be successfully managed by a good
university system, with computer base) to handle the myriad of
incoming and outgoing invoices, payments, and so forth which come
in a steady flow at all times, since there is no semester system; a
complete book-and material ordering and assembly operation, which
works at a steady pace (some of the UWW programs already run as
many as 350 tormal courses per year,) since university bookstores
are ill-equipped to do this job; a multi-media center, which can be
set up to produce learning packages and run for as little as
$200,000 per year (packages can be produced, ready for the printer,
for about $3,500;) a course scheduling and instructor briefing
operation working closely with the program managers; a liaison man
who works with the professional interest groups and advisors, and
with campus; an external, university-based faculty committee,
representing the faculty organization (most often the Senate) and
having delegated powers to accredit courses, visiting faculty, and
curricula, and to evaluate and report back to the institution; a
corps of counselors, almost always part-time (they are paid by the
day, with expenses,) drawn from the university, professional societies,
agencies and other sources, who are highly trained in a unique
system that is the heart of the personal contact portion of the UWW
system; and a registrar-information system "honcho" who tends the
elaborate data system, files, and takes care of liaison with the
campus registrar and admission office. There may also be a few more
part-time aides, generally local people at remote locations who
assist in a sort of program manager capacity. That is all. But
it is not as simple as it seems. In the proper administration lies
the heart of the delivery system, once the rigorous, academic ground-
rules are complied with.

Consortia and Costs

The academic ground-rules should be considered at this point. All HUD
sponsored projects are fully accredited, and have run the full gamut
of internal university committees, departments, faculty organizations,
and so forth. All are approved by their respective State and insti-
tutional trustees and administration, and by the regional groups
accrediting the institutions themselves. Most at this stage have been
fully inspected by the accrediting agencies, and received highest marks
for content and innovation. I have not yet mentioned consortia
schools. Unlike most academic consortia (usually loose confederative
relationships,) we ask that schools cooperating in our UWW projects
sign legally binding agreements to fully recognize all offerings and
credits, mutually, within the UWW program, and to cooperate in a
dozen ways, including exchange of faculty, counseling, records; materials
etc. It is a very tight academic relationship, operating to the benefit
of the student. About forty-five institutions are now in consortia
in our program.

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Finances are another interesting area. I noted earlier that HUD
has never paid for developmental costs. They are usually quite
small, and recouped in a properly run project in a short time. The
only usual fees are a small registration fee; fees for assessment
of life and work experience, on a sliding scale; a per hour credit
registration fee ranging from $25-$60, covering all expenses of
counseling and program operation; and examination and matriculation
fees; that is it. In a properly run program, the institution should
be able to make a nice "excess of income over expenditure," which
we suggest it plow back into improving the program.

The reason developmental costs can be so low is that the base system
is already developed and in operation, and a university can adopt it
en toto if it wishes to do so. The basic investment is manhours
spent acquainting staff with the details (and they are considerable,)
and an outlay of time setting it in place. There is a very real
economy of scale, which can be realized through volume. Unlike most
educational systems, the more people HUD's UWW serves, the less
expensive the per unit cost. There is a point of diminishing scale,
but we have not reached it yet, since none of the units in our
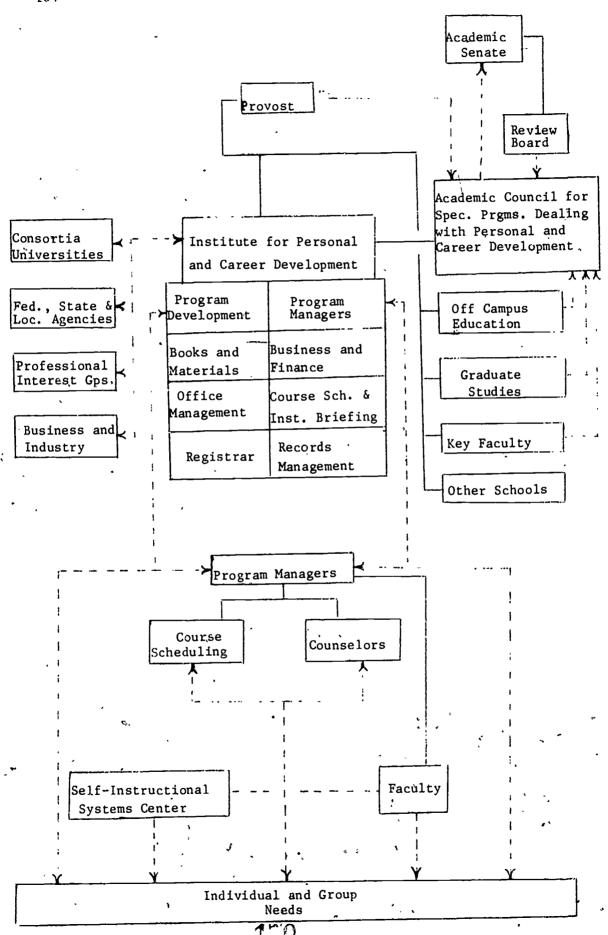program has expanded beyond 6,000 students.

Principal costs are administrative, for the faculty is engaged on
a course-by-course basis, and counselors are engaged on call. This
arrangement removes the necessity for substantial overhead in space
and utilities, personnel management costs, and other fixed outlays
relative to staff; it also permits great flexibility in selection,
retention and rejection of personnel on the basis of performance.
Despite the best screening procedures, non-performers always crop up.
Since there is no tenure, the UWW university is not saddled with
faculty who cannot teach, nor counselors who cannot counsel. Since
there are no buildings and grounds to maintain, all non-instructional
outlays are basically for administrative staff, travel, supplies,
and communications. I do not think that it is necessary at this
point to delve further into administrative details of the project.
They are available to any who ask, albeit verbally. There is also a
realtime evaluation system I have not begun to describe because of
space limitations.

Recapitualtion

To summarize, HUD's suggested UWW system involves a highly flexible
academic program which can be delivered, with a high quality faculty
and intensive, individualized and regular counseling services anywhere.
This academic mix recognizes the individual's growth; relates closely
to employment situations through work/study (and other features
(such as technical assistance to agencies, and to urban school systems,
which we have not even touched upon;) and provides remedial assistance
to those who have reading and learning difficulties. The entire
program is delivered onsite through a streamlined educational manage-
ment system, unusual in its compactness and basic simplicity.

It does not provide a "community of scholars," and it has all the
disadvantages of a university without a campus. So much has been
written and voiced extolling UWW systems that we should not lose
sight of their disadvantages as well as their advantages. It is not
my purpose in this article to note their disadvantages. I shall only
note the fact that there are about 1300 universities and colleges
with campuses in the nation and only a few without. The advantages
will, we hope, long remain. No one need fear their eclipse; we
can only strive to increase their advantages and decrease their
disadvantages, taking advantage of the best, modifying and discarding
the worst and weakest.

As I noted in my introductory paragraph, we have not sought to
advertise our program as others have, simply to inform those who
wish to know about it. HUD will be pleased to give details to
whomever inquires. The universities who have participated as major
institutions in our program in the past, or who are now participating,
include: Tulsa, Southern Illinois (Edwardsville,) Oklahoma, Detroit,
Shaw College at Detroit, Northern Colorado, and Central Michigan.
The largest programs by July 1, 1972 will be operated by Colorado,
Oklahoma and Central Michigan. Oklahoma's program is by far the
oldest (set up in 1964,) and is the most traditional academically.
It is academically, however, a fine one. Northern Colorado's is
academically much more current, and during the first year of opera-
tion incorporated a total, university-run program. It has been
contracted out by the University to a non-profit subsidiary of a
profit making consulting firm, the latter having established a total
management subcontract with its non-profit subsidiary. The Central
Michigan program, although a new one, promises to be the most flexible
managerially of the lot, and the most wide ranging and promising
from an academic point of view. We wish them and the others now
"in the mill" well, and we salute their contributions to meeting
the education needs of urban America.

Academic
Senate

Provost

Review
Board

Consortia
Universities

Institute for Personal
and Career Development

Academic Council for
Spec. Prgms. Dealing
with Personal and
Career Development

Program Development	Program Managers
Books and Materials	Business and Finance
Office Management	Course Sch. & Inst. Briefing
Registrar	Records Management

Fed., State &
Loc. Agencies

Professional
Interest Gps.

Business and
Industry

Off Campus
Education

Graduate
Studies

Key Faculty

Other Schools

Program Managers

Course
Scheduling

Counselors

Self-Instructional
Systems Center

Faculty

Individual and Group
Needs

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Graduate
Programs

Undergraduate
Programs

Agencies

General
Population

Business
and
Industry

Work and
Life Experience

Educational
Institutions

High School
G.E.D.

INSTRUCTIONAL PATTERNS

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Readings

Developmental Experiences

Examinations

Individual Program of Study

Internships

Self-Instructional Materials

Correspondence Courses

Structured Independent Study

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Individual Student Program

Student Interest & Needs

Student Competencies

Guidance

Course Scheduling

University Relations

Educational Background

Instructional Patterns

Counseling Staff

Generalist

Training

Specialist

University

Agencies

Business & Industry

Community

Professional Associations

FACULTY

Business
and
Industry

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Faculty

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Associations

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Participating

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Students
and
Instructors

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Course
Offerings

Academic
Council

Program
Development

Course
Development

Faculty
Selection

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Contracts
Course Fees
Examination Fees
Equated Dev. Fees
Inst. Material Fees
Books and Supplies

Instruction

Program Development

Materials Development

Management

Institutional

Instruction

Materials Development

Overhead

Individual

Business and Industry

Agencies

Institute

ABSTRACT
         This report summarizes an international workshop held
in 1970 to consider new approaches to Italian secondary education. At
the conference, educational experts from the United Kingdom, France,
West Germany, the United States, Norway, Sweden, and Yugoslavia, as
well as two members of the Centre for Educational Research and
Innovation met with 23 Italian educators, at the request of the
Italian Ministry of Education. The report contains a number of papers
prepared by conference participants, a summary of the opening address
delivered to the conference by the Italian minister of education,
reports of the small working groups at the conference, and the ten
conclusions and recommendations adopted by workshop participants. In
addition, Appendix 1 presents a variety of educational statistics
relevant to upper secondary schools in Italy. (JG)

ORGANISATION FOR ECONOMIC
CO-OPERATION AND DEVELOPMENT

Paris, 3rd November, 1971

Or. Engl.

Centre for Educational Research
and Innovation

CERI/EI/I/71.01

NEW APPROACHES TO SECONDARY EDUCATION:

ITALIAN PROBLEMS AND PROSPECTS

Report on a Workshop
held at Villa Falconieri, Frascati, Italy,
May 4th-8th, 1970.

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FOREWORD

Toward the end of 1969, the Italian Authorities requested the help of the Centre for Educational Research and Innovation to organise an international workshop on the theme "New Approaches to Secondary Education". Central to the project was the prospective reorganisation of Italian upper secondary education which had been commonly recognised as a very urgent need after unification of the lower level in 1962. It was felt - and I believe the workshop proceedings justified the feeling - that Italian school planners and educators could benefit from an exchange of international experience in the same area.

Accordingly, CERI called together a group of experts from the United Kingdom, France, West Germany, the United States, Norway, Sweden and Yugoslavia. These experts and two CERI Secretariat members met with 23 Italian educators from May 4th to 8th, 1970, as guests of the Italian Ministry of Education at the Centro Europeo dell' Educazione, Villa Falconieri, Frascati. The Director of this Centre, Prof. Giovanni Gozzer, had previously prepared a paper outlining the historical background to current problems which was sent to all participants together with other background materials. Also two distinguished educational experts, Stuart Maclure (United Kingdom) and Nils-Eric Svensson (Sweden), had travelled through Italy interviewing various Italian experts as preparation for a basic report written by the former as a working paper for the Workshop. During the Workshop, which was opened by a very constructive address given by the Italian Minister of Education, the theme of reorganisation was discussed in all its aspects: the rationale and objectives of such a plan; structures and strategies which could be created to meet the objectives; problems and styles of implementation.

At the end of the week, the participants adopted Ten Points of Conclusion calling for a radical departure from the past and for the progressively planned institutionalisation of a comprehensive, flexible, and democratic system of upper secondary education. This document was presented to the Italian Minister of Education who has already indicated in many ways the importance he attaches to it. The actual form reorganisation will take and the time needed for its implementation may be still uncertain. The Frascati conclusions however have already become the necessary frame of reference for both political actions and further discussions in the field. The final "Personal Comment" in this volume written by Stuart Maclure, general rapporteur of the conference, gives a challenging idea of the complexity and seriousness of the issues involved in the implementation of "new approaches" in the Italian educational scene.

It is hoped that this volume provides a fair summary of the intensive work carried on at Frascati. It is also hoped that it raises many of the important issues which face any nation seeking nothing less than radical reform.

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The CERI Secretariat member responsible for planning and directing the Frascati Workshop was Mr. Per Dalin, who deserves much of the credit for its success.

Aldo Visalberghi

Member of CERI Governing Board
Chairman of the Frascati Workshop

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SUMMARY OF THE OPENING ADDRESS DELIVERED BY THE

ITALIAN MINISTER OF EDUCATION, Dr. RICCARDO MISASI

Stressing the importance of the conference's theme, Dr. Misasi said the conference "deserves today to get the maximum attention in Italian political circles, on account of its topicality, joined with the country's urgent need for thorough-going reforms in higher secondary education.

"This, together with the more general one of the educational system, is our top problem", he went on. "It is linked, indeed, with persistent social inequalities that a modern democracy should tend to eliminate.

"To a certain extent, the reform of the higher secondary school has had good guide-lines laid down for it. All future reform is now conditioned by the important ruling that recently liberalised access to university. This law allows practically all higher secondary school graduates – from whichever type of institution they come – to enrol at any university faculty.

"Of necessity, the new higher secondary school will have to fit in with this provision. And it is for this reason that we are thinking of a comprehensive school," Dr. Misasi said. "With it, we think we could take definite steps towards guaranteeing the right to study for all young people.

"In the public mind, there is the justified recognition that, under our arrangements for the higher secondary sector, there are schools of differing levels and differing prestige. If we set out to establish a single comprehensive secondary school, rich in internal options and able to allow students to make choices in study and training gradually, we would also have a way to eliminate this unjust discrimination.

"This is why I am thinking in terms of a school which awards an undifferentiated diploma of secondary studies as valid for entering a factory as a university.'

"Obviously," Dr. Misasi went on, "we realise that the implementation of successful reforms on these lines will in practice only come about if innumerable obstacles are overcome. Even so, I feel that we need to have this trend clear in our minds.

"We also know that this reform assumes an almost completely new policy of re-distributing educational institutions; it may even assume the creation of educational districts and other structures.

"Furthermore, it raises the problem of who should provide facilities for specialised training should a school – however rich in options – take on itself the job of specialised vocational training; or should

there be a call to other institutions, such as those of trade unions or industry, to collaborate in this task ? The problems are many.

"The new school could also require a progressive adjustment to current university reform.

"In any case, we believe that a comprehensive secondary school is the most appropriate solution. But we also feel that reforms must not be considered as giving final answers to the question. They should instead be the beginning of a process that can be later modified on the basis of the experience gained from carrying out the reform itself. In this sense we believe that the concept of experimentation should be widely introduced and applied.

"In any case," the Minister went on, "we are convinced that there is a real need for quick and decisive reform in the upper secondary school. Its present structure is a tangle; into it are twisted the problems created on the one hand by compulsory school, and on the other by the university. It is on the unravelling of that tangle that the future of the whole education structure in this country depends."

On the question of the school in European community, the Minister said that comparisons should be made as work went on between the hypothesis of reform and what was happening in other European schools.

"Politically speaking," he said, "we believe in Europe; we will firmly and continually strive towards the unification of the European countries. It is for this reason also that we deeply feel the need to give our country an educational structure that can fit into the perspective of European education.

"And it is because of this that we are looking at what you are doing with the deepest interest. We do not feel that this is the moment to call a referendum from which the course of reform could be worked out; but we do think it is above all the moment for listening to a symposium as rich and as full of stimulus as yours.

"For this reason we regard your discussion as a valuable occasion for receiving suggestions and indications to inspire us in our action."

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NEW APPROACHES IN ITALIAN SECONDARY EDUCATION

by Stuart MACLURE
Editor,
The Times Educational Supplement

1. INTRODUCTION

This paper is based on three questions. First, what are the main models being put forward for the reorganisation of Italian Secondary education? Second, what are the main constraints on change in Italian education? Third, what kind of strategy for change – what combination of policies – would most effectively contribute to educational inno-vation in the Italian setting?

It is inevitable that in the process of trying to set this down in a short report of this kind that many matters will appear to be over-simplified. But to be of any use it must raise questions without pretending to be able to answer them, and by so doing, help to delin-eate some of the areas of discussion. One way of doing this is to record some of the impressions of a small group of interested foreign visitors who have been given the opportunity to spend some days in interviews with Italian experts inside and outside the Ministry of Public Instruction. Some of these impressions may well prove to be ill-founded, but they may yet provide a point of departure by spotlighting some of the issues.

Italy, like almost every other European country is faced with the need to reorganise secondary education in the face of social and economic change. As elsewhere the general direction of the change is clear: it is a change away from the early separation of children into different types of school, towards unified forms of secondary education in which the decisions which limit opportunity are delayed as long as possible. When consideration passes beyond the stage of generalisation about the direction of reform, this raises profound issues of social policy on the one hand, of pedagogy on the other. Different forms of education imply different views of society and quite properly reflect basic political theories and views of the individual and the State. And even given a measure of agreement about aims there is room for wide disagreement about the way these aims should be reflected in educational institutions and their curricula.

A major factor in the Italian situation is the lack of any strong political consensus about educational reform. Clear policies of educational reform demand strong political leadership which in turn depends on clarity concerning social goals. In present circumstances where governments are based on a coalition of political groups and interests, positive policies for educational reform are more likely to divide than to unite. And the long-term initiatives which they demand – which may well require adjustments in relationships between Church and State – can only be forthcoming given a broad community of

view. Yet ultimately educational reform is a political responsibility; without leadership from those who hold political office in a democratic society, change in the systems and structures of education must be slow.

This has to be set down at the outset because of the character of the Italian education system which is highly centralised and therefore largely dependent on the central administration for any change of direction. A strong central direction as, for example, in Sweden, can be a powerful agent of change; based on firm and settled social policies and goals clearly laid down by democratic procedures, to which the whole education system can be orientated. In a country like England, on the other hand, with a decentralised system of educational administration, the lack of a forceful central direction can, to a certain extent be made good by local initiative and spontaneous innovation - out of which new nationally accepted goals can be developed. This, at any rate, is how the English like to rationalise their own activities. But a highly centralised system without the dynamic of a strong political consensus for educational reform could find it had the disadvantages of control by a central bureaucracy without the (possibly) saving grace of local innovation.

Present organisation

The Italian School System(1) provides for primary schools for children from 6 to 11, followed by a middle (or lower secondary) school from 11 to 14 which is the minimum legal school leaving age.

At 14, a pupil with a middle school leaving certificate may apply for entry to the upper secondary schools. These are divided into three main categories - general, technical and vocational, each of which is divided into sub-categories.

Till 1969, only certain categories of school could give qualification for university entry, and particular types of school only gave admittance to particular faculties. These limitations are set out below but new legislation at the end of 1969 has radically changed this, as will be indicated later.

A. General Schools

These comprise the classical lycée, the scientific lycée and the istituto magistrale.

(i) The classical lycée is the traditional grammar school or gymnasium "most deeply rooted in Italian tradition. Its chief aim is to train students for the university through general education with special emphasis on the humanities in the narrow sense". The lycée has two sections: the first is a two-year cycle from 14 to 16. The second covering a three-year cycle from 16 to 19 is the classical lycée proper. There is an examination at the end of the first cycle for admittance to

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(1) See also Secondary Education and its Historical Evolution (background paper) and Italy in the OECD series "Reviews of National Policies for Education", 1969.

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the lycée proper, and at the end of the full five year course comes the maturità classica which qualifies the pupil for admission to any university faculty except the facoltà di magistero or higher teacher training college.

Admission to the classical lycée requires a pass in a Latin test taken at the end of the middle school course, as well as the middle school certificate. There is, therefore, an elective introductory one year Latin course within the middle school for pupils in the last grade.

(ii) The scientific lycée provides general education at the same level as the classical lycée, but with more emphasis on scientific subjects. No Latin test is required for entry. At the end of the five year course the maturità scientifica is taken which till now has given entry to all university faculties except literature and philosophy.

(iii) The Istituto Magistrale is a school providing a four year course of secondary education which also serves as a training course for primary school teachers. The academic studies are supplemented by teaching practice in primary schools under the supervision of other teachers. At the end of the four year course there is an examination for the teacher's proficiency certificate.

As well as being a qualification for employment as a teacher (or rather for being considered for employment, for the output of these schools greatly exceeds the demand for primary teachers) this certificate is a qualification for entry to the facoltà di magistero, the university institutes where secondary school teachers, elementary school headmasters and other education specialists are trained. It has also been accepted for various university language courses. Under the new law it is intended that a supplementary course of one year should be offered on top of the istituto magistrale's four year course and that successful completion of this should give access to any university faculty.

B. Technical Schools (with certain very rare exceptions referred to later) offer courses lasting five years. They are divided into eight groups - agricultural, industrial, commercial and business studies, domestic science, tourism, nautical education, and surveying. There are further sub-groups: for example, the industrial category includes 31 separate technologies. The policy is that the first two years of this course should be common to all and their more specialised technological biases should be introduced in the second cycle. The agricultural institutes specialising in "vini-culture" run six year courses. Some industrial institutes have two year higher technological courses after first graduation.

The diplomas of the technical institutes have in the past given access only to university and polytechnic institutes with courses in fields related to those studied at the secondary level.

C. Vocational Schools - the istituto professionale - offer courses lasting two years for agricultural trades and three years for most others. Altogether, they provide for a total of 112 different specialised types of course within the general categories of agriculture, industry, craft trades, the merchant navy, women's occupations, and the hotel and catering industry.

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Art education is provided in various specialised institutions such as the arts lycée which gives a four year course leading to the Fine Arts Academy or to professional studies in architecture on completion of the maturita artistica. The arts and crafts institutes with a three year diploma course also give entrance to the Fine Arts Academy. There are also a number of other specialist colleges of music, drama and dancing.

The impact of the new laws - 754, dated 27th October, 1969 and 910, dated 11th December, 1969 - has yet to be fully felt. They aim to open up opportunities in higher education to pupils who have not been to the lycées, the traditional preparatory institutions for higher education. This is to be achieved in two ways. The first step is to set up complementary courses at the vocational schools in order to extend the length of study to five years, adding more general and theoretical education after the first highly practical course of vocational training. On completion of the additional course of study, students will be eligible for a new maturità professionale.

The second step is contained in law 910 which is prefaced with a proviso that it is an interim measure "pending the enactment of a university reform bill". Under the new law all degree courses are to be open to all holders of diplomas issued by five year second degree schools - i.e. the lycées - and to all others who have completed specified complementary courses, at vocational schools and teacher training schools. No other special university entrance requirements can be applied nor must there be any kind of numerus clausus.

The following table shows the drop-out rate from the age of 11 onwards. The figures are provided by Centre Studi Investimenti Sociali (CENSIS).

Percentage in School (1967)

Age	Boys	Girls
10	99	97.7
11	94.5	88.1
12	90.2	78.4
13	80.9	66.6
14	61.6	48.2
15	49.0	37.1
16	39.0	23.0
17	31.6	21.0
18	25.4	15.6

To this may be added the figures for the way in which the first year enrolment of upper secondary school pupils is divided between the different types of institutions. The figures are given for 1965 and 1969 and show the rapid growth of the scientific lycée and the vocational school.

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Type of School	1st Year Pupils		Percentages	
	1965	1969	1965	1969
Classical lycée	43,873	44,431	12	10
Scientific lycée	26,806	60,230	7.4	13.5
Scuole e istitute magistral	64,637	69,134	17.8	15.5
Technical school	162,562	171,181	44.6	38.5
Vocational school	66,380	100,285	18.2	22.5
Total	364,288	445,261	100	100

2. CRITICISMS AND SUGGESTED REFORMS

Criticism of the present system can be found in Chapter Three of the first section (contributed by the Italian Authorities) of the OECD report on the Italian education policies, already referred to.

There is some way to go yet, for instance, in achieving an effective middle school throughout the country, owing to the proportion of pupils dropping out between the ages of 12 and 14, and because of the number who have to repeat years. The figures appear to be rapidly improving. In 1960 only 61.6 per cent of 13 year old boys and 44.1 per cent of 13 year old girls were attending school. By 1967 the percentages had risen to 80.9 for boys and 66.6 for girls. But clearly the achievement of a universal middle school is a basic condition of a more equitable system of upper secondary schools. In 1967 only 61.1 per cent of the age group attained a middle school leaving certificate, the prior requirement of all forms of secondary schooling. Where the rate of repeating is high it may well mean that a number of pupils are not able to enter the upper secondary school – particularly the vocational school which can expect to receive some of the less able – till they are 15 or 16.

Already no doubt these statistics are out of date and the middle school position has continued to improve. A more radical critic might wish to ask questions about the place which the teaching of Latin holds in the middle school, in view of its importance to those seeking entrance to the classical lycée. In terms of curriculum, the classical lycées expect their new entrants to have made a start with the classical language. In practice, however, this makes Latin into an instrument of selection, and for this purpose, quite a blunt instrument. It is frequently suggested that it will take more time before the teachers within the middle school fully accept the implication of unification and resist the temptation to introduce what amount in practice to forms of premature differentiation.

The main criticism is directed at the degree of separateness which distinguishes the different forms of secondary education. It seems to be widely recognised that the first two years of the upper secondary school (14 to 16) needs to be reviewed and a common biennium of some kind established. The view put forward in the OECD report was that "in present-day Italy, at least for the time being", a thorough-going unification of the five years of secondary education was impracticable, but that "the distinction must be retained between the different basic orientations, particularly in the second three year cycle of the upper secondary system, while adopting homogeneous structures in the first two year cycle to make it possible for pupils to switch from one type of school to the other".

In this context, the istituto magistrale is the target for much hostile comment, and any programme for the reform of secondary education is certain to include some modifi   the role of these teacher training schools. Already, it s   t   perform a more general function than just that of trai..   ..rimary school teachers: only a small proportion of their pupils enter the ranks of the teachers. They offer a secondary education of a less rigorous kind than that held out by the classical or scientific lycée, not requiring classical languages, and lasting for four years instead of five. In a more unified system it would seem, on the face of it, this general education function might be performed by a "modern" lycée course within some wider secondary school, holding out the prospect of easier movement sideways into and out of the classical and scientific sides.

As for the teacher training function, this too is criticised widely on the grounds that it provides an inadequate academic and pedagogic preparation for primary school teachers, and prevents the emergence of strong teacher training institutions concerned with primary education within the structure of higher education.

In defence of the istituto magistrale are powerful social institutions which control many of them - and through them seek to retain influence in the primary schools themselves. Two-thirds of these schools are private institutions, a majority of them run by the Church. No doubt in any reform scheme these institutions would seek to keep some kind of teacher training function at least in the second cycle. There is also said to be resistance to the idea of incorporation of this schooling within the lycée from some of the lycée teachers who see the istituto magistrale as a buttress to the higher prestige of the lycée.

The highly specialised and vocational character of the rapidly growing vocational or trade schools is another aspect of the Italian educational scene which makes a move towards unification difficult. The vocational schools aim to provide a technical training and preparation for industrial employment which can be immediately useful to a boy or girl who enters employment at 16 or 17 as a semi-skilled worker. There is a strong tradition of trade-training in the schools, and although some of the larger industrialists are said to have begun to doubt its efficiency as a form of skill training - and the expedience of initiating boys and girls at so early an age into forms of industrial training which commit them to particular jobs - the employers' organisations reflect the view of the majority of small emp_yers who rely heavily on the vocational schools for a supply of pre-trained workers.   13

The development of advanced courses in the vocational schools in order to provide routes to intermediate supervisory level jobs and also to the university in the light of the latest legislation seems likely to lead to a re-appraisal of the whole of the vocational school programme.

The out and out comprehensive school enthusiast would incorporate the vocational school within a unified biennium with the minimum of options, seeking to retain a common core curriculum to 16.

A more middle-of-the-road line would be to divide the biennium into two halves, one based on the lycees and the other on the technical and vocational schools, while coordinating the curriculum in both the sections. This would pre-suppose the postponement of specialised vocational instruction which would have to be provided by an intensive third year course.

The third line of thought is more revolutionary and implies a larger leap in the dark. This is based on the hypothesis that gifted students coming up through an intensive vocational course during the first biennium could find this a psychologically beneficial preparation for the theoretical studies at the top of the vocational school. This looks a bit like a rationalisation of the arrangements which are now being improvised under law 754, but it is suggested that they may be sound pedagogic reasons for experimenting along these lines. Many people might feel that whatever view is taken of this theoretical speculation, it would be unlikely that a meaningful five year programme could be divised without also revising the contents of the biennium. Even those who believed that the best way to approach the theory was through the practical application, would not want to divorce the two parts of the course entirely. But on the resolution of any debate between these two schools of thought depends whether or not the vocational school should or should not be incorporated in larger plans for the reform of secondary education from 14 plus, or whether the vocational school studies continue while the other streams are incorporated into a comprehensive secondary school.

One question which must arise in many people's minds is how appropriate an intensive two or three year course of vocational training is for this mid-teen age range, in view of the fact that demands for particular skills are changing fast and versatility and the capacity for re-training may, in future, come to be a greater asset than a narrow proficiency in a single trade. This, some would agree, could in any case be provided fairly quickly by intensive training at a later stage. But these considerations raise far-reaching social and industrial questions, the answers to which are unlikely to lie entirely within the educational sector. Given parental pressure for early employment and for "useful" education which can be assessed in terms of a financial return, the scope for reform may be limited in important respects.

Models

The discussion points, then, towards a unified biennium for the first two years of upper secondary school, and a model in diagramatic form, something like this.

18 17 16	Classical Scientific lycées Modern	Technical institute	Advanced and complementary vocational courses

Unified biennium	15 14	lycée options	technical-vocational options

Unified Middle School	13 12 11	

This general purpose model would have to be modified in various ways to accommodate more or less radical views. What options should be allowed in this biennium would, for example, be a matter of keen dispute. At the one extreme there would be the wholehearted devotees of comprehensive education who would advocate the minimum differentiation (and would certainly condemn the Latin option in the middle school). At the other there would be those who could happily see the development of a tripartite organisation within the unified biennium which would permit a considerable amount of specialised vocational instruction for those choosing the vocational option. About the only thing which seems really certain is that in the course of time the pressure will build up behind the more comprehensive rather than the less comprehensive models.

From the educational point of view, perhaps the least controversial proposition would be the elimination of the _istituto magistrale_, but this, as has been indicated, only serves to indicate the wider social and political pressures which would have to be taken into account.

The vocational option remains the greatest cause of difficulty in devising a common two year core. A large part of the curriculum for the vocational and technical option could be dove-tailed - though there is also criticism now in certain quarters that the technical curriculum should be more, not less, scientific - but so long as it is felt that these boys and girls should receive specialised instruction in a craft or trade and leave school ready to earn their living as semi-skilled workers, it is hard to see how this can be squared with the larger aim of postponing irrevocable life choices and keeping educational doors open.

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A factor in the discussion is the possibility that at some point within the next 10 years the school leaving age might be raised to 16. This would clinch the case for the unified biennium, but not dispose of the argument about early vocational specialisation, which is a socio-logical as well as an educating argument. To reduce the vocational specialisation without raising the school leaving age would be to remove one of the incentives to stay at school voluntarily. It would also suggest the possibility that private educational institutions might step in to offer this kind of trade training and thereby undermine the unified biennium.

The larger social issues raised by the vocational option can only be dealt with by social and industrial policies as a whole. Outside the narrowly educational field, they might, for example, suggest the need for larger social payments to encourage parents in the lower income groups to keep their children at school. Equally, they might require new policies for industrial training and retraining, and new attitudes to the induction of young workers into employment.

Among the many variations on the model which have been put forward with more or less enthusiasm by various reformers, is a more radical proposal which depends on the reduction of the age of entry into primary schools from 6 to 5, the completion of primary education by the age of 10, and the advancement of the middle school starting age from 11 to 10. This would then enable the year from 13 to 14 to be an orientation period, followed by four years of upper secondary education from 14 to 18, with separate streams and option for the humanistic, scientific, technical and vocational traditions.

It is claimed on behalf of this approach that it would enable pupils to complete secondary school by the age of 18 and thus be economical and allow pupils to start earning earlier. It would also allow a sensible orientation process without preventing a period of specialised vocational training by the age of 16 for those who wanted it.

On the other hand, it would not satisfy those whose object is to postpone choices of this kind, and institutionally it causes an upheaval for every kind of school.

One question which arises from many of the proposals concerns the distinction between a unification of the school system and a unification of the curriculum. Among the variations which could be devised are some which would introduce a more unified system of schools, while allowing each school to be organised in several different "sides". Others would retain the differences between types of school, while aiming at the co-ordination of the curriculum offered by these separate types of school. One of the differences of principle, therefore, will be between those whose prime aim is social – to avoid the division of the adolescent community into separate schools, each with its own position in a hier-archy of schools, and those who believe that what is important is to retain a common core of curriculum in all schools in order to facilitate transfer and keep opportunities open.

Experience elsewhere may suggest that these two principles are two sides of the same coin – that a hierarchic organisation of schools in itself makes interchange difficult, even when the common core of the

curriculum makes this theoretically possible; and that as social
institutions, schools impose on the pupils who attend them, scales of
values and levels of aspiration which belong to the institutions them-
selves, thus serving to limit individual choice and establish recog-
nised social roles.

If this applies in the Italian context, it must - like the
insistence on early trade-training for those planning to enter employ-
ment at 16 plus - reinforce the divisions in the system. And in a
system where half the children have left school by 15 plus, the pressure
for early vocational studies will come from parents who, by definition,
are ambitious for their children and willing to make sacrifices to fit
them into an acceptable social and vocational slot at an early age.

Constraints on Change

The visitor who asks about the obstacles to adaptation in Italian
education will be given answers which fall into several groups - perhaps
these could be grouped under the headings of "societal", "institutional"
and "instructional" used by John I. Goodlad in his attempt to build a
framework for the study of curriculum theory. For the purpose of this
paper, which is mainly concerned to set down hear-say comment as the
basis of further discussion, no very neat or tidy arrangement is
possible, because many kinds of constraint seem to apply at several
levels.

At the societal level there is the general political situation
already referred to - the difficulty of obtaining the mandate for a
clear-cut policy of educational reform in the context of a series of
coalition governments.

Also at the societal level would come those constraints which are
exercised by the dominant tradition of the present educational tradition,
represented at the institutional level by the lycée. It is suggested
that this strongly humanistic and historical tradition rooted and
grounded in the ancient languages and ancient history - the legacy of
the traditional philosophy of secondary education - must exercise a
powerful influence on those who now hold responsibility at every level;
human nature being what it is, they are likely to feel that their own
security is involved in the validity of the educational criteria used in
this educational tradition to distinguish between varying talents.

It can be argued generally that the effect of early separation
into separate and parallel institution, each committed to different
social goals (in terms of employment and social class) as well as
different educational goals, puts a premium on educational opportunity
as the prime agent of social mobility. The paradox of making education
the key to social mobility is that this also makes the educational
system the instrument by which all social roles are defined, i.e. an
agent of social immobility as well. On this analysis, the more people
feel their own social position is derived from divisions within the
educational system, the more their attitude to change is likely to be
tempered by a fear that change may threaten their own particular niche
in society.

At the institutional level, the importance of the teachers them-
selves as allies or opponents of change is clearly of paramount
importance. Here again the dominant traditional humanistic tradition

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is highly relevant. The teachers' unions are many and mainly concerned with the immediate needs of their members; they are not widely regarded as an important pressure group for educational reform.

Much attention has been directed to the way in which secondary school teachers are recruited and to the lack of any requirement that their training should include any pedagógic studies. This inevitably means that the teacher whose own educational attitudes are formed in a traditional lycée and university returns to teach and himself reinforce the tradition. As the Italian contribution to the OECD report, already referred to, pointed out, this was less obvious when the tradition of secondary education was more narrowly restricted and more secure, but it is of manifest significance when social changes are widening the entry to secondary education and bringing in "a vast quantity of youngsters who were traditionally excluded from secondary education".

Plans of various kinds are being discussed, including interim plans, pending a larger reform. These could include the reform of primary school teachers' training in the event of the elimination of the istituto magistrale, and the provision of post-graduate professional courses in education - sociology, psychology and so on - in education departments in the universities, as a prior condition of the abilitazione qualifying a teacher for employment in a secondary school. Tied up with all this is the question of the "concourse" method of filling established posts in the teaching service.

At the instructional level, the traditional curriculum and traditional method of initiating graduates into teaching tend to encourage formal methods of teaching. They put the accent on the transmission of a given culture rather than a critical attitude towards received information. This too has implications for the innovation process, if innovation is to involve transferring more of the responsibility of learning from the teacher to the pupil and a consequent change in the nature of the teacher's authority. Implicit in any serious move to provide mass secondary education is the attempt to match the education to the pupil rather than blame the pupil for failing to correspond to the kind of education which is on offer.

It would follow from this that teachers who are wedded to a clearly defined, traditional, humanistic curriculum and formal, authoritarian methods of teaching will find it difficult to lead the process of innovation, and are more likely to resist it because it must cause an upheaval which is disagreeable to them.

Also at the instructional level, there is the question of the central control of the curriculum by the Ministry of Public Instruction and how far this encourages or discourages initiative among the teachers, and hence prepares for participation in innovation.

The Ministry, being a government department headed by a leading politician, can only be as progressive as its current political leadership will permit. The Ministry's officers are at pains to point out the restriction on their own initiative which they see mainly as being limited to advising on the most effective method of carrying out the policies adopted by their ministers. (Nc doubt this is clumsily expressed, but is the gist of views put forward at a meeting with officers of the Ministry).

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How far does this modest attitude affect the Ministry in its more directly pedagogic responsibilities for the content of the curriculum? Government departments are usually the targets of fairly indiscriminate criticism. But it would not be surprising if, in the absence of a positive policy of reform and innovation from the top, the bureaucratic machine adopted an attitude of hostile neutrality towards curriculum innovation - not out of any spirit of malice but simply because it is in the nature of bureaucracy - given the opportunity - to do again next year what was done last year.

Strategy of change

One of the aspects of the Italian secondary school situation which is likely to concern an international workshop is what kind of strategy could be worked out, given a desire to change the system in particular ways. If certain goals can be established, what co-ordinated programme of action could be devised to achieve the stated goals? To achieve certain effects, what are the right levers to pull?

Strategies of innovation are of more than national interest. Throughout the OECD countries curriculum reform and secondary re-organisation have been the subject of obsessive interest. How far are these ideas interchangeable across national frontiers?

1. Parliamentary

In the Italian setting, it seems agreed that the starting point for another instalment in the reform of secondary education is legislative - that however much could be done by administrative action by a determined Minister, the controversial importance of the kind of changes which are needed would be so great that no Minister could act without explicit Parliamentary support; without legislation no major, co-ordinated strategy of change is likely. This raises a number of questions to which no answers can be offered. Not, of course, that legislation is in itself a guarantee of co-ordinated strategy of change. The latest legislative interventions - laws 754 and 910 - are examples of how the law may be changed in a way which must have important consequences, without introducing any general plan for reform at the same time. The same might apply to reforms of the maturità and other aspects of the piecemeal reform of higher education.

How to use these piecemeal reforms to promote a general programme of reform is clearly something which must call for close study. What will be the result of an influx of potential university students whose school preparation has been quite different from the students who till now have entered the universities? (Other more radical proposals would open up university entry to students over 25 under still more liberal conditions). Will the result simply be a larger drop-out at the end of the first year with the attendant discontent this will cause?

How far will the prestige of the vocational schools have been altered by the new law which theoretically opens up an avenue to higher education for every type of school? Only the most optimistic can believe this is likely to make a great deal of difference to the hierarchy of institutions so long as the hierarchy of institutions correlates with the social class of the pupils who attend them.

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What part will student unrest, both at the secondary school and at the university level, play in inducing the political parties to support educational reform (or in making educational reform unpopular)?

Progressive educators tend to assume that student unrest arises from faults in the education system (and outside it) which their own policies would eliminate. How far are the things which the students protest about, those which educational reformers would do something about? On one view, the discontent among students is evidence that "the educational system has ceased to serve the needs of a changed society and in so far as it is elitist in conception, is representative of decadent forces in society struggling to defend their own interests". In ideological terms, Marxists and radical Catholics may find themselves at one in a critique of the educational system as a creature of business and capital. On another view, the anarchism of the student left expresses a nihilism which has little positive to say about the shape that educational reform should take. On either view, there is evidence that the effect of student unrest is to speed up the pace of educational change and persuade some to support reform out of expediency who are unconvinced of the principles on which the reforms are based.

Assuming there is to be a legislative initiative, what part will, or should, the Ministry of Public Instruction play in this, and what part will be played by special commission set up by the political parties?

The self-deprecating attitude which the Ministry cultivates is understandable in the circumstances but hardly consistent with the emergence of what may be called a "departmental point of view" which would be necessary to sustain a continuing plan for educational reform. (One thing is clear: educational reform has to be long-term or it is nothing). No doubt one aspect of a coherent strategy of reform would be to review the internal plan of the Ministry and to consider how the departmental organisation could best be arranged to favour the achievement of a unified biennium. For example, if the departmental structure at present corresponds to the divisions within the secondary system it might be reasonable to question whether this is conducive to the reduction of barriers between the different types of schooling.

Plans have been announced for the establishment within the Ministry of an "Institute of Educational Planning" which could become an important instrument in the direction of educational reform provided it is staffed by experts of sufficient calibre and has access to the Minister himself and his chief advisers. Alternatively, it could amount to little more than a re-arrangement of the present organisation for statistical information and planning.

Ideally, this might lead to the establishment of clearly defined goals for the educational reform - a kind of credo of the kind which in, say Sweden, provides a criterion by which all educational policies can be judged. In some other countries, such as England, the overall Education Act implies certain goals, but these are seldom spelt out, and the achievement of some sort of consensus takes place tacitly, rather than explicitly. Sometimes it is easier to do good by stealth than openly. Where politics are uncertain and governments come and go, clearly defined long-term objectives may be impossible to set out.

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2. Supporting Policies

What kind of supporting policies will be required to carry through a further instalment in the reform of secondary education - and to prepare for it - supposing that the political and parliamentary leadership can be forthcoming?

(i) Teachers

As has already been indicated, a reform of teacher training is generally regarded as overdue and this would certainly form an essential element in any strategy. It would be unrealistic to look for short-term results. But the establishment of university education departments (in one form or another) for the pedagogic training of secondary school teachers, and eventually perhaps, able to offer education courses at the undergraduate level as well, would be a way of changing basic attitudes. The importance would not, of course, only lie in the studies which the future teachers would pursue but also in the establishment within the universities of powerful centres of study and research at a higher level, and the encouragement which this would give to the social scientists to direct their attention to educational questions. In this context, the Government's intention to establish a university based National Institute of Educational Research is relevant in long-term.

The establishment of professional colleges of education attached to universities where primary school teachers would be trained would also be an important development which would, in the course of time, begin to affect the schools, as methods and attitudes tend to move upwards through the system.

The natural and essential complement to the reform of initial training would logically be the expansion of in-service training and a determined effort to persuade the body of practising teachers to accept the philosophy behind the reform.

Without the acceptance of the teachers - more or less wholehearted - the changes in organisation will fail to achieve the intended result.

Given the widespread belief among liberal educationists that the teachers themselves represent a conservative force and one of the constraints on change, the involvement and implication of the teachers in the practical and theoretical preparation for reform and in its execution, is clearly difficult, but likely to be an essential part of the innovation technique.

(ii) Curriculum development

To give meaning and reality to a change of organisation, a major programme of curriculum development would seem logically to be required. Here again, the benefits of implicating the teachers and through the processes of testing and validating new materials, involving as many schools as possible, would seem to be obvious. This raises questions about existing curriculum centres (including that at the Villa Falconieri) and the part which they should play in the next stage of educational reform, including whether or not the continued separation of centres for particular kinds of secondary education would make sense, given a will to move towards unification.

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Curriculum development in highly centralised systems demands a strong and positive lead from the centre, but it also requires the opportunity for local experiment and development.

A number of experimental schemes already exist and doubtless more would have to follow, including the institution of experimental schools in which the unified biennium would be applied more or less rigorously. These would require careful monitoring, but it might well be their object would not be to test the intrinsic validity of a more unified biennium so much as to study the practical problems to which it gave rise. Some would agree that this kind of experimental development would require a measure of local initiative and decentralisation with more decision-making at regional or provincial levels and the emergence of local development teams able to keep in close touch with progress at the ground level.

Clearly these questions go deep into administrative policy and far beyond the immediate problem of curriculum reform, but however they are answered the need to foster initiative at the local level will remain.

A fully articulated strategy might include the use of many different innovative techniques(1) including:

- the <u>pilot project</u>, in which a limited number of pupils and teachers experiment with new materials or methods or both;

- the <u>cadre approach</u>, in which special teachers - heads, inspectors, subject specialists - are released from their normal duties to help to introduce a new method or new materials as "agents of change";

- the <u>experimental sub-system</u>, where new methods or models are introduced in a limited area, large enough to be influential, yet small enough to be manageable;

- the <u>re-arranged setting</u>, in which by the introduction of a change in the physical environment - say by a new school design or the provision of language laboratories - new methods of teaching and learning are encouraged;

- <u>methods - materials - systems</u>, where new materials demanding their own methods and geared to their own objectives, influence the way teachers and pupils go about their work;

- experimental developments arising from close <u>co-operation between schools and universities</u>.

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(1) See Edward J. Mead's contribution to the Third International Curriculum Conference, Oxford, 1967: <u>Curriculum Innovation in Practice</u>, London, H.M.S.O.

3. Transfer between Institutions

A third line of strategy which suggests itself, particularly if more ambitious plans are not adopted, would be directed at facilitating movement within the educational system. The attempt to open up a path to the university via the vocational school is intended to do this in a particularly dramatic form. No doubt there are other ways in which bridges could be built between the separate secondary school courses to encourage a greater two-way traffic by reducing to the minimum the complementary studies which are demanded for transfer. This might also suggest a need for new ways of picking up those who drop out early, possibly by reducing the amount of part time study required to re-enter the main stream of education, or by the development of other forms of technical education, linked to industrial needs, to provide alternative routes to professional qualifications.

CONCLUSION

To sum up, the reform of Italian Secondary Education raises complex political and pedagogic questions which cannot be resolved by either politics or pedagogy alone. The direction of future educational reform seems fairly clear: the next step in terms of organisation is likely to be towards some kind of unitary, polyvalent or comprehensive system, beginning with a unification of the first biennium of the upper secondary schools, with options corresponding to some of the present divisions within the system.

There seems to be agreement that a change of organisation also implies changes in the curriculum and in teaching philosophy and method. This in turn would suggest a need for a positive attitude to innovation as a whole and a strategy for promoting it.

A consideration of the constraints on change in Italian education raises questions about the role of the central administration, and about the teachers who do not now seem to be regarded as a source of ideas or active pressure for educational reform. Proposals for the reform of teacher education have an obvious bearing on this, on the part which universities should play in the promotion of the study of education, and on the complementary programme of in-service training which would have to accompany the introduction of initial professional training for graduate teachers.

Finally, in an ideal world, the strategy of change would have to include a combination of policies, some of which have been touched upon, political, administrative, pedagogic, calculated to alter attitudes and long established practice and re-orientate the whole of the secondary education system in the new direction. To achieve this demands clear objectives and single-minded policies: luxuries which few countries in Western Europe can enjoy. But in the absence of these pre-requisites of perfect planning some kind of ad hoc framework becomes all the more necessary, as scaffolding around which the eventual edifice can rise.

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A BRIEF HISTORY OF ITALIAN EDUCATIONAL REFORM

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A. SECONDARY EDUCATION AND ITS HISTORICAL EVOLUTION

The starting point of Italy's structural system was given by the Casati Law of 1859, promulgated before the Unification of Italy (1861), for the provinces of the Kingdom of Piedmont-Sardinia and of Lombardy. The norms and regulations of this Law were successively extended to the other Italian provinces.

With regard to secondary education, which is the subject of the present historical survey, the Casati Law introduced the following structures:

(a) a "liceo ginnasio" (classical secondary school), students
    from 10 to 18 years of age, sub-divided into a 5 year
    gymnasium and a 3 year lyceum;

(b) a three-year technical school, followed by a three year
    "istituto tecnico", which was later extended to four years;

(c) a "scuola normale" (teacher training school) for the training
    of elementary school teachers.

The scuola normale had no lower course and accepted students only if they were aged sixteen or above.

As for geographical distribution, the Casati Law established that there should be a gymnasium in the chief town of every district; a lyceum and a technical school in the chief town of every province; and a technical institute (sub-divided into several specialised branches) in the major industrial and commercial centres. Thirty scuole normali were opened.

From the time of the Casati Law until 1923, the year of the reform that took its name from Giovanni Gentile, secondary education remained more or less unchanged. However, the Orlando Law of 1904 raised the age of admission to eleven years of age, when the length of primary schooling passed from 4 to 5 years.

The classical lyceum's structure remained unaltered, although there were frequent and notable changes in its internal regulations. For instance, an optional system between Greek and mathematics was adopted

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from 1904 to 1911. In 1911, Minister Credaro created a series of experimental schools called "sections" of modern gymnasium and lyceum. The technical institutes, which had become quadrennial, were consolidated into three fundamental types or sections (physics and mathematics, surveying, commerce and administration). Meanwhile the specialised sections (for industry, for agriculture, for naval activities) depended, with special regulations, on their respective Ministries; they were placed under the Ministry of Education's control only in 1930.

The technical schools, which served as preparation for minor occupations in industry, agriculture, and commerce, flourished rather rapidly; they also served as lower or preparatory courses for the scuola normale (teacher training school), and, of course, for the technical institutes.

The scuola normale underwent various modifications in its organisation. It was in particular the object of innovative suggestions made by famous educators of the time such as Aristide Gabelli. A definitive re-organisation took place in 1896, when the title of primary school master became universal — previously the diploma had been divided into two grades, lower and higher. The Law of 1896 also created the institution of the scuola complementare (3 years, after primary school) which became the inferior or preparatory course for the female teacher training schools.

During the second half of the nineteenth century there was a constant and uninterrupted elaboration of proposals and reforms for the secondary schools. Among them were such interesting projects as the one presented by Terenzio Mamiani (1861), who supported even then the idea of a unified middle school; by Carlo Matteucci (1863), author of a "project on secondary education"; by Michele Amari, who in 1864 formed a special commission for the study of a new discipline of secondary schools. Also in 1864 the philosopher G.M. Bertini presented a well-known study in which he too supported the idea of unified lower grades in the gymnasium and in the technical systems. In 1866 Domenico Berti again proposed the idea of unifying the two types, but basing it exclusively on classical culture.

It is useless to enumerate all the Ministers who defended innovations or modifications of secondary education.

However, the constitution of the so-called Martini Parliamentary Commission, in 1888, can be considered as an important stage. In 1893 the Commission presented an extensive report, the most notable element of which was the proposed abolition of Latin in an unified lower school.

The year 1905 saw the birth of a Royal Commission for the Arrangement of Secondary Studies, consisting of the most famous representatives of culture and pedagogy; for the first time in our educational history the Commission worked with "questionnaires" which had been sent to the various representatives of scientific, cultural and educational activities.

For the Royal Commission too the crucial issue was the unification of the lower middle school, which should have been followed by separate schools for classical or general education, for technical education and for teacher training. But the findings of the Commission led to few

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practical results and only in 1911 did they lead to the foundation of
a few sections of modern lyceum, which were, however, very quickly
suppressed.

Yet the recurrent idea of unity in the lower school must not be
misunderstood: it was always conceived of as unity of the existing
schools, attended by only a tiny fraction of the population (not more
than 10 per cent until 1915), and not as compulsory schooling permitting
all citizens to be educated until 14-15 years of age.

The first major innovations, after the Casati Law, are to be found
in the transformations promoted by G. Gentile. In the Gentile Reform
the classical lyceum maintained its traditional structure; a scientific
lyceum (4 years, 15-19 years) was brought into being; there was no lower
course - the students were admitted after the lower course of the
technical institute. Technical school and technical institutes were
merged into a unique 8 year structure (4 years of lower course and 4
years of higher course); the mathematics and physics section became the
scientific lyceum; the two other sections (administration and surveying)
remained unchanged. The istituto magistrale (teacher training school)
took the place of the old scuola normale, and consisted of a 7 year
course (4 years of lower course and 3 years of higher course). The
scuola complementare, created in 1896, practically took the place of
the old scuola tecnica (technical school). A girls' lyceum was founded
but it only lasted very few years.

This is the structure of secondary education. The Gentile Reform
also gave new didactical content to the school, a fundamentally
historical-critical approach, an outlook radically oriented in the
sense of idealistic philosophy. With the introduction of the State
school leaving examination (equal for everybody) a new type of relation-
ship between State schools and private-confessional schools came into
effect. (Previously the students of private schools had to pass their
final examination in a public school).

Between 1923 and 1945 the most relevant innovations in the
secondary sector were the following: transformation of the triennial
(11-14 years) scuole complementari into scuole secondarie di avviamento
al lavoro (lower secondary preparatory schools) sub-divided into the
following branches: agriculture, commerce, industry, domestic economy,
naval. The industrial, agrarian, naval and commercial schools that
did not depend on the Ministry of Education were absorbed by the school
system (the 1931 Law defined the precise structure of the Technical
Institutes). Finally, the Schools of Art (scuole d'arte, istituti d'arte,
licei artistici) begin to appear as a separate and distinct branch of
the secondary educational system. University entrance is, of course,
limited in the Gentile Reform. The classical lyceum gives free access
to all faculties. For students leaving the scientific lyceum, law and
humanities are out of reach. From the technical institutes, some
faculties are accessible (rarely those corresponding to the relevant
specialisation) and always with notable restrictions.

The authoritarian government of 1939 enacted the School Charter
with an annexed plan of reforms. The only part of this programme that
was carried out, however, concerned the introduction of the so-called
unified middle school (1940). In fact, this new institution only unified
the lower courses (3 years) of the gymnasium, of the technical

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institutes and of the teacher training schools. The preparatory schools (avviamento) and the post-primary courses were not included. The unified middle school was gradually introduced, between 1940 and 1943, in extremely difficult years. Successively, "liaison-classes" had to be created in the scientifical lyceums and in the technical and training institutes, so as to substitute the fourth class of the old lower courses.

After 1945, planning for the restructuring of secondary education was resumed zealously enough. First of all, some urgent measures to purge the programmes from fascist influences were undertaken. In teacher training schools psychology and direct training were reintroduced (they had been eliminated under the Gentile administration). And from all sides came agreement that extensive reforms were necessary. A first official project was elaborated in 1951 by the then Minister Mr. Gonella. A tripartite middle school was to be introduced (humanistic school, technical school, post-elementary school) leading to the traditional quinquennial courses. Also in this period, the problem of "middle school for all" was tackled for the first time: not a simple unification of the existing secondary courses, but an unified extension of primary compulsory education, which until that time was in fact compulsory only to 11 years of age. Compulsory schooling until 14 years of age existed, but only on paper and in those situations where preparatory schools (avviamento) existed ensuring that all boys and girls could benefit from this unique institution until their fourteenth birthday.

After a long and intense debate, lasting virtually from 1945 to 1960, the introduction of the new unified middle school, compulsory for all, was decided (Law of 31st December, 1962, No.1859). This is the school that we have today. On the other hand, the debate on the structures of higher secondary education came to a halt. Furthermore, between 1950-1960 another branch of education – the vocational schools – had grown to a considerable importance. They were biennial or more oftenly triennial institutes, with admittance at 14 years of age, and the task of giving qualifications for executive work (qualified workers).

In 1962 an Enquiry Commission (composed of Members of Parliament and experts) was created to propose new educational structures. These were the proposals of the Commission for secondary schools:

(a) a lyceum consisting of the traditional classical type and in a modern section, sub-divided into science, social studies and, as a part of the Commission insisted, teacher training;

(b) technical schools, with a common two year period and a differential three year period;

(c) for the arts sector, a concentration of the existing but extremely diversified institutions;

(d) vocational training, in the Commission's proposals, was isolated from the rest of secondary education, and formed as a separate system albeit with some connections with the technical schools.

After the conclusion of the Enquiry Commission's works, the Minister of Education Mr. Gui elaborated a series of projects on the re-organisation of secondary education. However, these projects never reached

Parliament. The hypothesis of modification is included in the document "Directive Lines of the Development Plan" presented on 30th September, 1964, which is notably different from the proposals of the Commission.

The "Directive Lines" give the following suggestions: short-term vocational training, in the old vocational training schools; technical education, for which the proposals of the Enquiry Commission are accepted (a common two year period and different three year periods of specialisation - commercial, industrial, naval, agrarian, domestic); the lyceums, of five different sorts: classical, scientific, linguistic, teacher training, artistic. The first two year period of all lyceums should have "substantially similar study programmes". In addition to these schools, a teacher training school for infant school mistresses and artistic schools for arts and music were to remain as well. These proposals brought no effective results although they did influence the successive debate on the reform of secondary education.

Towards the end of the legislature (1968) a project of reform was presented in Parliament (the Donati Project).The modification of the structure of two year periods was proposed, bringing to 16 the age of compulsory schooling, and introducing, practically, biennial "unified" schools in the respective technical, classical and teacher training branches. This project too was not carried out. The end of the 1968 legislature and the beginning of the new legislature rendered the re-organisation of secondary education still more urgent, but no proposals permitting even the possibility of consensus were advanced. The only relevant fact is an agreement between the parties forming Mr. Rumor's centre-left government in November 1968 in which the hypotheses for renovation of secondary education repeated those included in the "Directive Lines".

Today we have reached the situation where it has to be decided whether the projects elaborated in 1967-68 in three different plans (vocational education, technical education, lyceums) can be redrawn and simply brought up to date or if a radical renovation is necessary in our secondary education.

B. INNOVATION AND EXPERIMENTATION

The situation has been significantly modified by two very recent legal dispositions that came into effect in the very first months of the current year: the "Law on experimentation in Vocational schools" (No.754, dated 27th of October 1969), and the Law providing "Urgent dispositions for the Universities" (No.910, dated 11th of December 1969).

The first law introduces, in fact, a profoundly new situation: on the one hand it consents to the creation of 50 "experimental" courses within the limits of the actual schools (lasting two years), in which "the cultural component of the professional biennial is accentuated". On the other hand, the law consents to the institution of 350 "special courses", lasting one, two or three years, apt to consent to "a cultural and applicative secondary level formation", equal to that of the technical schools. Therefore, where the courses last three years, we have a true and proper quinquennial course, at the end of which the students can pass the "professional maturity" examination, equivalent to all other school leaving examinations; the title obtained corresponds

to a qualification similar to the one delivered in technical schools and also gives admission to all University faculties in conformity with the recent No.910 law, mentioned above. In other words, we now have a new "experimental" vocational school, which, instead of lasting two or three years, now lasts five years, like the other secondary schools (14-19), and admits graduates to the University.

The problems connected with this innovation are relevant. The conception of a vocational sector or approach, separate and autonomous from the technical sector, intended to equip young people with simple working and executive qualifications and without further outlets (except integrative exams to pass into the technical system) is now definitively surpassed. The vocational school, in fact, becomes a "qualification course for intermediary technical professions", and at the same time a general pre-university secondary course, and for this reason an alternative problem will soon have to be resolved: either, reunification of the technical and vocational sectors, or, transformation, albeit on special basis, of the "experimental" vocational schools which have chosen a five year structure, into technical schools.

The second Law (No.910) although it concerns the University, contains a very important article which has crucial consequences for all secondary education. The article prescribes: "Pending the enactment of the University Reform Bill, all degree courses are open to:
(a) holders of diplomas issued by five years, second degree secondary schools, including linguist lyceums recognised by law, as well as those who have completed the complementary courses specified by the law authorising their experimentation in vocational training schools;
(b) holders of diplomas issued by teacher training schools and art schools who have successfully completed a one-year complementary course to be organised in every province by the Provincial Board of Education, under the University's didactic and scientific responsibility, on the basis of the instructions which shall be issued by the Ministry of Education."

With this decree, known as the "Liberalisation of University entrance" Law, all the five-year secondary schools following compulsory school (6-14 years) give possibility of access to all University faculties with no numerus clausus limitations and no entrance examination.

With regard to four-year schools (artistic lyceum and teacher training schools), the circular No.3350, dated 29/12/1969, has already introduced complementary courses to be held in 32 universities, for a number of teacher training schools determined by the Provincial Board of Education; similar decisions have been taken for Art schools.

Vocational schools too now admit to the Universities: the above mentioned No.754 Law, by introducing, albeit experimentally, a three-year complementary course, held after the first two-year course, has brought the complete course to five years, thus opening it to the University. For the arts and crafts schools (consisting of a three-year course after middle school) an appropriate Bill (No.2076) has been presented to the Chamber of Deputies; this Law should provide the creation of an experimental course similar to that of vocational schools, and likewise admitting to University entry.

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It is now evident that practically no secondary school today constitutionally excludes the possibility of reaching University; and furthermore, admittance to all faculties is permitted, independently from the secondary school attended.

Opinions and points of view on Law No.910 have, of course, been completely opposite: to some it seemed a bold liberal, egalitarian and democratic measure; to others it has been seen as a demagogic measure, apt to disrupt the whole secondary and universitary education system. Substantially, it is stigmatized because it permits indiscriminate access to University, without any control or guidance; and, for instance, a student who has never done any Latin or Greek could very well attend a degree course of classical letters; on the other hand, it is answered, the secondary system is not necessarily the only channel fit to consent or evaluate modes and types of structure. It will then be in the University itself that the student will have to give proof of his preparation or his lack of preparation in the subjects he has decided to study.

But then again it is said that if the University has to have the function of "controlling", which up until yesterday was the specific role of the secondary school, this is such a heavy burden that the academical institutions will be thrown completely head over tails and will not be able to cope with the non-motivated rise in the number of students.

The debate could, of course, go on for ever. It is, however, necessary to say that, in the present conditions, the consequences of the No.910 Law are not at all clear. There is no way of saying whether its effects will be positive or negative: everything depends on the ways in which the "liberalised demand" will grow, on the reaction of the academic institutions, and above all on the strategic direction capacities of the administration.

For all we know no other European country has adopted such a "phisiocratic" system for its education policy. It would be extremely interesting if the Italian experience could be followed with particular attention by those research bodies particularly interested in the study of innovations which introduce such radical transformations in traditional education systems.

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Art.1 - Beginning with the school year 1969-70 special courses aimed at enhancing the cultural component of the first professional two-year period shall be established in State vocational training schools institutes by way of experiment and pending the reform of second-degree secondary education, by decree of the President of the Republic following a proposal by the Minister of Education and with the advice of a commission of experts appointed and presided over by the Minister himself.

Likewise by way of experiment and pending the reform of second-degree secondary education, after ascertaining that conditions are adequate, one-year or two-year or three-year courses shall be established as specified in the preceding paragraph in State professional institutes of the whole national territory, with the aim of extending their length to five years and providing students with the cultural and practical training of five-year second-degree secondary school level.

The courses specified in the preceding paragraph can also be established at technical institutes.

The number of special courses to be established as specified in the first paragraph of this article shall not be higher than fifty; the courses as specified in paragraphs two and three above shall not be more than three hundred and fifty.

The results of the experiment shall be evaluated by the commission mentioned in the first paragraph and its conclusions shall be made known to Parliament.

Art.2 - Students attending the courses specified by the preceding article shall be entitled to apply for the scholarships especially provided for students of higher secondary schools.

The Minister of Education is authorised to use, also for the purpose of setting up scholarships for the above mentioned students, moneys granted but not used for free or subsidized places in residential colleges as specified by art.19 of the Law of 31st October, 1966, No.942.

Local administrations and boards shall be entitled to allocate additional moneys to those as specified by the preceding paragraphs both to increase the amount of moneys allocated and to increase the number of scholarships granted by the State. Any expenditures voted by local administrations for this purpose shall be considered mandatory.

Art.3 - At the end of the courses specified by paragraphs two and three of the preceding article 1, students shall undergo a State examination for the purpose of obtaining a diploma of professional maturity equivalent to the diploma obtained at technical institutes of the corresponding type and valid for admission to the intermediate grades of the Civil Service and to University degree courses. To the President of the Republic's decree mentioned by the preceding article 1 shall be annexed a list specifying the validity of diplomas issued by vocational training schools with no corresponding type of school in the technical education sector, for the purpose of the above-mentioned admission to the intermediate grades of the Civil Service and to University degree courses.

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Art.4 - The guiding programmes and timetables of instruction and examination for the courses specified by the first, second and third paragraphs of the preceding article 1, as well as the manner in which the examinations mentioned by article 3 above shall be carried out, shall be established by the Minister of Education on the advice of the Higher Council for Public Education and the commission mentioned by article 1 above, and may be changed from time to time on the basis of the results of the experiment.

Art.5 - Theoretical and practical instruction in the courses specified by the first three paragraphs of the preceding article 1 shall be entrusted to staff having particular, specific cultural training and proved teaching experience, to be selected according to principles established by order of the Minister of Education with the advice of the commission specified by the first paragraph of the same article 1.

Art.6 - The courses mentioned by paragraphs two and three of article 1 shall be open to students who have completed successfully the courses of vocational training schools of the same type.

Art.7 - The first paragraph of the single article of the Law of 31st March, 1966, No.205, is substituted by the following:

"A student who has passed or passes the final examination in vocational training school obtains a diploma of qualification which shall become valid in employer-employee relations after a period of practical activity whose length shall be determined by collective bargaining but shall not, in any case, exceed three months.

Art.8 - Recognition of diplomas of professional qualifications and of diplomas issued by former State technical schools and professional schools for girls and by those schools of the same type which were legally recognised within the meaning of article 3 of the Law of 21st April, 1965, No.449, may be granted for three years from the date of coming into effect of this Law.

Art.9 - The expenditures deriving from the coming into effect of this Law shall be covered by normal budget allocations as well as by those specified by the Law of 31st October, 1966, No.942, under items 2004, 2005, 2007, 2032, 2033, 2035 and 2037 of the Ministry of Education Expense Estimates for the fiscal year 1969, and corresponding items of following years.

LAW OF 11th DECEMBER, 1969, No.910

Art.1 - Pending enactment of the University Reform Bill all degree courses are open to:

(a) holders of diplomas issued by five-year, second degree secondary schools, including linguistic lyceums recognised by law, as well as those who have completed the complementary courses specified by the law authorising their experimentation in vocational training schools;

(b) holders of diplomas issued by teacher training schools and art schools who have successfully completed a one-year complementary course to be organised in every province by the Provincial Board of Education, under the Universities' didactic and scientific responsibility, on the basis of instructions which shall be issued by the Ministry of Education.

Students following the above-mentioned one-year complementary courses are entitled to a deferment of their military service according to existing legislation on this matter.

Pending enactment of the Higher Secondary School Reform, diploma holders issued from teacher training schools and art schools shall still be entitled to admission to those degree courses to which they are entitled under the laws existing at the date of enactment of this Law; during the same period of time, moreover, the validity shall continue of Decree-Law of 22nd December, 1968, No.1241, converted into the Law of 12th February, 1969, No.8, concerning admission to University Teacher Training Courses (facoltà di magistero) and Higher Schools of Teacher Training (Istituti superiori di magistero).

Staff teaching in second-degree higher secondary schools, entrusted with teaching in the courses specified by paragraph 1(b) of this article, can be exempted for a corresponding number of hours from normal teaching duties. Any excess hours above the mandatory number of hours shall be paid at the rate of one-eighteenth of the salary due for each weekly hour and for the actual length of the course.

Independently from the higher secondary school diploma held, any degree holder is entitled to admission to any other degree course.

For the academic year 1969-70 students entitled to University admission under this article shall hand in their application forms not later than 31st December, 1969.

Art.2 - For the academic year 1969-70 students can submit curricula different from those laid down by existing didactic rules, provided the subjects are selected among those actually taught and their number is that laid down by existing rules.

The curricula are submitted for approval, not later than the month of December, to the Faculty Board which issues its decision taking account of the cultural formation and professional preparation required of the students.

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Art.3 – Students receiving the study grants laid down by the Law of 21st April, 1969, No.162, are exempted from payment of any University taxes, surtaxes, secretarial dues and any other charges.

Art.4 – Staff in charge of teaching in Universities or University-level Institutes, including Schools of specialisation or perfecting school, in both academic year 1968–69 and 1969–70, are entitled to confirmation in their posts for the academic year 1970-71 on their own request, following an application to be handed in within 90 days from the date of coming into force of this Law, except in cases of earlier cassation as laid down by the second paragraph of article 10 of the Law of 24th February, 1967, No.62.

Assistant Professors are entitled to the provisions of the preceding paragraph even if they have been in charge of courses only during the academic year 1969-70.

The provisions of this article do not apply to Ordinary and Extraordinary University Professors in charge of supplementary courses.

The term of validity of the three-man selection lists for University professorships as specified by existing legislation is extended by one year.

Art.5 – As from 31st October, 1969, articles 8 and 28-ter, last paragraph, of the Legislative Decree of 7th May, 1948, No.1172, as ratified with modifications by the Law of 24th June, 1950, No.465 and following modifications, are abrogated.

Paragraphs one and two of article 4 of the Law of 18th March, 1958, No.349, as substituted by article 8 of the Law of 26th January, 1962, No.16, being still valid, an Assistant Professor who is not Free Professor (Libero docente) is entitled to the second and first salary grade on completing respectively the sixth and fourth year in the preceding grade.

An Assistant Professor who is not a Free Professor is entitled, on reaching the second grade of salary, to the provisions of existing legislature in respect of Assistant Professors who are Free Professors.

The period of service served by an Assistant Professor who is not a Free Professor in the third salary grade in excess of the period laid down by the second paragraph of this article for passage to the second salary grade can be computed for the purpose of passage to the first grade.

Art.6 – The greater sum to be allocated in the year 1970 under article 28 of the Law of 31st October, 1966, No.942, is increased by 5,000,000,000 Lire.

Art.7 – The expenditure deriving from application of this Law in the financial year 1970, estimated at 8,000,000,000 Lire, is to be covered by reduction of the allocations under item 3523 of the Ministry of the Treasury Expense Estimates for the same financial year.

The Minister of the Treasury is authorised to provide by his own decrees for the necessary budget variations.

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Table 1 - ITALIAN EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM BY LEVELS,

TYPES AND STUDENTS ENROLMENT

(1968 - 1969)

School Year	Age Year							
1	6	PRIMARY SCHOOL 4,706,000						
2	7							
3	8							
4	9							
5	10							
6	11	MIDDLE SCHOOL 1,982,000						
7	12							
8	13							
9	14	Primary Teachers School	Art. Schools	Classical Lyceum	Scientific Lyceum	Technical Institutes (*)	Vocational Institutes 214,000	Extra school vocational systems
10	15							
11	16							
12	17	249,000	48,000	198,000	185,000	619,000	Experimental 3 years type	
13	18	Propedeutical year to Univ.						
14	19							

		UNIVERSITY FACULTIES	Archt. (4)	11,638
15	20		Litter. Phil. (4)	143,991
16	21		Sciences (4)	68,026
			Medicine (6)	48,701
17	22		Law (4)	43,064
			Pol. Sciences (4)	9,469
18	23		Engineering (5)	50,530
			Agronomy (4)	6,434
19	24		Statistics (4)	2,722
			Economics (4)	93,252
20	25		Pharmacy (4)	6,979
			Veterinary (4)	1,332
			Phys. education (3)	3,291
			Naval inst. (4)	2,477
			Others	1,706
			T O T A L	496,406

Admission to any faculty from any type of five year secondary school: neither entrance examinations nor enrolment limitations.

(*) = 8 types : commerce, agronomy, surveyors, naval, girls, industrial, tourism, firm secretariat.

Table 2 - PUPILS' ENROLMENT BY AGE IN DIFFERENT TYPES OF SCHOOLS

1966 - 67

AGE	LIVING PUPILS	PRIMARY SCHOOL	MIDDLE SCHOOL	VOCATIONAL SCHOOLS	TECHNICAL INSTITUTES	TEACHER SCHOOL	LYCEUM	ART SCHOOLS	TOT. ENROL.	
									N.	out of 100 living
up to 6	——	6,645	——	——	——	——	——	——	6,645	——
6-7	859,000	860,407	——	——	——	——	——	——	860,407	100.16
7-8	855,000	852,784	——	——	——	——	——	——	852,784	99.74
8-9	822,000	820,907	——	——	——	——	——	——	820,907	99.87
9-10	824,000	813,893	——	——	——	——	——	——	813,893	98.77
10-11	812,000	755,156	45,497	——	——	——	——	——	800,653	98.60
11-12	814,000	291,274	452,908	——	——	——	——	——	844,182	91.42
12-13	803,000	138,005	538,927	1,332	20	14	155	4	678,457	84.49
13-14	776,000	51,847	488,828	3,275	7,061	5,060	18,147	359	574,577	74.56
14-15	774,000	8,030	198,886	27,652	77,959	46,908	70,736	3,688	433,859	56.05
15-16	784,000	2,500	70,057	38,883	96,538	54,797	64,655	5,156	332,586	42.42
16-17	827,000	——	20,548	40,610	101,450	51,961	57,597	5,956	272,167	32.91
17-18	830,000	——	5,355	27,019	97,974	40,896	50,302	5,533	227,079	27.36
18-19	885,000	——	1,970	15,262	92,445	23,514	37,029	4,134	174,354	19.70
19-20	879,000	——	862	6,818	60,585	12,130	14,733	2,603	97,771	11.12
20-21	883,000	——	376	2,654	32,603	5,817	6,001	1,386	48,838	5.53
21-22	698,000	——	260	1,071	13,955	2,289	1,707	680	19,962	2.86
22-23	723,000	——	211	745	7,280	1,093	538	314	10,181	1.41
23-24	741,000	——	200	572	4,349	677	200	187	6,185	0.83
older than 24 years	——	——	806	2,609	10,350	1,545	240	403	16,038	——
6-11	4,172,000	4,103,147	45,497	——	——	——	——	——	4,148,644	99.44
11-14	2,393,000	481,126	1,480,663	4,607	7,081	5,074	18,302	363	1,997,216	83.46
14-19	4,100,000	10,530	296,816	149,425	446,366	218,077	280,319	24,467	1,426,001	34.78

Table 2 - PUPILS' ENROLMENT IN PUBLIC AND PRIVATE SCHOOLS

	Public %	Private %
Primary	94.33	5.67
Middle	96.65	3.35
Secondary	84.85	15.15
University	92.60	7.40

	Male %	Female %
Secondary	63.30	36.70
University	62.97	37.03

TABLE 3

YEARLY GRADUATION IN DIFFERENT
TYPES AND LEVELS OF SCHOOLS

(1967)

SCHOOLS	NUMBER OF GRADUATES	
	TOTAL	OUT OF 100 LIVING IN THE GROUP AGE
PRIMARY SCHOOL	744,600	91.3
MIDDLE SCHOOL	478,900	61.1
VOCATIONAL SCHOOL (2 years)	60,405	7.5
SECONDARY SCHOOLS (4-5 years)	164,800	18.7
Classical Lyceum	30,330	3.4
Scientific Lyceum	16,813	1.9
Primary Teachers Training School	33,462	3.8
Technical Institutes	82,583	9.4
Art School	1,648	0.2
UNIVERSITY	29,420	3.9
Sciences	4,665	0.62
Medicine	2,645	0.35
Engineering	3,284	0.44
Agronomy	601	0.08
Economics	4,314	0.58
Law - Political Sciences	5,508	0.73
Literature - Philosophy	7,446	0.99
Other	957	0.13

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EXAMPLES OF SECONDARY REORGANISATION IN EUROPE

by Susanne MOWAT
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One of the main purposes of an international workshop is to facilitate the sharing of experience on an international basis. Therefore it was not surprising that methods and plans for the restructuring of upper secondary education in Member countries other than Italy was a topic that received much attention at the Frascati Workshop. As experts from the various countries represented discussed their experience and their plans for the future it became obvious that similar problems and concerns faced all of them. Under these circumstances, the placing of Italian plans into an international context was a valuable exercise.

The following pages attempt to summarise the trends that emerged from the discussions and to present in detail some of the national plans that were discussed. It is not an exhaustive summary, either of upper secondary school reform in general or of the particular plans that were discussed in the workshop proceedings.

The overwhelming fact facing most educators is that more students are staying in school for a longer period of time. Partly this trend reflects economic necessity; partly it results from conscious government decision and partly from individual choice. In order to meet the demands of both students and society, educational systems are changing in structure and in curriculum. At the upper secondary level these changes manifest themselves in a number of ways. Differentiation or streaming, for example, takes place at a later stage; rather than being selected for a particular academic and therefore social future at (perhaps) age 11, students are receiving a common curriculum for a longer period of time. When it does occur differentiation tends to be more flexible with structures designed to permit lateral switching between programmes. Gradually the emphasis is moving away from 'selection' to 'options'.

At the same time curriculum is becoming less standardised, more responsive to local needs and to the individual needs of students. The concept of vocational training is changing; it starts later and at its most advanced stage tends to concentrate on fairly specific preparation for particular job opportunities. A vocational training programme may be incorporated into the curriculum as a lateral outlet that provides students with opportunities to re-enter the general stream at a later stage.

These developments are not taking place overnight, nor in the space of a year or two. The vast reallocations of human and financial resources involved require long-range planning and step-by-step implementation. Most of the current national developments discussed at the Frascati

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Workshop are extensions of reform movements which began at least 25 years ago. Especially when new plans represent a radical departure from the past, their implementation has to be a thoughtful and cautious process.

A clear difference in national style can be seen in the extent to which planning takes place on a national or central scale or the extent to which authority is decentralised. Of all the countries represented at the workshop, it is England which functions with the greatest local autonomy. Reorganisation of secondary schooling along comprehensive lines has been taking place since 1945. As local education authorities traditionally have been responsible for drawing up their own plans for reorganisation there is a great variety of structure among various authorities. (There is also a great variety of structure to be found within them where, for example, the existence of voluntary and grammar schools beyond the authority's control have made total abolition of selection impossible). The most common reorganisation scheme is 11 to 18 schools; many more recent plans propose middle school schemes, two-tier schemes(1) and sixth form colleges. Several combinations of different ent schemes have been developed to suit existing buildings and resources. Curriculum remains the responsibility of the individual headmaster.

Somerset is one County in England that is planning a post-16 college to replace the existing grammar and secondary modern schools by 1974. Under this scheme, which is presented in Fig.I, all students in the community will receive a common curriculum until they reach the age of 16, at which point all who wish to continue their education will enter a community "college". It is expected that about 50 per cent of the 16-year-old age group will become full-time students taking a one-year or two-year programme; about half of the other 50 per cent who take up employment at the age of 16 will become part-time students at the college on one or two-year programmes, perhaps studying one day a week. Adults already at work will also be able to take advantage of the part-time education facilities. The college will consist of about 1,000 full-time students and 2,000-3,000 part-time students thus enabling a full range of options to be presented. Courses to some extent will be determined by local needs.

The Scandinavian countries clearly show a pattern of long-term national planning directed from a central government source. Sweden in 1940 launched a ten-year investigation into what society and the individual required of a modern educational system. Ten years later the

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(1) The Leicestershire scheme indicates what is meant by "two-tier". In 1957 the authority proposed that all children should go to the same "high" school at 11 and at age 14 those whose parents wished them to do so could transfer to an "upper" school, provided they stayed there until 16 at least. Gradually this scheme was extended and in 1969 transfer to the upper school became automatic for all. The high schools therefore enjoyed the full range of pupils, graduate staff, and equipment better than that of their secondary modern days. Examination pressures were confined to the upper schools although these schools too have gradually become more comprehensive. Furthermore, the schools have remained small (500-600 students) and have been able to use the previously existing small buildings.

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Figure I

THE POST-16 COLLEGE

To higher education
or employment

College

18
17
16

30 %

20 % → To employment

Part-time students

Academic and
Vocational
Courses

50 % → to employment with or
without part-time education

Schools 11–16

Minimum entry
120 per annum
to each school

N.B. Age of transfer now
under review. Maybe
12 or even 13.

Schools 5–11   OR   7–11

5–7

10

Swedish Parliament decided that the traditional school system comprising a six or seven-year elementary school followed by a large variety of lower secondary schools should be replaced by a nine-year comprehensive school comprising primary education during the six first years and a lower secondary education for all during the last three years. Nation-wide experiments on the functioning of this new school were started in 1950 and lasted until 1962, during which time more than half the nation turned over to the new system.

In 1962 Parliament decided that the nine-year comprehensive school (with some modifications of the tryout models) should be introduced all over the nation during the 1960's. During this decade upper secondary education was broadened to include different types of education and in 1969 Parliament decided that all vocational education would, from 1971, be given within a comprehensive "gymnasium".

The gradual changes are shown in Fig. II which indicates the relationships between different types of education and also rough estimates of the total numbers of students that attend different types of schools.

The 1945 diagram shows the old system with primary and secondary schools partly parallel to each other and with very few students receiving secondary education.

In 1955 the comprehensive school experiments had been conducted for a few years. During this time students in grades 7-9 were usually streamed into academic, pre-vocational or general programmes. At the same time the building up of the vocational school system was started on a broad scale and lasted until the middle of the 1960's.

The 1965 diagram shows the results of a 1962 parliament decision that grades 7 and 8 should be non-streamed. Differentiation thus occurred when a student reached 15. Reformation of upper secondary education began with the introduction of a new two-year gymnasium ("fackskola") and a new three-year gymnasium or four years for the technical stream.

From 1970 the entire nine-year comprehensive school is non-streamed, which means that pupils are not divided up according to their electives. The different types of upper secondary schools ("gymnasium", "fackskola" and vocational schools) are from 1971 coordinated into a comprehensive gymnasium with 21 streams, within which gradual differentiation takes place.

The general aim of the gymnasial school is to give the students of the former vocational lines a much better basis for their future profession and also to give them a chance to transfer from one stream to another during their secondary education. Some of the 21 lines within the new gymnasial school include 2-year courses in building and construction, office work, economics, motor vehicle mechanics, agri-culture, social sciences, technology, workshop mechanics or nursing; 3-year courses in economics, liberal arts, natural sciences, or civics;

Figure II
SWEDISH EDUCATIONAL REFORM

Age Grade

20

19   13

18   12

17   11
              1945   1955   1965   1970
      10

16

15   9

14   8

      7

13
      6

'12
      5

11
      4

10
      3

·9
      2

8
      1

7

6   —————— Compulsory-school leaving age

         ■■■■■■ Level of organizational pupil diversification

Primary	Primary,	Lower secondary,	Lower secondary,
non-comprehensive	comprehensive	non-comprehensive	comprehensive
(«folkskola»)	(«grundskola»)	(«realskola»)	(«grundskola»)

Upper secondary,	Upper secondary,	Higher education	Pre-primary
non-comprehensive	comprehensive from 1971,		education
	including vocational education		

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4-year courses in technology. Some of these courses were formerly offered in the continuation school, while others (e.g. the 3 and 4-year courses) are of gymnasium origin.

The curriculum for the vocational sector is characterised by the concept of block training in which the vocational preparation of young people will be built up in stages from a broad basic introduction phase through gradually increasing specialisation. Occupations of similar type will be brought together in occupational "families". The base block will contain training useful to the entire family of occupations. In the next block, training will be differentiated to some extent according to requirements of the different occupations, and finally there will be a block with vocational training adequate for each specific occupation.

Vocational training will also include three general compulsory subjects: Swedish, civics and physical training. Students also may choose voluntarily another general subject from other lines of the gymnasial school. This choice would involve 3 hours weekly. In the second-year course, it is possible for students to exchange up to 12 hours weekly within the professional skill training section and choose among general subjects. This choice must be confirmed by the headmaster and must be of some value for the pupils' future profession.

Norway provides another example of how a school system has developed a new structure over a long period of time. In 1935 a law was introduced which divided the pupils into two different school systems after seven years of primary school. When they were fourteen one group went to the Realskole with the possibility of later study at the gymnasium. The other group went to the continuation school and received a more practical education designed for people going on to vocational schools. In 1955 a law was introduced which allowed communities, if they wished, to build common schools combining these two types. In the next five years many communities built common schools containing two very different tracks more or less equivalent to the previously existing Realskole and the continuation school.

In 1960 schools were rearranged so that the 7th grade became an orientation route for all students; the last two years were divided into two tracks, each containing many subjects. In 1964 tracking was abolished in the last two years and students followed a programme of core curriculum and electives through the 9th grade. In mathematics, Norwegian, English and German, however, a student could choose to study at one of three different levels and only the students who chose the most difficult level could enter the gymnasia. Since 1964 experiments have been conducted in individualised learning in these four subjects including self-instructional material and new teaching/learning systems. From 1968 schools could offer individualised instruction combined with a flexible teaching in Norwegian and mathematics. Therefore, the 9-year school can be made completely flexible when the system is fully developed.

The future pattern of the Norwegian school system will consist of a 6-year elementary school, a 3-year comprehensive junior high school and a 3-year senior high school. The senior high school has just begun to experiment with combined vocational and gymnasium training(1).

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(1) Plans for this project are discussed extensively in a background paper written for the Frascati Workshop, Petterson K. Fr., _Education for the Age Group 16-19 years in Norway_ (CERI/EI/I/70.01). The following description borrows heavily from Mr. Petterson's material.

This combined school began with the appointment in 1965 of a
Committee to evaluate the need for education and training of the 16-19
age group and to present a plan for the development of a school system
that would offer students of this age group equal opportunities for
their education and personality growth. It was the Committee's feeling
that all students should have the opportunity to attend at least three
years of upper secondary school; that the choice of an educational course
should be free and transition from one course of study to another poss-
ible; that it must be possible to combine general education and voca-
tional training and to provide supplementary training in those subjects
where necessary. Furthermore it was felt that instruction must, as far
as possible, be adapted to the individual's qualifications, abilities
and interests.

The Committee therefore proposed that pupils who choose upper
secondary schooling may choose between a one-year basic course (funda-
mental vocational training as well as some instruction in general sub-
jects) and a two-year basic course (a nucleus of general subjects, with
possibilities to add vocational subjects which over a period of two
years would produce the same competence as the one-year basic vocation-
al training course, or to add special subjects such as art or athletics,
or to supplement extensively the general subjects). Pupils taking the
one-year basic course should be able to apply for vocational training
through a second or third year. Pupils from the two-year basic course
should be able to apply for the same vocational training as pupils from
the one-year basic course or for a third additional year of general sub-
jects. Pupils who choose only general subjects in the two-year basic
course and the third additional year will follow the new gymnasium
structure with slight changes.

The Committee's model for the future upper secondary school system
can be seen in Fig.III.

The National Council for Innovation in Education (NCIE) has planned
experiments with the new school reform according to a time-schedule
covering at least the next seven years. It is felt that institution of
this new structure represents the greatest school reform in Norway in
this century.

Another radical break from the past is represented in the plan re-
cently published in Bildungsbericht 70, the report on education policy
of the Federal Republic of Germany. As can be seen by comparing Fig.IV,
which represents the existing structure, and Fig.V, the new plan calls
for a lengthening of general education and a greater flexibility to
allow individual needs of students to be met. An orientation phase in
the first secondary level is followed by the introduction of some option-
al courses; the second secondary level includes core subjects, special
subjects and optional courses as well as vocational branching.

Other national plans were presented to the workshop participants
and it is unfortunate that space does not allow an exposition of them
all. It is also unfortunate that exercises such as the Frascati Workshop
do not take place more frequently. Judging from the similarity of the
plans presented, it seems that a strengthening of the informal network
of educators concerned with secondary school reform would be mutually
beneficial.

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Figure III

FRAMEWORK OF THE NORWEGIAN UPPER SECONDARY SCHOOL

One-year Basic Course

	Hours per week
General subjects (Norwegian, social sciences, maths., general science, English, physical education)	approx. 10
Vocational subjects	26 – 28
	36 – 38

Two-year Basic Course

	Hours per week	
Compulsory subjects (nucleus of subjects):	1st. yr.	2nd. yr.
Norwegian	4	4
Religion or philosophy	1	1
English	4	3
Social sciences	3	4
General sciences	2 (5)	3 (0)
Physical education	3	3
	17 (20)	18 (15)
Block of subjects (points out direction of studies)	9–13	8–13
Subjects as electives and for independent work at school	6–10	5–10
	36	36

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Figure IV
EXISTING EDUCATIONAL STRUCTURE
IN THE FEDERAL REPUBLIC OF GERMANY

University

Teacher training college

Other instit. for higher educ.

d

Higher vocational college

b

Vocational education

b

Post appr. ship schools

d

b

Second educ. chance or option

d

13

c

High vocat. school

c

Secondary technical college

b

Vocational school

b

b

12

Gymnasium

Vocational school

Vocational school

11

b

b

10th class

10

a

9

Middle school

8

Hauptschule (advanced or continued primary school)

Part-time (2-3 years)

7

6

5

Trial stage

Orientation stage

Observation stage

4

3

2

1

PRIMARY SCHOOL

Kindergarden

a. final Hauptschule exam;

b. final exam equivalent to middle school;

c. qualification equivalent to enter higher vocational college;

d. university entrance qualification.

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Figure V

EDUCATION STRUCTURE FOR THE FUTURE
IN THE FEDERAL REPUBLIC OF GERMANY

Further education

Comprehensive University

Special
post-secondary
vocational schools

b
(13)

12

Core subjects, special subject and optional courses

SECONDARY LEVEL II
Including vocational training

Practical
vocational
training

11

a

10

Core subjects, special subject and optional courses

9

8   SECONDARY LEVEL I

7

6

Orientation phase

5

4

3

PRIMARY LEVEL

2

1

Schoolyear

Kindergarden and Preschool

Qualifications :   a = Abitur I   b = Abitur II
                     [(GCE) o-level]   [(GCE)-A level]

REPORTS OF THE SMALL WORKING GROUPS

GROUP 1: OBJECTIVES OF THE NEW SECONDARY SCHOOL

A. <u>Secondary education as a stage complete in itself, contrasted with the propaedeutic function</u> (i.e. preparation for further study and vocational training). It was agreed that in general too much importance is given to the preparatory function of higher secondary education. In Italy until now, too much importance has been given to literary rather than to other studies. Even the sciences, to which not enough time has been devoted anyway, have suffered from a method of teaching which is more descriptive than experimental. There are few indications of the value of the methods used at present. We feel authorised to hypothesise that a scientific and technical training based on practical experiment, which does not necessarily coincide with the traditional scientific subjects of study, but which is extended to include the social sciences and the humanities, could be extremely effective.

As regards the requirements of vocational preparation, there was general agreement that the senior secondary school could be given the responsibility for general training which, together with a well-planned system of options, would guarantee a readiness for vocational specialisation. Such emphasis on general training is not a matter of principle, but corresponds to the present and increasingly widening tendency for education to give more importance to cultural preparation than to specific training for industry.

This theory is upheld by all indications coming from the technologically advanced societies. However, it must not be forgotten that, although industrial demands must be satisfied, the primary goal of education is to form a self-sufficient personality capable of contributing effectively and decisively to his society.

B. <u>Functions and objectives of vocational training</u>. A level of general education which for the moment is completed at the age of 16, after 10 years of compulsory schooling, is a precondition of vocational training in the proposed unified secondary school. A student could begin vocational training, therefore, either after two years or after four years of secondary education, according to whether or not compulsory education is extended until the age of 18. Should the age of starting school be lowered to 5 years of age, the number of years of schooling and the age limit for the beginning of professional training remain unchanged.

In the future, vocational training must consist of a wide diversity of choice of study material and subject matter. All this will be offered outside the basic scholastic curriculum, but should be organised within the particular geographic area by authorities, including representatives of local government, labour and industry.

The school should make full use of its existing resources and equipment.

C. Equality of opportunity. As far as equality of opportunity is concerned, one must point out the necessity of achieving this goal by endeavouring to provide:

(a) an adequate distribution of schools;

(b) economic assistance to pupils and their families;

(c) provision of the necessary infrastructure;

(d) use of every means at hand to overcome deficiencies caused by environmental conditioning.

D. Individualisation. From the instructional point of view the problem is extremely complex, but not impossible. There was general agreement upon the following points:

(a) usefulness of work in small groups guided by student teachers;

(b) remedial education, especially for the basic skills, where necessary;

(c) use of new techniques and methods of learning and quality control (including programmed instruction, teaching machines, etc.);

(d) experiments of teachers teaching each other and of encouragement of self-assessment. It is necessary, however, that the problem of teachers' preparation and keeping up to date should be faced seriously.

E. Freedom of choice of content and method of learning. It is advisable that the pupil proceeds from group work to individual study according to his age and experience. This gradual process should take into account both the practical behaviour but also the intellectual behaviour of the student. The difficulties of such a procedure are notable: psychological difficulties inherent in the developing child and difficulties inherent to the paternalistic attitudes which have prevailed until now in education. In this sector noteworthy experiments in democratisation are being made possible and carried out even if first examples have been ineffective.

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GROUP 2: RELATIONSHIPS TO OTHER EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS

The first problem considered was that of deciding the optimum age for university entrance. Psychological, pedagogical, sociological and economic arguments lead to the recommendation that preparatory studies should end at the age of 18, quite apart from the question of beginning elementary schooling at age 5. Fixing the elementary schooling from 5-10 years would help to eliminate a certain scholastic discrimination which takes place in the pre-school years and has lasting adverse consequences of disorientation. (Research and experiments in Italy as well as elsewhere bear out this theory of discrimination and disorientation).

This change in the age of school attendance from 5 to 18 years requires a change in teaching methods which, together with the earlier maturity of pupils, generally existing today, should lead to a reduction in the age at which the student finishes high school.

The group also agreed that lowering the university entrance age to 18 years cannot be achieved immediately without the danger of a breakdown of the university system. Following the experience of the German Federal Republic, the following possibility was considered, namely the introduction of special courses allowing for greater flexibility in the duration of the high school studies. These courses could be given without provoking undue social as opposed to intellectual discrimination because they would lack traditionalism and would be independent from the normal curriculum. Large groups would be given to technical, social and economic subjects.

As regards the relationship of the new secondary school to the university, it seems advisable that the university itself be able to provide two or three-year programmes leading to more practical qualifications than those of the present degree programmes, but which would permit continuation of higher studies.

As regards free access to the university by any student who has completed a five-year course in a secondary school, no matter what type it may be, it was clearly affirmed that the present regulation regarding unqualified admission to any department cannot necessarily be considered feasible for the future. (This does not mean that the value of the inno-vation which took place in the present situation is not recognised). In the future it would seem wise to suggest a single high school diploma with 6 or 7 streams or branches of study which could be connected to the options taken in the course of high school study and which would permit free access to a faculty of the university corresponding to these branches of study. For other institutes, faculties, or degree courses, the student should be admitted on a 6-month trial period in which special preparatory courses are given as already provided for in the existing draft law approved by the Education Committee of the Senate. This law provides for compulsory examination at the end of said courses.

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With regard to the final examinations (esame di maturità) of the secondary schools, general dissatisfaction was expressed with the present form (experimental). It was emphasised that the examination should refer specifically to the optional subjects chosen in the new type of secondary school and that it should include questions of a general and interdisciplinary nature. This would provide a comprehensive evaluation including a judgement on the basic subjects common to all pupils graduating from that particular school.

Two plans were submitted with regard to remedial education and for reorientation. The first is a "vertical" plan and concerns those students who have not followed a normal course of study because they have dropped out or for some other reason, and who wish to catch up with their studies. The second, "horizontal" plan is for reorientation and concerns those students who have requested to change their field of study or to enter another course. It is necessary to distinguish between the terms "permanent education" (educazione permanente) and "recurrent education" (educazione ricorrente). The former is more vague and includes non-school forms of instruction and sources of information such as mass media, etc. The latter involves a periodic return to institutionalised education. These refresher courses are essential today because of the rapid obsolescence of technical and scientific knowledge.

According to this way of thinking, it was strongly reaffirmed that all men, from the most skilled to the least skilled (and particularly the latter) have an inalienable right to the same amount of organised education throughout their lives. As continuing education obviously concerns mainly adults and workers, it is to be hoped that the problem will be studied at the political and trade union levels (government, union, industry) before the scholastic level. A law is considered necessary whereby the financial burden of such instruction should be borne by the community and whereby an adult worker temporarily on leave in order to study or retrain should continue to receive his full salary.

The firm should be obliged to retain the employee's place for his return and to contribute to the financial costs of his study, in the same way as it does for social security.

The problem of the training of teachers for this specific task of adult education (this applies particularly to teachers of scientific and technical subjects) must be given the most profound attention. It has been suggested that public and private industry should grant leave to enable their executives and technicians to attend university seminars giving the necessary teachers' training in view of their possible collaboration in continuing education to which their contribution could be invaluable.

The necessity for a teaching system which, by avoiding horizontal "breaks" or "divisions" corresponding to traditional scholastic levels, would assure a continuity between elementary and secondary schools was pointed out. This teaching system would be appropriate to the degree of psychological development of its students with balanced programmes avoiding harmful emphasis on particular types of education of the sort which are traditional in the Italian schools.

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The central administrative structure of the school with its "vertical" divisions completely independent of one another (elementary, middle and upper schools) and "horizontal" compartments (classical,technical, vocational and artistic) should be replaced by departments responsible for the various general problems of the scholastic development. The delegates from Berlin and Sweden contributed valuable information to this discussion.

Relating to evaluation or "grades" (paper presented by Professor Visalberghi), the Italian educational system's serious lack of preparation on this subject was noted. Teaching staff lack knowledge of evaluation procedures and preparation in psychology; there is no practice of objective evaluation and joint discussion of programmes and pupils' level of achievement, apart from recent experiments with teachers' meetings in the middle schools. At the present stage, however, the evaluations made are more or less subjective and intuitive. The group unanimously agreed that the following steps should be adopted:

(a) the establishing of a central office dealing with evaluation,

(b) adequate educational research on this subject,

(c) the establishing of departments of educational science as part of the future university reforms,

(d) preparation and training of teachers in this specific field,

(e) an efficient medical-psychological service for guidance in each school.

The group emphasised that work leading to the solution of scholastic problems related to evaluation and grading is urgent and necessary even before any action may be taken on reforming the secondary schools. A sound solution to the former problem could contribute positively to a solution to the latter.

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GROUP 3: PROGRAMMES, CURRICULA, DIFFERENTIATION

In accordance with the general guidelines approved by the plenary session, the Group began by discussing points (d) and (e) of the Topics for Discussion indicated, i.e. the steps to be taken for the carrying out of the proposed curriculum reform and the possible stages of development for the realisation of this reform in a new comprehensive secondary school.

However, it soon became necessary to refer back to points (a), (b) and (c) which appeared to be crucial, i.e. to define the role and the relationship respectively between the common core curriculum and the group of possible options, and how differentiation would arise and develop from this relationship.

Agreement was reached on a statement of principle that all pupils should receive a common core of instruction, especially in the first phase of the curriculum, i.e. the orientation phase of 1 or 2 years. There was no disagreement on the proposal that differentiation should be increased gradually.

Basically, the assumptions which emerged can be reduced to two general points:

(a) A group of common subjects and activities (common core) and a group of optional subjects and activities, plus a certain amount of time to be made available in the school timetable (as well as the necessary equipment, resources and staff) for activities, to be freely chosen on the students' own initiatives, independently of the streams that they are following.

The common core can be fixed according to either (i) content considered essential for all students or (ii) on the basis of a central axis of the "formal preparation" type (that is, of subjects which may be preliminary instruments for other subjects, e.g. logic, mathematics, theoretical and practical technology).

Options, according to the various views expressed, may be disciplines or activities not contemplated in the core, or may be more advanced studies, for example where a basic level is provided for all disciplines and for all pupils, and at least two advanced courses can be followed (only one in the final year).

(b) After a period of common studies, in which all pupils are taught in all fields, which is mainly a period of orientation (six months or a year), the pupil chooses among various "constellations", in which 4 or 5 types of courses already discussed in the plenary sessions (linguistic, social, artistic, scientific, and/or technological) are all present but with different emphases.

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At this point the group agreed not to speak of "subjects" or "subject-matters" in order to avoid using old terminology which might compromise the need for radical innovation in curriculum, but rather of "fields" or related groups of disciplines, open to different inter-disciplinary combinations.

The majority of the group, although appreciating and approving the desire for radical reform underlying hypothesis (b), which would certainly merit a trial, preferred hypothesis (a), or rather the various alternatives possible within the framework of hypothesis (a).

Whatever the solution or solutions adopted in the future, certain pre-conditions appear necessary, without which any change in the curriculum might well remain academic.

(1) The new school should be full time, and should unite all the various internal arrangements under one roof.

(2) The abolition of the rigid separation into classes and years by adopting systems along the lines of non-graded instruction.

(3) The endeavour to secure the maximum degree of individualisation both in instructional procedures and in the orientation of choices which should be as flexible as possible.

(4) Maximum flexibility in the individual and general curriculum with maximum freedom for teachers and students.

(5) Maximum switching possible between options.

(6) Maximum indicative approach in general instruction in order to eliminate wherever possible the separation between "subjects" and fields and the consequent arbitrary fixation of opinions as to content and methodology.

Finally, as regards stages and levels of execution, the group preferred to indicate only certain measures which should be taken prior to the reform or simultaneously with the first phase of its execution.

(a) Revision of the curriculum of the Middle School (Scuola Media) and in particular the abolition of the teaching of Latin in any form.

(b) Institution of an immediate general building programme on comprehensive lines.

(c) Experimentation for one or two years with a range of possible solutions to be guided by a special institute (to be set up) for school experimentation, which would co-ordinate and promote combined actions of university research, of teachers and of the administration.

(d) Preliminary retraining of teachers for their new tasks and the immediate institution of team-teaching, of psychological observation and guidance services, new forms of teacher-pupil relationships, etc.

(e) Control of education to be removed from the central Ministry of Public Instruction and to be given to the organisations to be set up as under (c):

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GROUP 4: TRAINING AND RETRAINING OF SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHERS

The Group dealt with the following themes:

(a) how teachers already in schools should be retrained;

(b) how to train new teachers for the secondary schools of tomorrow.

With regard to the first problem, the Group made the following recommendations:

(1) That the new legal status of secondary school teachers should provide for differentiation of functions (e.g. teaching, guidance, organisation, assistance, etc.) and mobility between them in relation to the future comprehensive community school.

(2) That encouragement should be given to the institution of permanent regional centres for in-service teacher-training.

    (i) These centres should be established with the co-operation of the universities and of the existing administrative and professional organisations, especially as regards their organisation.

    (ii) They should promote the retraining of teachers, even those belonging to different grades of instruction, corresponding to reasonably sized areas, developing methods based on the active exchange of practical experience, and avoiding the academic forms of the traditional lecture, and promoting scientific study of problems, practical experimentation and the verification of methods. Such educational research will be supported by a National Institute for Educational Research and by local University Departments of Pedagogy.

    (iii) The centres must be granted complete autonomy and independence and should be managed by the teachers themselves, in conjunction with experts and the school administration. For this purpose, it is recommended that there should be a reform in the school administration to permit self-government and participation of representatives of local administration, parents, labour, etc.

(3) Visits of representatives of the administration and of leading teachers to foreign countries should be organised in order that they become acquainted with foreign experience in school reform.

As regards the second problem, the Group consider that:

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(1) The professional training of primary school teachers should come after they have completed their secondary studies and should consist of a two-year University course in the educational sciences and a semester of practice-teaching in schools.

(2) The training of secondary teachers should take place after the university degree course, in the form of an additional year devoted to the study of education and a semester of teaching practice.

(3) University courses and particularly those devoted to teacher training should develop research and study groups, should abandon academic and authoritarian methods, and should develop co-operation with serving teachers and the professional organisations concerned.

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GROUP 5: THE STRATEGY AND MECHANISMS FOR CHANGE

The fifth work group was instructed to study strategies and mechanisms needed to bring about the change in existing school structures. This Group noted in the first place the great difficulty of bringing about innovations on a vast scale in Italian schools at any level in view of the rigidity of the Italian legal and administrative structures. After a lengthy and profitable discussion, the Group formulated a model for decentralisation of decision-making and of educational experimentation which to some extent takes account of Italy's administrative structures, but above all of the prevailing tendencies to modify them.

In school, teachers should be concerned not only with teaching, but also with other research and experimental activities. In addition to the teachers there should be an expert responsible for promoting change in conjunction with other schools and research centres.

At provincial level, an "Innovation Office" should promote "qualitative" programming, that is should be concerned with teaching methods and instruments, and should transmit the results of the various experiments to a regional co-ordination and programming service. The regional services in turn would report to a central office for the co-ordination of all national educational activities, including the creation of new types of school. Furthermore, this office would be responsible for documentation and information activities. All ministries concerned with education problems and Parliament itself would refer to this office.

Apart from this central office, there should be an office responsible for studying possible alternatives for the future, based on experiments carried out.

Parallel to this organisation there should be provincial research centres responsible for studying, in conjunction with the universities (or within them), problems arising from activities in education, and to inform the experts of the results achieved. The publishing world could play its part in this scheme by preparing the necessary learning materials.

The following diagram was proposed for discussion:

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OFFICE FOR
FUTURE ACTIVITIES

M 2   M .   MINISTRY   M 3   M 4

INNOVATION OFFICE   INRP

REGION   SERVICE FOR REGIONAL
CO-ORDINATION OF INNOVATIONS   U

LOCAL   SERVICE FOR INNOVATIONS   R   E

TEACHERS   SCHOOL   INNOVATION
CENTRE

M = Project   R = Research Centre
U = University   E = Industry (Publishing, etc.)
INRP = National Institute for Pedagogic Research

        Obviously, these regional or provincial services would have to be
disengaged from bureaucratic organisations and entrusted to committees
representing the various local communities and groups concerned with
school life.

        In order that this scheme may be put into effect, it seems necess-
ary to undertake a large-scale training and retraining activity for
teaching and administrative staff and for researchers, by involving
them in the processes required for the transformation and by making them
aware of the significance of the transformations themselves.

        For this purpose it would be possible to use the method of Indivi-
dualised Prescribed Instruction, IPI, (Research for Better Schools, Inc.
(RBS), Philadelphia) starting from one or more central units from which
clusters of other units would spread out, according to the following
diagram:

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Both these models might be tested in various ways in 3 or 4 regions during a given period of time and in relation to a particular sector of the school system, possibly the first two-year course of the Senior Secondary School.

As an alternative to these models, consideration might be given to the method of project programming at present under study at the ISPE.

TEN POINTS OF CONCLUSION ADOPTED BY THE WORKSHOP

At the conclusion of the international Workshop, after examining and discussing the documents prepared by the various small groups, the participants indicate in the following ten points the broad lines for the gradual restructuring of education at senior secondary level which they consider most appropriate to meet educational, social and economic needs of the Italian nation, within a framework of similar developments throughout Europe.

1. The senior secondary school should consist of a unitary struc-
   ture, within which would exist some common subjects or
   activities, some optional ones and some elective (1), so as
   to permit a gradual educational orientation in specific direc-
   tions. The common pedagogical axis ensures, in a flexible form,
   an education in the linguistic, logical and mathematical fields,
   and in the technological and scientific ones, and a critical
   introduction to historical and social problems. The individual
   choices integrate it without creating water-tight compartments./

2. The senior secondary school leads, after a five-year course, to
   a single final certificate or diploma, in which the educational
   stream followed is stated.

3. After an initial period of common instruction likely to develop
   the pupil and to determine his individual aptitudes and inter-
   ests, differentiation is achieved in such a way as to encourage
   common activities and exchange of experience between pupils in
   different streams or tracks throughout the whole secondary
   course. Thus every secondary school should offer its pupils the
   opportunity to choose between all the curricula provided. These
   might be broadly classified as literary-linguistic, social
   studies, scientific, technological and artistic.

4. Secondary studies are not themselves of a vocational nature.
   The school offers the opportunity for pre-vocational training
   at various levels and allows lateral outlets. Vocational train-
   ing proper takes place after these outlets (not earlier than
   the third year of study) and is the responsibility of the region-
   al authorities or of private initiatives co-ordinated by the
   latter, in which professional and trade union associations also
   co-operate. Higher technical and vocational training takes place
   within the scope of the university, or in any case at university
   level, through two or three-year courses, all of which give access
   to further university studies on higher degree programmes.

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(1) The distinction is between courses which are parallel (optional
    choices) and elective extras.

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5. The comprehensive senior secondary school is located and is
    of such a size as to meet the educational requirements of a
    definite school district. It will have to be free and fully
    allow the right to access without any discrimination. Free
    transport services and/or accommodation should make full-time
    attendance possible. In addition, it should be a centre for
    permanent or continuing education and for this purpose organise
    evening courses and correspondence courses, if necessary supple-
    mented by the use of appropriate instructional technology. The
    right to benefit from continuing education in its various forms
    is guaranteed by law. The school and its facilities are at the
    disposal of the students for their own voluntary activities and
    of the community as a whole for cultural activities.

6. The gradual orientation of the pupils is made more effective
    by guidance and counselling services inside the school itself,
    in which all teachers co-operate. The effectiveness of each
    institution's teaching methods will be tested by regular nation-
    al surveys, using modern methods. The methodical holding of such
    surveys or assessments will make it possible to accredit the
    school to make a final opinion on the fitness of its pupils,
    which would be valid for university entrance.

7. Students should complete the senior secondary school by the 18th
    year of age. For this purpose to be attained gradually by flex-
    ible procedures, it will be necessary to provide for improvement
    in instruction, by means of individualised teaching, the use of
    modern technologies of instruction and evaluation, and the stim-
    ulation of creative capacities; as well as by the reducing of
    negative environmental conditioning. For this purpose, compul-
    sory schooling should begin at 5 years of age rather than 6,
    which would imply retraining primary school teachers for the
    new and delicate tasks involved. The school-leaving age should
    be raised immediately to 15 and subsequently to 16.

8. The training and retraining of teachers should be achieved by
    means of a basic programme for which the universities and appro-
    priate regional organisations would be responsible. All future
    teachers will be trained in the universities, receiving thorough
    scientific training as well as completing appropriate practice-
    teaching aiming at degree level for all. This will make possible
    a substantial degree of unification of primary and secondary
    (middle) schools and a smooth transition to the senior secondary
    school.

9. School government must be democratic, with self-management co-
    ordinated at the level of the commune, the province, and the
    region and open to the participation of students and their
    families, and organised civil society. At the national level,
    the broad lines of the programmes and the inspection of experi-
    ments are the responsibility of a mixed body consisting of
    Members of Parliament and educational experts nominated by the
    latter. A National Institute of Educational Research is respons-
    ible for inspection and scientific experimentation and will
    avail itself of university co-operation at regional and local
    levels.

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10. The new higher secondary school should be brought into oper-
    ation by carefully planned successive stages,with particular
    regard to an organic plan for school building, planned from
    the beginning along the principles of comprehensive schooling
    and of the concept of a self-sufficing school district, and
    by means of a continuous process of experimentation and inno-
    vation, such as to draw the maximum advantages from the struc-
    tural flexibility which should be permanently guaranteed to
    the new institution by the law.

A PERSONAL COMMENT

by

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The Times Educational Supplement

To a foreign participant the Frascati Workshop was a strange, some-
times frustrating, yet ultimately impressive affair.

It was strange because for much of the time - especially during
the plenary sessions - the visitors from outside Italy were mildly baf-
fled by what was going on. Few of them were closely acquainted with the
Italian educational scene before they came. Each knew enough about com-
parative education to know its first principle - that education is in-
timately connected with the total social circumstances in which it takes
place. For the foreign visitors, then, the workshop was as much a learn-
ing experience as an occasion for the sharing of expertise. Expert know-
ledge at an elevated level of generalisation was of limited value. What
was needed was the testing of experience gleaned elsewhere in different
conditions against the facts of the Italian situation (which themselves
had to be established) - an unremitting search for those aspects of the
international experience which were relevant in the Italian setting.

This was what the international part of the workshop was all about,
and for much of the time communications were imperfect. It is no criti-
cism of the indefatigable simultaneous translators to say that there
were periods when a foreign participant might wait for a long time on
the threshold of comprehension without actually crossing over and enter-
ing fully into a real understanding of what was being said. There were
those (among the translators) who were prepared to put some of the blame
for this on the complexities and the richness of the Italian language;
others blamed the banalities of educational jargon which is unique among
specialised languages in being designed to make communication not more
precise but less; yet others suggested that there were times when the
obscurity of the translation reflected obscurities in the discussion
among the Italian members of the workshop - who understood each other
well enough to read between the lines.

To add to this there were the moments when national traditions and
temperaments collided. The OECD contribution tended to reflect a certain
briskness and brashness which could be loosely linked with Scandinavia
and Northern Europe. The Italian representatives observed this with
tolerance and good humour - fascinated, it may be, by the administrative
patterns expounded, and the administrative styles which went with them,
yet determined to maintain their own tempo and their own cultural mores.
It may be thought frivolous to start on this note. Yet it was everyone's
effort to penetrate the barriers of language, temperament and culture,

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which made the workshop a genuine international occasion. This was the impressive side of it: when, mainly in the small group discussions and the social contacts which a residential meeting made possible, the mists of obscurity began to clear and the workshop came into its own, sorting out the multiplicity of ideas into some order, and formulating a series of conclusions and recommendations.

The cultural clash helped to crystalise ideas. The discussion was led away from abstract philosophical disputation to practical matters - the nuts and bolts of educational reform. Attention was concentrated on the alternative models for the superior secondary schools, and in particular for the first biennium. The models provided shorthand comments on the philosophy: they represented an attempt to build on what appeared to be some kind of consensus as to the possible next steps in Italian educational reform. Not everyone present was happy with this technique.

On the whole those who opposed a move towards a more comprehensive or unified secondary system forebore to say so straight out. This seemed strange to the outsiders present. In England, for example, any representative group of educators meeting to discuss the reorganisation of secondary education would be likely to have some fairly eloquent defenders of the status quo. But the absence of direct and open opposition to the next stage in Italian educational reform meant that many of the doubts which some felt about the projected models for reform were expressed indirectly, in a desire to talk about - say - the philosophical and cultural basis of secondary education which could be said to be a proper prior consideration to any discussion of any particular organisational model.

This was the key to the first day's plenary sessions, obscure as these seemed at times to those outside Italian educational circles. Large questions were being raised which were not answered. What should be the common core of Italian culture which should provide the basis of a unified secondary education? Implicit in some of the doubts expressed (or unexpressed) about the idea of a unified system, was an inclination to regard the high prestige curricula of the existing general secondary schools - the lyceums through which all or most of those present at the conference had themselves passed - as the core of secondary education per se. They had many criticisms to voice on methods of approach and points of detail but, for them, the process of secondary education, as a link between primary education below and university education above, was the initiation into a common cultural heritage, a set of common languages, verbal and numerical, artistic, historical and philosophical; an idea aimed at producing the cultured and cultivated Italian citizen, noble in itself, but raising all the fundamental questions about the nature of social and cultural values, and the relationship between culture (elite or otherwise) and society as a whole.

Here the unspoken question was still whether there can, either in theory or in practice really be a common core curriculum which at the same time takes due account of individual difference among pupils of the whole range of intellectual ability and social background, and yet also provides a genuine initiation into the Italian cultural heritage.

This question was never fully confronted, and the inevitable vagueness with which the common core curriculum tends to be discussed shrouds a profound ambiguity on this issue. Some would say - and have gone to great lengths to demonstrate - that a true common core can be created

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which is flexible enough to allow for the differences of learning pace and of motivation among children whose capabilities and interests vary widely. They would argue for the common school and the unified curriculum as the instrument for achieving a less divided community as well as for widening educational opportunity.

Others would argue for the common school on exactly opposite arguments. They would start by recognising the pluralistic nature of the cultural heritage, and the pluralistic values which the schools must increasingly re-elect. They would see the common core curriculum and the common cultural heritage as a <u>chimera</u> serving only to mislead and distract the schools from what should be their larger aims: the matching of individual educational opportunity to individual need. They would argue that the broadly historical basis of many educational traditions must be undermined by what Professor J.H. Plumb has called "the death of the past" - the de-mythologising of national history, the liberation of historiography from its more obvious dependence on cultural tradition; the end of history's role as the handmaid of national self-consciousness and cultural imperialism.

On this hypothesis, too, the likely introduction of the social sciences into the secondary school curriculum will have the same effect of undermining the idea of the single, unifying, cultural concept, and substituting for it a battery of competing curricular themes, all influenced by the pluralism reigning in society beyond the classroom. Discovery methods, learning through experience, integrated studies - all these fashionable ingredients of progressive education pre-suppose a combination of individual goals and objectives - some of them, it may be, in conflict with each other - matching the multiple goals of education in general.

All these conflicting views were latent in the discussion, but usually were only indirectly expressed. This is important in connection with the recommendations of Group 3 (see page 54) where two alternative curricular designs are presented. It must also influence any consideration of the merits of a comprehensive system compared with those of a polyvalent scheme of organisation. According to what philosophical, cultural - and it should be added, sociological - premises you intend to build your reformed secondary system on will depend whether you envisage the unified school as a single community sharing a common curriculum (with an increasing number of elective subjects and options as the pupil progresses through the school) or as an institution or group of institutions combining a series of largely separate courses corresponding more or less with the present divisions.

Paradoxically, it will be those who have the clearest idea of the lineaments of the Italian high cultural tradition who are most likely to want the latter (or polyvalent) solution, while those whose conception of the common core is most vague or sceptical who will, all the same, insist most strongly on the former or comprehensive model, for compelling social reasons.

This is not a controversy which can be resolved by any appeal to authority - the evidence is, by its nature, not such that educational research can relieve individual educators or individual citizens of their own responsibilities of judgement. Where good men continue to differ, progress can only be on the basis of compromise. Tacitly, this

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was what the workshop concluded; it is a compromise which emerges from the resolutions and group reports. The biennium would have to be an analgam between the common core and the principle of progressive differentiation. There will be endless argument about how much differentiation is acceptable, how soon, and how much the differentiation should be by the choice of optional extras or by the choice between curricular alternatives which automatically sets up critical periods of decision-making where the road forks and children begin to be sorted out according to their unequal talents.

Within the terms adopted in the resolution there could be a wide variation in form and content, possibly necessary to t ke account of regional as well as ideological differences. The critical questions arise, as could have been predicted, over vocational studies and the extent to which a future unified structure should include among its "sides", "tracks" or "streams" courses corresponding to those now offered in the vocational schools.

The view which prevailed at the workshop (and which is reflected in the recommendations and the small group reports) was that vocational education should follow the main secondary school course and be provided under different auspices from those responsible for schools. On this reading of the educational scene, the schools should draw from the tradition of vocational education its understanding of handicrafts and practical work, and these should become a part of general education, but should recognise that, as recommendation number 4 puts it, "secondary studies are not of themselves of a vocational nature". This assumes that secondary education to 16 should be a "precondition of vocational training" (Group I) and envisages it as taking place "outside the basic scholastic curriculum ... organised ... by authorities including representatives of local government, labour and industry".

All this, of course, implies a major change which would demand consequential adjustments on the part of industry. Much time was devoted to discussing this, and as a foreign observer, one had the feeling that only the angels were represented in the discussion which might have been modified somewhat had the powers of darkness been more in evidence. But this was perfectly understandable and does not invalidate the point which the educators were making.

A caveat, however, was entered with some force by Professor A. Prost, one of the French experts who pointed out the high motivation which vocational studies can draw upon. France like Italy has had highly developed vocational studies and on the basis of French experience he argued for the integration of vocational studies within a unified secondary system rather than the stipulation on grounds of principle that all vocational studies must be postponed till 16 plus.

This was not a view which commanded much support, though it was widely recognised that till the school leaving age was raised by law, schools would have to offer courses which were attractive enough to pupils and parents to persuade them to stay on at school voluntarily. The prospect of vocational courses with a direct utilitarian value in employment appeal to many potential school-leavers as the figures for the growth of the vocational schools show. To ignore this and exclude vocational studies without a general overhaul of vocational training would be to invite other bodies, public and private, to compete for the

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full-time attendance of 15 and 16 year olds at trade schools, outside the main education system.

This seemed a real enough danger, but one to be met if necessary by changes in organisation and by the payment of grants to encourage pupils from poor homes to stay on at school. Much of the discussion on this and related issues suffered from diffuseness and from a lack of background information about juvenile employment (and unemployment) and the true level of earnings foregone by youngsters staying on at school. What was quite clear was that in its present form, the vocational school is manifestly incompatible with unified secondary education and that the way in which vocational studies - in some modified form - are incorporated in the new comprehensive school will be of critical importance to its success.

One proposition which seemed to collect almost universal support at the Frascati meeting was that differentiation in the middle school would be unacceptable, given the concept of a unified biennium from 14 to 16. In particular this implied the abolition of Latin in the middle school with its powerful sociological and academic function as an academic selector holding high prestige for middle class parents. More than this, it implied that the completion of the middle school reform was in itself, a prerequisite of the reformed secondary school, with an end to the widespread repeating which now keeps many pupils in the middle school during their fifteenth year. There was some discussion about the validity of the middle school leaving certificate, and some pertinent questions were asked as to whether a middle school leaving certificate would be required at all, if all pupils were to transfer automatically to the superior secondary school. This, of course, is tied up with the leaving age, and the various reasons of a legal or administrative nature why teenagers may be required to produce a certificate for employment or for other purposes. It seemed that there were those who were less than convinced that this dependence on certificates of doubtful value was necessary, and reference was made to parliamentary attempts to strip examination certificates of their legal significance.

Clearly what can and cannot be done depends on the national attitude towards examinations. But no one can mistake the unsatisfactory nature of the present situation, or doubt that the middle school leaving certificate examination exercises a malign influence on the reform of secondary education. As one of the small groups concluded, there are other ways of monitoring the quality of the education offered by the middle schools than by the operation of a pass-fail leaving examination whose importance is enhanced by the administrative uses to which it is put.

At the heart of the discussion of the secondary school curriculum was the idea of the single school, five years successful attendance at which would qualify a boy or girl for university entrance, irrespective of which kind of course had been taken. Here again the influence of recent radical legislation was obvious, together with all the consequential uncertainty about university reform. The attempt to ensure "parity of esteem" between different "sides" of the unified secondary school by granting open entry to higher education to all who get a secondary school certificate, is both bold and ingenious, provided that the resulting disparity of standards among candidates for university education does not discredit the whole approach.

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This was one of the considerations which caused the workshop to revert from time to time to the topic of remedial education and recurrent education - the first as a means of enabling pupils to catch up lost ground in basic subjects, the second, as a gesture to those who develop late, having dropped out into employment before completion of the secondary course. It was assumed that this work of recurrent education was a job for the schools in the evening or by correspondence, not for specially created institutions for "further" education. It seemed that one obvious need was to prune the courses which late developers had to follow of all inessential elements, and to tailor courses specially for their needs, limiting the course material strictly to what is relevant and required. The advantage of making the school sensitive to the needs of those who have only discovered their educational interests after reaching mature years is obvious. But nothing should conceal the fact that the teaching methods and social atmosphere appropriate for the older age-groups in recurrent education will be totally different from those normally prevailing in the school, and that the mature student, picking up lost threads, needs to be considered in his own right, not as a superannuated schoolboy.

Much of the discussion on the links between secondary and higher education concentrated on the age of transfer, it being widely thought that there would be merit in completing the secondary course at 18 instead of 19. This sparked off the inevitable debate on over-crowded syllabuses and what to leave out. The technical difficulties were enormous - so great, in fact, that it was plain that if left for decision at a purely technical level, nothing would happen. Some interest attached to a study of ways in which there could be alternative outlets from the secondary school, some at 18, others at 19, all leading on to further studies.

For some members of the workshop these ideas were linked with an earlier school starting age - 5 instead of 6. It was forcibly argued from Sweden that the two questions were entirely separate. In Sweden, where the school starting age is seven, it is claimed that the secondary school leaving age does not need to be correspondingly delayed, and that achievements in early adolescence do not reflect differences in school starting age.

Against this, the English experience (where the starting age is five) shows that pupils' performance at 11 is directly related to the number of terms of primary education they have received. This, of course, does nothing to confirm or dispute the suggestion that an earlier starting age could be linked with an earlier age for finishing secondary education; but it may suggest that a certain agnosticism is in order. At all events, the trend towards early education seems to be generally independent of any implication at the top end of the age range and should be considered on its own merits and on the needs of young children themselves. Much depends on what kind of programme is envisaged for five year olds in school. Having taught the world much about the education of young children, this is no doubt something on which the Italians have strong views.

Simple solutions to secondary school reform can be discounted by the nature of the problem and by the formidable pressure groups in defence of doing nothing - always the least controversial of policies. One thing which the workshop showed to those who attended from outside

Italy was a remarkable measure of agreement about what needs to be done, given the political determination needed to tackle any concerted, organisational change. No mere foreign observer could assess the political implication of this consensus, nor yet appraise the political realism of the educational experts. But considering the intensely controversial issues which were under discussion, the points of agreement were far more impressive than the points of disagreement.

Under the stimulus of the OECD representation, the workshop devoted some time to the technique of innovation and the possible steps towards reform which need to be taken alongside any legislative initiation. It was again depressing to discover how little confidence the Italian experts had in the Italian teachers' capacity to play a leading part in educational reform. Many people would argue that the training and retaining of the teachers is a sine qua non of any successful programme of reform, and that the teachers themselves must be persuaded to play a leading part in it. The gulf between the teachers and the professional students of education in the universities was distressingly wide and calculated to perpetuate the lack of understanding.

This made the suggestion for local teachers' centres to spear-head in-service training of considerable interest, provided the circumstances were such that the teachers themselves could be given a genuine measure of control over the way they develop.

This again offered a reminder of a theme which ran right through the workshop. This was that while for much of the time the workshop was concerned with organisation and the structure of different types of course in one or more schools, it was also, all the time concerned also, with teaching attitudes and methods. Criticism of school structure, for example, could not be separated from criticism of the pedagogic methods and assumption which these structures incorporated.

Thus heuristic methods of science teaching demand changed attitudes on the part of teachers, no less than do the unification of the first biennium of superior secondary school; the retraining to help teachers adjust their methods to mixed ability groups and individualisation has to be regarded as part and parcel of the introduction of modern methods elsewhere in the curriculum.

It would be easy to underestimate the importance of this — the unified secondary school will provide a stiff and very probably unwelcome challenge for those now accustomed to the present different kinds of secondary school. Many will be out of sympathy with the new methods, as with the changes of organisation, and as indicated already, their lack of sympathy will be clothed in philosophical terms about the nature of culture. Add to these doubts, the technical difficulties which reorganisation will present them with — the mixed ability teaching groups, the broader syllabuses, the disciplinary problems implied by, say, a raising of the school leaving age, coupled with the demand for a less authoritarian mode of pedagogy, and more school democracy — and the importance of retraining the teachers and winning their support so that reform becomes a movement from within the schools, not imposed from outside, is abundantly obvious.

As for teacher education generally, the workshop had little difficulty in agreeing on the need for a proper method of training graduates

for secondary school teaching, and putting the training of primary school teachers on a proper footing as a post-secondary course to be carried out in institutions associated with the universities. The need for these long-term changes in initial training has been recognised for some years; when action comes, it will not replace the immediate need also to retrain and refresh the existing teachers by recurrent education of one form and another.

Any programme of reform is likely to make heavy demands on the present structure of educational administration and throughout the workshop there were suggestions for more decentralisation and new forms of innovative institutions. The need for a central educational research institution has already been recognised and great hopes are being set upon this as a long term asset to Italian education. But no less important, was the need for agencies devoted to development, so that new ideas and techniques could be introduced as quickly and as effectively as possible. There was considerable interest in the Scandinavian suggestion for the creation of some national body concerned with the sponsoring of innovation, alongside the Ministry of Public Instruction, and linked to local centres of innovation throughout Italy. Some of these suggestions would only make any sense at all, given a political commitment to decentralisation no less strong than the political commitment which is needed to educational reforms. No one at the workshop was disposed to expect the present central administration to welcome an initiation of this kind. Some of the foreign members of the workshop had some misgivings about the relationships between the educational experts and the administration which seemed to be as bad as their relationship with the teachers. A minister who was determined to press ahead with the radical reform of secondary education would look for ways of strengthening the machinery of consultation which brings together school teachers, university teachers, politicians and administrators to share their expertise and get to know each other, breaking down the suspicion which now impedes the formulation of policy and its translation into action.

On one topic the workshop was, not surprisingly, remarkably uninformative. It had nothing to say about the cost of the "new approaches to superior secondary education" which it outlined. It goes without saying that to will the ends without willing the means would be to ensure that any reform programme was still born. Some of the costs would be very considerable, consider, for example, the added expense of a bigger uptake of secondary education - the wider participation in extended education which is a principal objective of all the suggested reforms. The statistics show that, already, Italian secondary education is expanding fast. If the suggested new approaches are successful, they must quicken the demand for secondary education still more. This has a price attached to it - the price of simply providing more. Other costs are attached to providing better.

Teacher training, for example, in the form advocated by the workshop, must cost more than it does not. In-service training is expensive to organise on a large-scale. More curriculum innovation means bumping up the sums now allocated to experimental work and the development of new materials. Here the sums involved may not be very large but they all add up.

One of the recommendations is for a secondary school building programme. Just how much building would be needed depends on many factors

outside the detailed knowledge of the workshop. But it also depends in some measure on an aspect of secondary school reorganisation which was touched upon. This concerns the extent to which a unified school system can be achieved using the present buildings of the various separate and distinct types of school. Common sense decrees that it must be organised in existing buildings as far as is practicable - the capital value of the buildings is too great to be replaced quickly by new custom-built comprehensive schools if this can possibly be avoided.

But one important conclusion of the workshop was that "every secondary school should offer its pupils the opportunity to choose between all the courses provided" (recommendation number 3). In other words whatever else progressive differentiation comes to mean, it must not mean the existing types of schools continuing as separate entities after unification has taken place. And whether there will be four or five separate constellations of subjects for each pupil to choose from which will, to some extent, correspond to the former types of school, the suggestion is that each institution should have the whole range of options.

The Scandinavians were at pains to point out that this means a unification of curriculum but not necessarily of physical structures - courses, not schools. In Sweden each group of schools, primary as well as secondary, which forms a comprehensive unit is brought under the pedagogic direction of a _rector_ who ensures that it operates as a single system and that, therefore, the curricular opportunities of no children prejudiced by which school building they happen to be in.

But it is plain that this implies big programmes of improvement for the less good buildings if a common standard is to be achieved throughout each school system. And it also implies that each school unit must be big enough to provide the full range of options for each child up to the minimum age at which differentiation has begun to affect the whole of the course.

In England where reorganisation within existing schools is proceeding at an uneven speed, with political and pedagogic controversy still abounding, the concept of a "school" is such that teachers and parents would not readily accept the idea that a series of disparate units, coordinated from above by a rector, constitutes the kind of community which has been traditionally regarded as a school. There is, therefore, more inclination to argue that the speed at which reorganisation can take place must depend on the existence of suitably sited buildings which can easily be adapted to a wider range of pupils, or the availability of funds for school building, the size of each unit being determined by the age-range for whom it is intended, the range of courses which must be programmed, and the particular teaching skills which must be provided.

In the Italian context, therefore, the cost will depend on what answer is given to the question of differentiation - how far this is to be equated with existing schools - and what kind of a school community is envisaged. Plainly there is a large and open-ended financial commitment which it would be a mistake in a document of this kind to overlook.

<u>SUMMARY OF STATEMENTS RELEASED TO THE PRESS</u>
<u>FOLLOWING THE FRASCATI WORKSHOP</u>

by

Oddo BIASINI
Under-Secretary of Education

     Under-Secretary Biasini described the urgency of the problem aris-
ing from the tension between economic and social development on the one
hand and the static nature of educational structures on the other. He
noted that this tension had by now reached a point "beyond which the
risk is no longer that of merely increasing the time-lag or gap, but
that of triggering an abrupt and violent social dislocation which would
spare nothing of existing structures".

     The Frascati workshop demonstrated that similar problems are being
tackled in many countries and that approaches to these problems are re-
markably similar. The Under-Secretary summed up in seven points the
trends most clearly endorsed during the workshop, especially as they
related to Italian prospects. These trends, he felt, should be included
in a <u>lex generalis</u> which would be aimed at their progressive realisation.

     1.   First, it is recognised that there is a need to <u>unify</u> the sec-
          ondary system. Unification, however, does not mean a single
          school equal for all. Rather it means a system based on poly-
          valence and complex inter-dependencies existing within a uni-
          tary framework of goals and furthermore on the identical value
          given to the results. To some extent such unity exists in the
          university which tends to achieve, through flexible, inter-
          changeable and individualised timetables, a common educational
          result, an identical level of preparation, regardless of the
          methods or guidelines through which this education is achieved.

     2.   The shift from the existing multiplicity to a unified, compre-
          hensive and polyvalent system must be achieved <u>gradually</u>. A
          step-by-step timetable must be worked out which takes the entire
          education system into account, as well as all necessary stages
          involved in the change. Co-ordinated enactment of strategies
          must give support to the political will.

     3.   The fundamental characteristic of the changes to be made in
          the secondary system is the guarantee that a <u>democratic proce-</u>
          <u>dure</u> will be followed at all levels. Such procedure would not
          only take into account the proposals of experienced professional
          educators but would also provide consistent answers to the de-
          mands of youth for participation and shared responsibility as

well as to the involvement of the family, trade unions, and the representatives of business and industry. The existence of democratic procedure is also reflected in the internal relationships between students and institutions and teachers and students. Democratic procedure is reflected above all in the teaching-learning process in which individual characteristics and differences are respected and possibilities are offered that satisfy the interests of each and every student. Thus the rhythms and methods of teaching itself are individualised as well.

4. Another fundamental principle is that of basic autonomies which cut off the obsessive spiral of legislation and extreme centralisation and give joint responsibility to all levels, including those of a public nature as represented by regional and local agencies and those of intermediate groups directly concerned with education. One autonomy which must be broadened concerns the essential element in education, the relationship between the teacher and the student. This means that the concept of autonomy coincides with that of didactic freedom, of research, experimentation and innovation.

5. A fundamental point of reference for the suggestions that emerged from the workshop is that of the need to promote new methods, stimuli and activities in order to prepare teachers for their new tasks and functions, for different methods of teaching, for the new levels of professional requalification (particularly in the fields of psychology and evaluation) demanded by the new secondary school. Heretofore our personnel policies have been policies of concessions, either freely offered or extorted, in a climate of disheartenment. Access to the lists of state teachers and permanent positions, security, and a career are just rewards and unquestionable rights of labour; however qualification and the ability to carry out what may be considered a most delicate social function cannot be replaced by systems of benevolent understanding or set aside merely to substitute for an overdue compensation for services rendered. They must fit into a framework of vigorous and serious policies of verification. Moreover, such matters must not be handled from above alone, which is the case with qualifying examinations and competitions for various posts that are offered; they must also be handled from below, with the participation and objective evaluation of those benefitting from the social service of education, operated by public action and supported by public expenditures.

6. Another important point is that the intervention on the secondary school cannot be confined merely to the setting up of models and organisational patterns, unitary though they may be. They must go deeper. It is the ways of actual educational interactions that confirm the value of these models, that ratify or reject them. The new didactic methods must take into account the various forms of personal participation, the techniques of self-instruction, the new communication media, the interdisciplinary nature of scholastic activity, the breaching of rigid distinctions between subject and subject, and the global nature of evaluation.

7. This new policy also presupposes determined action in the establishment of bodies that do not conflict with the fulfilment of administrative or educational functions, but which in a certain sense fulfil a function of osmosis, of promotion, of research and development. If a broadly based pedagogical research organisation must be created on the national level, it is no less necessary and urgent that regional educational innovation organisations be established capable of carrying out the double task of research in innovation and updating of teachers. The time appears to have come, therefore, even to recast in this light a number of organisations - already contested and no longer vital - which until now were called upon by law to carry out the didactic and pedagogical promotion function whose concepts have now become outdated and which must be brought into line with new needs and situations. The reform of organisations such as the Didactic Centres or the Centre for Audiovisual Aids and similar institutions must fit into the framework of a global view of the restructuring of secondary institutions.

Having defined the principles upon which there was most agreement, Under-Secretary Biasini indicated a restructuralisation of the Ministry, a sweeping decentralisation, and the establishment of new democratic agencies on various levels as instruments indispensable for putting these principles into effect. It will then be necessary to ensure that the new schools are all unitary schools and centres of both experimentation and dissemination of the new orientations. It will also be necessary to ensure use of new evaluation methodologies and didactic technologies and careful selection and training of future teachers; these, combined with more democratic procedures of running the school itself, may pave the way for the spreading of the new orientations. The updating of teachers already employed must be functionally and critically linked to other innovative trends. Finally, a national pedagogical research organisation which makes use of the collaboration of autonomous regional research centres will provide continuous and scientific feedback of the entire process.

"Whatever manner we may choose", the Under-Secretary concluded, "it is now time to undertake concrete action. It would be a fine thing if this action were to begin precisely as a result and as an attempted practical application of the discussion that came to an end here this morning".

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APPENDIX I

STATISTICAL DOCUMENTATION ON SENIOR
SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN ITALY

(Provisional text without comments)

February 1970

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Table 1.1. - STUDENTS AND TEACHERS BY TYPE OF SENIOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS

1946-47 to 1968-69

VOCATIONAL INSTITUTES

School Year	State schools				Non-State schools				Total			
	N°.	students MF	students F	teachers	N°.	students MF	students F	teachers	N°.	students MF	students F	teachers
1946-47	345	20,858	5,788	2,924	87	3,318	681	787	432	24,176	6,469	3,711
1947-48	347	17,912	4,570	2,844	84	2,771	518	772	431	20,663	5,088	3,616
1948-49	347	18,987	4,733	2,922	88	2,989	473	749	435	21,976	5,206	3,671
1949-50	346	22,520	5,649	3,554	79	2,916	545	711	425	25,436	6,194	4,265
1950-51	350	25,561	6,593	3,622	90	3,279	533	817	440	28,840	7,126	4,439
1951-52	365	34,625	9,310	4,253	78	3,447	656	731	443	38,072	9,966	4,984
1952-53	371	43,185	12,068	4,634	84	3,954	810	806	455	47,139	12,878	5,440
1953-54	370	51,106	14,274	4,999	91	4,686	1,328	922	461	55,792	15,602	5,921
1954-55	382	57,383	16,685	5,253	92	5,126	1,417	951	474	62,509	18,102	6,204
1955-56	394	62,312	18,046	5,656	95	5,662	1,630	1,057	489	67,974	19,676	6,693
1956-57	407	54,707	18,759	6,014	90	5,297	1,840	933	497	70,004	20,559	6,947
1957-58	400	69,337	20,044	5,889	97	6,321	1,989	955	497	75,658	22,033	6,844
1958-59	394	72,906	21,336	6,569	106	7,392	2,643	1,085	500	80,298	23,979	7,654
1959-60	422	76,739	22,933	7,434	115	8,191	3,879	1,202	537	84,930	26,812	8,636
1960-61	461	90,896	28,234	9,138	127	8,865	4,794	1,361	588	99,761	33,028	10,499
1961-62	526	113,356	36,208	11,498	141	10,230	5,490	1,547	667	123,586	41,698	13,045
1962-63	497	139,851	46,967	12,837	149	12,008	6,655	1,441	646	151,859	53,622	14,278
1963-64	468	170,670	62,161	13,959	158	12,518	7,050	1,593	626	183,188	69,211	15,352
1964-65	480	163,706	60,860	15,399	150	9,572	5,042	1,362	630	173,278	65,902	16,761
1965-66	469	163,138	59,563	16,127	129	6,789	3,388	997	598	169,927	62,951	17,124
1966-67	481	163,120	60,016	16,299	119	6,152	3,141	970	600	169,272	63,157	17,269
1967-68	511	183,188	69,145	17,428	102	6,482	3,312	846	613	189,670	72,457	18,274
1968-69		208,503	80,976	18,749		6,378	3,130	828		214,881	84,106	19,577

SOURCE: ISTAT

Table 1.1 (Cont'd)

TECHNICAL INSTITUTES

School year	State schools				Non-State schools				Total			
	No.	students MF	F	teachers	No.	students MF	F	teachers	No.	students MF	F	teachers
1946-47...	305	90,798	15,692	7,056	220	19,995	3,165	2,954	525	110,793	18,857	10,010
1947-48...	320	91,837	16,677	7,601	184	19,317	2,891	2,921	504	111,154	19,568	10,522
1948-49...	323	95,085	18,050	7,910	204	21,335	3,365	3,056	527	116,420	21,415	10,966
1949-50...	323	98,030	18,992	8,742	206	20,664	3,691	3,095	529	118,694	22,683	11,837
1950-51...	328	102,348	20,003	8,989	208	21,108	3,996	3,467	536	123,456	23,999	12,456
1951-52...	330	110,712	21,776	9,701	200	22,352	4,779	3,638	530	133,064	26,555	13,339
1952-53...	350	124,280	24,394	10,244	210	24,511	5,634	3,358	560	148,791	30,028	13,602
1953-54...	353	141,764	28,224	10,799	222	28,179	6,940	3,580	575	169,943	35,164	14,379
1954-55...	347	161,649	32,812	11,744	223	31,639	7,871	3,730	570	193,288	40,683	15,474
1955-56...	361	182,686	38,117	12,634	232	35,139	8,720	4,035	593	217,825	46,837	16,669
1956-57...	362	202,670	43,585	13,782	260	38,087	9,627	4,293	622	240,757	53,212	18,075
1957-58...	362	220,431	48,080	14,250	249	41,551	10,166	4,618	611	261,982	58,246	18,868
1958-59...	388	235,763	51,919	15,952	256	43,632	10,741	4,754	644	279,395	62,600	20,706
1959-60...	439	255,847	56,384	17,859	253	43,730	10,951	4,868	692	299,577	67,335	22,727
1960-61...	467	280,688	61,850	19,932	258	45,228	10,918	5,027	725	325,916	72,768	24,959
1961-62...	503	312,010	68,892	23,597	245	47,747	11,428	5,181	748	359,757	80,320	28,778
1962-63...	574	345,103	76,112	26,519	250	50,125	11,995	4,862	824	395,228	88,107	31,381
1963-64...	592	380,073	80,431	28,389	316	51,530	11,991	5,039	908	431,603	92,422	35,428
1964-65...	618	456,263	97,787	32,328	320	54,915	12,785	5,478	938	511,178	110,572	37,806
1965-66...	669	503,737	108,761	36,090	296	58,053	13,793	6,155	965	561,790	122,554	42,245
1966-67...	660	542,666	117,949	38,511	333	61,227	13,866	6,281	993	603,893	131,815	44,792
1967-68...	705	549,468	120,196	39,851	361	59,616	13,405	6,005	1,066	609,084	135,601	45,856
1968-69...		560,642	121,634	40,840		58,558	13,138		1,723	619,000	134,772	46,848

SOURCE : ISTAT

Table 1.1 (Cont'd)

TEACHER TRAINING COLLEGES

School year	State schools				Non-State schools				Total			
	No.	students MF	F	teachers	No.	students MF	F	teachers	No.	students MF	F	teachers
1946-47...	145	34,983	29,291	4,141	271	23,366	21,692	3,087	416	58,349	50,983	7,228
1947-48...	146	32,015	27,563	4,049	288	22,318	20,735	2,921	434	54,333	48,298	6,970
1948-49...	146	35,373	28,597	4,181	299	23,230	21,911	3,542	445	56,603	50,508	7,723
1949-50...	146	36,2C3	30,333	4,636	289	23,353	21,953	3,329	435	59,561	52,286	7,965
1950-51...	146	44,512	35,669	4,898	320	25,951	23,922	3,687	466	70,463	59,591	8,585
1951-52...	147	51,390	40,028	5,071	330	28,071	25,777	3,778	477	79,467	65,805	8,849
1952-53...	152	60,859	47,114	5,702	340	30,497	28,146	3,974	492	91,352	75,260	9,676
1953-54...	167	67,991	53,062	5,746	336	32,371	29,991	3,925	503	100,362	83,053	9,671
1954-55...	176	72,961	58,060	6,193	349	34,281	32,086	4,074	525	107,244	90,146	10,267
1955-56...	176	73,88	59,926	6,271	341	34,280	32,116	4,022	517	108,161	92,042	10,293
1956-57...	176	74,044	61,083	6,316	347	35,060	32,919	4,272	523	109,104	94,022	10,588
1957-58...	177	73,337	61,101	6,311	352	35,118	32,946	4,447	529	108,455	94,047	10,758
1958-59...	177	70,840	59,243	6,296	352	34,592	32,425	4,466	529	105,432	91,668	10,762
1959-60...	179	69,048	58,092	6,451	352	34,120	31,941	4,487	531	103,168	90,033	10,938
1960-61...	183	71,799	60,378	6,800	351	34,661	32,642	4,414	534	106,460	93,020	11,214
1961-62...	201	78,803	66,691	7,402	403	41,206	39,278	5,130	604	120,009	105,969	12,532
1962-63...	212	88,323	75,208	7,699	396	43,520	41,724	4,613	608	131,843	116,932	12,312
1963-64...	215	102,470	105,934	7,963	402	47,774	45,390	4,602	617	150,244	132,824	12,565
1964-65...	220	126,268	105,881	9,090	406	53,579	51,387	4,724	626	179,847	157,268	13,814
1965-66...	221	150,940	125,476	10,461	413	59,691	57,098	4,796	634	210,631	182,574	15,257
1966-67...	228	177,911	147,775	12,050	444	68,578	65,517	5,339	672	246,489	213,292	17,389
1967-68...	242	177,763	148,543	12,143	468	71,973	68,845	5,727	710	249,736	217,388	17,870
1968-69...		175,572	148,823	12,239		73,879	70,629	5,946		249,451	218,912	18,185

SOURCE : ISTAT

TABLE 1.1. (Contd.)

SENIOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS (SCIENCE)

School year	State schools				Non-State schools				Total			
	No.	students MF	F	teachers	No.	students MF	F	teachers	No.	students MF	F	teachers
1946-47	87	34,862	7,887	2,390	118	8,476	1,043	1,242	205	43,338	8,935	3,631
1947-48	88	35,753	7,796	2,714	114	8,766	1,126	1,319	202	44,559	8,922	4,033
1948-49	88	34,499	7,417	2,781	129	9,231	1,244	1,451	217	43,730	8,661	4,242
1949-50	88	32,483	6,778	2,903	119	9,186	1,156	1,434	297	44,669	7,934	4,337
1950-51	91	30,790	6,175	2,899	119	9,269	1,164	1,453	210	40,059	7,339	4,357
1951-52	97	30,340	5,953	3,023	116	9,136	1,089	1,430	213	39,476	7,042	4,453
1952-53	102	31,707	6,067	3,038	113	9,079	1,012	1,329	215	40,736	7,079	4,367
1953-54	129	32,724	6,171	3,034	114	9,162	1,082	1,324	243	41,586	7,253	4,358
1954-55	137	35,076	6,571	3,159	115	9,425	1,161	1,391	232	44,501	7,732	4,550
1955-56	138	36,771	6,984	3,183	108	9,700	1,226	1,327	246	45,471	8,210	4,510
1956-57	139	37,773	7,207	3,243	106	9,939	1,185	1,360	245	47,712	8,392	4,603
1957-58	139	40,794	7,685	3,480	104	10,173	1,201	1,338	243	50,967	8,886	4,818
1958-59	141	43,479	8,238	3,524	102	10,219	1,191	1,351	243	53,693	9,429	4,855
1959-60	165	48,003	9,314	3,966	88	9,210	854	1,215	253	57,203	10,168	5,181
1960-61	194	52,994	10,821	4,446	82	9,128	760	1,164	270	62,122	1,581	5,610
1961-62	168	58,807	12,591	4,975	83	9,148	770	1,152	261	67,933	3,364	6,127
1962-63	177	64,366	14,767	5,092	82	9,572	733	999	269	73,933	5,500	6,191
1963-64	188	70,734	16,982	5,141	85	10,073	830	1,098	273	80,807	17,012	6,439
1964-65	187	82,710	21,100	6,041	86	10,599	924	1,025	273	93,309	22,024	7,060
1965-66	187	93,460	24,960	6,582	86	11,103	972	982	273	104,563	25,932	7,564
1966-67	192	118,901	35,230	7,945	90	12,114	1,096	1,048	282	131,045	36,326	8,993
1967-68	211	144,807	46,848	9,417	96	13,110	1,285	1,082	307	157,917	48,133	10,499
1968-69		171,208	59,119	10,858		14,001	1,599	1,133		185,209	60,718	11,991

SOURCE: ISTAT

TABLE 1.1. (Cont'd)

SENIOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS (CLASSICS)

School year	State schools				Non-State schools				Total			
	No.	students MF	F	teachers	No.	students MF	F	teachers	No.	students MF	F	teachers
1946-47	337	105,705	45,205	7,604	475	33,016	10,036	4,796	812	138,721	55,241	12,400
1947-48	341	101,119	43,530	7,417	464	32,899	10,069	4,067	805	134,018	53,599	11,484
1948-49	344	97,564	41,569	7,657	471	34,075	10,487	4,088	815	131,639	52,056	11,745
1949-50	343	92,708	37,867	8,308	426	31,506	9,574	4,179	769	124,214	47,441	12,487
1950-51	343	87,951	34,908	8,218	423	31,960	9,504	4,446	766	119,911	44,412	12,664
1951-52	346	89,105	34,285	8,288	412	30,956	8,713	4,400	758	120,061	42,998	12,688
1952-53	346	94,257	35,269	8,407	395	30,921	8,809	4,149	741	125,178	44,078	12,556
1953-54	356	98,968	36,360	8,157	383	31,313	8,935	3,169	739	130,281	45,295	11,326
1954-55	360	106,328	38,994	8,795	375	31,672	8,969	3,083	735	138,000	47,963	11,778
1955-56	359	111,511	41,190	9,084	366	30,940	8,667	3,742	725	142,451	49,857	12,826
1956-57	361	114,297	42,870	9,245	356	30,386	8,251	3,962	717	144,683	51,121	13,207
1957-58	363	115,550	43,803	9,323	344	31,511	8,579	3,992	707	146,861	52,382	13,315
1958-59	362	114,547	44,673	9,010	334	29,733	8,280	3,899	696	144,280	52,953	12,909
1959-60	373	115,188	46,592	9,369	313	28,862	8,352	3,811	686	144,050	54,944	13,180
1960-61	370	118,207	49,408	9,440	305	29,036	8,530	3,663	675	147,243	57,938	13,105
1961-62	375	120,952	52,994	9,839	296	29,219	8,569	3,683	671	150,171	61,583	13,522
1962-63	382	124,835	56,616	9,535	287	29,378	8,979	3,121	669	154,213	65,595	13,656
1963-64	383	133,744	62,426	9,223	276	28,952	9,151	3,100	659	163,696	71,577	12,323
1964-65	380	142,53?	69,051	9,574	266	30,077	9,705	3,014	646	172,607	78,756	12,588
1965-66	380	153,221	75,319	9,879	263	30,875	10,130	2,842	643	184,096	85,449	12,721
1966-67	379	159,761	80,830	10,230	260	31,304	10,287	2,882	689	191,065	91,117	13,112
1967-68	391	163,683	84,545	10,461	257	31,095	10,887	2,782	648	194,778	94,632	13,243
1968-69		167,635	88,377	10,985	468	30,955	9,910	2,796		198,590	48,287	13,731

SOURCE: ISTAT

TABLE 1.2.   INCREASE IN NUMBER OF SECONDARY SCHOOL
STUDENTS OVER THE PERIOD 1961-1969
(1961 = 100)

Type of School	1961	1965	1968	1969.	Average annual increase 1965-69
Vocational institutes	100	173.7	190.1	215.4	+ 5.55
Technical institutes	100	156.8	186.9	189.9	+ 4.90
Teacher training colleges	100	168.9	34.6	234.3	+ 8.50
Senior secondary schools (Science)	100	150.2	254.2	298.1	+18.7
Senior secondary schools (Classics)	100	117.2	132.3	134.9	+ 3.55
Senior secondary schools (Fine Arts)	100	198.8	320.7	376.1	+17.3
TOTAL	100	152.7	189.7	198.8	+ 6.85
Absolute values	745,649	1,138,463	1,414,483	1,482,729	

SOURCE: ISTAT - CENSIS calculation

Increase in student enrolments (+) in university education:

1961 = 100 (268,181)
1968 = 186.5 (500,.15)

Average annual increase 196 ,-.9 = +8.35

(+) intramural and extramural

TABLE 1.3. PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF STUDENTS
BY TYPE OF SCHOOL - 1961-1969

Type of School	1961	1965	1968	1969
Vocational institutes	13.4	15.2	13.4	14.5
Technical institutes	43.7	44.9	43.1	41.8
Teacher training colleges	14.3	15.8	17.6	16.8
Senior secondary schools (Science)	8.3	8.2	11.2	12.5
Senior secondary schools (Classics)	19.7	15.2	13.8	13.4
Senior secondary schools (Fine Arts)	0.6	0.7	0.9	1.0
TOTAL	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: ISTAT - CENSIS calculation

TABLE 1.4.   PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF FIRST-YEAR
ENROLMENTS BY TYPE OF SCHOOL IN 1965
AND 1969

Type of School	Absolute values		Percentages	
	1965	1969	1965	1969
Vocational institutes	66,380	100,285	18.2	22.5
Technical institutes	162,562	171,181	44.6	38.5
Teacher training colleges	64,667	69,134	17.8	15.5
Senior secondary schools (Science)	26,806	60,230	7.4	13.5
Senior secondary schools (Classics)	43,873	44,431	12.0	10.0
TOTAL	364,288	445,261	100.0	100.0

Source: ISTAT - CENSIS calculation

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TABLE 1.5. PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF TECHNICAL INSTITUTE
STUDENTS BY STUDY COURSE IN 1965 AND 1969

Type of Technical Institute	1965	1969
Agriculture	2.4	2.4
Nautical studies	1.7	1.9
Tourism	0.2	0.3
Commerce	36.4	36.1
Surveying	12.8	17.4
Business management	1.5	1.8
Industry	41.5	38.1
Women's Technical Institute	3.5	2.0
TOTAL	100.0	100.0
Absolute values	511,178	619,000

Source: ISTAT – CENSIS calculation

TABLE 1.6. PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF VOCATIONAL INSTITUTE
STUDENTS BY STUDY COURSE IN 1965 AND 1968

Type of Vocational Institute	1965	1968
Agriculture	11.1	12.1
Industry	42.1	42.6
Nautical studies	1.3	2.3
Commerce	38.1	32.8
Hotel industry	2.4	4.0
Women's Vocational Institute	5.0	6.2
TOTAL	100.0	100.0
Absolute values	173,278	189,670

Source: ISTAT - CENSIS calculation

TABLE 1.7. GRADUATES BY TYPE OF SENIOR SECONDARY
SCHOOL FROM 1959-60 to 1966-67

Type of school	1959-60	1960-61	1961-62	1962-63	1963-64	1964-65	1965-66	1966-67
Vocational institutes	21,771	22,433	22,602	25,491	41,403	46,805	51,710	42,260
Technical institutes	44,369	47,124	49,378	49,109	52,956	63,064	73,005	86,320
Teacher training colleges	23,044	25,516	25,062	24,966	28,623	33,029	37,123	42,555
Senior secondary schools (Science)	7,994	8,274	8,514	8,953	10,038	12,177	13,727	14,701
Senior secondary schools (Classics)	24,023	23,684	23,913	22,134	24,106	27,187	28,583	29,721
Senior secondary schools (Fine Arts)	735	824	866	1,052	1,260	1,531	1,911	2,076
TOTAL	121,936	127,855	130,335	131,705	158,386	183,793	206,059	217,633

Source: ISTAT

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TABLE 2.1. ATTENDANCE RATES IN 1960 AND 1967 BY SEX

Age	Males		Females	
	1960	1967	1960	1967
10	95.7	99.0	94.0	97.7
11	87.4	94.5	76.2	88.1
12	74.3	90.2	56.9	78.4
13	61.6	80.9	44.1	66.6
14	39.8	61.6	26.2	48.2
15	31.5	49.0	20.4	37.1
16	25.4	39.0	16.0	28.0
17	20.6	31.6	12.3	21.0
18	16.6	25.4	9.3	15.6

Source: ISTAT

TABLE 2.2 ATTENDANCE RATES BY OCCUPATIONAL STATUS OF HEAD
OF HOUSEHOLD AND AGE OF STUDENT (1967)

Occupational status of head of household	Age groups			
	11-13	14-18	19-23	24-26
Entrepreneurs, professional, managerial and clerical workers	99.0	87.2	47.5	17.4
Self-employed workers, assistants	91.2	44.8	13.7	4.1
Dependant workers	90.4	41.5	14.5	0.1
No occupational activity	88.8	36.8	12.1	5.8
TOTAL	91.6	47.2	14.7	4.8

Source: ISTAT

TABLE 2.3. ATTENDANCE RATES BY EDUCATIONAL LEVEL OF
HEAD OF HOUSEHOLD AND AGE OF STUDENT (1967)

Educational level of head of household	Age group				
	11-13	14-18	19-23	24-26	Total
University degree	100.0	97.6	80.0	32.6	82.0
2nd level diploma	100.0	91.4	52.3	15.8	62.5
Lower secondary leaving certificate	99.1	82.3	32.1	7.9	54.0
Primary leaving certificate	93.5	47.4	12.1	3.4	38.9
Literates with no certificates	84.7	29.6	5.4	1.4	26.0
Illiterates	72.3	18.9	3.6	1.1	20.6
TOTAL	91.6	47.2	14.7	4.8	37.8

Source: CENSIS estimates

TABLE 2.4. PERCENTAGE OF GRADUATES LEAVING SCHOOL
OR CONTINUING TO HIGHER LEVELS (1964-1968)

Level of education	1964	1965	1966	1967	1968
Primary school					
Total graduates	87.1	88.2	88.9	91.3	93.0
of which: continuing to 1st cycle secondary	74.4	76.6	78.1	81.0	83.3
school leavers	12.7	11.6	10.8	10.3	9.7
Lower secondary school					
Total graduates	50.9	55.9	60.9	59.0	60.7
of which: continuing to senior secondary	40.8	43.8	49.4	49.4	51.5
school leavers	10.1	12.1	11.5	9.6	9.2
Senior secondary school (a)					
Total graduates	15.8	16.6	16.8	19.1	22.0
of which: continuing to senior secondary	12.1	13.3	13.0	14.0	16.5
school leavers	3.7	3.3	3.8	5.1	5.5
University					
Total graduates	3.2	3.5	3.9	4.3	-

(a) excluding vocational education

Source: CENSIS calculation

TABLE 3.1. REGULARITY OF ATTENDANCE IN SENIOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS BY TYPE OF SCHOOL IN 1960 AND 1967

Position of Students	Type of School				Total
	Technical and vocational institutes (a)	Technical institutes	Teacher training colleges	Senior secondary schools (classics + science)	
1960					
Normal	30.5 (b)	33.5 (c)	42.2	66.9	44.2
1 year retarded	26.3 (b)	27.8 (c)	25.2	20.3	25.0
2 or more years retarded	43.2 (b)	38.7 (c)	32.6	12.8	30.8
	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
1967					
Normal	34.3	37.7	48.0	73.3	47.3
1 year retarded	29.1	28.9	27.3	18.3	26.1
2 or more years retarded	36.6	33.4	24.7	8.4	26.6
	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: ISTAT-CENSIS calculation

(a) The preparatory course of vocational institutes is considered together with the 3rd year lower secondary.

(b) including schools of art.

(c) including senior secondary schools (fine arts).

TABLE 3.2.   RETARDATION OF VOCATIONAL INSTITUTE
            2ND-YEAR STUDENTS IN 1967

Position of Students	1967	
	Males	Females
Normal (or in advance)	28.2	43.0
1 year retarded	30.1	29.9
2 or more years retarded	41.7	27.1
TOTAL	100.0	100.0

Source: ISTAT

TABLE 3.3

RATES OF SUCCESS IN SENIOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Type of School	1st year enrolments		Graduates		Graduates as percentage of 1st-year enrolments
	year	students	year	students	
Vocational institutes (3 years)	1957–58	38,989	1959–60	21,771	55.8
	1962–63	76,987	1964–65	46,805	60.8
	1964–65	66,380	1966–67	42,260	63.7
Teacher training colleges (4 years)	1956–57	28,827	1959–60	23,044	79.9
	1961–62	39,136	1964–65	33,029	84.4
	1963–64	49,938	1966–67	42,555	85.2
Technical institutes (5 years)	1955–56	61,269	1959–60	44,369	72.4
	1960–61	89,563	1964–65	63,064	70.4
	1962–63	118,780	1966–67	86,320	72.7
Senior secondary schools (Science) (5 years)	1955–56	11,667	1959–60	7,994	68.5
	1960–61	17,434	1964–65	12,177	69.8
	1962–63	20,239	1966–67	14,701	72.6
Senior secondary schools (Classics) (5 years)	1955–56	35,253	1959–60	24,023	68.1
	1960–61	37,836	1964–65	27,187	71.9
	1962–63	38,942	1966–67	29,721	76.3

Source: ISTAT – CENSIS calculation

TABLE 4.1.   GRADUATES BY SOCIAL STATUS OF FATHER (1967)

Type of graduate	Status of Father				Total
	Profes-sional	Manage-rial and clerical	Self-employed	Dependent	
Technical institutes, of which:	6.4	29.7	30.0	33.9	100.0
industrial	3.4	25.2	29.4	42.0	100.0
commercial	7.8	33.9	29.8	28.5	100.0
Teacher training colleges	6.2	33.6	34.6	25.6	100.0
Senior secondary schools (classics)	19.6	48.3	21.5	10.6	100.0
Senior secondary schools (science)	15.6	50.3	23.3	10.8	100.0

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TABLE 4.2. SENIOR SECONDARY SCHOOL STUDENTS
BY SOCIAL STATUS OF FATHER

Occupational status of father	Technical and vocational institutes	Teacher training colleges	Senior secondary schools
Entrepreneurs	1.1	0.7	3.0
Professional workers	0.6	1.1	6.1
Managerial workers	1.1	1.8	8.5
Clerical workers	16.0	20.3	31.8
Self-employed workers	26.1	28.5	22.4
Dependent workers	42.5	34.5	17.3
Assistants	0.4	0.7	0.3
No occupational status	12.2	12.4	10.6
	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: ISTAT-CENSIS calculation.

TABLE 5.1. RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SECONDARY SCHOOL GRADUATES
AND UNIVERSITY ENTRANTS IN THE FOLLOWING YEAR

Type of education	Graduates in 1966-67	1st-year enrolments in 1967-68	Transition coefficient (1)
Technical proficiency certificate:			
- industrial	29,148	15,135	51.9
- nautical	1,438	1,014	70.5
- agricultural	2,125	1,941	91.3
- commercial	30,984	18,899	70.0
- surveying	11,786	7,664	65.0
- women's	4,122	2,017	48.9
"Maturity" certificate:			
- science	14,701	16,865	114.7
- classics	29,721	35,547	119.6
- fine arts	2,076	873	42.1
Teacher training certificate	42,555	22,700	53.3
TOTAL	168,656	122,655	72.7

Source: ISTAT-CENSIS calculation

(1) Transition coefficients are overestimated since they include
    students enrolling for the second time in 1st-year courses owing
    to change of Faculty or for other reasons.

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APPENDIX II

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APPENDIX III

WORKING DOCUMENTS

CERI/EI/I/70.01	Education for the Age Group 16-19 Years in Norway - Plans Under Consideration for Reforms in the 'Seventies	K.Fr.Pettersen (National Council for Innovation in Education, Norway)
CERI/EI/I/70.02*	New Approaches in Italian Secondary Education	S. Maclure, (Editor, Times Educational Supplement, United Kingdom)
CERI/EI/I/70.03**	Problems and Conditions of Italian Secondary Education	Prof. G. Gozzer (European Centre of Education, Frascati, Italy)
CERI/EI/I/70.04	Secondary Re-organisation in England	A. Corbett (Education Correspondent for the New Society, United Kingdom)
CERI/EI/I/70.06	The Swedish Gymnasia School from 1971	L. Cervall (National Board of Education, Sweden)

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