The Learn to Travel Project: a case study of curriculum innovation in primary schools

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The Learn to Travel Project: a case study of curriculum innovation in primary schools

by

Peter
Mason

A thesis submitted to the
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fulfilment for the degree of

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The Learn to Travel Project: a case study of curriculum innovation in primary schools by Peter Mason

This thesis is a case study of curriculum innovation in the primary school at a time of major change during the introduction of the National Curriculum. It involved a small number of primary schools, teachers and children. In particular the processes and impacts of the innovation were investigated. Action research methodology (Carr and Kemmis, 1986 McNiff, 1988) was employed and teachers' plans, classroom activities and children's responses were analysed. The research informs us about the nature and effects of opportunities created and constraints imposed by the National Curriculum. The case study indicates that teachers responded to the innovation as if it were a topic and not a single subject, but they incorporated National Curriculum subjects and themes into it. Geography was the major subject developed, but the teachers tended to view this subject as a body of knowledge, with accompanying skills, rather than a process of learning to be taught and this was related, at least in part, to the nature of the National Curriculum. A number of activities concerned with values and attitudes were developed, despite the lack of obvious links to the National Curriculum. The study shows that these teachers were 'pragmatists' rather than 'progressives' or 'traditionalists' in their use of teaching methods. The research also indicated the problems of the relationships between these teachers and the Project co-ordinator. The case study demonstrated that this Project had local relevance, had significant effects on teachers and children directly involved and reached a wider educational community who gave a generally favourable response, indicating the educational value of introducing work on travel and tourism to the primary curriculum.
AUTHOR'S DECLARATION

At no time during the registration for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy has Peter Mason been registered for any other University award.

This study was financed by the University of Plymouth.

This programme of advanced study was financed by the University of Plymouth, UK and undertaken as an extension of my work as a lecturer within the Faculty of Arts and Education, Exmouth, Devon, using a number of primary schools, teachers and children in Devon for the case study.

Relevant research seminars at the Faculty of Arts and Education, and conferences in London and Exeter were attended. Papers were offered at conferences in London, Sheffield, Twickenham and Juniper Hall, Surrey. A book, a journal article and newspaper article were written for publication.

During the period of research I have corresponded with Dr David Hicks, Global Futures Project, Bath College of Higher Education.

Signed..................................................
Date..................................................

24/11/95
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CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

This thesis is a case study of curriculum change in the primary school. The case study is located at a particularly important juncture in the development of primary schools at a time when the task of curriculum innovation, previously left to a variety of forces attempting to influence schools having a high degree of independence, was being taken over by central government.

The research focuses on the attempt to introduce school based innovation through a collaborative action research project, involving a number of schools, at a time when the pressures to implement the newly-formed National Curriculum were at their height. The innovation, the 'Learn to Travel' Project, involved the creation of new material and a thematic approach at a time of mounting pressure to move to separate subjects and to meet a number of externally imposed attainment targets. The National Curriculum was much criticised at the time, (see for example O'Connor, 1987; Simons, 1988; Chitty, 1988; McClure, 1989; and Moon, 1991), as being overcrowded and hence preventing the development of new approaches. Yet this Project appeared to present new material in new ways which did not immediately coincide with a recognised single subject.

The 'Learn to Travel' Project was concerned with the curriculum area of travel and tourism. Tourism was, by 1990, the world's most important industry in terms of employment and revenue generated (World Tourism Organisation, 1991) and it had been an important area of study in higher education since at least the 1980s, with a number of undergraduate courses in the UK, such as Geography, Economics and Sociology concerned with tourism. Post graduate courses in tourism, having a concern particularly with management of travel and tourism, had also been developed during this period. Students in secondary schools in the UK had also been confronted
with tourism issues in such courses as the '16-19 Geography Project' of the London Examining Board (Naish et al 1987) and GCSE courses in Geography during the 1980s also had significant sections devoted to the study of tourism.

Up to the end of the 1980s very little had been taught about tourism in UK primary schools, although topics such as 'Journeys', 'Holidays', and 'On the Move' were common in many primary schools (Welsh Curriculum Council, 1991, Catling, 1988). Despite a tourist dimension to these topics discussion of the nature of tourism, as an economic activity and social phenomenon as well as its social, economic and environmental effects was very limited in primary schools (Richards, 1988). At least two factors emerging within the UK, in the late 1980s, were contributing to a change in this situation. There had been a growing concern that children, even young children in primary schools, should study industry (Smith, 1988). Smith claimed the rationale for this study of industry included the need for children to gain knowledge and understanding about industry, while added to this can be what Blyth (1984) termed 'education through industry', meaning the acquisition of social and intellectual skills relevant to the 'work' environment.

The introduction of the National Curriculum also provided a second stimulus for teaching and learning about travel and tourism. There was specific reference to study of tourism as an economic activity and its effects both in the original Proposals for Geography 5-16 (DES, 1990) and in Geography in the National Curriculum (DES, 1991a). Both documents stated that children in the junior years (aged 8-11) of primary schools were required to study leisure and tourism activities as part of the leisure and recreation industry. There was also reference to the impact of tourism on the environment in both of these documents. The impacts of tourism on the environment were also referred to in the non-statutory examples in Geography in the National Curriculum and
the topic of 'Journeys' featured as an example in the Non-Statutory Guidance pack (DES, 1991b) that accompanied the National Curriculum Geography document.

A rather different rationale for teaching about travel and tourism in primary schools was provided by Krippendorf (1987) when he argued strongly the need for a 'Learn to Travel' campaign. He stated that this campaign should involve adults through informal and formal education. He was, however, particularly concerned to ensure all school children from the early years of primary school upwards should be part of this campaign, claiming:

Starting in the primary school and continuing to university, courses on travel and tourism must become part of all school curricula, the more so because these areas will be even more important in the future than they are today. The pupil should learn, step by step, how to be a tourist.
(Krippendorf, 1987, p145)

McSwann (1988) also supported the need for young people to be involved in learning about travel and tourism, but he was mainly concerned to meet the future needs for employees in the travel industry.

As both curriculum innovator and researcher I was influenced by the arguments of Krippendorf and McSwann for teaching about tourism in the primary school when proposing to establish the 'Learn to Travel' Project. The Project was established, in the spring of 1989, with financial support from the World Wide Fund for Nature (WWF) and it involved me as co-ordinator working collaboratively with four teachers in three primary schools to develop activities on travel and tourism. The main aim of this Project was to produce a book of activities for primary schools that had been developed by teachers in school. The Project therefore provided an opportunity to investigate the process of creating, developing, implementing and evaluating
these activities. As a number of different schools and teachers were involved, I was able to conduct the type of comparative case study research advocated by Hopkins (1989) in an attempt to generate insights and grounded theory (Glaser and Strauss 1967) from these different settings to relate to the wider context of UK curriculum development in the early 1990s.

As I was involved as both co-ordinator and researcher of the Project I had the opportunity to employ a variety of techniques within an overall methodology of action research (Adelman et al, 1977, Carr and Kemmis, 1986, Hustler et al, 1986). I made use of a number of techniques including participant observation, field notes, the analysis of documents, interviews and questionnaire surveys to investigate the processes involved in the innovation, as well as its effects. These techniques were part of an overall systematic framework of action research as advocated by Cohen and Manion (1985, 1994). Within this action research methodology I was able to analyse the curriculum innovation in terms of teachers' plans, their activities, my teaching of activities, children's responses and the wider impacts of the Project.

This study, then, examines the processes involved in this particular Project and gauges its impacts on the teachers, children and schools involved. This analysis informs us about the curriculum innovation itself, in terms of its content and method, and the nature of the contexts, both micro and macro, within which it was introduced. The thesis discusses the insights that can be gained from an attempt to innovate and considers whether these insights are only applicable to the particular context of the innovation in this investigation and how useful these insights are in terms of applicability to other contexts. There are therefore two major foci to the thesis; first, the nature of the processes involved in the curriculum innovation and second, assessing the
impacts of the innovation. These two foci are set out as questions below, with the major question followed by linked, derived questions.

**Main question**
What factors were important in the process of curriculum innovation at the school level at a time of national curriculum development?

**Derived questions**
1) What opportunities were there and what constraints existed?

2) How did teachers operate in designing, planning and teaching a school-based curriculum innovation?

3) What did teachers produce?

**Main question**
What impacts did the school based curriculum innovation have at a time of centralised curriculum change?

**Derived questions**
1) What impacts did the innovation have on the teachers involved?

2) What impacts did the innovation have on the children in the schools involved?

3) What impacts did the innovation have on me as co-ordinator?

4) What impacts did the innovation have on the wider educational community?

The next chapter is a review of relevant literature divided into three sections. The first section is concerned with literature on curriculum innovation, the second the primary curriculum and the third the field of tourism. Chapter Three discusses the methods and techniques used in the field research. The findings of the field research are presented in a number of separate, but related sections in Chapter Four and the conclusions are presented in Chapter Five.
CHAPTER 2 REVIEW

Section 1 Curriculum Innovation

Introduction

There are a number of general but important and related questions that can be applied to the activity of curriculum innovation. These related questions are concerned with why a particular innovation should be introduced, what the innovation should be and how the innovation should be implemented. Once an innovation has entered the school system a subsequent, but very important question, is concerned with ways to judge its success or failure. Attempts to provide answers to these questions, therefore, require a consideration of the rationale for educational innovation, as well as discussion of processes, products and the evaluation of curriculum change. The following sections attempt to address these questions though a review of literature relevant to the field research.

The rationale for educational change

In the period before the introduction of the National Curriculum in the late 1980s there was a degree of agreement about the aims of curriculum innovation. As Taylor and Richards (1985) stated one significant assumption underlying attempts at curriculum change was that improvement was both conceivable and justifiable. Taylor and Richards also made the assumption that improvement in education was achievable in practice. Skilbeck (1973) supported this second assumption when he stated that those involved in education understand at least to some degree how change can be brought about and that they have the ability to bring about change.

Changes in society, such as those related to, for example, scientific advances or knowledge explosions, were cited by Basset (1970), Papert (1980) and Stonier (1982) as major reasons for educational innovation. Such changes it was
argued require revision of what is taught, as well as how it is taught and assessed. Skilbeck (1973) claimed, in support of this view, that there ought not be a large gap between what is learned in school and what is learned in wider society. He was also concerned that there should be also a close link between academic knowledge and school knowledge.

Parsons (1987) argued that we should distinguish between change and improvement in education, and that curriculum development is the attempt to bring about improvement and not just change, which can be viewed as neutral, or even the failure to improve. This view was supported by Fullan (1991) when he stated:

Change for the sake of change will not help. New programmes either make no difference, help improve the situation or make things worse. The difference between change and progress can be brought home most forcefully if we ask: What if the majority of educational changes introduced in schools, actually made matters worse, however unintentionally, than if nothing had been done?

(Fullan, 1991, p15)

Fullan did however argue that change in schools brings benefits to teachers. He claimed change is necessary for teachers as many are frustrated, bored and burnt out. He also suggested that good change processes foster sustained professional development over a career, and can lead to student benefits as teachers are interested and motivated in what they do.

Fullan (1982) argued that educational change is to help schools accomplish the twin goals of educating students in various academic or cognitive skills and knowledge, and helping students develop individual and social skills, in a more effective manner. This, Fullan (1982) stated, will require changes in, or the replacement of programmes, practices and structures.
Teachers may benefit from educational change, but they have not always been active in leading attempts at innovation. During the 1960s and early 1970s members of organisations such as the Schools Council and the Nuffield Foundation assumed that there was not enough expertise in schools for change to occur in anything but a haphazard and uncoordinated way. Catalysts for change and co-ordination were therefore required and these organisations could provide such functions, it was claimed (Eraut, 1976). Despite the involvement of external organisations, Taylor and Richards (1985) argued, teachers and those professionally engaged in education had sole responsibility for decisions about the curriculum during much of the 1960s, 1970s and early 1980s.

The introduction of the National Curriculum in England and Wales, from 1989, has led to a significant reconsideration of the aims and processes of curriculum change. The Secretary of State for Education at the time of the introduction of the National Curriculum claimed that the English education system was in a muddle and needed all round improvement in standards through a centrally imposed system (Baker, 1987). Despite assertions from the Secretary of State that the best features of the traditional approach to curriculum design would be retained, critics of the National Curriculum, including Lawton and Chitty (1988), argued that the introduction of this centralised curriculum would radically alter the process of educational change. They believed that the National Curriculum was basically flawed because it ignored most of the debate about curriculum innovation and design of the previous quarter century. Lawton (1989) believed the National Curriculum was introduced for ideological reasons to promote Conservative ideals on privatisation of education, to give power to the consumers of education (or at least their parents), to remove the power of local education authorities and
that it was a retreat from the ideals of comprehensive education. Simons (1988) went so far as to suggest that it would be extremely difficult to introduce a curriculum innovation in the future unless the innovation was related to the National Curriculum.

Impacts of the National Curriculum on curriculum innovation are discussed in a later part of this section. Before this however an overview of theory and practice in curriculum innovation and evaluation of innovation is provided.

Theory and practice of educational change
Change in education is part of change in society. Bennis et al (1969) distinguished between three types of change:
1) Power coercive strategies based on the intervention of those with legal authority to alter conditions (and here they cite governments as an example).
2) Empirical rational strategies based on the assumption that people are rational beings who will change their ideas or behaviour if the effectiveness of a concept or practice can be demonstrated by research.
3) Normative re-educative strategies. Here patterns of action are maintained by commitment of individuals to socio-cultural norms. Change only happens when individuals are encouraged to change their normative orientations in attitudes, beliefs, values, knowledge, skills, roles and relationships. This change is brought about by activating forces within the system to alter the system.

Prior to the introduction of the National Curriculum most curriculum change in the UK could be fitted into the second and third category devised by Bennis et al. The National Curriculum, however, would appear to be within their first category. Part of the field research of this thesis was an attempt to investigate the nature and effects of this apparent 'power coercive strategy'.
Fullan (1991) considered change with specific reference to the school system and created a twofold classification. First order changes he claimed are attempts to improve the effectiveness and efficiency of what is currently going on within the system. First order change can be equated with an earlier attempt to classify curriculum change devised by Whiteside (1978) when he used the phrase 'modifying the system'. Fullan's second order change involves attempts to alter the fundamental ways in which organisations are put together, including their goals, structures and roles. This type of change appears similar to Whiteside's category 'transforming the system'. Fullan stated most changes, this century, have been first order with their aims to improve the quality of what is already there. Second order changes, Fullan claimed, have largely failed. Cuban (1990) supports this view when he stated:

First order changes have succeeded, while second order changes were either adapted to fit what existed or sloughed off, allowing the system to remain essentially untouched.
(Cuban, 1990, quoted in Fullan, 1991 p 28)

Fullan claimed that if in the past schools worked on the notion 'we can fix it' (p29) the challenge of the 1990s will be to deal with more second order changes and these changes will affect school cultures and structures. The introduction of the National Curriculum would appear to be an attempt to bring about what Fullan terms 'a second order change'.

Models of how curriculum change could and should occur were developed during the 1950s and 1960s, but as Parsons (1987) stated until the early 1980s these tended to be models for rather than of change. The links between models and experience, theory and practice are discussed below, with
particular reference to curriculum change in the UK from the 1950s until the introduction of the National Curriculum.

The model of curriculum development which dominated most attempts at curriculum change in the 1950s and 1960s, in the UK, was that known as Research, Development and Diffusion (McCormick and James, 1983). The model was derived from that used in industry and agriculture and had as its core a team of experts at the centre. These experts provided the knowledge base for an innovation and they also provided an appropriate content and strategy for implementing curriculum change. They communicated to the audience for change (the teachers), who were seen to be at the periphery. Innovations were researched and developed by the team at the centre and then diffused to the periphery. The teachers were viewed largely as passive recipients of change (Taylor and Richards, 1985). Teachers were however provided with a limited opportunity to comment on the merits of an innovation, while evaluation was usually on the basis of take up or number of users of an innovation (McCormick and James, 1989).

Hoyle (1975) claimed that by the end of the 1960s curriculum development using the Research, Development and Diffusion model had become institutionalised in British schools. Kerr (1968) and Musgrove (1971) amongst several other commentators regarded the experience of this form of curriculum development as very positive. Kerr claimed it would revolutionise education while Musgrove saw curriculum innovation at this time as:

possibly coloured strawberry and, in its more ecstatic moments, stained with the radiance of eternity
(Musgrove, 1971, p 20)
The main organisations employing a Research Development and Diffusion approach to curriculum innovation in the 1960s and early 1970s were the Schools Council and the Nuffield Foundation. The Schools Council was a national body supported by local and national government. The Schools Council had two main aims; firstly to develop the curriculum in England and Wales and secondly to develop examinations (Eggleston, 1980). Before the arrival of the Schools Council the Nuffield Foundation had been in operation with its main aim of improving science education. Eggleston (1980) claimed that the Schools Council and Nuffield Foundation had become an established part of the educational life of UK by the mid 1970s, and the essential feature of both was the belief that curriculum development would become a planned and rational activity. The processes in all projects, set up by these two bodies, involved the identification of objectives by:

consultation, consensus upon them reached and then appropriate methodologies and content identified and these objectives then achieved in the classroom.

(Eggleston, 1980, p3)

The Schools Council introduced 160 projects into British schools in the 1960s and 1970s, but the official view of their effectiveness was 'generally mediocre' (DES 1976). Steadman et al (1978, 1980) indicated that while as high as twenty percent of secondary schools were using Schools Council Projects, there were relatively low levels of familiarity with these Projects in primary schools. Parsons (1987) claimed that there was a myth about the failure of national curriculum development projects of this type, but the official perception, at national and local level, was one of a general lack of success.

A number of reasons can be provided for the apparent failure of the Schools Council curriculum development projects. First, as Shipman (1974) claimed,
when he investigated the work of the Keele Integrated Studies Project (KISP),
the process of innovation which supposedly involves a number of experts in a
Project team, who research and develop in a rational and 'scientific' way is a
gross approximation of what really happened. Shipman argued that in reality
the process was one of 'horse trading and horse sense', meaning that,
negotiation, the establishment of power relationships and a process of
legitimation rather than 'scientific logic' took place. Shipman also noted the
great disparity between the expectations of the Project organisers and the
achievements in schools, finding that the KISP materials were not used that
much, except when the Project co-ordinators were present.

Jenkins (1974) who worked with the KISP provides an insight into the process
of negotiation and legitimation of a curriculum project. Jenkins devised a
nine fold classification after taped interviews with teachers in which they used
similar metaphors to those presented below and an attempt was made to apply
this classification to the 'Learn to Travel' Project. The views of teachers in
their reaction to the KISP call into question curriculum innovation
proceeding in a 'scientific' and 'rational' manner. The views were as follows:

1) The exchange of gifts : the Project as a reciprocal obligation
2) The other drummer : the Project as unselected affinity
3) Troubled waters : the Project as agitation or distress
4) The gift of grace : the Project as salvation
5) New props or identity : the Project as theatre
6) Free sample : the Project as commercialism
7) Ground bait : the Project as exploitation
8) Taking issue : the Project as management consultancy
9) Cargo cult : the Project as overwhelming technology.
(Jenkins, 1974, p98)

Eggleston (1980) provides a second reason for the apparent failure of Schools
Council and Nuffield Foundation Projects when discussing the use of Project
materials. He claimed these were viewed not as ready made curricula but in
addition to materials already at the disposal of teachers, to be used as and when appropriate in the light of their professional judgement. He provided this as an example of the failure to acknowledge the importance and value of the teachers' own skills in curriculum change and claimed:

Perhaps the greatest error was to take insufficient account of the long standing tradition of school based curriculum development. (Eggleston, 1980, p3)

The importance of the role of the teacher as participant in curriculum development rather than a passive recipient of innovations developed by experts in a distant centre was acknowledged during the 1960s and 1970s. Hoyle (1974) proposed the terms 'restricted' and 'extended' professional teacher and in an updated restatement of these terms (Hoyle, 1980) indicated the 'extended' professional:

locates his classroom work in a broader educational context, comparing his work with that of other teachers, evaluating his work systematically and collaborating with other teachers....he is interested in theory.....he sees teaching as a rational activity amenable to improvement on the basis of research and development. (Hoyle, 1980, p 49)

Hoyle's statement clearly suggests the important role of teachers in curriculum innovation in schools, but the last part of the quotation would seem to indicate Hoyle's continuing belief in the Research, Development and Diffusion approach.

Although several curriculum innovators and researchers were clearly optimistic about curriculum development in the 1960s through to the 1970s, a number of criticisms were already in evidence in the early 1970s. Lawton (1973) made the general claim, that:
If we wish to be completely frank, we would probably say, curriculum planning is in a mess. 
(Lawton, 1973, p 7)

McCormick and James (1983) claimed that an often repeated criticism, during the mid 1970s, of the Research, Development and Diffusion model was that this model might have worked well for science and industry, but there were serious problems when applied to complex social systems, such as schools.

A supporter of this criticism of the Research, Development and Diffusion model was Stenhouse. Stenhouse's (1975) idea of the 'teacher as researcher' drew on the tradition of school based curriculum development and the importance of the role of the teacher. Stenhouse regarded the Research, Development and Diffusion model as too mechanistic and technocratic, and his 'teacher as researcher' approach was an attempt to get away from this. Stenhouse believed that teachers were unlikely to give their full commitment to change if they were merely technicians, and that they needed to be actively involved in decisions about curriculum change. Stenhouse developed the idea of 'teacher as researcher' when running the Humanities Curriculum Project. Stenhouse attempted to define the critical characteristics of 'teacher as researcher' as:

a capacity for autonomous professional self development through systematic self study, through the study of other teachers and through the testing of ideas by classroom research procedures.
(Stenhouse, 1975, p 144)

Although Stenhouse criticised Hoyle (1975), as he claimed Hoyle promoted the role of teachers as remaining passive, particularly in relation to the acceptance of educational theory, Stenhouse (1975) can be seen to have taken Hoyle's (1975) ideas further by suggesting teachers be given more autonomy in what
and how they teach. Macdonald and Walker (1976) claimed the Humanities Curriculum Project offered teachers an opportunity to acquire an additional identity as, they suggested, it offered the possibility that, through a process of redefinition of the relationship between teacher, taught and knowledge:

schools would be transformed into democratic institutions, teachers into research-based craftsmen of professional tradition and pupils become reflective scholars.
(Macdonald and Walker, 1976, p 81)

Stenhouse's ideas could therefore be seen as empowering teachers and suggesting that individual action could change the system (McCormick and James, 1989). Both Stenhouse and Hoyle can be seen to be giving power to the 'periphery', i.e. schools and teachers and taking it from the 'centre', i.e. government bodies and centralised curriculum development bodies. Stenhouse (1975) also argued that in curriculum innovation it was not sufficient to change knowledge alone, but also values, attitudes and the 'normal' way of doing things that affect professional activity. This was therefore a very real attempt to break away from the Research, Development and Diffusion model. The importance and long lasting contribution of Stenhouse's views on curriculum development can be seen in this claim by Fullan (1991):

Significant educational change consists in changes in beliefs, teaching styles and materials, which come about only through a process of personal development in a social context.
(Fullan, 1991, p 132)

Not all criticisms of Schools Council Projects involved claims of too much central guidance and too little scope for teacher initiative. Anderson (1979), when discussing the Schools Council 5-13 Health Education Project, claimed it made unreasonable expectations of teachers. The teachers were given
materials as guidance and they were to choose what was appropriate for their pupils and schools in the light of local circumstances. Anderson saw this as requiring skills information, contacts, inclinations and time that the teachers did not have available.

From the mid 1970s there was a growing focus on school based curriculum development with the ideas of a number of educational researchers and practitioners being particularly important. Those of Stenhouse (1975), Hoyle (1975) and Skilbeck (1976a) were particularly influential (McCormick and James, 1983). Skilbeck (1976a) devised three models of school based curriculum development, these being the rational deductive, the rational interactive and the intuitive. Skilbeck located each of these in a different political/educational framework, as follows:

1) Rational deductive. This operates within a centrally directed curriculum, where the school's task is to interpret central directives. The teachers' role is a functionary in a bureaucratic education service.

2) Rational interactive. This is found in a mixed system and teachers here have an active role in adapting the curriculum at the school level. They are required to act as course assessors, construct syllabuses, select learning materials, and devise learning systems. (England and Wales before the advent of the National Curriculum could be viewed as such a system.)

3) Intuitive. Here teachers are encouraged to be creative and to make their own decisions. The product is greater diversity between schools and there is likely to be an inconsistency between national policy and individual school programmes.

Campbell (1985) provided a useful summary of the key points of school based curriculum development and he drew upon Eggleston (1980) to do this.
Campbell indicated there are four features of school based curriculum development, and these are:

1) It is particularistic. Curriculum development is focused on diagnosed or perceived needs of specific schools.

2) It is process oriented. The strategies by which the curriculum is developed are important themselves.

3) It is participatory. The appropriate style for developing the curriculum is participatory, staff working together to produce plans for change.

4) It is preliminary. The developed curriculum is seen as experimental, in that it is open to evaluation and appraisal.

Campbell (1985) also indicated how school based curriculum development differed from the Research, Development and Diffusion approach when he stated that it is predicated upon:

...teachers who creatively reconstruct the curriculum within a framework of local and national expectations: it is not predicated on passive acceptance of external definitions of curriculum, or the myth of the 'autonomous' school existing independently of its political and economic context.
(Campbell, 1985, p 34)

Campbell also claimed that school based curriculum development does not have to be opposed to national or regional policy when he stated:

it is framework adaptive - despite a particular focus school based curriculum development need not run counter to national or local curriculum guidelines, on the contrary it may ride on them.
(Campbell, 1985, p 34)

The view of school based curriculum development not having to run counter to national policy is echoed by Skilbeck (1982) when he argued that a major aim of it is for teachers to adapt externally defined curricula into educative experiences unique to the teacher and the learner. He stated:
We need a system for curriculum development that combines the advantages of national curriculum policy making, national centres for the production of materials and research and development, with the flexibility, adaptability and professionally satisfying features of local initiatives.
(Skilbeck, 1982, p 20)

A major aspect of school based curriculum development is that not only do teachers have an active, as opposed to a passive role, but they work together. School based curriculum development is viewed as collaborative. This is indicated as point 3) in Campbell's (1985) summary above and, as he claimed, school based curriculum development assumes acceptance by teachers of a wider role than that restricted to classroom performance, and part of this wider role is to work with other teachers to plan the curriculum. Campbell proposed in his ideas on the collegial primary school that there were two key areas. As he stated:

the collegial primary school, with two values of teacher collaboration and subject expertise.
(Campbell 1985 p 152)

This view is supported by Harlen (1976) in her criticism of School Council Projects where she argued strongly not just for teachers to be involved in curriculum development but that teachers were best placed to act collaboratively in the actual initiation of developments.

Campbell (1985) provided a description of the way the collegial primary school should work. He advocated teachers should work in small groups and then report back recommendations for school wide change to the collectivity of the whole school for decision taking. These working groups should be led and organised by curriculum postholders, Campbell argued, who draw upon expertise from outside school as well as their own professional knowledge, in
order to develop the curriculum as authoritatively as possible. If this description implies the necessity for formal structures the reality need not be so. As Wild (1980) claimed, a characteristic of school based development is that some of the most important discussions occur spontaneously and informally in the staff room and in corridors, and in the homes of teachers working after normal hours.

During the late 1970s small scale collaborative school based curriculum development began to replace many of the large scale national projects such as those run by the Schools Council (Parsons, 1987). Eggleston (1980) claimed that, in fact, by 1980 school based curriculum development was the main form of curriculum innovation after more than a decade of nationally led projects.

In support of school based curriculum development Nias (1989) stated teachers are happiest in a social environment characterised by mutual dependence in which sharing is the norm and individuals do not feel ashamed to admit failure or a sense of inadequacy. As she claimed:

relationships between staff who can and do support each other are characterised by ....... personal accessibility, plenty of opportunity for discussion, laughter, praise and recognition
(Nias, 1989 pp 152-153)

Rosenholtz (1989) claimed, not only, that improvement in teaching is a collective rather than individual enterprise, but that analysis, evaluation and experimentation in concert with colleagues are conditions which help teachers improve. Fullan (1991) indicated that for him the real power for change lay in teacher collaboration and claimed collegiality is a strong indicator of implementation success which is shown in virtually every research study.

The motivation for teachers to be involved in school based curriculum development may not necessarily stem from a particular philosophical
standpoint. As Eggleston (1980) claimed teacher involvement in this form of curriculum development is:

not only from lofty pedagogical principles but also imperative self interest. The urgency of a solution to pressing problems in the classroom or even the quest for personal survival may well lie at the heart of some of the most successful school based curriculum development programmes. (Eggleston 1980 p 10)

School based curriculum development is not without its critics, however. Little (1990) questioned whether in collaborative work there is the creative development of well informed choices, or mutual reinforcement of poorly informed habit. Waters-Adams (1992, 1994) claimed there is often a large gap between the rhetoric and reality of teacher collaboration. He argued that much of what is written is concerned with what should and not what does happen in schools. He claimed that assertions about the desirability and feasibility of collaboration often ignore the nature of individual teachers and the group dynamic established in the process of working together. Waters-Adams also claimed in any particular innovation that this process will not just 'happen'.

The establishment and operation of collaborative curriculum development may not be straightforward or necessarily beneficial. Hargreaves (1989) discussed what he terms 'contrived' collegiality. This is characterised by a set of bureaucratic procedures, such as peer coaching, mentor teaching, joint planning in special rooms and formally scheduled meetings. These, he claimed, can lead to a proliferation of unwanted meetings, using up scarce time. True collaboration cultures, according to Hargreaves are deep, personal and enduring and they are not mounted for specific events or projects. Hayes (1994) distinguished between what he termed a climate of collaboration in which staff are involved and a collaborative culture where staff actively
participate. Hayes argued that it may be possible in the short term for a climate of collaboration to be set up, but a culture usually takes a long time to establish. As he stated:

the development of a (collaborative) culture demands that staff commitment to the process and one another is deeply rooted in the life and work of the school and the consciousness of the individuals. (Hayes 1994 p265)

Huberman (1988) said collegiality is not an end in itself, and intensive collaboration does not automatically translate into observable changes in classroom practice. In fact it may eat into classroom time for work. Flinders (1988) took this view further when arguing that solitude is often necessary for individuals to work to meet obligations. Isolation is a strategy for getting work done as it protects time and energy required for other parts of the job, such as teaching. Even Fullan (1991), as previously stated a strong proponent of teacher collaboration, believed in the benefits of the opportunity for teachers to work alone.

Fullan (1991) argued that school based curriculum development is not necessarily more acceptable to teachers than others forms of curriculum innovation. Teachers not initially involved, Fullan claimed, may in fact experience the change very much as if it had been introduced by a university or government, rather than by other teachers. Marsh and Huberman (1984) also questioned the effectiveness of the process of disseminating a change amongst teachers, claiming that teachers not initially involved will perceive a hierarchy, with themselves at, or near the bottom, and this may hinder the promotion of an innovation.

Fullan (1982) provided criticism of both school based curriculum development and centralised curriculum development. He argued that one of the great
mistakes of those involved in promoting educational change is their assumption that by involving some teachers this would facilitate acceptance by others. Fullan claimed that teachers who are not part of a curriculum innovation may feel excluded, while those involved are likely to be perceived by other teachers as getting special favours or rewards. The issue of rewards for teachers involved and the impacts of the 'Learn to Travel' Project on those not initially involved was investigated in the field research.

Prideaux (1993) argued that a significant problem of small scale local change is that it is piecemeal. As he claimed such development does:

little to change the overall structure of curriculum and to challenge its selection and reproduction of class, gender, racial or other divisions in society.
(Prideaux, 1993, p 174)

Prideaux also claimed that such local innovation in fact contributes to social reproduction, as the alternative curricula deny certain classes or other groups access to mainstream and powerful curriculum programmes. Prideaux, however, insisted that small scale locally based curriculum development has some advantages over other forms of development when stating:

curriculum change at the local level can make programmes more relevant, more enjoyable and more useful for students for whom they are designed.
(Prideaux, 1993, p174)

This review of the theory and practice of curriculum development in the UK, prior to the introduction of the National Curriculum, raises a number of points relevant to the field research. The review indicates that two general types of curriculum development model have been particularly influential in the UK in the period since the 1960s. One model, the Research, Development
and Diffusion approach involved a centralised approach with 'experts' at the centre and 'converts' at the periphery, whilst the other major trend has been school based curriculum development, often led by teachers. The field research involved an investigation of the location of the 'Learn to Travel' Project with regard to these models of curriculum development. The Project provided the opportunity to study the relationship between an external agency (myself as educator from a university) and classroom teachers. This is one aspect of collaboration that was investigated, but also the nature of the relationship between the teachers themselves, when introducing an innovation, was also investigated in an attempt to provide some insights into the reality of teacher collaboration. The process by which the innovation was introduced, therefore, forms an important part of the investigation. The content of the Project, its possible relevance and arguments about its contribution to the primary curriculum also formed a significant part of the field research.

The impact of the innovation on teachers, children, schools and the wider educational community formed a major part of the research. Assessing the impact of an innovation is part of the process of evaluation and a review of material relevant to this aspect of the investigation is provided in the next section.

Evaluation of Curriculum Innovation

This section is concerned with what can be learned from examples of curriculum innovation relevant to the field research. It does not discuss techniques of evaluation, as these are considered in Chapter 3, which is concerned with the methods employed in the field research.
One of the more important issues in relation to the assessment of the effectiveness of curriculum innovation is precisely what to evaluate. An initial response to this concern may be to consider the product of curriculum innovation. Evaluation of the product of innovation has usually taken the form of assessing the take-up or implementation of a project or curriculum development (McCormick and James 1983). The 'success' or 'failure' of an innovation is measured by the number of schools that become involved. Take-up, or implementation, has been used to measure, for example, the effectiveness of Schools' Council Projects (Steadman et al, 1978, 1980).

This 'numbers game' approach to curriculum evaluation has been criticised, however, by Parsons (1987) and Skilbeck (1976a). Parsons (1987) claimed that instead of measuring adoption or take-up rate, it would be more appropriate to assess the effect of an innovation on schools and teachers. Parsons also stated that to make sense of the impact of an innovation it is necessary to understand 'the ecology of schools'. He has borrowed a phrase from Eggleston (1976) here, but Parsons adds to this by claiming it is essential to have an understanding of 'the ecology of school education'. This, Parsons claimed, would need to encompass the culture of the initiating body as well as the school or receiving institution, the relations between them and the relations each has with neighbouring social institutions and social groupings. This introduces the initially less obvious response to the question of what to evaluate - that is the process of curriculum innovation, rather than the product. McCormick and James (1983) argued for the process of innovation to be evaluated when they claimed that of much greater importance than take-up are the behavioural changes of teachers and children brought about by curriculum innovation. Bolam (1982) supported this view when he stated that evaluation should be seen not solely in terms of the event and therefore assessed by the take up, but curriculum development should be viewed, and hence evaluated, as a process.
During the process of curriculum innovation individuals and social systems involved interact over time and are consequently changed by this. It is this process of change that should form the basis for evaluation of curriculum change, Bolam (1982) indicated. Shipman (1974) went as far as to reject the notion of take-up as a useful indicator of the effectiveness of a curriculum innovation, stating that the only legitimate indicator of the success of an innovation is that of professional development, rather than take up of materials.

The importance of assessing the involvement and effects on teachers in the process of curriculum change is referred to by a number of writers. Fullan (1991) attempted to answer the question "What makes change work for teachers?" He provided the following questions as guidance for teachers who are considering embarking on curriculum innovation:

1) Does the change address an important need? Fullan added the following supplementary questions: Will students be interested?, Will students learn? Is there any evidence to suggest the change will produce results?
2) How clear is the change in terms of what teachers will have to do? How will it affect teachers' time and energy?
3) Does the proposed change offer teachers real opportunities to be involved in collaboration?
4) Will other teachers be interested in the change? The interest of other teachers is important as this will help to promote collegiality, Fullan claimed.
5) If the innovation offers leadership roles to teachers, what effects will this have on relationships between teachers, and how will this affect collaboration?
6) Is the proposed change supported by the administration? Fullan claimed the support is necessary as there are time implications for teachers involved and they need time freed up to enable them to participate.
7) Can teachers call on their trade unions or teacher associations to support the change? Fullan stated that this support may be very important to broaden the impact of an innovation from local to regional level.

Fullan (1991) suggested that more change attempts fail than succeed and he indicated this is frequently because the questions above have not been addressed by innovators. Gross et al (1971), when discussing attempted change in an American elementary school, indicated there were five key factors that contribute to failure in curriculum development:

i) lack of clear understanding amongst staff of the innovation,

ii) lack of skills or training opportunities to perform in accordance with the innovation,

iii) lack of willingness or commitment to make the effort to innovate,

iv) lack of resources and materials,

v) incompatibility between certain existing organisational arrangements and the innovation.

Skilbeck (1976b) provided a number of reasons why school based curriculum development can fail. Some of these reasons echo those cited as contributions to failure by Gross et al (1971), particularly where Skilbeck referred to teachers sense of low esteem, their feeling of inadequacy in relation to relevant skills, and lack of interest or conviction of staff in sustaining change processes over a period of time, as major causes of failure of school based projects. Skilbeck indicated, as did Gross et al, that an inadequate allocation of resources, and he meant time and money, can lead to failure. Skilbeck (1976b) provided other important reasons why school based curriculum development can fail, and a number of these, particularly those relating to the role and contribution of teachers, show a similarity to those of Fullan (1991). Skilbeck (1976b) indicated that failure can be due to:
institutional problems, where roles are not clearly defined and organisational structures tend to revert to early forms, pre-the innovation; conflicting priorities on the part of teachers, particularly with regard to pupil assessment and parental pressure; rapid staff turn over; the failure to appreciate subtleties of group interaction when the balance of power in an existing institution is threatened; and the discontinuance of new practices before they have been fully implemented and diffused.

Parsons (1987) detailed evaluation of the 'Geography for the Young School Leaver' (GYSL) Project, taking place over a period of more than a decade, provides particularly significant insights. Parsons, in his conclusions to his study of GYSL, produced a checklist which he claimed would help ensure further curriculum development projects succeed. Parsons stated the checklist needed to be adjusted according to the nature of the change initiative, its timescale, resources, breadth of focus, intensity of innovative challenge, and whether it was nationally, locally or school based. He indicated his checklist was to be seen as guidelines and not rules. Parsons checklist for the success of a curriculum development, shows close links with points made by Fullan (1991), Skilbeck (1976b) and Gross et al (1971). This checklist is summarised, below, under seven main headings:

1) Resources
Teachers need time to go through their own learning process, Parsons claimed. Curriculum change is not a single event and continuity of stimulus, support and legitimation are required for an innovation to be established and values to change. It needs to be recognised that curriculum innovation is relatively marginal for teachers, and that there is already enough in the teacher's day. Therefore time and energy must be made available.
2) A clear plan of action
Parsons stated a phased plan of action is necessary with careful monitoring, support resources, relevant inputs and learning opportunities.

3) Clearly defined roles and a supportive framework
There is a need for leadership and for co-ordination, Parsons argued. The leadership has to arrange the relationship with outside bodies. A climate of sharing and involvement needs to be created and there needs to be a real sharing of the burden in the workplace, particularly when a whole school becomes involved. Support from the head will be required. A collaborative framework needs to be established which recognises the fragility of any innovation, as it is based on isolated teachers and/or isolated schools. Such groups can provide moral and material support and can raise awareness of the need for change. The innovation needs to be legitimised by individuals. Recognising that curriculum innovation is the result of individuals, not institutions is important, and that it operates in gaps in structures and gives scope for exceptional individuals to have major effects on the course of events.

4) Political and social awareness
Recognising the culture operating in schools is vital, claimed Parsons. Consideration must be given to the nature of school situations in terms of, for example, teacher child relationships, assessment needs, teacher commitment and motivations. Being aware of Local Education Authority (LEA) culture is also very important and knowing how the LEA does things is essential. Knowing what support may be offered by the LEA can be very important. The LEA may well provide time, money, a co-ordinator and resources for a curriculum innovation. The LEA may well have an orchestrating role in the innovation. A national project will need regional co-ordination and support at national level.
5) Getting support
A Project team must win legitimation for its offering. This could come from HMI or University staff, Parsons indicated. A certain amount of wheeling and dealing, winning friends and keeping them and proving the authority of the scheme will be necessary. It will be important to be identified with one major educational force which could be an exam board or an industry. This should enhance the prospects of innovation's long term survival. Such a link may be difficult in primary education, however, Parsons believed.

6) Providing incentives and rewards
Parsons stated that giving teachers rewards or incentives is very important. These can be time, resources and materials as well as less tangible rewards like a feeling of kinship with other levels of a discipline or the educational world. It could also mean more chances of promotion and possibilities of publication.

7) Having realistic expectations.
Parsons warned that any worthwhile development must entertain the possibility it will fail. A recognition that there are two main barriers: soundly based inertia in response to change; secondly, a dearth of resources, is vital. Unless the innovation's sponsors can offer support and legitimation in the long term they will have to accept that the innovation will have limited effect, Parsons suggested.

This discussion has indicated that there are two areas in particular, in relation to evaluation of curriculum development, that have been investigated, i.e. either the product of an innovation or the processes involved. Some studies have investigated both processes and product. The field research reported here involved an investigation of both the process of introducing the 'Learn to Travel' Product and also the product in terms of activities.
As has been noted Fullan (1991) indicated that there were a number of key questions that innovators should address and if they were not, this could lead to failure of the innovation. The field research enabled an investigation of a number of Fullan's questions. They were as follows:

Did the change address an important need?
Would students be interested?
Would students learn?
How clear was the change in terms what teachers had to do?
How did it affect teachers time and energy?
Did the change offer teachers real opportunities to be involved in collaboration?
Were other teachers interested in the innovation?

Fullan (1991), Gross et al (1971) and Skilbeck (1976b) presented a number of factors which they claimed may contribute to the failure of an innovation. The field research presented an opportunity to investigate whether these factors were important, contributed to failure or were overcome to enable the innovation to be successful.

Parson's (1987) checklist, based on the GYSL Project, on how to ensure a Project succeeds has particular relevance to the field research. I have summarised Parson's claims above but in relation to the field research the following areas were investigated:

the roles of the teachers and myself as co-ordinator;
the nature of my overall planning strategy for the Project and teachers' individual planning;
the nature and effectiveness of the support I provided;
external support;
teachers awareness of the political context in which the change was being introduced, (particularly the significance of the National Curriculum); the impact of financial and other incentives offered to teachers; and whether or not the innovation had realistic expectations.

This and previous sections have been concerned with studies of curriculum development and evaluation of innovation up to the end of the 1980s. The following section discusses the effects of UK government educational legislation introduced towards the end of the decade of the 1980s.

Curriculum innovation since the Educational Reform Act (ERA) and the introduction of the National Curriculum

Controversy surrounded the introduction of the National Curriculum. A major concern was with the nature of the curriculum. As O'Connor (1987) claimed:

we have a gravely flawed product of amateurs, a hasty shallow simplistic sketch of a curriculum, reductionist in one direction, marginalising in another, paying only a dismissive lip-service to the professional enterprise and initiative on which all progress depends.

(O'Connor, 1987, p34)

Its likely impact on curriculum innovation was also a major concern of those involved in education. Simons (1988) indicated what she thought the National Curriculum would do to curriculum development when she claimed:

there will be no room for curriculum development other than that related to the National Curriculum and only then in schools chosen by the Secretary of State.......'freedom' to experiment is at the whim of the Secretary of State.

(Simons, 1988, p79)
Simons (1988) regarded the National Curriculum as very much the relaunch of a centre-periphery model, but with the added reinforcement of statutory control. She stated that the removal of curriculum control and the ability to decide on curriculum content would leave teachers without the opportunity to teach creatively. She also claimed that if teachers had to work solely to the prescriptions of others and without the support necessary to sustain personal growth, the level of professionalism in the system would decline and with it the quality of education. As she put it the National Curriculum was:

a demoralising demotion of teachers and the virtual extinction of creativity in curricular action.
(Simons, 1988, p 89)

The marginalised position of teachers was also stated by Harland (1988) when claiming that the National Curriculum had been introduced against the views of teachers and they were being reduced to no more than technicians, operating a system that would deliver others' aims and values.

The comments provided above were written as the first reaction to what was in 1987/88 no more than a planned National Curriculum. By late 1995 the National Curriculum was almost fully in place, but only a small number of studies of its impact had been published. A number of published studies of the implementation of the National Curriculum are discussed below in an attempt to draw some relevant insights.

Ball and Bowe (1992) conducted a survey of the implementation of the National Curriculum in secondary schools' subject departments. They argued that the National Curriculum in schools was not so much being 'implemented' and 'reproduced', but 'recreated' and 'produced'. They also
commented that the change in schools brought about by the National Curriculum is best understood in terms of:

> a complex interplay between the history, culture and context of the school and the intentions and producers of policy

(Ball and Bowe, 1992, p113)

Knip and Van der Vegt (1991) made similar claims to Ball and Bowe when they stated that change in the school provoked by an outside stimulus, such as the National Curriculum, requires a process of self-reflection in the school before change can occur. This, by definition, they indicated, will modify the innovation.

Knight et al (1991) stated that they shared the concern of many at the introduction of the National Curriculum. They claimed however that if planning of the National Curriculum lay with the government, responsibility for implementation lay elsewhere. Knight et al went on to argue as the emphasis switches from planning to implementation of the National Curriculum then the initiative moves from centre to the periphery, from politicians to teachers.

In the early 1990s, as frequent articles in the education press as well as the tabloid and broadsheet press demonstrated, there was growing concern about the Standard Assessment Tasks and the use of league tables in relation to school performance. Despite these aspects of what can be termed the 'policing' of the curriculum, within what Bennis et al (1974) would term the 'power-coercive' strategy of the National Curriculum, according to Knight et al this would not prevent school based curriculum development from occurring. In fact, they claimed, it would become inevitable as the statutory orders for subjects have to be interpreted to be implemented. Previous research on
curriculum change indicated, claimed Knight et al, that at least the following factors influence what happens when a curriculum innovation reaches schools:

a) the nature of material circumstances in schools in terms of resources, books, computers classrooms and buildings;
b) special circumstances in schools such as relations between staff;
c) whether innovations are understood, particularly that implementors do not know that they do not understand;
d) that children have views and express them on what and how they want to learn;
e) teachers adopt innovations to ensure smooth running classrooms - to achieve the least resistance; and
f) innovation fatigue takes its toll.

In relation to the implementation of the History National Curriculum at Key Stage 1 and Key Stage 2, the particular focus of their research, Knight et al claimed that:

1) there was a lot of scope for choice,

2) teachers had a lot of room to interpret programmes of study as they wish,

3) the Attainment Targets were imprecise allowing scope for teaching interpretation.

Knight et al provided the following concluding remarks to their research:

What you see is not what you get, implementation will transform the History National Curriculum by the mid 1990s. By then the government will be revising the planned Curriculum ... (and) ... teachers will become more powerful ... (and) ... there should be scope for them to influence it.

(Knight et al, 1991, pp21)
Prideaux (1993) in a study mainly, but not exclusively concerned with Australian schools, claimed there was still a role for teachers in curriculum development in the 1990s:

The role involves not only deconstructing and transforming the curriculum at school level, but also working beyond the school to analyse the locus of control of the curriculum and participate in activities aimed at wider curriculum and educational reform. (Prideaux, 1993, p 174)

The relatively small amount of published research into the impact of the National Curriculum on curriculum innovation in schools, at the time of writing, means it is not possible, as yet, to make significant claims for it limiting or enhancing opportunities. The field research involved in this thesis was an attempt, however, to gather data on curriculum innovation during the introduction of the National Curriculum. The introduction of the National Curriculum provided an opportunity to investigate a number of issues in relation to the curriculum innovation that forms the basis of the field research. This research involved an exploration of a number of issues which can be expressed in terms of the following questions:

Would it still be possible after the introduction of a centralised National Curriculum to introduce, successfully, an innovation at the local school based level?

Would there still be the need and the opportunity for non-government external agencies to work with schools to bring about curriculum change?

Would the subject based nature of the National Curriculum and its underlying philosophy proscribe the introduction of an innovation that appeared not to be subject based?

Would teachers, already suffering from 'innovation overload' as a result of the introduction of the National Curriculum, shun other attempts at innovation from an outside agency?
A discussion of responses to these questions is found in Chapter 4, but the next section of this chapter considers a number of issues in relation to the primary curriculum relevant to the field research.
The Project upon which the research is based was introduced at a particularly significant time in terms of curriculum development. This was a transitional period when a centralised National Curriculum under the statutory control of government was being introduced. A discussion is provided in which conditions both prior to and during the introduction of the National Curriculum are considered. The area having relevance to the field research is the nature of primary practice both before the introduction of the National Curriculum and during its introduction. The particularly significant issues in relation to the field research are the nature of the content of the curriculum, the organisation of the curriculum in schools and the role of the teacher in planning and delivering the curriculum.

Defining the primary curriculum

Who decides what is taught and how it is taught has become a major area of debate since the introduction of the National Curriculum in England and Wales in 1988. It was, however, an area of controversy long before that time. As Blyth (1984) indicated whether societies have centrally planned curricula or school based curricula somebody has to decide what is the appropriate approach to primary education and this is not a straightforward task. Lofthouse (1990) argued, despite the introduction of a national curriculum, there is still no general agreement as to what constitutes an appropriate curriculum for primary schools.

Lofthouse claimed, however, the curriculum is a major means by which children are introduced to the skills, interests, attitudes, concepts and subject
matter that are considered to be important by a society. In relation to the primary curriculum, Schiller (1979) argued the word curriculum has been traditionally linked to a collection of subjects, and 'subjects' have little relevance to young children.

Pollard and Tann (1993) suggested that the word curriculum has a number of different uses and meanings. They discussed four uses of the term curriculum, which are as follows:
the official curriculum;
the hidden curriculum;
the observed curriculum; and
the curriculum-as-experienced.

Pollard and Tann provided explanation and comment on these different uses of the term curriculum. They defined the official curriculum as 'a planned course of study' (p130). Such a curriculum they claimed would involve an explicitly stated programme of learning, which could incorporate a national curriculum. The hidden curriculum, according to Pollard and Tann, is all that is learnt in school that is not part of the official curriculum. The hidden curriculum is implicit within school structures and relates to, for example, the expected behaviour of teachers and learners in different situations. The importance of the hidden curriculum, in terms of messages it can give children about their own self image, has been noted by a number of writers including Hargreaves (1967) Meighan (1981) and Woods (1983). The observed curriculum according to Pollard and Tann is that which can be seen taking place in the classroom. This view is echoed by Marsh (1973) when claiming that the essence of education is the practical activity of the classroom. Pollard and Tann stated that the observed curriculum may be at variance to the official curriculum and that the observed curriculum is not the same as that
Pollard and Tann argued that this curriculum-as-experienced, is the part that connects meaningfully with the children and may be the only aspect that has any impact on them. In relation to this fourfold classification of the curriculum although Pollard and Tann acknowledged different meanings they indicated that these aspects of the curriculum are not mutually exclusive.

This curriculum framework developed by Pollard and Tann was influential in the analysis of the processes and products of the 'Learn to Travel' Project. The field research investigated specifically the intended curriculum content of the Project activities designed by teachers, the observed curriculum, in terms of what occurred during the actual teaching of Project activities and the curriculum-as-experienced in terms of the response of children, both in sessions, and by questioning them on other occasions.

The primary curriculum before the introduction of the National Curriculum
Pollard and Tann suggested that those involved in planning the curriculum in the primary school over the past thirty years have had two major alternatives: a focus on separate subjects, or planning ways of integrating between subjects.

The subject-based curriculum is a collection of separate subjects (Bernstein, 1971) and the philosophical rationale for the subject-based curriculum is that each subject has a logical structure of knowledge that is unique to that subject (Hirst and Peters, 1970). According to this view forms of knowledge are believed to be distinguishable, philosophically, by the different ways of thinking and evidence used in investigating them (Hirst, 1965, Peters, 1966). These ways of distinguishing subjects are based on what are thought to be logical and inherent differences between forms of knowledge. Such a view is
usually referred to as 'rationalist' (Blenkin and Kelly, 1981) and this rationalist point of view is often advanced to legitimate curriculum subjects (Pollard and Tann, 1993).

Blyth (1965) claimed that the subject approach, based on the preparatory school tradition was influential in the UK until the mid 1960's and recently Lawlor (1988) argued that only this subject-based approach would deliver competencies in basic subjects. Some support for Lawlor's claim appeared in the so called 'Three Wise Men' report (Alexander et al, 1992) which argued that subjects are some of the most powerful tools for making sense of the world. Over the past thirty years or so the subject-based approach has found most favour with those who have become known as 'traditionalists', partly as a result of the high status attached to curriculum subjects in classical education, public schools and the old grammar schools (Pollard and Tann, 1993). Some of those supporting this rationalist approach to the curriculum would also acknowledge that they believe in an 'elitist' curriculum (Lawton, 1989). Here certain knowledge is regarded as more important, and access to this knowledge is controlled by powerful social groups.

Despite Blyth's assertion that a subject based approach predominated in English primary schools until the mid 1960s, there is a long history of non-subject based approaches to the primary curriculum in England. More than half a century ago the Hadow Report (Ministry of Education, 1931) argued that the curriculum should be thought of in terms of 'activity and experience, rather than knowledge to be acquired' (p93). The Plowden Report (CACE,1967) also put stress on first hand experience in learning and advocated children being involved in individual discovery and finding opportunities for creative work. The Plowden Report also argued for a more integrated and child-centred approach to primary education claiming that 'knowledge does not fall
into separate compartments' (p187). The Plowden Report became so influential that it has been claimed by Pollard and Tann (1993) that the resulting 'topic work' it advocated became a distinctive feature of primary school ideology from the late 1960s onward. Eggleston and Kerry (1985) provided further support for this view when they indicated that as much as fifty percent of the time in primary schools, during the 1970s and 1980s, was devoted to topic teaching.

Topic work has, however, been difficult to define. As Antonouris and Wilson (1989) stated:

> it seems strange ......in the light of the extent to which topic work must occupy primary teachers that it continues to be so amorphous a curriculum animal about whose cover, content, learning intentions and evaluation there is so little agreement.

Eggleston and Kerry (1985) however referred to the distinctive feature of topic work as being its integrated approach. Tann (1988) also stressed that topic work could involve an integrated approach, but it could also be subject based. Tann claimed that topic work should be seen more as a process of learning and teaching, which draws on children's concerns and actively involves them. The research of Kerry and Eggleston (1988) also indicated that topic work was frequently interdisciplinary and thematic. As they stated:

> Topic work includes all those areas of the curriculum....which are explored in a thematic way. Topics may be (predominantly) scientific, mathematical, or in the field of humanities, or they may be multi-disciplinary.

(Kerry and Eggleston 1988 p18)

In defending the topic approach and claiming that subject boundaries are artificial Pring (1976) argued that new areas of knowledge have emerged in the post-war world which do not fit neatly within subject boundaries. Pollard and
Tann cited two examples of such areas of knowledge: health education and environmental studies. They argued that health education draws on social, moral and economic areas as well as scientific themes and hence cannot be pigeon-holed within a subject area. A number of Schools Councils Projects, in both primary and secondary education, of the 1970s and early 1980s argued strongly for and pursued an integrated approach (Parsons, 1987). During the 1970s those who supported the Plowden Report and believed in a more integrated, child-centred experiential approach to education were frequently referred to as 'progressives'.

In the late 1970s Lawson (1979) claimed that in the 'progressive' versus 'traditionalist' debate the reality of the situation was that most schools fitted neither the 'progressive' nor 'traditional' view, completely or exclusively. This view was supported by Campbell (1993) who provided the following statement on the rhetoric and reality of the Plowden era of education, when he claimed:

Plowdenesque progressivism flowered largely in rhetoric, with progressive practice, however defined, being a minority taste amongst the teachers.
(Campbell, 1993, p 87)

Lawson used the term 'loosening the braces' (p25) to describe the process of schools, from the late 1960s, moving away from the traditional subject based curriculum to a more child-centred approach to learning, in which children's experience was used as the basis of much work. Lawson claimed that one product of the weakening of subject boundaries was the increase in topic work. He also noted that the integrated child-centred approach not only involved a different approach to knowledge but also involved a change of role for the teacher. As he stated:
The traditional subject-based curriculum laid down clear lines about what could count as school knowledge. Newer approaches make less clear what can count as valid knowledge and have changed the teacher's role from keeper of the keys to guide through the minefield of the curriculum.
(Lawson, 1979, p26)

Lawson concluded, however, that each approach had its strengths and he looked for some way of combining the two approaches.

The detailed research conducted by Alexander (1984) supported the view of Lawson in that the reality for most primary schools in England in the 1960s and 1970s was that both approaches to teaching were being employed. Alexander stated that the 'basics', i.e. mathematics, reading and writing, were being taught in a relatively discrete manner and almost as separate subjects. The rest of the primary curriculum was taught, Alexander claimed, in a more integrated way. The detailed ORACLE study, reported on by Galton et al (1980), found only limited evidence for so called progressive practices in the primary classroom and demonstrated that it was not possible to readily classify teaching methods simply into the categories 'progressive' or 'traditional'.

In a more recent study Alexander also emphasised the reality of primary practice, in the late 1980s and early 1990s where he reported that so called 'traditional' and 'progressive' teaching methods were used in the same school, and even by the same teacher (Alexander, 1992). Alexander stated that this pragmatism of teachers, using 'what works', is at odds with the rhetoric on progressive and traditional teaching methods. Pollard and Tann (1993) made a similar claim to Alexander when they indicated that although primary practice has been shaped by two differing approaches to curriculum planning, it has drawn on both as teachers' professional judgement has been employed.
The role of primary teachers, referred to in the quotation from Lawson above, has been particularly significant in terms of how the primary curriculum has been taught (Pollard and Tann, 1993). Two particular trends can be discerned by the late 1960s and early 1970s. It was regarded as important that teachers had the appropriate skills to operate in the classroom, but also possessed sufficient academic knowledge in relation to the curriculum they were to deliver (Pollard and Tann, 1993). Hence the 1960s and 1970s saw attempts to improve the practical abilities of teachers (Campbell, 1985), and by the early 1970s there were moves to create an all graduate profession (Pollard et al, 1994).

By the late 1970s it was becoming apparent that not only did the academic discipline approach have shortcomings, but also the solely skills-based approach deprived teachers of the status of fully qualified professionals. Alexander (1984) identified a compromise position in which teachers could reconcile the tension between professional insight gained from academic study and acquiring the necessary skills needed to work competently in the classroom. This approach, which was based, at least in part, on Stenhouse's (1975) concept of 'teacher as researcher', involved teachers theorising on past experience and bringing to this knowledge and understanding gained from subject studies as well as knowledge and understanding of classroom skills, and has been termed 'reflective teaching' (Pollard and Tann, 1987).

The way in which teachers combine their academic knowledge and skills can be seen in the way they actually plan and teach. Taylor (1970) claimed that planning a course of study for pupils is central to the whole educational process as it:
defines, directs and co-ordinates what the pupil is intended to learn, gives direction and purpose to teaching, provides it with justification and gives it order and coherence.

Antonouris and Wilson (1989) echoed this view when they argued that planning should be rigorous in an attempt to create a systematic curriculum. To achieve consensus Antonouris and Wilson argued there are three basic premises on which topic planning should be based: agreement on the important ideas that pupils should understand; agreement on the tasks/activities that will encourage the development of certain intellectual skills such as problem solving; an indication of ways in which topic work can promote appropriate attitudes and other aspects of affective development.

Kerry and Eggleston (1988) indicated that when primary teachers plan to teach a topic they tend to adopt one of two main approaches; there are those who emphasise the content and knowledge of information, and they indicate this is the majority of teachers, and those who emphasise conceptual learning. They argued that the approach adopted can reveal the teachers' underlying rationale, their philosophy and their particular emphases. Dalton (1988) also indicated that there was a close link between a teachers' educational philosophy and their method of planning and teaching. As he stated:

A teacher's view of knowledge influences his theories of curriculum planning in terms of aims, objectives and outcomes, the style of learning and teaching, choice of resources and approach to evaluation.
(Dalton 1988 p132-133)

Field research into the 'Learn to Travel' Project provided an opportunity to investigate a number of the issues discussed above. First, it was possible to study the approaches teachers adopted to this innovation, and in particular whether they used 'topic' or 'subject' based approaches in their planning.
Second, the Project provided an opportunity to study the particular teaching methods employed and third it also provided a chance to investigate how teachers saw their role in relation to the debate about skills and academic knowledge.

As the National Curriculum was being introduced at the time of the field research and it was believed it would lead to a transformation in the role of the primary teacher its impact formed an important part of the research. A review of the nature of the National Curriculum and its potential impact on the primary curriculum, primary practice and the role of the teacher is therefore provided below.

The National Curriculum and Primary Practice

Since 1988 teachers have had to plan and teach within an externally designed and legally imposed framework (Lawton, 1989). The National Curriculum unlike previous curriculum statements in England specified the content of the curriculum as well as forms of assessment. The aims of the National Curriculum according to the Education Reform Act (ERA) 1988 were that the curriculum should be balanced and broadly based, promote moral, spiritual, cultural, mental and physical development of pupils and prepare pupils for opportunities, responsibilities and experiences of adult life (Chitty, 1993).

Pollard and Tann (1993) claimed the National Curriculum drew particularly on the rationalist view of knowledge. Ball (1990), Lawton (1989) and Whitty (1992), amongst a number of others, argued that the National Curriculum also drew heavily on the elitist view of education. There are however important differences between the National Curriculum and these earlier rationalist and elitist views of education. The National Curriculum prioritised certain subject areas, not previously considered to be that important, these being Science and
Technology, as well as the basics of English and Maths. The National Curriculum also compartmentalised subjects, especially in the Humanities area, where there had been a long history of integration, to a much greater extent than some rationalist educators would have argued as desirable (Pollard and Tann, 1993).

That the National Curriculum was conceived of in terms of subjects has been a major concern of many primary teachers. The work of Muschamp et al (1992) and Bennett et al (1992) suggested that primary teachers were ill equipped, in terms of their own subject knowledge to deliver several National Curriculum subjects, particularly Science. Wragg (1993) indicated that the confidence of teachers to teach National Curriculum subjects fell between 1989 and 1991, the exception to this being, in fact, Science, where confidence grew slightly. Concern was also expressed about the sheer volume of work required in the National Curriculum. Simons (1988), for example, believed that primary teachers would find it very difficult to deliver all the subject areas. Campbell (1993) supported this view when he argued the primary curriculum was grossly over-loaded with subject material. Pollard and Tann went as far as to claim the greatest challenge for the primary school (in England) of the introduction of the National Curriculum was:

> in the use of subjects as the basic planning tool. In the late 1980s this was seen as an attempt to impose an inappropriate secondary school form of curriculum planning...  
(Pollard and Tann, 1993, p 140)

Despite concerns about the likely impacts of this subject based approach, a report (DES, 1989d) on the implementation of the early stages of the National Curriculum indicated that a topic based approach still predominated. Confirmation that the topic approach was still significant at later stages came with a number of OFSTED reports published in 1992 and 1993. The report on
Geography (OFSTED 1993), for example, indicated that in over three quarters of lessons Geography was included in a broader topic involving other subject areas.

Nias et al (1992) argued that one impact of the National Curriculum would be an even greater need for whole school curriculum planning. Pollard and Tann, in supporting this view claimed there were those who argued the use of subjects would lead to a lack of meaning and coherence in the primary curriculum as an experienced whole and that the National Curriculum Council had great difficulty in providing detailed guidance on the curriculum as a whole.

Prior to the introduction of the National Curriculum Nias (1989) claimed that a distinctive feature of the English primary school teacher's professionalism was the emphasis placed on the development of personal fulfilment and self identity. Teaching was seen as having a number of rewards, other than financial, and teachers had a high degree of self motivation and commitment to the job. Simons (1988) argued that teacher autonomy and commitment would be eroded by the imposition of the National Curriculum. A number of other researchers, including Poppleton and Riseborough, (1990) and Broadfoot and Osborn (1993) also believed that through the imposition of new aims, structures and practices teachers were likely to feel alienated from their work and hence their self motivation and commitment would wane.

As teachers' autonomy declines as a result of the introduction of the National Curriculum, it has been suggested, teachers are more likely to become 'restricted' professionals (Pollard et al, 1994, Broadfoot and Osborn 1993). In this view teachers would focus more narrowly on immediate responsibilities and classroom concerns, and would be less likely to be involved with
educational issues, structures and practices beyond the classroom. Broadfoot and Osborn argued that this does not necessarily mean they will be any less committed to the children and education in general but they may adapt their role as teachers. A number of authors (Lawton 1989, Chitty, 1989, Shorrocks et al 1992) argued that the introduction of the National Curriculum could have the effect of turning teachers more into technicians, whose job it is to merely deliver the curriculum, rather than committed, engaged, well motivated, and in Hoyle's (1980) meaning, 'extended' professionals.

Such criticism of the National Curriculum clearly implies that conditions were better in the past. Campbell (1993) discussed what he terms the tendency of educationists to hark back to a 'golden age' of primary education. He referred to this in connection with the introduction of the National Curriculum and those educationists who refer to the golden age see the National Curriculum as destroying this golden age. Campbell stated the image of a golden age was derived from the Plowden Report. Campbell described the 'Plowden World' as:

a world of emotional security and well-being for pupils, combined with a range of artistic and cultural activity, apparently unrestrained by time, or the pupils age, or intellectual shortcomings among staff or pupils.
(Campbell, 1993, p86)

Campbell claimed this view of primary practice is a fiction. Campbell cited evidence from government surveys and independent researchers, (including DES, 1978; DES, 1982; DES, 1985; Alexander, 1984; and 1992; Galton and Simon, 1980; Bennett, 1976; and Barker-Lunn, 1982 and 1984) to reveal that there was no such golden age. Campbell claimed the curriculum of the 1970s and 1980s was far from golden, being very narrow, emphasising particularly literacy and numeracy, with work in Science patchy and standards in Social Studies/Humanities lower than might be expected. Campbell also claimed
that continuity and progression in curriculum experience were elusive, assessment and record-keeping rarely systematic and pedagogy most often characterised by an undifferentiated focus on the middle levels of attainment in a class, with little concern for the more and less able.

Despite Campbell's claims the feeling amongst many educationists and primary teachers in the early 1990s, was that, at least, the first few years of the introduction of the National Curriculum were likely to cause more problems than they solved. Pollard and Tann, however, saw some light at the end of the tunnel when they claimed:

The official curriculum of a country is a very different thing from the hidden curriculum, the observed curriculum and the curriculum as experienced. There is enormous scope for dilution, diversion, creativity, adaption, extension at every level of an education system. (Pollard and Tann, 1993, p 151)

The impact of the National Curriculum in the 'Learn to Travel' Project formed an important part of the field research. In particular the role of the teacher in the Project set against the backdrop of the introduction of the National Curriculum was important with the nature of teachers' plans, the curriculum content of classroom activities and the pedagogy adopted being significant areas investigated.
CHAPTER 2 REVIEW

Section 3 The Nature of Travel and Tourism and Tourism Studies

The nature of travel and tourism

A large number of definitions of tourism can be found in the rapidly increasing literature on the subject. According to Lizaso-Urrutia (1993) this reflects the abstract nature of the concept of tourism. Cater (1994) indicated why there are so many interpretations when she stated:

No other form of economic activity transects so many sectors, levels and interests.
(Cater 1994 p3)

Cater also claimed that reaching a consensus concerning a definition of tourism and the criteria used to achieve a definition are difficult tasks. Ryan (1991) stated that definitions of tourism are related to the variety of approaches that can be adopted. As he indicated there are at least four such approaches, the economic, technical, holistic and experiential. In terms of the economic approach Ryan referred to tourism is viewed as an industry. The technical approach, he claimed, is related to the need to collect data and compile statistics. The experiential approach relates to the motivation of tourists, according to Ryan, while a holistic approach links motivation with the process and effects of being a tourist, which extends the definition beyond the merely technical.

Burns and Holden (1995) indicated that despite the lack of agreement, there are generally three accepted aspects to defining tourism. Their first aspect, which is similar to one presented by Ryan, relates to motivation or the purpose of the visit. The second aspect relates to time and here they indicate most definitions attempt to distinguish between day trips and those visits involving at least an overnight stay. The third aspect, Burns and Holden indicated, combines
motivation and travel. This enables the creation of categories, some of which count as tourism, such as a two a week package holiday, and others which do not, such as migration.

In relation to the motivational aspects of tourism Burns and Holden indicated there are 'push' and 'pull' factors and argued that pull factors include attractions, accommodation and tourist facilities while the push factors are related to psychological, social and economic determinants. Krippendorf (1987) also stressed the importance of motivation within definitions of tourism. As he claimed:

Everyday life is only bearable, in the long run, if there is a chance to get away; otherwise people lose their balance....free time...and travel...are the vehicle for man's restoration - his recreation; they heal body and soul and bring vitality and new meaning to life.
(Krippendorf, 1987 p16)

Mill and Morrison (1985) also emphasised motivational factors in their definition, but also stressed the essential prerequisite of travel. They, like several other authors, indicated the problems of achieving a straightforward definition. As they claimed:

All tourism involves travel, yet all travel is not tourism. All tourism involves recreation, yet all recreation is not tourism. All tourism occurs during leisure time, but not all leisure time is given to touristic pursuits.
(Mill and Morrison, 1985 p. xvii)

Mill and Morrison also indicated tourism should be viewed both as a process and a product. The idea of tourism as a product stems from attempts to include reference to industry within definitions. For a number of authors (for example Burkart and Medlik, 1975; Jafari, 1977; and Mill and Morrison, 1985) tourism as an industry is a key component in any definition.
Several tourism authors have, in fact, commented on the sheer size of tourism as an industry (see for example Mill and Morrison 1985, Cooper et al 1993, Poon, 1993). Figures from the World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC, 1994), a pro-tourism and industry sponsored organisation, indicated that tourism was the world's largest industry, the world's largest employer and creator of jobs, accounted for one in nine jobs globally, represented ten percent of global wages and was responsible for ten percent of global Gross Domestic Product. Burns and Holden (1995) argued that it is difficult to see how the WTTC claims can be backed up, as they indicated it depends partly on definitions of tourism and tourism jobs. They did state however that the figures indicate:

the sheer scale of tourism as a phenomenon, the huge range of economic, social and political actions that can affect it, and the effect it can have on the external socio-political environment.
(Burns and Holden, 1995 p4)

Burns and Holden argued that if tourism is viewed as an industry it, or its product, can be regarded as a traded commodity. As they claimed:

This enables us to recognise that what started as pilgrimage, as education for an elite, or amusement for the masses has been transformed into a global consumer product in much the same way as Pepsi Cola, Benetton or McDonalds.
(Burns and Holden, 1995, p9)

Poon (1993) discussed the scale of modern tourism when attempting to define and critique mass tourism. He defined this as:

a phenomenon of large scale packaging of standardised leisure services at fixed prices for sale to a mass clientele.
(Poon, 1993, p32)

Poon stated there were four characteristics that determined mass tourism which were that it is standardised, has inflexible packaging, involves mass replication or production and involves mass marketing. Krippendorf (1987) indicated that mass tourism has been a phenomenon of western society for at
least the past thirty years and has been the result of more leisure time, greater disposable income and great improvements in transport technology, particularly in relation to aircraft and cars.

The scale of modern mass tourism has also contributed to another important factor found in most attempts to define the activity. This factor is tourism's impacts. Matthieson and Wall (1982) stressed the importance of impacts in their conceptual framework of tourism which has three elements: the static, the dynamic and the consequential. Matthieson and Wall's 'consequential element' is subdivided under the headings economic, social and environmental impacts. Studies conducted in the early 1970s tended to argue for the beneficial economic impacts, such as contribution to local economies and job creation, and generally ignored or played down the negative economic, environmental and social consequences (Turner and Ash, 1976, de Kadt, 1979). By the late 1970s a number of negative environmental effects, such as water and air pollution, overcrowding, traffic congestion, damage to wildlife and unsightly developments were being attributed to tourism (Pearce, 1989a, Eber, 1992). Negative social effects such as the decline in traditional values, the deskilling of resident population and the growth of crime, drug taking and prostitution were also reported at this time (O'Grady, 1980, Hong, 1985, Krippendorf, 1987).

Buck (1978) saw a possible way of reconciling the views of those who believed tourism's impacts were mainly beneficial and those who saw it as predominantly a negative force. He argued that there was a continuum between tourism as business and tourism as impact. Buck claimed that those at opposite ends of this continuum often find themselves in supposedly hostile groupings, 'the business camp' and the 'impacts-externalities camp'.

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Buck hoped that these two camps could be brought closer together by a concern with the issues relating to tourism's effects.

Jafari (1977) recognised the importance of tourism's impacts in his definition of tourism which also includes a number of previously discussed approaches. He argued tourism is:

a study of man away from his usual habitat, of the industry that responds to his needs, and the impacts that both he and the industry have on the host socio-cultural, economic and physical environments.
(Jafari, 1977, p8)

In the more recent past there have been attempts to set tourism in a wider context of development. One of the first authors to link tourism with development in a Third World setting was Krapf (1961). He posed a number of questions about tourism and development, including one concerned with the role of tourism in general development and concluded that it had a special role in developing countries in terms of its economic impacts. Pearce (1989a) argued however that few authors made explicit links between tourism and development until fairly recently. Pearce indicated that it is possible to see tourism development as meaning both a process and state. As he claimed:

Tourist development might be narrowly defined as the provision and enhancement of facilities and services to meet the needs of tourists ...(but it)... might also be seen as a means of development, in a much broader sense the path to achieve some end state or condition.
(Pearce, 1989a p15)

In relation to his broader meaning of tourism development Pearce indicated that its impacts were of particular interest. Lea (1988) also suggested that impacts of tourism were an important focus of study within research into tourism development in developing countries. He also claimed that while studies of tourism up to the early 1970s tended to promote the notion that tourism brought positive benefits in terms of Third World development,
subsequent approaches have taken a much more negative view and a much more critical stance has been adopted.

Burns and Holden (1995) also established important links between tourism and development and argued that tourism should be seen as just one part of a global economic system. They discussed the 'world systems' approach of Wallerstein (1979) and claimed that his analysis of the current global condition, with its unequal links, is a key factor in conceptualising modern tourism. They cited examples of the activities of airlines and hotel chains to indicate the global reach of such companies, and argued it is not possible to fully understand tourism unless it is set in a global framework of 'North-South' relationships.

A relatively recent reaction against mass tourism can be seen in the growth of various forms of alternative tourism, such as ecotourism. Both Cater (1994) and Mowforth (1993) indicated there is no agreed definition of this form of tourism. The following questions posed by Cater give an indication, however, of the origin and nature of ecotourism:

Is it a form of 'alternative tourism' (furthermore, what is alternative tourism)? Is it responsible (defined in terms of environmental, socio-cultural, moral or practical terms)? Is it sustainable (however defined)?
(Cater, 1994, p3)

Valentine (1992) and Butler (1992) argued ecotourism is an alternative to mass tourism. While Mowforth (1993) and Steele (1993) claimed that it must be nature-based to be termed ecotourism. The development of ecotourism has occurred partly in response to growing awareness that tourism is a resource-based industry and there has been overconsumption of environmental resources by mass tourism (McKercher, 1993, Hall, 1994). But as Cater (1994) and Butler (1992) argued all forms of tourism (including ecotourism) consume
limited resources, such as aircraft fuel and have some impact on the
destination environment. Wheeler (1992) went as far as to claim that
ecotourism should be termed 'ego-tourism', as he claimed ecotourism
holidays, reflected in their marketing, appeal to middle class 'alternative'
tourists who wants to feel their holiday is helping to 'save the planet', when
the reality, he claimed, may well be the opposite.

There have been other reactions against mass tourism. Urry (1990), for
eexample, argued that what he terms 'the tourist gaze', which is partly a result
of packaging and marketing by the tourist industry, has been responsible for
the commercialisation of the host community and environment, their
commoditisation and consumption. This has led to a desire to find
alternative tourist experiences, Urry claimed. McCannell (1976, 1992) and
Smith (1989) also discussed alternative forms of tourism and indicated these
are related to the middle class search for authenticity. When tourism is
packaged, they argued, there is little scope for meaningful contact between
visitors and hosts. Both McCannell and Smith, however, were critical of the
consequences of the search for an authentic experience. McCannell (1992) was
concerned about the relationship between hosts and guests in the tourism
experience. He argued that western tourists in a Third World destinations are
not just there to visit a unique culture, but they obtain reassurance of their
own economic and cultural superiority when they gaze upon the half clad
'primitives'. Smith (1989) indicated that the demands of the industry and the
tourists themselves, even alternative tourists, has led to the creation of
'pseudo-culture' in which aspects of host cultures are packaged and served up
to be consumed by tourists.

Both ecotourism and tourism providing a more authentic cultural experience
are usually referred to as attempts at sustainable tourism. As with other forms
of tourism there is no agreed definition, but Eber (1992) has indicated sustainable tourism will require that resources are not overconsumed, that natural and human environments are protected, that it is integrated with other activities, that local people are involved and that it benefits local communities. Sustainable tourism is the current 'buzzword' of tourism researchers, writers and those involved in marketing tourism, but as Bramwell and Lane (1993) indicated it had its origin in the Alpine lands during the late 1970s. As Bramwell and Lane claimed sustainable tourism is not anti-tourism, but in its acknowledgement of the limits to growth:

is a positive approach intended to reduce the tensions and friction created by the complex interactions between the tourism industry, visitors, the environment and the communities which are host to holiday makers...(and)...which involves working for the long term viability and quality of both natural and human resources. (Bramwell and Lane, 1993, p2)

Tourism studies

Cooper et al (1993) indicated much of tourism activity is a relatively recent development. They claimed that international mass tourism is at best only a quarter of a century old and only recently has it been considered worthy of academic study. Cooper et al claimed that as the study of tourism is relatively new it tends to lack a theoretical underpinning. This they argued tends to count against tourism being recognised as a separate discipline. Buck (1978) also indicated the need to create theory in tourism when he stated:

there is a need to bring about a balance of factual and theoretical studies, to develop broad based theories which help explain the whole phenomenon... (and hence)... work on the subject will become more scientific. (Buck, 1978 p111)

Cooper et al argued that the youthfulness of tourism studies has created a number of problems. They discussed three particular problems which can be
summarised as follows: the lack of an agreed definition causing conceptual weakness and fuzziness, and a lack of focus and rigour; that tourism covers a number of different and diverse industrial sectors and academic disciplines which causes problems for those involved in its study; and that tourism data sources are particularly weak.

These problems however have not prevented tourism growing rapidly as a field of study at higher education level, with an increasing number of textbooks, journals and professional societies (Cooper et al, 1993). Tourism, by the early 1990s, was an important area of study in higher education with a number of undergraduate courses within subjects such as Geography, Economics, Business Studies, Anthropology and Sociology (Ryan, 1991, Bramwell and Lane, 1993). Post graduate courses in tourism, with a particular concern with management of travel and tourism, have also been developed. Students in secondary schools in the UK had also been confronted with tourism issues in such courses as the '16-19 Geography Project' of the London Examining Board (Naish et al 1987) and GCSE courses in Geography during the 1980s also had significant sections devoted to the study of tourism.

Up to the end of the 1980s very little had been taught about tourism in UK primary schools, although topics such as 'Journeys', 'Holidays', and 'On the Move' were common in many (Welsh Curriculum Council, 1991, Catling, 1988). Despite a tourist dimension to these topics discussion of the nature of tourism, as an economic activity and social phenomenon as well as its social, economic and environmental effects, was very limited in primary schools (Richards, 1988). At least two factors emerging in the late 1980s were contributing to a change in this situation. First, there was a growing concern, in the UK, that primary children should study industry (Smith, 1988). Blyth (1984) supported this intention when claiming that children be exposed to
'education through industry', meaning the acquisition of social and intellectual skills relevant to the 'work' environment. The introduction of the National Curriculum provided a second stimulus for teaching and learning about travel and tourism. There was specific reference to study of tourism as an economic activity and its effects both in the original Proposals for Geography 5-16 (DES, 1990) and in Geography in the National Curriculum (DES, 1991a). These documents stated that children in the junior years of primary schools were required to study leisure and tourism activities as part of the leisure and recreation industry. There was also reference to the impacts of tourism on the environment in both of these documents.

The 'Learn to Travel' Project enabled an investigation of the possible contribution the study of tourism could make to the primary curriculum. It also allowed an investigation of the opportunities and constraints for tourism studies created by the National Curriculum. Further discussion of tourism and the primary curriculum is to be found in Section Three of Chapter Four, but the next chapter discusses the methodology employed in the action research project.
CHAPTER 3 METHODS

This chapter discusses the research methods involved in the field research. It provides an overview of the various techniques employed and gives the rationale for the choice of the particular methods employed. A brief chronology of the use of techniques is provided. A more detailed rationale and discussion of the use of the techniques employed is given in each of the relevant sections of the Chapter Four. Initially the chapter discusses the nature of case study research. The subsequent section considers the rationale for and nature of action research relevant to the field research. The final section of the chapter discusses briefly the particular techniques used in the action research.

Case Study Research

My field research was a case study of educational change at the local level at a time of major national curriculum development. Golby (1993) attempted to define case study research and indicated:

(case study research) ... can be viewed as a concrete and practical enquiry in a real life context with important practical results.
(Golby, 1993, p3)

Yin's (1989) views were similar to those of Golby when claiming a case study is an investigation of phenomena in a real life context. Yin also gave an indication of the conditions under which a case study approach is appropriate, as well as some idea of the process involved when claiming:

(a case study ) ... investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real life context; when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident; and in which multiple sources of evidence are used.
(Yin 1989, p23)

Adelman et al (1977) indicated that case studies have a number advantages which make them particularly attractive to education evaluators. These
advantages provide a useful insight into the nature of a case studies and they are set out below as they relate closely to my own field research. Adelman et al claimed that case studies:

1) are strong in reality, being down to earth and attention holding and provide a natural basis for generalisations;

2) allow generalisations either about instances or from an instance to a class;

3) recognise the complexity and embeddedness of social truths and can therefore represent something of the discrepancies or conflicts between viewpoints held by participants;

4) as products can provide descriptive material sufficiently rich to admit further reinterpretation, in that data can be used again by other researchers with a different viewpoint;

5) are a step to action in that they begin in the world of action and contribute to it and insights can be used by staff for individual self development or within the institutions, for formative evaluation and in policy making;

6) are educational research in a more publicly accessible form than other kinds of research.

Reid and Walker (1975) produced similar views to Adelman et al on the advantages of case studies in terms of their reality and ability to provide generalisations from an instance. They also shared their belief that the strength of a case study approach is in the attention to the subtle complexity of the case study in its own right.

Golby (1993) discussed a number of characteristics of what he terms a good case study. He indicated that case studies have the advantage of bringing together theory and practice in educational research and suggested one of the important advantages of case studies is that they can inform beyond the confines of the particular case being studied and in this way help develop theory. For Golby
ingredients of a good case study include: a significant focus; a sense of completeness, but at the same time allowing for more enquiry; and the whole study must have the 'ring of truth' (p29). In a good case study Golby also claimed evidence must be well marshalled, and a number of different perspectives on the evidence, including the author's, evaluated.

Golby stated that in many case studies the researcher is a part of the study and not detached from it and Nisbet and Watt (1982) echo this view when they argued that 'case study' is particularly suited to the individual researcher. Nisbet and Watt argued, however, that this involvement can put the researcher in a difficult position. Golby also saw the role of researcher in case study work as problematic. As he stated:

There is a delicate balance to be achieved between case study as a personal crusade and as a neutral form of enquiry. An open-minded yet purposeful approach is recommended and is found in successful case studies.
(Golby, 1993, p29)

Golby also discussed what he claimed were weaknesses in case studies. He claimed that case studies can pursue uniqueness rather than particularity and if this occurs he states they will have little claim to more generalised importance. Nisbet and Watt also discussed potential weaknesses of case studies and claimed that case study results are not always easily generalisable. The application of a statement based on the findings from one case study to other situations, according to Nisbet and Watt, is frequently the result of intuitive judgement. In making this judgement the researcher has to be selective, but the process of selectivity is not always open to the checks that can be applied to large scale surveys, they claimed. Golby also suggested that intuitive judgements are important, but if these intuitive judgements are being made then it is vital that the researcher identifies his or her interests
and values. He claimed that defective case studies fail to indicate the researcher's position, and he indicated it is not wise to try to minimise observer effect but better to take it fully into account.

A further criticism, Golby suggested, is that a case study can produce too much data, some of which does not provide a contribution to theory and that the data and evidence are not clearly separated from the case narrative. Adelman et al also support this view of the problems associated with large amounts of data. In addition they claimed trying to organise and present in a meaningful way is another problem of the large amount of data generated by a case study.

In terms of the process of conducting case study research Adelman et al claimed that the term case study refers to a number of research methods. As they stated:

> case study is an umbrella term for a family of research methods having in common the decision to focus an inquiry round an instance.  
> (Adelman et al, 1977, p 139)

Golby (1993) indicated, however, that case study is not a name of a method of educational research. As he claimed:

> Case study refers only to the determination to relate a single phenomenon to the collective understanding by means of systematic study. All methods are in principle admissible in a case study.  
> (Golby, 1993, p10)

If there is no agreement upon whether or not case study is the name of a particular method of educational research, there is general understanding that the approach involves the use of a number of techniques. Nisbet and Watt suggested that a range of techniques can be used in case study research and
these include observation, interviews, examining documents and records of pupils' work. Golby also stressed the importance of these same techniques in case study research. As will be discussed in greater detail my field research made use of all such techniques as well as some others.

Several commentators on case study research, (for example Golby, Adelman et al and Nisbet and Watt) have suggested that it is indeed vital that a range of different techniques are employed. Golby provided a rationale for this when he indicated that a variety of techniques should ensure greater reliability of data. Golby argued that different methods of research can produce different types of evidence, although this does not in itself guarantee reliability or validity. Golby also suggested that it is desirable to employ different standpoints within one research method. He argued that it is possible to use for example, the view of the participant observer, the teacher and the pupil in what he termed 'observer triangulation' (p.20). Again the rationale for this approach, Golby suggested, is the attempt to achieve greater reliability of data. Golby and Nisbet and Watt also stated that it is important within case study work that the different techniques are used systematically.

The techniques involved in case study research have been predominantly those to gather qualitative data. Nisbet and Watt contrasted the techniques of case study with that of the survey. They indicated that surveys identify elements which are common to a number of persons or observations. Its strengths, they indicated, are that it leads to readily generalisable findings and secondly that its procedures, which include questionnaires and interviews are well tested. Nisbet and Watt also discussed the weaknesses of surveys. These weaknesses, they claimed, are firstly the possibility of the obliteration of unique features and patterns within small groups or the individuals and institutions being investigated which may hold the key to the investigation.
The second weakness of surveys, Nisbet and Watt claimed, is the researcher finds only what he or she is looking for. They argued that in a survey if something is not covered by the research instruments it is likely that it will be missed unless a respondent wishes to supply more information. Nisbet and Watt also claimed that a pattern of influences that is too infrequent to discerned by statistical techniques, often used in connection with surveys, may be possible to identify using the qualitative techniques of a case study.

Adelman et al and Nisbet and Watt suggested the disadvantages of surveys can be offset, however, by the use of the case study approach. Nisbet and Watt argued that these two approaches should not be viewed as mutually exclusive methods of research. They suggested a survey could be followed up by a case study to test out conclusions by examining specific instances, or alternatively when a new problem is being opened up, where it is difficult to formulate the hypotheses, then a case study could precede a survey. In this instance the case study could help to identify the key issues to be investigated via the subsequent survey.

As my field research involved the opening up of a new problem, I responded to the advice of particularly Nisbet and Watt and Golby and made use of a number of research techniques referred to above. These techniques were, in the early stages of research, intended to gather qualitative data. At a later stage I conducted a survey in an attempt to gain more quantitative data. I used a variety of techniques to gather qualitative data. These techniques and the use of a survey are discussed in more detail later in this chapter.

In terms of the chronology, the initial stages of the research, in which a number of research questions were being formulated and meetings with individual educators took place, involved the use of observation, field notes
and interviews. Later stages of research, during implementation of the curriculum innovation, involved a survey approach using a questionnaire, but also the more qualitative techniques involving the use of participant observation and interviews were continuing at the same time. A more detailed chronology of research techniques is set out below with a discussion of the rationale for the usage of particular techniques in the various circumstances and at different stages of research. Before discussing the rationale for the choice and nature of particular techniques I place these techniques within the overall methodology I applied.

The field research was an investigation of the process and product of curriculum innovation. I was however very much a part of the process being researched, as co-ordinator of the Project under investigation. I was therefore a participant observer of this process of innovation and development. At the beginning of the curriculum development Project, being aware that I was to be involved closely working with teachers, children and others in the education world and that we would be acting together as agents of change in schools, I considered appropriate methods of conducting the research. Evidence and experience from a number of studies in the UK (McNiff, 1988, Stuart 1987, Hustler et al 1986 and Carr and Kemmis 1986) suggested that action research would provide an appropriate methodology and a rationale for this choice of research methodology is provided below.

**The nature of action research**

Action research has been in use in educational settings for at least the past thirty years but a good deal of debate has taken place about the nature and use of it. Hustler (1986) provided a major reason for the emergence of action research when he claimed:
There is this broad agreement on the irrelevance of traditional educational research and on the need for a more direct, pointed approach, loosely dubbed action research. (Hustler, 1986, p7)

Hustler claimed there is disagreement on what is involved in action research and also gave an indication of some of the issues that have been at the heart of the debate about it. He posed a number of questions to emphasise the issues and they include the following:

Is it more a question of action rather than research?
Can action and research be combined?
What methods are available? Are they valid methods?
How can teachers be involved?
Has traditional research nothing to offer?

As Hustler claimed it is difficult, for some at least, to see how such terms as action and research can be linked. Marris and Rein (1967) are examples of authors concerned about the apparent incompatibility between the terms action and research. They believed that the terms are so different that in any attempt to link them there will always be internal conflict. Marris and Rein argued that research, by definition, requires a clear and constant purpose, which they claimed both precedes and helps to define the choice of methods of research. In contrast they suggested action is tentative, adaptive and non-committal. They also suggested action concentrates upon the present and proceeds step by step, breaking any sequence into discrete manageable decisions, while research cannot interpret the present until answers to its ultimate questions are achieved.

Cohen and Manion (1985, 1994) suggested that evidence from its application indicates that action research tends to vary along a number of dimensions
such as the degree of control exercised by the action and research components and the amount of knowledge about the means of achieving the desired outcomes. To ensure there is the appropriate combination of action and research Cohen and Manion claimed that what is needed is:

a clear and unambiguous statement of the project's objectives, such that all participants understand them and their implications; and a careful analysis of the contexts in which the programme is to be mounted to determine the precise, but flexible, relationship between the two.

(Cohen and Manion, 1985, p 219)

Cohen and Manion argued that if this is achieved then it should help to ensure the positive contributions of each element in the action research process are maximised and the constraints of each on the other minimised.

Given the continuing debate surrounding the nature of action research it has been variously defined and there is no one accepted definition. A frequently cited statement, however, is that of Carr and Kemmis (1986) who defined action research as:

a form of self reflective enquiry undertaken by participants.... in social situations in order to improve the rationality and justice of a) their own social or educational practice, b) their understanding of these practices and c) the situations (and institutions) where these practices are carried out.

(Carr and Kemmis, 1986, p 45)

A part of Carr and Kemmis's definition indicates that action research is situational. The situational nature of action research is supported by Cohen and Manion (1985). As they stated:

it is concerned with diagnosing a problem in a specific context and attempting to solve it in that context.

(Cohen and Manion, 1985, p208)
Carr and Kemmis argued that there are two broad aims of action research. One of these broad aims is to improve education. In relation to improvement Carr and Kemmis claimed that it aims to improve practice, secondly to improve understanding of the practice and thirdly the improvement of the situation in which the practice takes place. The social setting for action research and its aim of improving education are both also supported by McNiff (1988). As McNiff stated:

The social basis for action research is involvement; the educational basis is improvement.  
(McNiff, 1988, p3)

McNiff also claimed that action research is an approach to solving educational problems. It uses earlier theories to do this, drawing upon them and incorporating them, she claimed. Stenhouse (1979) argued that a major aim should be not only to generate insights into current practice, through attempts to solve particular educational problems, but it should also contribute to the creation of educational theory. The views of McNiff and Stenhouse are to a large degree echoed by Somekh (1995) when she attempted to distinguish action research from other forms of educational research. In examining these differences she claimed that action research is conducted by those directly concerned with the social situation being researched, and that its findings are fed back into practice in an attempt to bring about change.

The second of Carr and Kemmis's broad aims for action research is concerned with involvement. By this they meant that those involved in bringing about change collaborate to achieve these ends. Carr and Kemmis went as far as to claim that action research must have a collaborative nature. They stated:
Action research therefore precipitates collaborative involvement in the research process, in which the research process is extended towards all those involved in, or affected by the action. (Carr and Kemmis, 1988, p199)

The important role of collaboration within action research is cited by several other commentators on and users of the methodology, including Hustler et al (1986) Lomax (1989) and Hitchcock and Hughes (1989). Somekh (1995) also indicated that action research is usually concerned with issues affecting groups and not just individuals, and this means the nature of the group collaboration will become a focus of research.

Whitehead (1985) and Waters-Adams (1994) provided a note of caution about the necessity of action research involving collaboration, however. As Whitehead conceived of the process of action research, he indicated that, for him at least, it begins from the first person with the consideration of the problem and continues from this individual perspective through imagining a solution, acting to solve it and evaluating the effects of the solution. Waters-Adams argued that although it may be seen as desirable within action research to have collaborating groups, it is not an essential prerequisite.

Cohen and Manion (1985) also suggested that although most action research involves collaboration it is not necessary to have this as a prerequisite. Cohen and Manion did, however, acknowledge that action research is participatory and often involves teams or groups. In this situation of a group working together Cohen and Manion stated it is common for team members to take part directly or indirectly in implementing the research. The participatory aspects of action research are also referred to by Carr and Kemmis (1986) and Stenhouse (1979). McNiff indicated that the participatory nature of action research can be useful not just at providing insights into the process under
investigation, be it one that involves only an individual or collaboration between individuals, but it can also help the enquirer better understand and gain insights into his or her actions and intentions. Somekh (1995), however, claimed that the collaborative nature of action research means there will be important ethical issues in relation to the individuals involved and that roles and responsibilities will need to be clearly defined.

Halsey (1972) gave an indication of the scale at which action research is frequently applied. Halsey indicated that action research can be used for large scale programmes but is particularly appropriate for a small-scale intervention in the functioning of the real world in which the aims are to make a close examination of the effects of such intervention. Bassey (1986) also suggested the appropriate level for the use of action research is in relation to relatively small scale projects.

**Action research and its applicability to the field research**

The field research into the 'Learn to Travel' Project provided me with opportunities to employ a number of action research techniques and also investigate the nature of the research process of this methodology. It gave me opportunities to gain insights which could help separate the rhetoric from the reality of action research and the chance to investigate the relationship between the two possibly incompatible elements of action and research.

A major aim of the field research was to investigate the process of curriculum change. Cohen and Manion (1985) provided a number of examples of when it is suitable to use action research and suggested that it is an appropriate methodology for the study of a small scale innovation within an on-going system. The context of the Project gave me, therefore, the opportunity to
investigate the significant processes operating when a curriculum change is introduced.

As I was involved working closely with teachers, and others in the education world and as we were attempting to act together as agents of change in schools, I had the opportunity to investigate the claims about the supposedly collaborative nature of action research. I was also in the position to consider McNiff's claim that action research focuses more on the enquirer than the methodology employed by the enquirer, and her view that as a consequence of this the enquirer's insights and understanding are moved forward by the participation in the research.

As action research is concerned, it is claimed, with not just changing but also improving education and I was interested in evaluating the impacts of the 'Learn to Travel' Project this provided me with a further justification for the use of the action research methodology. It also provided me with opportunity to assess the effectiveness of action research techniques used to evaluate the impact of change.

The nature of the procedures and conduct of action research

The procedures involved in action research have been discussed by a number of action researchers and one of the first to discuss processes and procedures was Lewin (1946). Lewin considered action research to be a spiral, involving linked processes which proceed in the following sequence: planning, acting, observing and reflecting, before returning once more to planning.

Lewin's model was not designed specifically for educational settings, but it was adapted and modified, by a number of researchers in Britain and elsewhere in the 1960s and 1970s, for this context. In Britain one of the earliest advocates of
action research for use in education was Stenhouse. Stenhouse argued that teachers should regard themselves not just as teachers, but as researchers, and that they should research their own practice in an attempt to bring about change and improvement (Stenhouse, 1975). Stenhouse also advocated collaboration between teachers, external researchers and agents of change. Stenhouse had a particularly significant impact on the development and promotion of action research as a number of researchers worked with him and used and evaluated the techniques he advocated.

One such researcher who worked with Stenhouse was Kemmis and he subsequently combined with Carr to produce important works on action research, one of which has been referred to above. Kemmis in conjunction with McTaggart (Kemmis and McTaggart, 1982) also refined Lewin's model for use in education. They indicated how Lewin's spiral actually moves on going through the processes of planning, acting and observing before moving to a new situation of replanning before continuing with acting, etc.

Elliot (1981) also produced a refined model, based on Lewin's original ideas, of the procedures involved in action research. Elliot's model indicates a number of stages or cycles of activity in which the original idea is modified in the light of data gathered and analysed. McNiff indicated that she has made use of Elliot's refined model in her work and believes it has also influenced many others in the field of action research.

It has been argued that one of the main advantages of action research over other methods of educational research is that of its flexibility in terms of the techniques used (McNiff, 1988, Carr and Kemmis, 1986, Lomax, 1986). This flexibility enables the researcher to respond to findings and modify research strategies and hence techniques (Stenhouse, 1979, McNiff, 1988). Somekh
(1995) argued that it is the highly pragmatic use of techniques and the willingness to allow data collection to be guided by whatever opportunities arise that helps to distinguish action research from other forms of educational research. Cohen and Manion (1985) suggested that the flexibility of the process of action research, in which self-evaluation is important and modifications are being made continuously in each of the on-going stages in the light of findings, is viewed by users as an important advantage over other research methods.

The flexibility of action research can be viewed as a disadvantage however, particularly in relation to the fact that research techniques are not necessarily set in advance. This is one of the major criticisms of Marris and Rein (1967). If techniques are not set in advance it may appear that action research has no clear procedures. Stenhouse (1979) argued, however, that action research should be a systematic process and Blum (1959) produced a simple model of the sequencing of action research, which shares some common features with that of Lewin, but also provides evidence that action research can be systematic. Blum indicated that action research can be divided into two stages, firstly a diagnostic stage in which problems are analysed and hypotheses are generated and secondly a therapeutic stage in which the hypotheses are tested by consciously directed change experiments.

Cohen and Manion (1985, 1994) also stated that action research involves or should involve a systematic process and they in fact provide a clear framework for conducting action research. This framework was derived, as Cohen and Manion acknowledged, from a number of sources and experiences of the use of action research. The framework is an eight point model of procedures for conducting an action research project. This framework was influential in my field research, and is discussed below in greater detail. I
have highlighted the main headings in bold type as these are the stages of action research. The comments below each heading are summaries of Cohen and Manion's suggestions.

**Cohen and Manion's Eight Point Model for Conducting Action Research**

1) Identification of the problem related to the school educational situation.
The term 'problem' is to be interpreted loosely here as it could refer to issues related to the introduction of an innovation.

2) Preliminary discussions amongst interested parties
This will involve teachers, researchers, advisers and possibly sponsors. The product is a draft proposal.

3) A review of relevant literature
This will be an attempt to find out what can be learned from comparable studies.

4) Modification of initial statement
This may be in the form of testable hypotheses or guiding principles.

5) Consideration of research procedures
Decisions are made on methods, of for example sampling, choice of materials, methods of teaching and learning.

6) Choice of evaluation procedures
Procedures will need to recognise that evaluation is a continuous process.

7) The implementation of the Project
This includes reference to the conditions and methods of data collection, submission of reports, classification and analysis of data.

8) Interpretation of data, drawing conclusions, coming up with overall evaluation of the Project
This involves a general summing up with consideration of errors and problems as well as discussion of outcomes and recommendations.
Cohen and Manion stated that their framework should be viewed as flexible and indicated that not all eight stages are required in the process of conducting action research. They also stated that it is not vital for the eight points to run in the sequence indicated, but some of the 'stages' may well take place simultaneously.

My own field research can be fitted quite closely to Cohen and Manion's procedures. I indicate, below, the stages of the research, linking these to Cohen and Manion's procedures, where appropriate, but also indicating divergences from their model. This section also discusses the various techniques used.

**Conduct of Field Research**

The techniques of the field research are discussed below mainly in the chronology of usage, or at least as close as possible to this. A brief discussion of the rationale for the use of particular techniques is given below. As the research techniques were not set in advance a more detailed rationale for the use of particular techniques employed at particular times and in particular circumstances is provided in the appropriate Findings sections.

Although the research used a systematic approach it is important to stress that the various techniques used were not set in advance. The action research process involved planning the questions to be asked, making decisions on research techniques to be employed, gathering data and reflecting on data gathered before embarking on another cycle of data gathering. This process involved what Hammersley and Atkinson (1983) and Woods (1986) describe as 'progressive focusing'. Here the data gathered at one stage of research are reflected upon leading to selection of new questions/problems, which in turn leads to decisions on the appropriate techniques to find answers or resolve the problems.
The first stage of the action research was the identification of the 'problem' (Cohen and Manion, 1985, 1994). The 'problem' could be expressed as the question: "What can be done about the lack of travel and tourism studies in the primary curriculum?" Attempts to find answers to this question fit into a number of the subsequent stages of Cohen and Manion's framework.

Part of this first stage of research was an attempt to clarify the problem and this involved me in the preparation of documents. I presented, discussed and responded to questions about these documents at a workshop meeting with a group of educationalists. This meeting equates to Cohen and Manion's second stage where preliminary discussion amongst interested parties takes place. This group comprised an ex-primary teachers, a teacher educator with experience in the field of curriculum development in global education, three education officers from non-government organisations (NGOs), two of whom worked particularly in primary education, an academic/education officer, a field officer involved in environmental education and me as a participant observer. The meeting and discussion were recorded by a scribe acting as secretary and not involved in the meeting. The use of the secretary as scribe was an attempt to ensure accuracy and reliability of data, from an independent non-participant observer, as well as to avoid any bias that could have occurred through the use of an active participant in the meeting.

At this meeting I also used the technique of a 'brainstorm' in an attempt to begin the process of answering my related research questions. A brainstorm approach was adopted as I felt this would help in the process of planning and making decisions about the direction of the Project. Numerous authors (for example McKernan, 1991), Tann (1988), and Kerry and Eggleston (1988) have suggested the use of this technique as a very appropriate starting point for any
new area of work. McKernan (1991) indicated that the key aspect of a brainstorm is that it engages the imagination and claimed that a deliberative workshop is an ideal setting for brainstorming within an action research activity. This workshop meeting and its products are discussed in Section Two of Chapter Four. As a result of this meeting I created clearer aims and objectives for the Project and drew up guidelines for teachers. This process and the results of it are discussed in Section Four of Chapter Four.

The meeting with educators was only the first part of Cohen and Manion's stage two, however, as I also had preliminary discussions with teachers who were to design and implement the Project. In terms of the chronology the meetings with teachers followed on shortly after that with the educationalists. Establishing the group of teachers was an important part of the process of curriculum innovation and Section Five of Chapter Four is devoted to this process. In creating a group of teachers a number of criteria were important. In general terms I was attempting to balance 'manageability', with the gathering of reliable and valid data. The decision to establish a group of teachers was partly related to the desire to investigate the supposed collaborative nature of action research, but the main reason for the choice of more than one teacher was to create opportunities for the comparison of the approaches to curriculum development of different teachers. It would have been a relatively simple task to use a number of teachers in just one school. This approach would have left itself open to the criticism that unusual or peculiar circumstances existed in the school and any findings would necessarily be considered less valid.

Selecting teachers was connected to the selecting of schools. The three schools involved in the first trialling of Project activities were selected on the basis that they were representative of different types of primary schools in Devon.
One was a large 5-13 age group school in a large urban area with over four hundred on roll, housed in fairly modern but traditional classrooms. The second school had approximately two hundred children on roll aged 4-12 and was purpose-built on an open plan basis in the last fifteen years. The third school is in a small East Devon village school with, at the time, two teachers and less than fifty on roll. The school was housed in a late Victorian building. The initial intention was to use these schools in the research to enable children representing each of the age groups of the primary education phase to be investigated. As different circumstances prevailed in each school it was possible to conduct, to a limited degree, the type of comparative case study approach suggested by Glaser and Strauss (1967).

I considered that the following criteria in relation to the teachers were important: age, or more specifically, length of teaching experience and sex. I believed it was necessary to have teachers with a variety of experiences and both men and women teachers as this would achieve an acceptable level of validity of the findings. The teachers involved, initially, were four female and one male and their actual names are provided in Chapter Four. The use of the actual names, rather than pseudonyms, relates to fact that the teachers names appeared in print in the 'Learn to Travel' Project book. Names were linked to schools and particular activities hence attempts to provide anonymity would achieve little. Permission to refer to teachers by name in this thesis was also obtained. Additionally teachers received a draft copy of Chapter Four and Five of the thesis, which gave them an opportunity to provide comment.

The way in which the group of teachers was established, the nature of early discussions with teachers and the nature of the decisions taken and the rationale for these decisions is reported in a reflexive account, which is found in Section Five of Chapter Four. I also asked teachers questions at interview
about their early involvement in the research and a discussion of their responses is provided.

The involvement of the teachers and their relationship to me as co-ordinator also enabled me to investigate the collaborative aspects of the Project. Teachers were questioned at interview about their role and their views on my role. As two of the teachers taught parallel classes in the same school and planned activities together I investigated the nature and products of their collaboration and made comparisons with the work of the other teachers who worked independently.

Using Cohen and Manion's framework the third part of the action research was the literature survey. This survey was taking place at the same time as the other processes involved in the Project. The product of this survey contributed to this methodology and in particular to Section Three of Chapter Four which is concerned with travel and tourism in the curriculum.

Cohen and Manion suggested the fourth stage of research is when original ideas in the research are modified. In my field research stages two and four of Cohen and Manion's framework were closely linked, chronologically. In stage two of the action research I created guidelines for teachers, stage four was the modification of my guidelines into general aims and specific plans for activities by the teachers in their particular settings. This process is discussed in Section Six of Chapter Four.

Chronologically the next part of the research involved a combination of Cohen and Manion's stages five, six and seven. Here the Project was being implemented at the same time as research techniques were being developed and employed and evaluation techniques considered. In terms of the research
into the implementation and evaluation a major aim was to achieve triangulation. This involved both observer triangulation and methodological triangulation (Cohen and Manion, 1985, Golby 1993, Hopkins, 1989). Observer triangulation relates here to the perspectives of teachers, children and also my own perspectives, while I attempted to ensure triangulation of methods using a variety of techniques including classroom observation, interviews, the examination of documents, a questionnaire survey, and even teaching and evaluating activities myself.

I researched the teachers' activities as I considered the following aspects to be important. The activities were a part of what Pollard and Tann (1993) refer to as the intended curriculum, within their definition of the 'official' curriculum. The activities provided evidence of the links between the teachers plans and activities. It indicated how teachers had tried to convert their plans into achievable aims. I therefore investigated the relationship between the teachers' original aims taken from their planning, and their aims in the actual activities. I also investigated the relationship between the teachers' aims and the Project aims and the relationship between the activities' content and the National Curriculum.

In terms of how teachers produced activities I made use of documents indicating their planning and I also interviewed them at the end of the first year's trialling. These interviews took place with teachers on an individual basis. The interviews were designed as semi-structured with a number of questions common to each interview, but I also provided the opportunity for teachers to give comments on areas not specifically referred to in the interview. Teachers also had the opportunity to ask me questions during these interviews. A copy of the questions used in these semi-structured interviews can be found in Appendix 1. I also kept regular field notes after
visits to each school providing a record of meetings. These field notes were an attempt to provide an immediate record of events. I also referred to these later to provide a basis for questions for use at the interviews discussed above and later interviews as well as research work with children.

In terms of what teachers produced as activities, I had a write up of each of the activities which the teachers submitted to be considered for the publication *Learn to Travel: Activities on Travel and Tourism* (Mason, 1992). I asked for these to be submitted in draft form and I commented on them in written form and also discussed them with teachers during meetings as the Project was being implemented. Being involved in commenting on activities also gave me other insights into the process of developing the activities. I regard these activities, like the teachers plans, as a part of Pollard and Tann's 'intended curriculum'. These activities are discussed in Section Seven of Chapter Four.

I also observed a number of classroom and field based Project activities. In these activities I took the role of participant observer. In general terms activities were observed in an attempt to investigate the relationship between teachers' intentions as portrayed in their written aims and what actually occurred. The use of participant observation was also partly the result of the activities themselves - one involved a role play in which I accompanied children as visitors to an imaginary island, and two others involved real field work in terms of a visit to an airport with a related flight and an environmental walk. Another aspect of the rationale for participant observation of the activities was to experience the activities in as similar way as possible as the children involved. Cohen and Manion (1985) suggested that when a researcher believes it necessary to undergo the same experiences as a child, in an attempt to gain insights, then participant observation is particularly appropriate. I also wished to investigate what effects if any these
activities had on children and as Bailey (1978) indicated participant observation is particularly suitable for observing on-going behaviour changes.

The participant observation also enabled me to investigate the 'observed curriculum' (Pollard and Tann, 1993) and as I was in the position of being a child as a participant I was in a position to make some comment on the 'curriculum as experienced' (Pollard and Tann, 1993). The observed activities are discussed in Section Eight of Chapter Four.

I had intended to conduct an evaluation of the impacts of teaching on the children in the Project Schools. Unfortunately, due to a number of practical problems, which are discussed in Chapter Four, I was unable to conduct a pre-intervention survey in schools. I did manage to conduct a post-intervention survey in these schools but was also concerned about the reliability of the survey in two Project classes. My solution to this problem relating to the inability to evaluate in the way I had intended is described below.

Part of the solution involved me teaching a number of activities in a school not involved in the Project. I provide more details on the nature of this school and the children in Section Nine of the Chapter Four. In general terms my teaching was both part of an attempt to evaluate the Project and to gain another perspective on the 'experienced curriculum' (Pollard and Tann, 1993). More specifically my teaching had three related aims. First it was an attempt to evaluate activities designed by teachers. This was part of the process of triangulation as I had obtained comments from teachers on the aims of these activities, had my own observations of a number of them and I also had children's comments. My teaching provided another form of evaluation using my own comments and also further insights into the 'experienced curriculum' from the children's perspective. I had a second aim in teaching
which was to try out other Project activities designed and previously trialled in another part of the country. My third aim was to investigate the process of creating and teaching Project activities myself. This was an attempt to obtain another perspective on the process of curriculum design and implementation within the Project.

The penultimate part, and equating with Cohen and Manion's eighth stage of action research, was an attempt to evaluate the effects of the Project on children. This was the second part of the solution to the problem of not being able to produce reliable data from an evaluation of the effects on children in Project schools. Before my teaching I conducted a pre-intervention questionnaire survey with the children in the class and at the end of teaching of Project related activities carried out a post-intervention survey. The aims of these surveys were to indicate any changes in knowledge, understanding and values and attitudes that may have occurred as a result of my teaching. The use of a pre- and post-intervention questionnaire survey as a part of evaluation is suggested as an appropriate strategy by Hopkins (1989) and McCormick and James (1986). I also conducted a similar questionnaire survey to that of the pre-intervention survey in a class of the same age, in the same urban settlement, but in another school and who had therefore not been exposed to the intervention. I used this class as a 'control' group and compared results with those of the children I taught.

This questionnaire survey involved 36 children in the pre- and post-intervention school and a class of 31 children in the 'control' school. The majority of the questions were manually analysed as Munn and Drever (1990), Walker (1985) and Moser and Kalton (1979) all suggested that for a relatively small sample (Munn and Drever indicated that this is less than 200 questionnaires) computer usage is not justified.
Analysis involved the creation of separate categories after study of the data. As Dey (1993) and Cohen and Manion (1985) suggested this approach has the advantage over pre-set categories of ensuring that the researcher has not imposed his own interests and also allows the inclusion of everything that is given in response to the question. A major disadvantage of the method of using the data to generate the categories is that the number of categories can be very large (Munn and Drever, 1991). This problem occurred, but I attempted to overcome it by combining categories using the approaches advocated by Dey (1991) and Miles and Huberman (1984). The account of the use and results of the questionnaire survey are discussed in Section Ten of Chapter Four.

I also conducted interviews with a number of children from the Project teachers' classes. It was my aim to compare the results obtained from these classes with those from the class I taught and with my 'control' group. Unfortunately a lack of time prevented me from interviewing children in the 'control' group and the class I taught and hence I have not included discussion of the interviews with children.

The final part of the research, and also a part of Cohen and Manion's action research framework stage eight, was an attempt to assess the longer term and wider impacts of the Project. This involved returning to Project schools two years after the first implementation of activities and interviewing teachers about the long term effects. This appears as Section Eleven in Chapter Four and I also discuss longer term impacts at the school in which I taught and consider the impacts of the Project beyond these schools in this section.
CHAPTER 4 THE PROJECT

Section 1 Background and the initial rationale for the Project

This section discusses the process by which the curriculum development Project which forms the basis of the field research came about and provides comment on my views at the early stages of development. It indicates the decisions that were taken, the influences on the decisions and the influences on my thinking.

The background to the Learn to Travel Project and my position

Before a discussion of the establishment of the 'Learn to Travel' Project I believe it is important to indicate my educational background. This provides an opportunity to discuss my teaching and research and also provide statements about my educational philosophy, which have a relevance to the development of the Project. As Hopkins (1989) and Golby (1993) stated, in a study where the researcher has a vested interest in the outcome of a project, it is far better for the researcher to declare that interest and involvement rather than hide it.

I trained as a secondary school Geography teacher and I began teaching as an assistant Geography teacher, in 1975, at a comprehensive school in Norwich. After four and half years I moved to become Head of Geography at Hamburg International School in Germany and whilst there I became interested in the broad area of global education or development education. One International Baccalaureate course in particular, entitled World Issues, gave me much scope to develop this interest.

When I returned to England in 1982 I obtained a post at Trowbridge College of Further Education (FE) in Wiltshire and I lectured here from 1982 to 1989,
initially in Geography. The FE College was in direct competition with two local schools and by 1985 it was clear that the examination classes in Geography I taught were threatened. I considered other curriculum areas that I wanted to teach and the College would find an attractive alternative to Geography. Experience indicated that tourism was a rapidly growing area of study and I had some interest in and experience of teaching it within Geography 'A' level and GCSE courses.

The first time that I taught about tourism as a discrete subject was in 1985 after I introduced an option in travel and tourism to the Business and Technical Education Council (BTEC) National Diploma in Business Studies course already present in the College. The BTEC course was administered by the Business Studies department where there was a rather different ethos to the predominantly academic one in which I had previously worked. The major difference related to teaching what were perceived as mainly vocational courses. The syllabus of the BTEC Option in Travel and Tourism provided little scope to attempt a critique of the nature and impact of tourism. In fact the syllabus appeared to actively discourage criticism of tourism.

From 1985 to 1988 I continued to teach 'A' level Geography and within this teaching syllabus requirements led me to argue increasingly that tourism was a global issue with a number of negative (as well as positive) impacts on society, economy and the environment. My Geography 'A' level teaching also emphasised that tourism demonstrated global inequalities, as tourists were mainly from the developed world, was viewed as a contributor to the reinforcing of stereotypes and negative attitudes to distant places and people, and could even affect attitudes to minority communities within Britain.
There was a mounting tension and unresolved conflict between the content of my 'A' level Geography teaching of tourism and that of my BTEC teaching in tourism. I felt strongly the need to address this, not just within my own teaching, but to influence others involved in delivering BTEC courses in tourism. This concern grew as a result of a conference organised by BTEC, in 1987, to discuss the introduction of a new course, the BTEC National Diploma in Tourism. At this conference I expressed my concerns regarding the need to provide a critique of tourism within the course, but I failed to achieve, from BTEC representatives, what I regarded as a satisfactory answer.

By this time, however, I had begun part-time research for an M.Phil. in the School of Education at Bath University. The subject of my research was the status of development education within the secondary and further education curriculum, and this research served to further emphasise the conflicts between the content of my 'A' level and BTEC teaching of tourism issues.

From 1986 to 1988 I worked as a part-time advisory teacher for Wiltshire LEA. I had several roles, including the brief to advise secondary school teachers on the teaching of tourism and development studies within 'A' level and GCSE Geography courses. The experience from my advisory work was to be useful in the development of the 'Learn to Travel' Project. This was partly because of the role of advising on the curriculum areas, but also the inter-personal skills developed in this advisory capacity were particularly useful.

In the autumn of 1987 I gave a paper on my M.Phil. research at the University of Sussex. In the audience was a member of the World Wild Fund for Nature (WWF) staff. We talked briefly and he asked me if I was interested in writing in relation to my research as WWF was involved in a project about global education. I visited WWF offices in the spring of 1988 and initially I was asked
to consider writing about population issues, but then our discussion turned to my main teaching areas. Tourism was rapidly on the agenda and WWF staff indicated that they had been considering a school text on tourism for some time. As a result of our discussions I was asked to consider writing a GCSE/'A' level/BTEC text with a tourism focus.

The product of the discussions was *Tourism: Environment and Development Perspectives* (Mason, 1990a). This text was aimed at 'A' level students and teachers and also BTEC students and teachers and in it I attempted to discuss both positive and negative effects of tourism and I drew on my M.Phil. research experience to indicate the global importance of tourism and its effects on values and attitudes. The environmental effects of tourism, (the stated, but not sole reason for WWF involvement), were presented primarily through case studies drawn from the UK, mainland Europe and developing countries. As well as a general critique of tourism as a social and economic phenomenon I looked, in the final chapter of the book, at the possible future directions for tourism and the 'Learn to Travel' Project came from my research into the writing of this final chapter.

The Swiss Professor of Human Ecology and one time advisor to the Swiss Tourist Industry, Jost Krippendorf, had called, in his seminal work, *The Holidaymakers*, (Krippendorf, 1987) for a 'Learn to Travel' campaign. This campaign should take place in all sectors of education both formal and non-formal, Krippendorf stated. He argued however that such a campaign needed to start in the primary school. Krippendorf however gave few details on this campaign. In one paragraph only he outlined a programme that would investigate the 'rhythms of life' (p145), develop respect for nature and develop historical and geographical knowledge of places to be visited. The end product of the campaign, Krippendorf hoped, would be that young people would be
taught how to travel, they would obtain richer and more diversified holiday experiences and they would be aware of ways to maximise the beneficial impacts on host communities and minimise the negative impacts.

In May 1989 I obtained a lecturing post at was then Rolle Faculty of Education, Polytechnic South West. My new job would involve me in frequent contact with trainee teachers, primary schools, children and teachers, and this I believed would give me an excellent opportunity to attempt to develop, trial and evaluate curriculum resources as part of a 'Learn to Travel Campaign'. I discussed this idea with Craig Johnstone, the WWF editor of *Tourism : Environment and Development Perspectives*, and he suggested I write a proposal. In this proposal I built in a fee for myself as co-ordinator but also a writing fee for teachers who I wanted to act as curriculum developers and trial and evaluate teaching resources. The proposal was accepted in the summer of 1989. The first statement about the aims of the 'Learn to Travel' Project came in this proposal where I set out four broad aims of the Project, which were influenced by Krippendorf, and indicated my prime concern with the attitudes of primary school children. These aims were;

i) to develop sensitivity and concern for the environment in which tourism takes place, ii) to develop sensitivity and concern for other cultures, societies and individuals, iii) to encourage responsible attitudes and actions as travellers and tourists iv) to encourage responsible attitudes and actions as members of a host population. (Mason, July 1989)

By early 1990 I was settled within my new job to the extent that I felt able to begin the Project, but I had by then become aware of some of the potential problems of trying to introduce it and had a number of concerns about my own ability to be its co-ordinator. One concern related to my lack of direct experience of primary schools as my teaching had been in the secondary and
FE sector. I was very aware that I had not planned, nor taught at this level. The second concern related to the nature of the curriculum content of the Project. These concerns manifested themselves as a number of questions, which I indicate below:

- What role do I envisage for the teachers?
- How will primary teachers react to teaching about tourism?
- If they react positively, how will teachers react to the Project in terms of planning and delivery?
- How will teachers in primary schools react to an outsider who lacks direct experience of primary schools?
- What will be my role as co-ordinator of the Project?
- Should I be actively involved in developing activities?
- Should I act merely as an adviser?
- If I advise what advice can I offer?

(Fieldnotes, February 1990)

Some of these questions could not be answered in advance of introducing the Project, I felt, but others could. Despite not advising primary teachers I had experience of doing so at secondary and FE level. Most of my advisory work had been through a mixture of formal presentations and informal discussions with small groups of teachers. I had visited schools and had individual one to one discussions about particular curriculum areas and innovations. This experience I believed would be useful in relation to working with teachers in the Project. I was however not familiar with working with teachers who would not have any significant background knowledge of tourism. I was also unfamiliar with the way these teachers would try to deliver such a new curriculum area. The backdrop to my innovation was the introduction of the National Curriculum, in relation to which teachers were being required to reappraise what they taught and initially, by implication only, their method of organisation and teaching.

At this initial stage I tried to answer some of the questions I had posed. In response to questions about my role I saw this as being an adviser who would
try to persuade teachers that tourism was an important subject area that they should be teaching about and suggest that they could deliver National Curriculum subjects and cross curricular themes through travel and tourism studies. I could also offer teachers the writing fee provided by WWF and give them the opportunity of getting their work published.

Before I had an opportunity to contact teachers my editor for the Project at WWF, Alison Manners, suggested we should have a meeting. Early in 1990 Alison recommended that the meeting should be opened up to include others with relevant interests and experience. Alison was an ex-primary teacher and I had already made her aware of my concerns about my lack of primary experience. She suggested that we should invite at least one other primary teacher to this meeting while she asked me to suggest names of individuals with a tourism and/or educational background. The composition of this group and the outcomes are discussed in the next section.
CHAPTER 4  THE PROJECT

Section 2  Findings : The meeting at WWF

The meeting at WWF formed a part of Cohen and Manion's (1985, 1994) stage two of the action research, in which discussions take place between interested parties. The meeting took place at the offices of WWF in March 1990 and I have used the actual names and titles of those involved as there is nothing particularly controversial that would require the use of pseudonyms and I have obtained permission to do so from all to whom reference is made.

I made a number of suggestions, to Alison, for this meeting, one of which was an author who had co-ordinated projects and published in the field of global education for the upper primary age phase. This author was David Hicks, whose work was concerned with images and stereotypes of distant places as well as developing environmental concern. I felt that he could offer useful comment based on his experience which would relate to the Project. I also suggested Angela Holland, a member of the non-government organisation (NGO) Tourism Concern, which focused on the impact of tourism and the need for sustainable tourism. Angela had worked with Jenny Button, who specialised as a primary INSET provider in the field of values and attitudes education and at the time was employed by Oxfam, on the publication Tourism and Development (Button and Holland, 1990). This publication focused on the economic, social, cultural and environmental impacts of tourism in developing countries. The publication provided teachers with statistical material on tourism and also gave them ideas on activities including ways to analyse holiday brochure images and a tourism quiz, which was, in effect, an attempt to promote what the authors claimed was more responsible forms of tourism. I suggested Jenny should also attend this meeting.
Alison suggested an ex-primary teacher, Angela Grunsell, who had worked in the field of global education, at one time with David Hicks, and who was known to Alison to be working on primary phase teaching materials concerned with tourism. Craig Johnstone suggested we should have a member of WWF Conservation staff, James Martin-Jones, present in addition to Alison and himself who were from the Education Section.

I created an agenda for this meeting which was divided into three areas. First, an introduction to the 'Learn to Travel' Project and specifically the background and aims, second, the problems of teaching about what could be considered a potentially sensitive area, and third, what I considered to be more practical problems about where the Project could be best be located in the primary school in terms of age range, subject areas and themes as well as suggestions on possible teaching strategies. These agenda activities were planned to last about four hours, spread either side of lunch.

Approximately one week before the meeting took place, however, Alison suggested that a part of it should be devoted to identifying tourism issues. She argued that this would not only give a direction to the planned discussion on teaching ideas, but would help highlight shared concerns about tourism in the group. I was not at first happy with this suggestion as I hoped that one of the outcomes of the day would be suggestions on teaching strategies, and felt that a discussion of tourism issues would take up too much time and prevent this being achieved. I argued that I would be raising a number of issues in my introductory statement about the background and aims of the Project. Alison claimed however that those at the meeting would have their own views and experiences which they could bring and would want to put forward in the meeting.
I asked for time to consider Alison's suggestion. I realised I did not want to give those present the opportunity Alison suggested and my desire to set the agenda and restrict discussion to teaching strategies was born, at least partly, from an insecurity that those present could indicate that tourism issues were of little or no relevance to the primary school. I wanted to hear from the group that tourism was a relevant area of study in the primary school and needed to feel that I had the support of a group of primary practitioners and educational advisers, before venturing into a primary school in South West England. I realised I needed other educators to legitimate the curriculum innovation. As Parsons (1987) and Shipman (1974) stated this legitimation by peers can be crucial in the success of a curriculum project.

This was also the first time I became aware of the type of tension, discussed by Adelman et al (1977) and Yin (1984), that can be generated where the researcher is on the one hand advocating change and on the other trying to stand apart from the innovation and research the nature and effects of change. This also appeared to be an example of what Marris and Rein (1967) referred to in their discussion of the apparent incompatibility between action and research.

After some reflection I accepted Anne's suggestion, believing that it was vital that I received a strong indication of the likely success or failure of the Project at this meeting, as it could be stopped before it had really started. Given the circumstances of the way the group had been selected, their backgrounds and experiences and that they were being paid travelling expenses and given a free lunch by WWF, I was aware that I was unlikely to be told exactly what they thought of the proposed Project. However, I also felt it would have been quite possible for any member of the group to indicate that although they
considered this an excellent idea it was just not worth trying at the moment. They could have provided at least two significant reasons for this, I felt. First, the nature of the National Curriculum could be viewed as not allowing for such a thematic/topic based approach as I would appear to be advocating in the Project. Second, the pressures of introducing the National Curriculum on teachers could be argued as leading to 'innovation overload', and the Project would be just one more innovation to cope with. Three days before the meeting I contacted Alison and agreed to the modified agenda, which included a discussion on tourism issues to follow my introduction.

At the meeting those present received a copy of an adapted version of the original proposal submitted to WWF containing the four broad aims of the Project. I began the meeting by indicating the aims of the Project were as on the briefing paper and they were to be achieved through the development of materials for use in the primary school on the theme of travel and tourism. I referred to *Tourism: Environment and Development Perspectives* as one of the reasons for WWF's involvement. I also drew attention to the ideas of Krippendorf (1987) with his suggestion of a more human form of tourism, and the need for education about tourism. I suggested of particular significance was the need for education to be a tourist and not just gaining knowledge and understanding about tourism. I concluded my introduction by stating that I had asked WWF to bring the group together in an attempt to achieve two aims: to discuss tourism issues; and second, to produce ideas on tourism that could be used in primary schools.

To achieve the first aim I asked those present to brainstorm tourism issues. A brainstorm approach was adopted as I felt this would help in the process of planning and making decisions about the direction of the Project. As stated in Chapter Three a number of authors, including McKernan (1991) and Kerry and
Eggleston (1988), have advocated this approach when starting a new project. I asked participants to consider as many tourism issues as possible and not exclude those that could appear, at first sight, of little relevance to the primary curriculum, although participants knew that this first brainstorm would be followed by one on teaching ideas in relation to tourism. I indicated that I would be present at this brainstorm but did not want to become too involved as I wished for others to put forward ideas, and not be influenced by my apparent agenda.

The brainstorm took the form of individuals suggesting tourism issues aloud and the WWF secretary acting as scribe and writing thoughts on a flip chart for all present to see. The product of this brainstorm can be seen in Figure 1 and it shows a number of particular areas. Figure 1 indicates a good deal of concern was expressed about the impacts of tourism, and specific reference was made to environmental impacts, particularly the impact on natural environments with examples of pollution and loss of habitat, by Angela Holland. The use and abuse of natural resources was also cited as an impact of tourism, with reference particularly to use of fuel and James, of the WWF Conservation Department, talked specifically about its impact on the atmosphere during the discussion.
Figure 1 Tourism Issues (source brainstorm at WWF offices March, 1990)

**Who benefits/suffers?**
- developed/third world economics
- selling cost marketing industry heritage national parks conservation
- changes sales

**Who goes? Why?**
- status escape relaxation thrills excitement education
- social/cultural religious historical

**Tourism Issues**
- Futures: stay at home, recreation/leisure
- Other: leisure paradise holidays holy days journeys distance/climate

**Political**
- government planning
- how do we view tourists? 'objects' 'guests'
- images stereotyping

**Environmental impact**
- social cultural alternative perspective
- tourist ghetto greening right to travel

**Natural**
- destruction
- need for regulation
- Mediterranean

**Age Race Class Gender**
- pollution loss of habitat Spain (Coto Donana) Caribbean

**Culture (behaviour)**
There was also discussion of social and cultural impact, and in Figure 1 much of this comes under the heading of 'who benefits/suffers?' in tourism. David Hicks referred to the inequalities in tourism suggesting that a majority of those who travel are wealthy from the 'North', while those in the poor 'South' are often visited but have much less chance of travelling themselves. Concern was expressed by Jenny Button that local people are part of what tourists come to see and they are turned into objects, particularly when people have a camera. Urry (1990) discussed this phenomenon claiming it is part of what he terms the 'the tourist gaze'. Krippendorf (1987) and O'Grady (1980) also discussed the demeaning of host populations in Third World destinations as a result of the way tourists turn them into objects to be photographed. The dangers of stereotyping as a result of being considered exotic was suggested by David.

The latter part of this brainstorm moved into a discussion of the need to regulate tourism, how this could be achieved and who would be involved. Part of the concern related to individual behaviour, with discussion of lager louts in Spain from Alison, and both Alison and Jenny suggested it was necessary to educate tourists. David talked about the need for planning at the national level and who made the decisions, particularly in Third World situations, where he claimed foreign travel companies often had more influence than local governments.

The session to follow this initial brainstorm was to be concerned with teaching ideas. But before this I had planned to indicate what I regarded as important issues in relation to teaching about tourism. The agenda had three areas highlighted: teaching values and attitudes; teaching sensitive issues; and teaching for action. My intentions here were to ensure that participants in the meeting were made aware that any teaching situation involving tourism
issues required a consideration of values and attitudes to the activity of tourism itself and its impacts. The implication of this for teachers would therefore be that they had a potentially sensitive issue to deal with in the classroom. I also wanted to make the participants aware that I believed it necessary for teachers to ensure that children went beyond merely 'looking at world problems', into discussion of possible solutions. This concern, about presenting children with global problems, but not giving opportunities for discussion of solutions, has been expressed by a number of authors, including Storm (1991) as well as David Hicks in the World Studies 8-13 text he jointly authored with Simon Fisher (Fisher and Hicks, 1985).

In an attempt to link these concerns together I read a prepared statement. This statement on values education drew particularly on the work of Fien (1983), Maye (1984) and Richardson (1983) and their comments on the importance of values education in Geography. I provide an extract below to demonstrate the significance I attached, at the time, to this area and because of the reaction it caused:

The way people react to environmental matters and the way that we take decisions on the environment is related to the viewpoints, opinions or values we hold. Investigating values helps children understand and begin to explain what people do in given situations. So therefore as teachers we should examine different value positions..... We should do this with children by:
1) providing them with learning experiences with stimulus material relating to questions/problems/issues concerned with the interaction of people with each other and interaction with the environment,
2) exploring a range of attitudes and values in these people/environment issues,
3) helping children develop and clarify their views,
4) helping children link their values to actions that they take,
5) developing skills of realising there are other viewpoints than their own and understanding what these others viewpoints are and why they are held.
(Mason, 1990b)
I followed this statement with a brief discussion of the need for children to take action and this could be interpreted, I stated, as them actively participating in decision making. I felt, from my experience of the work of David and Angela Grunsell that this statement was likely to be sympathetically received by the them.

My prepared statement provoked a comment from David in which he supported what I said, but argued that the National Curriculum could be seen as marginalising this concern with values and attitudes. Jenny also argued that the National Curriculum, because of its emphasis on subject knowledge and assessment would make it very difficult for teachers to justify time devoted to values and attitude education. I asked her to provide more explanation and she claimed that in her understanding of the National Curriculum it was very unlikely that there would any attempt to assess children's attitudes in curriculum subjects and as she believed most teachers would be influenced by what would be assessed, then they were unlikely to teach much in this area.

The view that there would not be assessment of values was backed up by Alison, but she also argued it was clear from official statements that the National Curriculum was not solely about subjects that would be assessed. Alison went on to say that in the primary school, in particular, a significant amount of time would have to be devoted to such aspects as social skills where attitudes such as co-operation would be taught and there was also the curriculum themes of Environmental Education and Citizenship where values would form a part of teaching. A brief discussion then ensued on the nature of the five cross-curricular themes and whether or not they would be assessed. After this I indicated I felt it was time for us to move onto the discussion of teaching ideas in relation to travel and tourism. James, the
member of WWF Conservation staff, was not present during this part of the discussion.

Alison suggested that the product of the earlier brainstorm on tourism issues could act as a useful stimulus to this activity and the flip chart with the product of the earlier brainstorm was placed in a prominent position. The product of the brainstorm focusing on teaching ideas is shown in Figure 2 and I discuss below the process that led to its creation.

Figure 2 Teaching Ideas on Tourism (source: brainstorm, WWF March 1990)
David began the discussion and indicated that images of tourist destinations were readily available and could be a useful introduction to children. He stated that he was referring to tourist brochures and he and Angela Grunsell then discussed the possible dangers of children using brochures, as they argued travel brochures tend to present stereotypes of distant places and people. The impact of various media on children's perception of distant places, when they lack first hand experience, has been the focus of research which has been reported on by Wiegand (1991, 1992) and he confirmed the potential dangers of secondary sources in that they can lead to negative images of distant places and reinforce stereotypes.

Angela Holland indicated that most people in Britain would consider it a right to travel, but the reality for the great majority of the world's children, especially those in the developing world is that in the foreseeable future they will be unable to travel overseas. Teachers should therefore confront this notion of a right to travel, she argued and discuss what causes these inequalities that exist between groups and nations.

Alison suggested that there were likely to be inequalities in Britain, and in fact in one class of children some would have travelled extensively and others little. This could pose problems for teachers and travel would therefore be a problematic issue which would need careful handling. Alison also believed it could provide opportunities for drawing on children's own experience, even if these were not 'equal' experiences. I suggested at this point that the children in one class could be given a common experience, by taking them out as a group to do geography related fieldwork or in for example art or local history. This 'common to all' experience could then be used to investigate children's attitudes to, for example, a local environmental issue, as well discover more about their travel experiences. Alison indicated that this group outing could
be used for children to become more familiar with the environment and there could be follow up work in class involving map and graph drawing. Angela Holland suggested that children could be involved in planning a visit themselves, as it was likely that when they accompanied parents or friends on a social outing they had no involvement in planning the visit.

Jenny remarked that we were tending to view children as solely tourists, and if we wanted children to feel empathy for those receiving tourists, particularly those in developing countries, then we should enable children to consider themselves as hosts. I interrupted here saying that in Devon many children were very aware of the problems of living in an area with a large number of tourists each year, with traffic congestion and beach pollution being two obvious effects of this. Jenny continued that she had in mind asking children to role play hosts. She had produced, she informed us a drama in which a flood is known to be about to reach a village. The children role play the villagers and give various responses to the imminent arrival of the flood. She indicated that this drama could be adapted so that flood became a tourist influx, and children role playing hosts in a resort could develop characters to respond to the tourist arrival.

Craig referred back to an earlier part of the brainstorm when he stated that although we quite rightly argued that some children would have little travel experience, others in a class might well have travelled extensively. He discussed, briefly, his own experience as a child having been brought up in India and his memories and feelings on first arrival in England. He stated that in multicultural Britain there could be a large number of children in a class who had not travelled overseas for a holiday but had visited family or friends, in for example Pakistan or Jamaica. Such children could be used as resources and inform other children about their journeys. They could also bring to
school souvenirs from their journey. These comments provoked Angela Grunsell to suggest that an activity could involve a British school linking with an overseas school and they could exchange artefacts.

Jenny indicated that children's holiday photographs could be used as a way into studying distant places, and this could lead to discussion of how photographs are selective images in which what is beyond the frame is not known nor what has happened immediately prior to the photograph being taken. This could lead, Jenny continued, into a critical study of tourist brochures in terms of the visual images and also the written statements. There would also be opportunities for children to take their own photographs as part of this critical appraisal of photographic images, she added. Angela Grunsell suggested that children could produce their own brochures or advertising material of a selected location or destination as a way of investigating media. David suggested that this approach could be applied to their own town or village and children could produce a brochure, guide or even a town trail.

Alison added another dimension to the discussion when she claimed that many children's books involved a journey, and despite the fact that some children in a class would not have experience of a real journey, they would have knowledge of imaginary journeys from literature and this experience could be used to compare real and fictional journeys or to inspire children to create their own imaginary journey. Getting children to create their own imaginary journey could also be used as way of discovering a child's expectations of a real journey the class or the individual child was about to make, Jenny added.
I moved the discussion at this point to a consideration of the age at which the Project should be taught. Initial comment from Alison and Angela Grunsell indicated that it should be possible to teach about tourism at any age in the primary phase. Craig asked whether young children, by which he meant infants, could understand the complexity of tourism issues. Angela Holland also considered that there was a danger that teaching about tourism issues to infant children could be superficial with the associated problems of stereotyping. David claimed that research indicated that unless children were confronted with controversial issues at a young age then their attitudes became set by the early teens. He stated that it was therefore important that children are made aware of controversial issues when they are young or they are more likely to develop stereotypical views. When I asked at what age children should come in contact with controversial ideas, he initially responded that some issues were around children from pre-school age, but in relation to his own work in global education the age of eight would be appropriate. Alison added, in relation to purely practical matters, schools would be more likely to study tourism in the junior age phase as the National Curriculum would be placing greater emphasis on the basic skills in the infant years, and allow more time and scope for other knowledge and skills areas in the junior age phase.

The final part of the second session involved discussion about the potential position of the Project in relation to National Curriculum subjects. At the time of the discussion draft guidelines had appeared for the core subjects of English, Maths and Science, but there had been no official written statements on the foundation subjects. I was aware that it would be somewhat difficult, therefore, for those present to provide evidence for their views. However I felt it important to gain some comment on the possible links between the Project and National Curriculum subjects.
I introduced this part of the discussion by reminding those present that a centrally directed National Curriculum involving a subject based approach was being introduced. I asked what opportunities or threats this would provide in relation to the Project. David responded by indicating that Geography would appear to be the most obvious vehicle for work on tourism. He claimed that Geography was about both the environment and people and how people interact with their environment and tourism studies would involve such a focus.

Angela Grunsell indicated that it was clear from the brainstorm on teaching there was much potential for teaching about tourism in the primary school. However she stated that it would be easier to do this in a curriculum that was not subject based. She claimed that she viewed tourism as a theme that did not fit neatly into one subject. In an ideal world she would teach what she regarded as the important issues, and here she referred to environmental impacts of tourism and tourism and development, which would cross subject boundaries. Jenny supported Angela's statement and added that she saw tourism as a potential topic and would plan and teach it in this way. Alison indicated that she also would teach tourism as a topic but was not sure that this would be appropriate with a subject based curriculum. Jenny claimed that despite the National Curriculum being written as separate subjects it did not mean that the primary curriculum had to be delivered as separate subjects. She saw ways of teaching tourism as a topic which would involve combining subjects, and here she gave examples of History and Art combined with Geography in a study of tourism in the local area. Angela stated that she believed that experienced teachers would tend to do what they had done previously, which was to employ a topic approach and then refer to National Curriculum documents to ensure they were doing what was required. Alison
supported this view claiming teachers were hardly likely to discard what they regarded as good practice.

David interjected at this point by reminding us that the National Curriculum was not just about subjects and we had previously referred to the cross-curricular themes. He suggested the theme Environmental Education should at least provide opportunities for work on tourism. The majority of those present said that they were only just beginning to be aware of these National Curriculum themes. I reminded the group that in addition to Environmental Education there were four other cross-curricular themes. Angela commented that although she had not read any official documents the theme Citizenship could provide an opportunity for discussion of values and attitudes in tourism. Craig also said he had not read documents but suggested Education for Economic and Industrial Understanding would seem to provide scope for work in tourism.

At this point the meeting came to an end and I thanked participants for their involvement. Below I provide a summary of the key findings.

**Main findings of the two brainstorm activities.**

1) It was a generally held view of the group that tourism studies had a relevance to the primary school. Broadly this was in terms of tourism issues having environmental and cultural dimensions that have relevance to teachers and children.

2) In terms of the age range, although it was suggested that tourism studies could be relevant to all primary ages, some of the concepts and issues might be better suited to the junior age phase.
3) In relation to the National Curriculum it was seen by the ex-primary teachers at the meeting that almost any of the National Curriculum subjects could have a tourism dimension, but subject areas specifically referred to that were likely to provide significant opportunities were Geography, Science, History and Art. Geography was suggested as the most obvious vehicle for tourism studies. This was related to Geography's concern with the environment, the fact that it focused on a number of scales including the global and that it linked people with the environment.

4) Tourism could also be used as a vehicle for values and attitudes work and could be a vehicle for that wider field known variously as global education, development education or world studies.

5) Despite the possibilities that tourism could be viewed as a relevant area in the primary curriculum, a number of those at the meeting suggested the introduction of the National Curriculum would limit opportunities. It was argued that this was because the National Curriculum was conceived of in terms of subjects and the Project appeared to be more topic related. The area of values and attitudes, which I regarded as an important part of the Project, was also likely to be marginalised, it was argued, because of the National Curriculum's concern with assessment of knowledge, understanding and skills and not attitudes.
CHAPTER 4 THE PROJECT

Section 3 Findings: Literature on Travel and Tourism

The review of literature presented below was part of my overall methodological framework of action research, which has been described in detail in Chapter 3, and is a product of what Cohen and Manion (1985, 1994) term research stage three, the literature survey. This survey took place over the period 1990-1992 and hence was occurring at the same time as other stages of research which are discussed in subsequent sections of this chapter. As the survey, however, led to a literature based rationale for travel and tourism in primary schools, which was in, at least, draft form prior to teaching, this part of the Project is discussed below.

The purposes of this rationale for travel and tourism studies were threefold. First, I was attempting to gain evidence from literature to try and convince myself of the need for teaching of tourism in primary schools; second, I wished to use this rationale in my discussions with teachers in Project schools; and third I intended to use the rationale in the Project book of activities in an attempt to persuade the wider educational community. This situation of being an advocate for the innovation and researcher of its impacts raised a number of issues in relation to these apparently distinctive and arguably incompatible roles. The problems of being both an advocate and critical researcher of the innovation are discussed in later sections of this chapter.

The contents of the rationale for travel and tourism I attempted to create can be subdivided under two main headings. Using literature derived predominantly from the academic field of tourism studies I attempted to indicate the significance of tourism as a human activity worthy of study in the primary school. Employing mainly professionally related literature I also
attempted to argue that travel and tourism studies would fit into the primary curriculum and assist teachers in their jobs.

In the section below I provide a discussion of the arguments I used in relation to the nature and significance of travel and tourism. I also consider the position of travel and tourism in relation to the primary curriculum of England and Wales and a part of the section is devoted to an investigation of travel and tourism in relation to the National Curriculum.

As with a number of the sentences in the preceding paragraph and in much literature the terms travel and tourism are closely linked. For reasons of economy, and unless I have made specific comment, I use the term 'tourism' in this section to denote the field of study of 'travel and tourism'.

The nature of tourism

The definition of tourism which comes closest to that used in this study was produced by Pearce (1989b) and is provided below:

Tourism represents one end of a broad leisure spectrum. A basic distinction between tourism and other forms of leisure, such as that practised in the home, (e.g. watching television) or within an urban area (e.g. going to the local swimming pool) is the travel component.....tourism is taken to include at least a one night stay away from the place of residence.
(Pearce, 1989b, p4)

Pearce's definition referred to the motivation for tourism, in terms of leisure, and made reference to the one essential element that distinguishes tourism from other forms of recreational activity, the requirement that travel is involved, which is agreed on by all writers on the subject. One area of contention in Pearce's definition is in relation to the requirement for tourism to involve a particular length of time away from place of residence. Matthieson and Wall (1982) did not specify a time requirement but referred
merely to a temporary movement of people in their comments on tourism, while Krippendorf (1987) argued that the length of time away from home is immaterial in relation to discussions of tourism's impacts.

Another area of contention which makes the achievement of an agreed definition difficult relates to motivation. Most commentators on tourism, including Leiper (1979) Matthieson and Wall (1982) and Murphy (1985), agree with Pearce in terms of what motivates tourists and they argue that tourism is one form of recreational activity taking place in leisure time. The contentious aspect of tourism in relation to motivation is business travel or business tourism, with work rather than leisure as the chief motivation. Hence this aspect does not fit easily into definitions of the field, although there are overlaps in reality in terms of the use of travel and accommodation facilities. Business tourism, however, did not form a part of the 'Learn to Travel' Project and was not part of the research.

In terms of the audience for my arguments about tourism (the Project teachers and wider educational community) I attempted to overcome the problems of the nature and definition of tourism by creating a relatively straightforward and easily understood rationale for tourism. I argued that there are two major elements of the field of tourism, which are people and places. In this attempt to create an easily accessible form for primary teachers I was using the ideas of Leiper (1979). Leiper's 'Tourist System' is shown in Figure 3, and in relation to the place element, indicates there are tourist generating regions, i.e. the origin of tourists, and also tourist destination regions. Linking these two are routeways and this diagram therefore includes the essential element within tourism of travel. Leiper's diagram also indicates one group of people involved, the tourists themselves. Other groups of people are also involved in tourism. There are those who work in the tourism industry providing
services, including travel, accommodation, catering and entertainment (Lavery, 1987). Yet another group, which I intended Project teachers to be aware of, are those resident in tourist destination regions, usually referred to as hosts, or the host population.

Figure 3 The Tourist System

The significance of tourism

In relation to my intention to persuade teachers and the wider educational community that tourism was an area of human endeavour worthy of study I sought information on its significance. Some of the information I gathered appeared in the Project text, *Learn to Travel: activities in Travel and Tourism for the primary school* (Mason, 1992), as part of the rationale for teaching about tourism in the primary school. I provide extracts from this rationale below and indicate the sources upon which this is based.

Using data from the World Tourism Organisation (WTO, 1991) and the World Travel and Tourism Council (1991) and Prag (1989) I argued that by the late 1980s tourism was probably the world's largest industry. As I stated;

Tourism, according to a survey carried out in 1989, employs more people than any other in the world....In the year 2000 tourism will produce more revenue than the steel, car or even the oil industry and will be the most important industry in the world.

(Mason, 1992, p 6)

I claimed that tourism was a global activity and was particularly significant in Europe and Britain stating:

In 1990 there were over 400 million international tourist arrivals...in 1960 there were only 60 million international arrivals. These 400 million people spent over £100 billion (Hamilton 1990)....In 1989 over 60% of international tourism took place in Europe. The Mediterranean coastal area with approximately 100 million tourists was the most important tourist destination in the world (WTO, 1991)...There were over 17 million overseas visitors to Britain in 1990 and they spent £8 billion (BTA, 1990).

(Mason, 1992, pp 6-7)
I also argued that tourism was a major job provider with over 60 million people employed in tourism in 1990 and a further 30 million jobs expected to be created in tourism by the year 2000 (Hamilton 1990).

I wanted to persuade teachers that tourism was no longer regarded as a luxury or a preserve of the wealthy. I used the arguments of a number of tourism writers including Urry (1990), Krippendorf (1987) and Turner and Ash (1976) when claiming:

In this century leisure time and disposable income have increased for the majority of people in Britain. The development of the car and more recently large jet aircraft have enabled mass travel, and hence mass tourism, to develop. Attitudes to travel and tourism have also changed. Travel was once considered a luxury by most British people. In the 1990s some sectors of British society will take two or more holidays each year, one of these being abroad and such people claim their break, far from being a luxury, is a necessity in which they need to recover from the stresses of their lifestyle.
(Mason, 1992, p7)

I regarded it as important to indicate to teachers that tourism had a number of major impacts. Basing my claims on the work of Lavery (1987) Krippendorf (1987) and my own research, (Mason, 1990a, 1991), I referred to economic impacts and initially what could be regarded as positive contributions to an economy including the creation of jobs, additions to a nation's balance of payments and injections of cash into the regional and local economy. Employing the ideas of Krippendorf (1987), Urry (1990) and O'Grady (1990) I also indicated there was increasing evidence of the damaging effects of tourism stating:

Tourism also affects the natural environment. Negative environmental effects, such as pollution of beaches and disturbance to wildlife, and cultural effects, such as modifications to social customs, are more difficult to measure than economic impacts. Recent studies, however, in such diverse locations as the Lake District, the Alps and
the Himalayas have revealed the damage caused by increasing visitor pressure.
(Mason, 1992, p 7)

Using ideas taken particularly from McCannell (1976), Krippendorf (1987), Lea (1988) and O'Grady (1990) I discussed the impacts on developing countries claiming:

Many Third World countries have seen tourism as an industry that can bring rapid wealth without involving much investment. It has also been seen as an industry that does not pollute the environment, being described "as an industry without chimneys". Some Third World countries that have previously developed tourism are beginning to note that short term economic gains need to be offset against longer term environmental damage......Modifications to culture in Third World locations are now also being noted. The spread of Western, and particularly American, culture is being held responsible for what several commentators have described as the "Coca-colarisation of the world".
(Mason, 1992, p 7)

The implications of these negative effects of tourism, I argued, was a growing concern for sustainable forms of tourism. I then presented a brief statement on the meaning of sustainable tourism based on that created by Eber (1992) to support this and followed it with what I regarded as a key issue in relation to the future of tourism.

It has been argued that sustainable tourism would need to sustain the environment in which tourism takes place, as well as the local host community that receives tourists. Whether it is possible in the long term to sustain the number of tourists at the same time as sustaining the environment, and host populations is major issue that will be a growing concern during the last decade of the millennium.
(Mason, 1992, p8)

Teaching about tourism
In the section below I discuss the arguments I created in relation to the professional aspects of tourism studies, with particular reference to where I claimed tourism studies could 'fit' within the primary curriculum.
I made references to tourism in secondary schools, further and higher education to contrast the status of tourism in these sectors with the primary sector, where I claimed little work on the theme existed. I suggested a rationale for teaching about travel and tourism in primary schools had been provided by Krippendorf (1987) in terms of his proposed 'Learn to Travel Campaign'. Krippendorf suggested that formal education had prepared children only for a sedentary existence and he argued that this lack of education about how to be a tourist was responsible not only for damaging behaviour towards the environment and host cultures, but also misapprehensions, disappointments and unfulfilled experiences during holidays. Krippendorf stated his campaign should involve adults through informal and formal education, but he intended all school children from the early years of primary school upwards should be part of this campaign.

The content of 'Learn to Travel' courses, Krippendorf argued, should include the following: exploration of the rhythms of life, particularly the relationship between rest, action leisure and work; developing respect for nature and wildlife; and the study of geography and history to understand more of the tourist environment. Developing knowledge and understanding was only one aspect of Krippendorf's proposed campaign, promoting responsible attitudes and behaviour was another major aim. As Krippendorf stated:

> At the age of twelve or fourteen the young will have adopted the basic attitudes and behaviour. At the end of their school education.... they will have learned how to travel - or the theory behind it. (Krippendorf, 1987, p146)

McSwann (1988) suggested rather different reasons for young people to be involved in learning about travel and tourism and I also employed his views.
He suggested that travel and tourism is likely to be a significant industrial activity in the future and was mainly concerned to ensure that the future needs, for employees in the travel industry, would be met. McSwann's concerns were expressed in relation to Australasia, but the desire to provide enough employees in travel and tourism is not confined to that continent. Lavery (1987) indicated that the boom in jobs in tourism in the 1980s in the UK did not necessarily mean that those employed in the industry were skilled or sufficiently well trained and he claimed there was still a shortfall in the supply of trained staff for the industry.

As a part of the rationale for teaching about tourism in primary schools I discussed the need for children to learn about industry. Learning about and gaining experience in industry had been a not unusual experience for secondary school pupils in the past quarter century, I claimed but there had been, however, growing concern in the UK, that younger children should learn more about industry. This argument was based on that of Smith (1988) who claimed the Industry Year of 1986 had given a boost to the development of links between industry and primary schools and contributed to the establishment of the School Curriculum Industry Project (SCIP).

One of the teachers involved in the SCIP was Richards who worked at Tintern Catbrook Primary School in the Welsh Borders. Richards taught a class of 7-11 year olds in the school and considered, for potential study, relevant industries in the local area. He initially considered agriculture, but eventually decided on the tourist industry. The process by which he reached this decision provides the rationale for his focus on tourism, as he stated:

What industry other than agriculture could there be in such a rural area? The children are nearly always the best starting point............. points which seemed less important at first emerged: "My mother
does surveys, she interviews visitors at Tintern Abbey", ...."my mother works as a waitress in the evenings at the Hotel".
(Richards, 1988, p 145)

Having realised a number of his pupil's parents were in someway part of the local tourism industry, Richards looked for a way of integrating the study of tourism into his other activities. He decided to locate the investigation of the tourism industry within an Environmental Studies programme that already existed at the school. In relation to the industry dimension of the work Richards indicated that the objectives were as follows:

- to give the children a better understanding of the working world, to understand the needs and interests of people in different working situations, and to experience meeting people outside the peer group, family or teachers.
(Richards, 1988, p147)

To achieve these objectives Richards decided to focus on three aspects of the tourist industry, which led him to investigate a tourist attraction, a local hotel and to consider the historical development of tourism in the local area.

In his evaluation of the work Richards indicated that the children not only learned a body of knowledge relating to tourism but, as he employed a child-centred, experiential approach to the activities, he claimed the most important outcome was that children developed the skills of observation and those relating to collection, interpretation and representation of data. As he claimed:

But what was more valuable was the process by which the children acquired the data and what they finally did with it ...
(Richards, 1988, p155)

Primary schools often produce and publish guides about the school for parents and visitors. Some schools produce guides to the local area and Colwyn Bay School, in North Wales, produced a booklet entitled A Young Visitors Guide to Colwyn Bay (Ysgol Cystennin, 1990). This guide was unusual as it was
written entirely by children at the school and received national publicity, via the Times Educational Supplement, partly as a result of being written by the children but also as it was seen as an innovative activity for children to be involved in. The guide contained information and advice on the local area, a map of North Wales and suggestions on days out. Staff and children at the school arranged for local shops to sell the guide. I used A Young Visitors Guide to Colwyn Bay as a part of the rationale for teaching about tourism, and provided Project teachers with copies of extracts from it.

Despite the work carried out by Richards at Tintern Catbrook School and the rationale for learning about tourism provided by Krippendorf and McSwann I believed that little work focusing directly on tourism as a specific topic was occurring in primary schools before the introduction of the National Curriculum. I was aware of literature, however, that indicated that tourism studies were being used as a vehicle to achieve other educational objectives than merely gaining knowledge on tourism as an economic activity.

According to Catling (1988) a common topic in primary schools in the 1970s and 1980s went under the title of 'Journeys' or 'On the Move'. Catling discussed the use of 'On the Move' with a group of 6-7 year olds in an inner city multi-ethnic school. He indicated that the rationale for the use of this topic was to build on children's own experience of movement and to incorporate an environmental focus with a particular concern to develop children's spatial awareness. Catling produced a number of topic webs in connection with 'On the Move' and these showed that the study of journeys for leisure purposes was to be included. In addition to an important knowledge element within the study of journeys Catling stated a number of cognitive and social skills could be developed. He also suggested in his discussion of a spiral curriculum, where children revisit topics at different
stages in their school life, that the study of holidays could take place at the age of 8 or 9, when children have gained some experience of local and more distant journeys.

I was also aware of a number of initiatives, during the 1980s, that pre-dated or ran contemporaneously with the SCIP, involving a tourism dimension. One of many activities in the influential national project World Studies 8-13 publication (Fisher and Hicks, 1985) involved study of tourism. It was titled 'The Problem of Tourism', featured in a section subtitled, 'Too much or too little', and its aim was to examine the dilemmas raised by tourism in developing countries. In the activity children were to study travel brochure images to decide on tourist attractions. They were also asked to consider statements from those in a developing country who were affected by tourism, including a farmer, local elder and travel representative. Children then used the views of those affected by tourism and the travel brochures to discuss and write about the 'advantages' and 'disadvantages' of tourism in a developing country. This activity also asked teachers to consider tourism impacts in other areas than just developing countries. As the activity stated:

> tourism gives rise to problems in all countries where it occurs, not solely in poorer countries. It may be possible to raise the more general issue of whether tourism inevitably trivialises, even destroys, the culture of the host country.
> (Fisher and Hicks, 1985, p112)

A number of other projects with a global concern, including the Global Teacher, Global Learner publication of Selby and Pike (1986) and the Jordanhill Project on International Understanding in the Primary School directed by Dunlop (1982) also provided opportunities for study of tourism, although there was little overt reference to tourism in these works.
Some non-government organisations, including Oxfam and the Council for Education in World Citizenship were beginning to produce publications on the theme of tourism by the early 1990s (see, for example, Questioning Tourism, Stancliffe, 1990). Additionally the Council for World Development Education had published the previously discussed booklet by Jenny Button and Angela Holland, Tourism and Development, in 1990.

By the early 1990s the Attainment Targets (ATs) and Programmes of Study (POS) of National Curriculum subjects also provided some support for teaching and learning about tourism in the primary school. The section that follows discusses the material I drew upon to make claims about where travel and tourism could fit within the National Curriculum.

Tourism and the National Primary Curriculum

In the early period of the introduction of the National Curriculum (1989-1991) the only subject which made direct reference to the fields of leisure and tourism was Geography. Geography in the National Curriculum (DES, 1991a) and the previously published Proposals for Geography (DES, 1990) made several references to tourism. These were mostly in the (non-statutory) examples of possible work, and also in the accompanying Non-Statutory Guidance. However, ATs concerned with knowledge and understanding of places, human geography and environmental geography each made some reference to tourism, either directly, or indirectly through the use of terms such as leisure and recreation.

In terms of references to tourism in Geography at KS1 and KS2, children were asked to consider recreation and travel in their locality and when comparing one locality with another. Tourism in the French Alps was also presented as an example to assist in comparison with a UK area. There were several
references to the study of journeys and holidays were provided as an example of reasons for journeys. Holiday resorts were also referred to, and recreation was presented as an example, in relation to land use conflicts. There were several direct and indirect references to tourism in relation to the quality and vulnerability of different environments and the possibilities for protecting and managing environments. Leisure was provided as an example of environmental change and there was also reference to it in relation to conflicting demands in areas of great scenic beauty, such as National Parks.

In the Non-Statutory Guidance for Geography there were several references to travel and tourism. 'Journeys' and 'Moving' were suggested as possible topics for study at Key Stage (KS) 2, and protection of the environment of the home region should involve a focus on leisure activities, it was suggested, for KS 2. The tourism industry in Barbados was put forward as an example within the study of a locality of an Economically Developing country at KS 2. In relation to possible fieldwork topics, studies of a local park, a beauty spot and assessing beach quality were suggested. The Non-Statutory Guidance also provided a unit of study for KS 2, 'Study of Another Locality', which gave a detailed example of how tourism could be used as a focus for investigation, indicated skills that could be developed and additionally suggested possible activities (NCC, 1991).

No other National Curriculum subject made specific reference to tourism in this early period of its introduction. A number, however, made indirect reference and others provided scope for the inclusion of study of tourism. I referred to these subject areas within my rationale for tourism in the primary curriculum and I discuss below the claims I made and the literature upon which the claims were based.
In *History in the National Curriculum* (DES, 1991b) there was reference to the need for children to study past leisure activities, particularly in relation to Victorian Britain. The Study Unit 3, 'Victorian Britain', also called for pupils to be taught about forms of transport, including the railways and Victorian leisure and pastimes.

In relation to *Science in the National Curriculum* (DES 1989a) I suggested opportunities for work focusing on tourism existed in relation to potentially damaging effects of tourists and impacts such as trampling and footpath erosion could be investigated. This process, I suggested, could also involve the use of scientific skills.

I argued that the study of tourism should offer children the opportunities to develop the English National Curriculum required skills of writing, reading, talking and listening as well as investigating the persuasive power of language, and the more general skills of discussing, debating, role play and reporting (DES, 1989b). I also suggested that tourism studies could involve children in data collecting, handling, analysing and presenting which were skills required in the National Curriculum core subject of Mathematics (DES, 1989c).

Although not a prescribed National Curriculum subject, there was a requirement for all schools to teach Religious Education and it was the subject's concern with values and beliefs that provided opportunities in the teaching of tourism, I claimed.

I suggested that three of the five National Curriculum cross-curricular themes appeared to facilitate study of travel and tourism. In terms of the knowledge and understanding area of Education for Economic and Industrial
Understanding the following points, I suggested, were significant in relation to tourism studies: the organisation of industry and industrial relations; what it means to be a consumer; the relationship between economy and society; and the role of government (NCC, 1990a)

Much of the cross-curricular theme of Environmental Education appeared to have relevance to study of tourism I argued, particularly, where there was reference to appreciation of, and care and concern for the environment and living things; a respect for the beliefs and opinions of others; and tolerance and open mindedness (NCC, 1990b)

A number of statements in the document on the cross-curricular theme of Citizenship (NCC, 1990c) appeared to provide potential opportunities for the study of tourism, particularly those concerned with attitudes. I referred to the following statements from the Citizenship document arguing they could assist with work concerned with tourism;

pupils should be helped to develop a personal moral code and to explore values and beliefs and should have the opportunity to: compare beliefs; discuss differences and resolve conflict; appreciate that individual values and beliefs and moral codes change over time... (NCC, 1990c, p8)

I combined my arguments based on academic tourism literature with those linked to professionally related material and created a ten point rationale for tourism studies for primary schools which later appeared in the 'Learn to Travel' Project book. I provide a summarised extract of this rationale below:

1 Most children take holidays. Holidays and travel are for most children something that interests and excites them and they will therefore be motivated in this field of study, which should provide an opportunity for creative and imaginative work.... Teaching about holidays will nevertheless be a potentially sensitive area, as children have varied, and what may be
seen as unequal experiences, with some children not actually having had a holiday and others believing they have not had one.

2 Many children live in areas that receive tourists. Many children live in areas that receive tourists, and playing hosts to tourists means that children are likely to have witnessed the effects of tourism in their area. They may well have first hand knowledge of the "good" and the "bad" impacts, and this experience can be used in the classroom.

3 The tourism industry is an important economic activity. For much of the 1980s tourism was a rapidly expanding industry in Britain, and children may have friends or members of their family involved in the tourist industry and this experience can be used in teaching. There is an increasing need to focus on industry in the primary school, particularly since the publication of the National Curriculum.... The cross-curricular theme of Economic and Industrial Understanding indicates this concern with industry in the National Curriculum.

4 Tourism is a global activity. Tourism is an important global activity and a major world industry. The international scale of focus enables global knowledge and understanding to be developed; geographical knowledge of, for example, tourist destinations and major attractions....Children will also need to know international travel routes. The study of tourism at the international scale will also enable children to become aware of the impact of tourists on the environment, on cultures and individuals.

5 Travel and tourism can be used in topic work. Familiarity with tourism in the local area can be used in a variety of topics that are already in use in schools. The knowledge area of travel fits in particularly well with commonly used topics such as 'Journeys' and 'Moving'.

6 Study of travel and tourism fits in with the National Curriculum. Specific reference to the study of travel and tourism is made in the National Curriculum Geography Document. There are opportunities in all core subjects and in the foundations subjects of History, Technology and Art.... The cross-curricular themes of Environmental Education and Economic and Industrial Understanding are also vehicles for the study of travel and tourism.

7 Travel and tourism can be used a vehicle for work on values and attitudes. The study of travel and tourism provides a number of opportunities for the investigation of values and attitudes. As tourism is an international activity there are several ways in which the activity can be used to promote greater international
understanding and reduce misunderstanding. It is an ideal vehicle for the consideration of stereotypes ... and it is hoped that children will develop sensitivity towards other cultures and individuals through a study of travel and tourism. This aspect of the study of travel and tourism will need sensitive handling to ensure that children's minds are opened up to a range of differing views and stereotypes are questioned rather than reinforced.

8 Travel and tourism can involve the use of a range of skills. Skills used in the study of travel and tourism are likely to be both social and cognitive, including the social skills of co-operation and group work, and cognitive skills of critical thinking, problem solving and decision making. The process of enquiry in National Curriculum Geography requires the formulation of questions or hypotheses, collecting, analysing, interpreting and presenting data and reflecting on the findings of the enquiry. This process of geographical enquiry should lead to the development of a number of important skills. Tourism is an ideal vehicle for geographical enquiry.

9 Travel and tourism provides an opportunity for action. A study of travel and tourism can provide opportunities to take action. Action could include: links with other schools, both within Britain and overseas; planning and running educational visits in Britain and abroad; and hosting visits by children from other schools. Children can also monitor the impact of tourist activity on the environment.

10 Travel and tourism will become an increasingly important part of children's lives. Travel and tourism are likely to become an increasingly important part of children's lives as they become adolescents, and later as adults. A growing number of children will not just be tourists, but also find themselves living in host areas that will receive more and more visitors. Some children will find employment ... in the tourist industry. Children will need to develop the ability to travel with curiosity, but also responsibility for their actions with regard to other people. They will also need to ... develop an understanding of what it means to be stewards of the planet. (Mason, 1992)

Summary

This review of literature on tourism and tourism and the primary curriculum enabled me to create a number of related working hypotheses as a curriculum innovator. In general terms the hypotheses were concerned with the nature
and significance of tourism and its potential contribution to the primary curriculum. These linked hypotheses are set out below.

Teachers can be persuaded to incorporate tourism into the primary curriculum if they can be convinced of:

a) the importance of the subject area in terms of economic, social and environmental factors;
b) its use as a vehicle for social and cognitive skill development through, for example, mapwork and fieldwork;
c) its use as a vehicle for broad concept development and value formation in relation to, for example, inequality, fairness, tolerance and international understanding;
d) its relevance in relation to the subjects and cross-curricular themes of the National Curriculum.
CHAPTER 4 THE PROJECT

Section 4 Findings: Guidelines for teachers

Introduction
An important outcome of the previously discussed meeting at WWF offices was the agreement that I should attempt to introduce the Project as soon as possible. I realised this would involve me in working with primary teachers, but before establishing a group of teachers I had a number of concerns which needed to be resolved in advance of communicating with them. Some of these had arisen as result of the meeting at WWF and others which had been present prior to this but were now assuming greater importance as outline proposals began to translate into a concrete project. This section discusses the issues relating to the creation of guidelines for teachers as well as indicating the nature of these guidelines. The nature of the processes involved and products created in the Project were partly dependent on these early decisions and hence are important in helping to explain the direction that the Project took.

Creating guidelines for teachers
Creating guidelines was not a straightforward activity as I was aware that the guidelines in terms of content, as well as the style and tone would be important. This was therefore a problematic area. Behind the decisions that were eventually made were a number of concerns. Some of the concerns resulted from the WWF meeting, others I was previously aware of but had not resolved. The concerns that I had prior to the meeting at WWF are set out below.

I regarded it as important to define clearly the role I wanted teachers to employ in the Project, and this was related to Cohen and Manion's (1985, 1994) claims
about the necessity of establishing clear objectives at the outset of a Project. I was concerned about the way teachers would view their role as curriculum developers and the type of advice that I could offer in response to their role. I was also unsure about how teachers would respond to the Project aims and objectives and I was particularly concerned about teachers' knowledge and understanding of tourism themes and issues or as I perceived it, their lack of this. In relation to the issue of teachers' knowledge and understanding of tourism I considered the extent to which I should allow or encourage teacher autonomy in developing activities. On the one hand I regarded the teachers as professionals who knew best how to plan, organise and teach their classes. I felt, however, on the other hand, that teachers would not necessarily have the knowledge of tourism to deliver the content of the Project.

I was very much aware of my lack of primary experience and this contributed to feelings of unease in relation to my ability to fulfil my role as Project co-ordinator. This in turn contributed to concerns about the potential response of teachers to this lack of direct primary experience, particularly in terms of offering advice.

The meeting at WWF had emphasised the significance of the National Curriculum. This had led to a developing concern about the context or setting for the curriculum development and the constraints that it could impose. As a result of the meeting I was particularly concerned about the possibility of 'innovation overload' for teachers. I also regarded the subject-based nature of the National Curriculum as problematic and potentially a threat to the possible success of the Project. The WWF meeting had made me more aware of the possible response of children to materials developed by teachers. It had also raised the issue of assessment and I wondered how any impacts on children could be assessed. I was also concerned about the wider setting for the
I wanted to know how the wider educational world of teachers, headteachers, advisors, parents and governors would react to the Project.

I was however aware that not all these concerns were easy to resolve immediately and I decided it was necessary to prioritise the concerns. I decided my main priorities were to define and establish my own role and also that of the teachers at this early stage.

In an attempt to resolve these concerns I initially considered ways to communicate to the teachers the aims and potential outcomes of the Project. I felt that I would need to speak with the teachers, but also give them statements on paper so that I could refer to these in meetings with them. Such statements could also serve the purpose of being reference material for teachers after I had departed, I believed. Putting some ideas on paper would also serve the purpose of focusing my attention on what I wanted to communicate to them which would help clarify my role.

Subsequently, to resolve my concerns, I put myself in the position of a teacher about to become involved in the Project, and attempted to devise questions that I would want to ask in this role. I provide an extract from the notes I kept in relation to the question: 'What would I want to ask (as a teacher) before becoming involved in the 'Learn to Travel' Project?'

There are some broad questions. These include:
Why should I get involved? / What is in it for me?
Will this lead to better career opportunities?
Will I get my name in print?
(Fieldnotes, June 1990)

I believed I could answer the question 'What is in it for me?' by offering teachers the development and writing fee offered by WWF and this would
also be accompanied by confirmation that teachers would have their work published, if considered appropriate. I believed I could also cite examples from other curriculum development projects to support the view that being involved could help with career/staff development.

I then assumed the role of a teacher who had decided to accept these incentives and who was about to be come involved. In this role I posed the questions set out below:

Will this involve me in more time/effort/commitment than at present?
How will I be supported during the Project?
(Fieldnotes, June 1990)

In relation to the support in the Project there would be other questions that teachers would pose. These I also wrote down and they are set out below:

What are the overall aims of the Project?
Are there any suggestions or ideas on possible activities?
Are there any examples of activities?
Will this Project help deliver the National Curriculum?
How will I assess and evaluate work in the Project?
(Fieldnotes, June 1990)

I decided in relation to these hypothetical questions that not only was the quality of my response likely to be important but also the method of communicating it. I believed the message I gave and the way it was communicated could well influence the initial involvement of teachers and their long term commitment. I therefore considered the most appropriate ways of responding and decided that those requiring relatively brief and straightforward responses could be best answered on paper, whilst others of a potentially more discursive nature, would be more suitable to face to face discussion.
In response to my concerns about how to get teachers to become aware of the aims and objectives of the Project and translate these into classroom activities the dilemma I believed I was faced with was how to both inform and yet also inspire teachers. I might consider the broad aims of the Project as laudable but could teachers translate them into activities? I was particularly concerned at this time with National Curriculum material being perceived as very much driven by assessment. This view had been stated at the WWF meeting and primary teachers I had talked with and university colleagues frequently made the claim that unless an aim or objective could be assessed then it was unlikely to appear in the final National Curriculum document. I was also concerned about the amount of input I should give teachers in terms of activities.

I decided eventually, that I would allow teachers a great deal of autonomy within this framework of aims and objectives, despite my concerns about what I regarded as their lack of knowledge of tourism. This decision was taken partly on practical grounds but also on a philosophical basis. The practical grounds for this decision were that I was unable to produce a programme of activities for the Project, given time constraints and also my lack of direct experience of the primary sector. Philosophically I was also opposed to this approach as I wished to give teachers autonomy in the classroom on the basis that they were professionals. I therefore decided that what I produced for teachers should be seen as guidance and not as a set of objectives in relation to which teachers felt they had to measure children’s progress. They were therefore intended more as a checklist that teachers could use to inspire and stimulate thinking and also to review their progress rather than to measure children’s progress. To compensate for the lack of precise guidance on what I wanted to be taught, I also provided teachers with examples of possible activities.
The product of my reflection on what should be provided for teachers as guidelines on the aims and objectives of the Project are shown in Figure 4 'Objectives of the Learn to Travel Project'. Figure 4 shows the objectives of the Project under the following headings: knowledge and understanding, skills and attitudes and values. This structural division into three areas drew on the examples established in a number of syllabuses at GCE, CSE and later GCSE level in 1970s and 1980s, particularly those in Geography and Fisher and Hicks (1985) also used this three fold division. The drafts and proposals of National Curriculum subjects available at this time in Science and Geography also made reference to these three areas of knowledge and understanding, skills and attitudes and values. The order of stating the objectives, beginning with knowledge and proceeding through skills to attitudes and values, was a convention with which I felt most teachers would be familiar.

In relation to the content of the objective statements, I felt that to achieve the aims of the project, of developing sensitivity, concern and responsible attitudes children would need to gain knowledge and understanding of the people and environments involved in tourism. I believed that they would become concerned about the social, cultural and environmental dimensions of tourism only if they had knowledge of tourism activity. Equally, however, I was aware that knowledge gained would not be value free.

Gaining knowledge, developing sensitivity and concern and becoming aware of their responsibilities with regard to the planet might not necessarily occur in a sequence. The sequence from gaining knowledge to becoming aware of responsibilities was an ideal and primarily a way to spell out possible steps towards the goal of greater awareness. Gaining knowledge, developing concern and becoming aware of responsibilities could happen almost
simultaneously, and not perhaps sequentially as implied by the order of the objectives as they appear in Figure 4. I believed however there was an important need to set out each objective in this way to indicate to teachers its potential when it came to the developing of strategies. I also considered that equal importance should be given to the objective statements on values and attitudes as for those statements for knowledge and understanding.

In relation to skills to be developed via the Project I wished teachers to be aware of a range of cognitive and social skills. In relation to the cognitive skills within the objectives I was greatly influenced by the National Curriculum Proposals Geography for ages 5-16 (DES 1990). These proposals briefly outlined a process of enquiry in geography which I simplified into the eight points (i to viii) in my skills objectives. I was also influenced by statements on skills made by Fisher and Hicks (1985). In formulating their objectives Fisher and Hicks acknowledged their debt to the earlier One World Trust 'World Studies Project' and indicated they were drawing on an original model developed by Richardson (1980). I therefore believed that these ideas had an impressive pedigree.

Fisher and Hicks (1985) produced five objectives in the skills area, these were enquiry skills, communication skills, grasping concepts, critical thinking and political skills. These I felt provided very useful statements on how my broad aims which were to enable children to develop informed concern and responsible attitudes could be achieved. My skills objectives already had a detailed statement on enquiry, but I adapted Fisher and Hicks statements on communication skills, critical thinking and political thinking and built these into the Project skills objectives.
Attitudes and values objective 1), was included as I felt that children would need to go through a process of becoming interested and curious about people and environments involved in tourism before developing sensitivity and concern. Attitudes and values objective 2), was created as I saw children studying other people's views as an important stage towards the development of their own personal, social and moral commitment and the statement about children developing their own standpoint appeared as objective 5). The values and attitudes objectives 3) and 4) in Figure 4 were almost identical to the broad aims of the Project, 'become sensitive and concerned about the environment in which travel and tourism takes place' and 'become sensitive and concerned about the cultures, societies and individuals involved in travel and tourism'. Attitude and values objectives 1) - 5) would also contribute, I intended, to the objective of children becoming aware of their responsibility as stewards of the planet, which appeared as objective 6).

I also produced for teachers a framework for lesson planning which is shown in Figure 5. This framework had firstly the aim of providing a structure for teachers when devising activities and it was designed to act as a checklist. Secondly I hoped it would ensure consistency between the teachers in different schools when writing up their activities for publication. I was influenced in particular by the World Studies 8-13 (Fisher and Hicks, 1985) activities when creating this framework, but also considered it to be generally consistent with lesson planning frameworks used by most teachers, whether explicitly or implicitly. The only part of the framework designed specifically with publication in mind was that concerned with variations on the lesson/activity. Suggestions on variations here were intended to give teachers with, for example, older or different ability children ideas on how to adapt the activity.
Objectives of The Learn to Travel Schools’ Project

Knowledge and understanding

1. Children should have an understanding of the meaning of the concept tourism.
2. Children should know about the different forms of travel used in connection with tourism.
3. Children should know about the natural environment in which travel and tourism takes place.
4. Children should know about the social, cultural, economic and political environment in which travel and tourism take place.
5. Children should have knowledge and understanding of the impacts of tourism on the natural environment, culture, society, economy and individuals.
6. Children should know how to investigate and reflect upon a variety of possible futures for travel and tourism. They should be made aware of ways in which they may act to influence the future, both as tourists and hosts.

Skills

1. A variety of skills can be stated under the heading of Enquiry Skills. Children should be able to:
   • recognise a focus for enquiry.
   • formulate questions which give direction to this enquiry.
   • collect relevant data.
   • analyse and interpret information.
   • offer explanations, draw conclusions and where appropriate propose actions.
   • present findings and conclusions.
   • evaluate the enquiry.
   • consider the ways in which their own assumptions, attitudes and values may have changed as a result of the enquiry.
2. These enquiry skills should assist with the following:
Communication skills
children should be able to describe and explain their ideas in a variety of ways including writing, discussion, role play and artform display;

Critical thinking
children should be able to approach issues with an open and critical mind and be willing to change their ideas as they learn;

Political thinking
children should develop the ability to influence decision makers at a variety of scales from local to international.

Attitudes and values
Children should be provided with the opportunity to:
1 develop curiosity and interest about the people and environments involved in travel and tourism.
2 investigate a range and variety of values with regard to travel and tourism.
3 develop sensitivity and concern for individuals and cultures involved in travel and tourism.
4 develop sensitivity and concern for the environment in which travel and tourism takes place.
5 develop their own personal and social commitment with regard to issues concerning travel and tourism.
6 become aware of their responsibilities as stewards of the planet, and take action accordingly.

Source: Mason, P. (1990) 'Unpublished Draft Guidelines,' produced for teachers involved in "The Learn to Travel Schools' Project"
Figure 5 Framework for Lesson Plans (from the document provided for teachers, August, 1990)

FRAMEWORK FOR LESSON PLANNING

1) **Aims/Purpose of the Learning Activity**
   This should be expressed in terms of knowledge, understanding, skills and attitudes that the activity is intended to develop.

2) **Preparation**
   This should include a consideration of at least the following:
   a) resources/materials required
   b) classroom organisation
   c) preparation for outdoor activities such as visits and fieldwork
   d) time considerations

3) **Methods/Procedure**
   This should involve a step-by-step account of how the activity proceeds. It should include consideration of the following questions:
   a) What do the children do?
   b) What do the children learn?
   c) What is the teacher's role?
   d) What is the nature of assessment?

4) **Points for Discussion**
   This relates to particularly important points/issues/key ideas/concepts that will be raised and discussed in the class and may need to be taken further.

5) **Follow-up Work**
   This should include suggestions on ways in which the activity could lead to more learning activities.

6) **Variations**
   This should involve discussion of ways the activity could be adapted for e.g. older children, younger children, different locations, using other resources etc.

**PLEASE USE THIS FRAMEWORK IN YOUR WRITE-UP**
As I indicated above I decided that I should give teachers suggestions on activities and this was partly in response to my hypothetical questions: 'Are there any suggestions on activities?' and 'Are there any examples of activities?' In this part of the material I wrote for teachers I referred them initially to material I had previously given them. In addition I identified areas that would, I believed enable teachers to locate work within the context of the National Curriculum and possibly give them a starting point for developing ideas on activities. I also felt it necessary, however, for teachers not to feel completely bound by National Curriculum documents.

To assist with the development of activities I had included an example of a Geography Unit entitled 'Moving'. This unit accompanied the Proposals Geography for ages 5-16 (DES 1990). There was, however, little reference to values and attitudes in the Geography unit 'Moving', yet as I have indicated I wanted the area of values and attitudes be included in the planning and developing of activities. I also wanted teachers to come up with their own ideas first, decide whether they had educational value and then check these against official documents. This process was based on discussions with a number of staff during visits to schools as a part of my role in student supervision which had indicated that if a teacher came up with an idea, immediately studied a National Curriculum Document, and found there was no apparent reference in the document, then there was a temptation to reject the idea. They would then feel it necessary in future to study the documents before planning and this was likely to restrict their creativity and autonomy, it was claimed. Experienced teachers had suggested that this approach was not an appropriate method of planning, hence my statement in the materials for teachers, 'Plan first - refer to documents later.'
I provided two suggestions on possible activities in the form of brief outlines. The first of these, 'A town trail', would I believed, be familiar to teachers as a standard activity used often in a school. The versions of 'the trail' however included ideas on children developing their own trail and as an alternative to the more conventional trail asking children to prepare one with sites that they would not want visitors to see. My interest here was to provoke teachers into preparing activities that involved children in a consideration of their attitudes to their area. The second activity was based on A Young Persons Guide to Colwyn Bay, which had been produced by the children of Cystennin School, Colwyn Bay in North Wales. I provided an extract from this 'Guide' which contained a brief description of the area, ideas on what young visitors to Colwyn Bay could do, suggestions on 'days out' and a welcome to the area to visitors in English, Welsh, French, German and Dutch.

In addition to these suggestions on activities I also referred teachers to two role play activities, a series of dilemmas and an exercise producing display work in my publication Tourism: Environment and Development Perspectives. Each teacher had been given a copy of this when agreeing to become involved in the Project.

The remaining part of the material I produced for teachers was a number of thoughts and suggestions on evaluation. The aim of these suggestions was to make teachers aware at the beginning of planning work that they would need to conduct evaluation as I did not want them to feel that they could leave this until after they had completed work. My intention here was to indicate that using conventional techniques such as questionnaires, written and oral tests it would be relatively straightforward to assess children's knowledge and understanding gained in the Project, and this would assist in the overall evaluation. Similarly I indicated that assessing skill development, and
particularly enquiry skills, should be relatively easy through observation and
discussion. I was particularly concerned to inform teachers that although
assessing changes in values and attitudes was a more difficult task I did not
want them to ignore this area because it was difficult. I therefore provided a
number of approaches to assessing changes in values and attitudes. For these
suggestions on evaluation I drew, particularly, on ideas put forward by Fisher
and Hicks (1985). A copy of these suggestions is provided in Figure 6.

A major task for teachers was to turn these aims and objectives into plans for
activities. A discussion of teachers' plans is found in Section Four of the this
chapter. Before the discussion of plans I outline the process of establishing a
team of teachers who acted as curriculum developers and this is discussed
next.
Some Thoughts on Evaluation

How is it possible to discover whether the work done in the Learn to Travel project is achieving the aims and objectives?

It is possible to evaluate the factual aspects of the course - those areas coming primarily under the heading of Knowledge. Tests of a written or oral form can be devised. Questionnaires can also be used particularly in relation to certain key concepts that may feature in teaching/learning strategies. Small group discussion should allow the teacher to monitor children's understanding.

It should be relatively easy to evaluate skill development, particularly the enquiry skills, through group discussion and observation of children at work. It should be possible to observe for example whether children are developing the enquiry skills of recognising a focus of investigation through the various stages of enquiry to evaluating their enquiry.

It is difficult to evaluate changes in attitude, values and behaviour. If changes have occurred it is even more difficult to know whether these are real rather than presentation, in other words it is difficult to know whether or not children are providing a truthful view at the time or merely one they believe will be acceptable to the teacher. It is not easy to discover what factors, in or outside the classroom, have brought about any changes in attitude.

Nevertheless here are some suggestions for a number of approaches:

1) Children can be asked directly their views on a particular topic or issue. They can be asked whether they have changed their opinion and what has led to this change of view if it has occurred. They can also be asked what they have learned and perhaps what they think the teacher wanted them to learn.

2) The whole class or a group can be given a set of questions, which would usually relate to a particular piece of work. The results of the questions could then be presented to the class or group for discussion.

3) These two approaches above will tend to be most useful after a topic or issue has been studied. 'Before and After' approaches are particularly useful with attitudes. Children can be asked their views on an issue before the work starts and then again after it has been completed. Most research indicates that views take time to form and are not quickly changed. This strategy of evaluation, therefore, should be used with care. It may be appropriate to do a 'Before and After' assessment with a significant time gap between the two parts of the evaluation rather than at the beginning of the lesson and then (After) at the end.

It will be important with this approach to be aware of the possibility of presentation values being stated rather than real values. A strategy that may avoid this is to ask children to brainstorm a topic/issue. From the lists of children's ideas those relating to values can be selected by the teacher. Ensuring that the children's lists are not pulled to pieces the teacher can pose such questions as 'Do you agree or disagree with this?' 'How do we know if this is true or not?' and 'Where did you get that information from?'

4) Children's written and other work can be reviewed over a long period for evidence of, for example, growing interest in particular topics, willingness to accept other people's views and even changes in their own views.

5) The teacher may decide to keep a class diary of remarks and incidents both in and outside the classroom that relate to attitude formation and change. It may be possible to note growing awareness of environmental issues which are provoked by a local activity and not as a result of work done at school. Children's awareness of problems such as litter in and around the school may be another aspect to be monitored in this less formal type of evaluation.

6) Indirect evaluation can come from parents, who may mention changes in their child's views and outlook.

In all these approaches the evaluation should be used for the child's benefit as well as the teacher's. The child should be helped to identify changes in their feelings, assumptions and outlook. They should be encouraged to ask themselves why the changes have occurred and what this will mean for future actions.
CHAPTER 4 THE PROJECT

Section 5 Finding: Establishing a team of teachers

During the summer term of 1990 I attempted to establish a group of teachers who would act as curriculum developers to produce materials for the 'Learn to Travel' Project. There were two major tensions in relation to the establishment of this group. On the one hand I wanted a Project that was 'manageable', in terms of being able to make regular and frequent personal contact with teachers. This meant I wished for a relatively small group. On the other hand, I believed I required the generation of data which I could compare and from which I could analyse and draw valid conclusions. As Hopkins (1989) claimed one way in which the methodology of a case study can be made more valid is to adopt a comparative approach involving more than one site being researched.

The teachers and schools involved in curriculum development

The main reason for the choice of more than one teacher, in other words to establish a group of teachers, was to create opportunities for the comparison of the approaches to curriculum development of different teachers. It would have been a relatively straightforward task to use a number of teachers in just one school. This approach, as argued earlier, would leave itself open to the criticism that unusual or peculiar circumstances existed in the school and any findings would necessarily have to be considered less valid. To make findings more valid I believed it would be appropriate to use different schools. As different circumstances would exist in different schools it would be possible to conduct the type of comparative case study approach suggested by Glaser and Strauss (1967). My intention to use a group of teachers was also related to the aim to investigate evidence of the nature and impact of collaboration in curriculum innovation.
Selecting the schools and teachers to be involved was problematic in that I was new to the area and had few contacts. However, I felt that this did have an advantage in that my findings would be more valid as a result of my situation, as it made it virtually impossible for me to select teachers with whom I had previous contact. I also wanted to try to ensure that none of the teachers had been involved in work similar to the Project as I wanted it to be new to all teachers involved.

In terms of the schools to be involved I considered three, each in a different setting which was representative of a particular environmental context in Devon, would be sufficient to provide me with comparative data. As Devon is a largely rural county, but with three large urban areas, Plymouth, Torbay and Exeter and a number of small to medium size settlements I regarded it as important to have a school from each of these environments. A number of other criteria also influenced the selection of schools. I wanted a range of different size schools. Devon has a number of first and middle schools as well as a large number of more typical aged 5-11 primary schools, but in terms of making valid comparisons I regarded it as essential that all three schools covered the complete primary age range from 5-11. As I was only studying a very small number of schools I believed that a finding in relation to a first school or a middle school might not have the same validity as that for the more typical primary school and thus it would not be as generalisable or as potentially applicable to other settings. I intended to have children in at least the junior (8-11) age group, as it had been suggested, at the WWF meeting, that this would be the most appropriate age range. I also intended that children would be representative of primary classes in Devon with a mix of differing aptitudes and abilities. In terms of teachers I hoped to involve both male and female staff, and ensure there was a mix of different ages and experience.
The schools and teachers involved in the field research are given their actual names in the discussion below as these details have previously been published and additionally permission has been obtained from those concerned to name them here. I established the team of teachers initially by formal approaches, but also by more informal means. The name of the headteacher at Clyst Hydon School, Helen Jenkins, was given to me by a University of Plymouth colleague who had informed her of the Project. I contacted Helen by telephone and followed this up with a letter, which contained the original proposals that had been submitted to WWF. I was able to meet Anne Hawkins from Clyst Hydon School informally during a visit to Rolle Faculty during the summer term 1990. I outlined the aims and nature of the Project. After our discussion Anne indicated orally her interest and said that she and the headteacher would write to confirm their commitment to the Project. They did this in June 1990.

Another colleague with several years working experience in schools in Devon suggested that Redhills School could be a suitable location to develop activities. I wrote to the headteacher enclosing a copy of the proposal submitted to WWF. The headteacher passed this on to the teacher she felt would be interested and able to be involved, and this teacher was Brenda Knowles. I had discussion with Brenda by telephone and then visited her in May 1990 taking the Project proposals. She indicated at this meeting that she was interested, but would like to work collaboratively with her colleague taking the parallel age group class and I met her colleague, Neil Williams, during this visit. I supported this arrangement, believing it would generate data on the process of collaboration, and both teachers confirmed their involvement in the Project in late May 1990.
Bassett's Farm School was known to me through University colleagues and because the headteacher was a regular visitor to the University. Colleagues indicated that it was quite likely that the headteacher would be interested in the Project as she had encouraged and allowed other staff and students at the university to work in the school. I contacted her by letter in the summer term 1990, enclosing a copy of the proposal submitted to WWF. She had brief discussion with the teacher she considered would be interested. She phoned to tell me she had passed on my letter to her selected teacher, Angela Smith, and said the reason for her choice of teacher was because the teacher was interested in environmental issues and had at one time been a member of the Green party. I visited Angela for the first time in May 1990, and discussed the nature and aims of the Project and she confirmed her involvement in writing in early June, 1990. A brief description of schools involved in the first trialling of Project activities is provided below, and this is followed by a discussion of the nature of the teachers and the children involved.

Redhills School is a 5-13 age group school, with over four hundred on roll, housed in fairly modern but traditional classrooms, in Exeter. It is within a mile of the city centre in a predominantly Victorian/Edwardian housing area but with more modern in-fill. The school is of predominantly of recent origin, being built after the Second World War. The buildings are one storey, with a large central hall, alongside this the head's and secretary's offices. At the time of the research adjacent to the central hall was another space of approximately equal size which was used for PE, music and as a dining room. Three corridors led away from the hall and class rooms were located along these corridors. The classrooms of the teachers involved in the research were located close to the dining hall, could be reached from this hall and also from outside.
Bassett's Farm School had approximately two hundred children on roll aged 4-12 and had been built on an open-plan basis in the last twenty years. The school is located in the suburbs of Exmouth, a town with a population of approximately thirty thousand people. It was purpose-built in the 1970s on an open-plan basis. The only rooms, as such, were the head's office, secretary's office, the staffroom and toilets. At the time of the research the majority of the school was sectioned off into areas, partitioned by walls and corridors, but also with screens and curtains. The school was on a number of levels with an entrance hall and at the same level a centrally located dining area which was also used as a meeting area. The class areas were at a lower level following the slope of the land. Somewhat separate from the main open plan area, and at the same height as the entrance foyer was a hall which could be used for drama, PE and assembly.

Clyst Hydon School is in the small East Devon village of the same name. The school is housed in a late Victorian building, located centrally in the village and having only two classes. It had just two teachers and less than fifty children on roll, at the time of the research. In the Victorian part of the school was the early years classroom of mixed Reception to Year Two children. In this building there was also the headteachers' office/staffroom and a space for the part time secretary. The junior classroom (children aged 7-12) was a mobile hut located at the rear of the school in the playground adjacent to the outdoor toilets.

Initially the group of teachers comprised four females and one male. Of the female teachers Angela was recently qualified with two years experience at Bassett's Farm School. She had graduated after a four year BEd course at the University of Plymouth, but had left before I started work there. Her single subject area was Art and she also specialised in the junior age phase. Anne of
Clyst Hydon School had five years primary teaching experience, two at a previous school and three in the present post, and in her BEd she had specialised in English. Both of these teachers were main grade and neither held a position of particular responsibility.

Brenda had twenty one years experience in a number of primary schools including eleven years at Redhills School. She held a position of responsibility as a year group coordinator and also for Personal and Social Education across the school. The other female teacher, Helen, was the teaching head at Clyst Hydon School with twenty seven years experience, including ten in Devon and had been in her present post as teaching head for four years. The only male teacher Neil worked at Redhills School and taught a parallel age group class to Brenda. He had three years of teaching experience, was a Recreation and Sports Studies graduate from Exeter University and also had a Post Graduate Certificate of Education.

Angela's class at Bassett's Farm School had twenty seven Year 5 children aged 9-10, Brenda's class at Redhills School had twenty six Year 4 children, aged 8-9 and Neil had a parallel age group class at the school with twenty five children in it. Anne's class covered the entire junior phase with twenty three children aged 7-12. Helen's class had twenty four Reception to Year Two aged children. Helen however, withdrew from the Project before developing activities. The result of Helen's withdrawal was that all remaining teachers were working with junior age phase classes and all the classes that remained were mixed ability.

Before starting to develop activities all teachers signed a contract which had been drawn up, at my suggestion, by WWF. This contract stated that teachers would receive a fee for their work. Each teacher was offered a total fee of £250,
half of which would be payable before publication, but after production of activities, and the remainder upon publication. In total WWF allocated £1250 of the Project finances to teachers' fees and provided me with another £250 to pay teachers' expenses in connection with, for example, travel or photocopying. I believed that teachers would view the fee as rather low. However, I had asked WWF to provide some financial support for teachers as I argued it would be an indication from me (and also WWF) that the Project was to be taken seriously, and the other less tangible benefits, referred to by Parsons (1987) and Fullan (1991), such as teachers getting their name in print and gaining staff development would actually happen. The reaction of all teachers, initially, to the offer of a fee was pleasant surprise, but this was quickly tempered, in all but the case of Angela, with a reaction indicating that it was not a particularly large fee.

The next section of this chapter discusses the plans of the teachers referred to above to indicate their intentions prior to teaching Project activities.
CHAPTER 4 THE PROJECT

Section 6 Findings: Teachers' Plans

This section deals with teachers' plans for the Project activities. The discussion is based mainly on the interviews I conducted in July 1991. Prior to the interviews I had produced a number of resources for teachers, visited and spoken to each on at least one occasion in the Summer Term and again in the early Autumn Term during 1990. Teachers started to plan during the latter part of the Summer Term 1990 but did not produce these plans as written documents until the Autumn Term of 1990/91. I asked teachers for a copy of their plans to be sent to me in advance of my meeting with them. I then discussed these with them during separate visits to each school early in the Autumn Term of 1990. When I discussed the teachers' plans with them I attempted to record the teachers' responses on paper during the discussions, but this technique was only partially successful. I therefore resolved to interview teachers and record this. However, the opportunity to conduct interviews did not occur until the Summer Term of 1991.

The teachers' plans can be considered a part of what Pollard and Tann (1993) termed the 'intended curriculum' and this section investigates the process of the creation of these plans and in particular considers the significance of the National Curriculum in relation to planning.

Teachers' Plans

The comments in this section are mainly the product of the interviews that took place after the first trialling of Project activities. The interviews discussed in this section took place at the end of the summer term 1991 and were recorded on a battery operated microcassette recorder. Teachers were informed in advance of the interview that I wished to record it, and asked to inform me
if they had any objections to this. All agreed to the recording of the interviews.

Interviews were designed to be semi-structured (Wragg, 1978). I had a number of questions to which I wished teachers to respond, but I also wanted to give the teachers the opportunity to provide additional comments, if they wished to. A copy of the interview questions used can be found in Appendix 1. The aims of the interviews were to get teachers to discuss their planning approaches to the activities they created and also to evaluate these activities. I leave the discussion of the findings in relation to my questions concerned with teachers evaluating their work until a later section of this chapter.

In relation to planning there were a number of what I regarded as key question areas in the interviews. These were as follows:

How did you plan your work?
Why did you plan in the way you did?
What was the place of the National Curriculum in your planning?

I provide below a discussion of my findings on the way teachers planned.

I interviewed Brenda and Neil of Redhills School together and the first formal question I asked them was concerned with their process of planning. They responded that the first thing they did was to brainstorm. They indicated that this meant initially putting a number of ideas on paper. I asked precisely how they went about this process and I produce here a verbatim extract from the transcript of the tape recording.
Neil Williams: We just listed ideas.
Brenda Knowles: We then went back and picked out the ideas that we really wanted to cover then expanded those.
Peter Mason: How did you select from the list?
Brenda Knowles: We looked at what the children had already done, and thought what would be a reasonable follow on. We thought about resources and whether ideas would be practical.
Peter Mason: What do you mean practical?
Brenda Knowles: Whether we felt we could do it and the children could do it. I think we also selected ones with the National Curriculum in mind.
Peter Mason: Did you have the National Curriculum documents there?
Brenda Knowles: Yes
Peter Mason: Do you usually plan in this way, or was this different?
Brenda Knowles: This is the usual way. So we were looking at what we had put in our plan that would fit the National Curriculum, rather than looking at the National Curriculum and then drawing up our plan.
(Interview with Brenda Knowles and Neil Williams, July 1991)

The interview with Angela of Bassett's Farm School also indicated that she had begun with a brainstorm. Angela stated that she had a number of materials with her and that it was very important to have these in front of her, not just to refer to but also to reassure her with their presence. These materials included World Studies 8-13 (Fisher and Hicks, 1985) with which she was familiar having used this for planning previously, a copy of the 1984 April issue of New Internationalist magazine, devoted entirely to tourism, and the pamphlet Tourism and Development, (Button and Holland, 1990). She had also seen a video on tourism in SW England at that time and there had been several articles in the local and national press. She indicated that she had not realised how much there was in the media about tourism until she started to look, but felt, as she stated:

it was coming at me from all directions
(Interview with Angela Smith, July 1991)
In response to my question about whether National Curriculum documents featured prominently in these early stages of planning, Angela responded:

No, I had documents with me but only looked at them after the initial brainstorm and when I had looked at the other stuff I had with me.

(Interview with Angela Smith, July 1991)

Anne of Clyst Hydon School indicated that her planning had not only considered Project work but she had looked at work for the whole of the teaching year and tried to find a location for Project work. The school had several 'rolling topics' which were spread over a four year period. 'On the Move/Journeys' was one such topic and she wished to teach this during the year 1990-91. She saw this both as an opportunity to develop material for the Project, and in anticipation of the impending arrival of the final National Curriculum History and Geography documents later that year she decided that this topic would also enable her to get to know and make use of these documents.

Although Anne's colleague, Helen, was initially involved in the Project and they had the opportunity to plan together, they did not do this. Anne gave as reasons for this the lack of time, but also because each of them was preparing for different age groups and so Anne stated that she planned on her own. In response to my question about the resources she actually used in planning, she indicated that she had the National Curriculum documents in front of her, but did not refer to these initially. She stated:

I looked at your aims and objectives for the Project and then I brainstormed. Then I organised these (the ideas of the brainstorm) into groups of ideas and then I looked at the National Curriculum. I then reflected on these and decided on any other National Curriculum areas that they could cover.

(Interview with Anne Hawkins, July 1991)
During the interviews I asked each teacher a supplementary question to the first one about initial planning and this was concerned with the importance of the National Curriculum within their planning. Brenda indicated in response that her work with Neil had involved a topic with a different subject focus in each term. As she said:

We had a History topic in the first term - Victorians, and the second term was to be a Geography/Science based one. We have decided that one topic will have to be a History one because of the way the National Curriculum has been drawn up. Language and Maths come into all topics, but the History one does not always have much Science so we've tried to have a Science one, following on. Then for the third term we look to see what we haven't covered.

(Interview with Brenda Knowles and Neil Williams, July 1991)

Brenda stated that before the introduction of the National Curriculum the school had a number of 'rolling topics' and that she used an environmentally-based topic each year. The Geography and Science based topic was a modification of this original topic. I asked Brenda to provide more detail on the nature of the second term topic. Her response was as follows:

We wanted this topic to give us an all round view of the curriculum. We try to include every thing or at least things that are environmental. The topic is called 'Roots and Routes'. It's a combination of Science and Geography. But we intended this to be more Geography than Science.

(Interview with Brenda Knowles and Neil Williams, July 1991)

I asked where the Project was located in relation to Geography and Science and Brenda's response was that they were intending to do a topic that covered Geography, but the Project focused their attention to a greater extent than would have been the case without it. However, Neil indicated they still intended to have a significant proportion of the work in the 'Roots and Routes' topic as Science related.
The product of the initial planning by Brenda and Neil can be seen in Figure 7 and it shows Brenda and Neil's intention to use the Project to cover most areas of the curriculum. It shows the prominence given to Geography (under the heading Humanities) and that they appeared to have carefully studied the National Curriculum document and referred to what they regarded as appropriate Attainments Targets. Of note is that they had tried to find some aspect of each Attainment Target (AT) that had some relevance to the Project. In the skills area (AT1 Geographical Skills) their planning included their intention to use maps and co-ordinates. AT2 was one of three Attainment Targets concerned, at this time, with locational knowledge and Brenda and Neil intended to make use of AT2 to enable children to study distinctive features, with a tourism dimension, in their locality. They also intended to use children's own experience of travel in AT4, The Wider World. With reference to AT5, Physical Geography, they planned to teach about seasonal patterns of weather in relation to tourism, while in relation to AT6, Human Geography, they intended to make use of the study of journeys. Brenda and Neil planned to undertake some work on values and attitudes, as can be seen in the reference to personal likes and dislikes in relation to features of the local environment which was stimulated by study of AT7, Environmental Geography.
Figure 7 Brenda Knowles and Neil Williams Plans for Project activities

Language
AT1 Questioning population
AT2 Invitation in Exeter
AT3 Interviewing people about effects of tourism on the city
AT4 Media portrayals of different places/areas
AT5 Group discussion in developing an island report
AT6 Seeking information from different sources
AT7 Writing letters to seek information, pen-friends
AT8 Produce a range of types of non-chronological writing eg young person guide to city
AT9 Produce chronological writing eg local stories, imaginative folklore
AT10 Developing a script for a holiday programme
AT11 Redrafting and editing the above

Art/CDT
AT12 Local and overseas crafts eg weaving, pottery, painting, drawing
AT13 Creating an island environment - collage, threedimensional model
AT14 Design, make and test a system for counting people, cars etc
AT11 Link to Bedford

Music/drama
AT16 Role play - developing a tourist resort on an island
AT17 Producing a segment for a holiday programme promoting Exeter as a tourist resort
AT18 Story-telling - local myths, ghost stories etc (Bedford)
AT19 Traditional songs from different areas - a journey of songs
AT20 Instruments that are associated with different environments
AT21 Creating a jingle for the purpose of promoting Exeter

Mathematics
AT22 Design a board game to promote Exeter eg Exeter Challenge
AT23 Interpreting and analysing bills in different areas - cost of travel to different locations - foreign exchange rates
AT24 Time and distance, time zone
AT25 Functions, rules, co-ordinates
AT26 Analysing data collected about tourism in Exeter
AT27 Use of database to find facts
AT28 Tallying of people's views and factual information

Science
AT29 Changes in the environment because of tourism
AT30 Waste, recycling and pollution
AT31 Contrasts about uses of land for development to attract tourist trade
AT32 Sorting materials according to characteristics
AT33 Looking at natural/man-made materials
AT34 Effects of heating and cooling on materials
AT35 Different states of materials eg solids, liquids, gases

Humanities
AT36 Geography
AT37 Street maps and co-ordinates
AT38 Distance features eg diverse trails, places to visit. Lewis's activities in the areas studied - comparisons of differences between North and South England
AT39 Places visited by the children and why these places are suitable as tourist resorts
AT40 Seasonal patterns in weather
AT41 Poetry - local myths, ghost stories etc (Bedford)
AT42 Personal diaries concerning features of the local environment
AT43 History
AT44 Local legends, myths and tales about the featured environments
AT45 Differences in transportation throughout history eg effect on travelling times, resorts' popularity
AT46 Famous historical people/celebrities from Exeter, North, areas studied

PE/movement
AT47 Local dances - folk, traditional
AT48 Physical work based on travelling and direct link to school guidelines

RE/PSME
AT49 Tolerance and respect for cultures and beliefs
AT50 Festivals celebrated in different areas
AT51 Bible stories - The Good Samaritan, The Prodigal Son
AT52 Guide to where all beliefs can worship in Exeter when on holiday
Figure 7 also provides evidence of Brenda's interview comment that Language and Maths fit all topics. Brenda and Neil referred to a number of Maths and English ATs when planning. Their language work was intended to involve a number of skills including, searching for information in a number of sources, producing different types of writing and using questionnaires. The Maths work was planned to include study of time, direction, co-ordinates, routes, analysing data and designing a board game. In the Science related work these two teachers identified two areas of study in their planning, firstly concern with examining the impacts of tourism on the environment and secondly work on the characteristics of materials.

The other subject areas of the curriculum were not, at the stage of the teachers planning, in the form of official National Curriculum documents and hence no reference is made to Attainment Targets in these subjects. Figure 7 reveals that Brenda and Neil considered work involving Music and Drama could form a significant part of Project activities. They placed particular emphasis on role play. The activity they planned involving the creation of an island environment demonstrates their awareness of the potential for the use of role play. They also noted the possibilities that this role play involving an island environment would create in the curriculum areas of Art and Technology, specifically through the making of a model of this island. Brenda and Neil also referred to local and overseas crafts, music and dance in their planning, and made links to the appropriate National Curriculum areas. They also saw the possibility of using the Project in Religious Education and Personal, Social and Moral Education, through work considering tolerance and respect for other cultures and beliefs, as well as possibilities for the use of Bible Stories, such as the Good Samaritan and the Prodigal Son.
The product of Anne's planning is shown in Figure 8 and it shows the central importance of Language work. The planning diagram reveals several similarities with that of Brenda and Neil. The teachers had not been in contact however at this point. Like Brenda and Neil, Anne planned with the intention of using the Project to cover all National Curriculum areas.

In relation to Maths Anne's planning was similar to that of Brenda and Neil's in terms of reference to direction, routes and co-ordinates as well as reference to time and handling data. Although not as detailed as the planning in Geography by Brenda and Neil, Anne referred to the use of maps, and the comparing and contrasting of localities, both of which Brenda and Neil included in their planning. Anne also made reference to specific ATs, although unlike Brenda and Neil only those in Science and Maths. When asked why she had not related her planning to ATs in English (Language) Anne responded that she could remember these and did not need to write them down. Anne was involved in a Language-based Project based in Devon at the time, and hence her plans indicate that she believed the Project could be used to achieve a good deal of English work. With reference to skill development, she indicated a number of areas including research skills, analysing tourist brochures, explaining and interpreting as well as recording and reporting. She felt children could produce creative writing and there would also be opportunities for children to express their feelings in relation to, for example, places perceived as desirable and undesirable to visit. There were references to the use of 'Journeys' in her planning for Music/Dance, Religious Studies and Drama. Her planning in Science was more related to movement of objects than people, but she indicated at interview that she wanted to get children to understand some scientific principles before looking at, for example, use of fuel in cars and ways to save fuel. This, she indicated, was
Figure 8 Anne Hawkins' Plans for Project activities

**HUMANITIES**

**History:**
- Research a famous explorer
- Transport through the ages - ships, air balloons etc

**Geography:**
- Map reading - compass points, symbols, own maps, scale, OS maps
- Contrast facilities and their locality; home area, with those of another locality (Birmingham, airport, beach etc)

**LANGUAGES**

- Speaking/listening - interviewing travel agent, tourist board, air stewardess (?) Jean Coleman
- Recording scientific experiments - diary of journeys for a week
- Reporting - journeys to Birmingham?
- Airport, travel agents
- Speculating - if I had £1,000 where would I go on holiday?
- Expressing feelings and emotions - where would you not like to go?
- Record feelings in Birmingham
- Writing a postcard
- Explanation and interpretation. Discuss a suitable travelling companion. Select a country to visit
- Route to school
- Justify and argue - preparation for different types of journeys, contents of suitcase etc
- Persuading - in groups/pairs. A guide book/holiday brochure for Clyst Hydon
- Fuel economy
- Creative - story of an imaginary journey into space, centre of the earth. Poetry using transport
- Research - explorers and migrating animals
- Use of brochures, newspapers, encyclopedias, magazines etc

**MUSIC/DANCE**

- Journey through space using the Planets' Suite
- Inventing calls to other planets
- Movement to Mars and Venus

**RELIgIOUS STUDIES & PSME**

- Pilgrimage - ancient English tradition
  - (a) Canterbury
  - (b) Glastonbury
- Hajj - Islamic tradition
- Exodus from Egypt - Moses
- Paul's missionary journeys
- Noah's Ark
- Guilds - Aylward

**SCIENCE**

- Investigate elastic power leading to model making and testing (3a-c)
- (a) Consider fuel sources, how they can be stored (or not) - why we need them for journeys/transport or otherwise (4a-c)
- Heat - temperature recording and results (4d-e)
- Consider heat economy/efficiency - lists ways to save fuels round school (4f-g)

**ART & DESIGN**

- (a) Three views per child - postcards of Clyst Hydon
- (b) Posters advertising Clyst Hydon
- (c) Paint hot air balloons and what you can see from them
- (d) Portraits of explorers

**MATHEMATICS**

- AT 8 24 hour clocks and timetable reading
- AT 8 Length - cm, m, km
- AT 12 Handling data collected about rail travel and air travel
- Use of our facts to record results
- AT 11 Directions, routes co-ordinates

**TECHNOLOGY & PROBLEM SOLVING**

- IT Adventure game
- Treasure map
- Observe use of computer at travel agent
- (a) Make an elastic powered model
- (b) Plan and illustrate the perfect travelling companion

**DRAMA/ROLE PLAY**

- (a) Wish you were here - Clyst Hydon
- (b) Pairs - persuade someone to go on holiday, tell them no longer going on holiday with you because you are going with someone else
- (c) On board a plane
related to work planned in History concerned with changes in transport over
time and this concern with transport through the ages, is also found in the
planning of Brenda and Neil.

A rather different approach to planning is shown in Figure 9. I asked Angela
what had led her to the use of her five headings and at first she could not
remember. Eventually she found the photocopy of *Tourism and
Development*, (Button and Holland, 1990) she had mentioned earlier in the
interview as being a document she had with her at the outset of planning.
Button and Holland used five headings Economic, Cultural, Environmental,
Social and Political. Angela had been greatly influenced by the use of the
headings as she wanted particularly to ensure that her teaching had an
environmental and social bias. She had created her headings Environmental
Bias, Political Bias, Historical Bias and Social Bias based on Button and
Holland's five headings. I questioned her on the use of the term 'bias'. She
responded that all her work was biased in some way, either to her interests,
the children's or the even the National Curriculum. She indicated that
'influence' or perhaps 'angle' may have been more appropriate terms to use,
but she wanted to try to make sure that her work gave consideration to
tourism being a controversial issue, so 'bias' seemed a good word.

The process of planning Angela described involved her using one of her
headings and then coming up with an idea for an activity that she felt related
closely to the heading. She indicated that she tried to ensure a number of
activities under each heading, but what she had produced was not as intended.
As she stated:
I started with the idea I could do lots of environmental activities, that's why 'Environmental Bias' is first in my planning, but I then came up with things that were more about people, with role plays, and looking at the way you behave on holiday, and the way we react to tourists. So what I ended up was more about people, so I thought these are mainly 'Social Bias' activities.

(Interview with Angela Smith, July 1991)

Figure 9 Angela Smith's Plans for Project activities

I asked Angela about the use of National Curriculum documents and she responded that she had looked in detail at the Geography document, Proposals for Geography ages 5-16, (DES, 1990). Within the seven ATs, she indicated, there were a number of specific references to tourism and recreation and to global perspectives and issues. At the time of the interview the revised Geography in the National Curriculum (DES 1991a) document had just been produced and she stated her disappointment with this. She claimed that the reduced content and number of ATs meant fewer references to tourism and also it was less clear what was to be taught about the 'wider world',

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reference to the earlier AT 4 in the original Proposals for Geography, DES 1990). She indicated that in her planning she considered other National Curriculum areas, particularly English and History, but was initially not sure how these subject areas could be used as part of Project work. She did however want to do more than Geography, in fact she an idea in the early stages, that she could combine Project activities with global education/world studies in an activity that the school had used before during 'One World Week'. As she stated

I wanted to do more than Geography, I thought 'Learn to Travel' was about much more than just one subject area, it was about broader things and would help me also deliver some English and History, but I was not sure how, to begin with. (Interview with Angela Smith, July 1991)

Discussion

The interviews with teachers provide some useful insight into the initial stages of the process of planning Project activities. In relation to this planning all four teachers appeared to approach what was to be taught in the Project using a topic approach and clearly did not regard tourism as a separate subject area. All four teachers also indicated that the process of planning for the Project was similar to the planning for other topics. This is particularly noteworthy as I had provided written guidance on planning and suggestions during meetings to teachers but had not indicated any one particular approach should be adopted.

The first part of the actual process of writing down ideas on what to teach was a brainstorm, which was either conducted collaboratively in the case of Brenda and Neil at Redhills School, or individually in the case of teachers Anne and Angela. The brainstorm was then employed to inform a second stage of planning when National Curriculum documents were used much more
prominently. These documents were scanned to find reference to the ideas generated in the brainstorm. Teachers employed the structure of the National Curriculum in an attempt to identify subject areas that could be covered in the Project. All subject areas were considered during planning but some subject areas were much more prominent than others. Geography, was particularly prominent in the plans of all teachers but other subjects were also important. The prominence of Geography in the teachers' plans, is at least in part, probably related to the emphasis I placed on it in my early meetings with teachers, both in what I said and in terms of the written materials I gave them.

The introduction of National Curriculum Geography would appear to have contributed to the use of the subject in the Project. When teachers were involved in planning Geography in the National Curriculum (DES 1991a) had not appeared, but the original document, Proposals for Geography (DES, 1990), was available and I had attempted to make teachers aware of this. As Angela commented at interview this document, in comparison with the final statutory version, had far more direct references to tourism. As Angela stated the Proposals for Geography was important to back up her 'brainstormed' plans. The importance of National Geography can be seen in Brenda and Neil's planning as they attempted to link their ideas to all seven ATs of the original Geography proposals. The emphasis on environmental aspects within National Curriculum Geography linked closely with specific objectives of the Project, and Angela made use of the term 'Environmental Bias' in her planning, which led to a focus on Geography.

Although all teachers were influenced by the National Curriculum, one in particular, Angela, was more concerned to fit teaching ideas to a structure that pre-dated the National Curriculum and was a form of a checklist to ensure
coverage of what she regarded as important environmental, social, economic and political issues.

Despite the importance of the National Curriculum and its emphasis on subjects, the evidence from teachers' planning seemed to indicate that they preferred at this time to trust to their own experience of a previously tried and tested approach to planning in the absence of prescriptive statements about how to teach this new curriculum. This would seem to support what Knight et al (1991) argued when they claimed that it was one thing for a government to produce a National Curriculum, but quite another to implement it, and what Ball and Bowe (1992) claim in terms of the National Curriculum having to be created in the classroom.

Six years after the introduction of the National Curriculum Stannard (1995) reported that there was still a strong commitment to the topic work approach to the organisation of the primary curriculum. Stannard suggested that teachers continued to adopt this approach citing relevance and the value of integration as the main parts of the rationale for its continuation. He also indicated that teachers see topic planning as an economical way to manage the curriculum. Stannard was however critical of the topic approach, suggesting it is potentially limitless and often results in plans that are over ambitious leading to superficiality, the omission of some planned work and drift, when work shifts into unplanned areas. He also indicated:

Because the topic is the key to the planning, subjects are structured by the demands of the topic, rather than vice versa. This can lead to idiosyncratic planning based on arbitrary links between subjects. Such links make more sense to the teachers than they do to the pupils. (Stannard, 1995, p4)
I suggest there is some evidence that at least two of the three sets of plans for the Project, those of Anne, and Brenda and Neil, are overambitious as they attempted to cover the entire curriculum and hence ran the risk of leading to superficiality.

Marsden (1994) also commented critically on the use of the topic work approach. He argued:

> the main reason for much ill-focused quality of much integrated work has been the brainstorming approach, with its characteristically promiscuous end-product of the topic web.

(Marsden, 1994, p107)

Marsden (1993) argued that the initial process of brainstorming does not itself produce overall conceptual coherence. In relation to the threads of a topic work diagram he claimed;

> The connections come not from the shifting sands of the themes surface, but the deeper structures beneath.

(Marsden, 1993 p123)

Marsden also cited HMI reports to support his views and these reports also refer to the apparent limitlessness of topics particularly where these are concerned with global as well as local issues and the topic itself is a broad cross-disciplinary scheme. As all four Project teachers used a brainstorm approach and the Project had a broad theme the effects of the planning process on the actual activities produced could be viewed as particularly significant. The activities and processes contributing to their development are discussed in the next section.
CHAPTER 4 THE PROJECT

SECTION 7 Findings: Teachers' Activities

This section discusses activities developed by teachers as part of Project. They are evidence of what Pollard and Tann (1993) termed the 'intended curriculum', a part of what they referred to as the 'official curriculum'. The activities are discussed in terms of their aims, the curriculum content and the pedagogy of the activities. The links between the aims of the activities, the teachers plans and the aims of the Project are investigated. The curriculum content of the activities is investigated in relation to the learning elements of knowledge, concepts, skills and attitudes. The curriculum content is also investigated in relation to the original aims of teachers and the impact of the National Curriculum. The pedagogy is discussed as it provides evidence of the teachers' underlying philosophy in relation to the impact of the National Curriculum. The activities also provide an insight into the nature of the role of the teachers in the Project and the degree of success or failure of this role. By implication what teachers developed provides insights into my role as co-ordinator of the Project.

Teachers' Activities

A total of twenty seven activities were prepared and trialled by teachers during 1990-91 as part of the Project. Ten activities were developed by Brenda and Neil, four by Anne and thirteen by Angela. Of the ten activities developed by Brenda and Neil one of these was developed and taught collaboratively, and one was planned collaboratively, but taught separately by each of the two teachers. Not all of the activities were included in Learn to Travel: activities in travel and tourism for the primary school (Mason, 1992) and reasons for non-inclusion are discussed below, where there is relevance to the research.
The aims of the activities

In this sub-section I examine the aims of teachers activities. I examine each of the teacher's activities in turn, beginning with those developed by Angela.

Angela's thirteen activities reveal a linking of the aims between a number of activities, a sequencing and some attempt to develop children's thinking over time and hence an attempt at progression. At interview Angela indicated that her general aims for all Project work were as follows: to develop children's concern for the impact of tourism, to use tourism as vehicle for developing geographical knowledge and help children consider alternative solutions to problems caused by tourism. As she stated:

I wanted to get the children's consciences working.
(Interview with Angela Smith, July 1991)

At least two of the aims stated by Angela, those relating to the impact of tourism and to studying attempts at solving problems are linked closely to the general aims of the Project and particularly where there was reference to developing concern for the people and environments affected by tourism and developing responsible attitudes and actions as tourists.

Angela indicated at interview that her first activity, 'Golden Island', was an attempt to introduce the whole scheme of work and find out 'where children were at' (Interview with Angela Smith, July, 1991). By this she meant that she wanted to not only gain an impression of children's knowledge of tourism but also some idea of their attitudes. The original draft of Angela's second, third and fourth activities revealed how they were linked to each other. The focus of each activity was on images in relation to tourism and the main aim was to explore marketing and selling in tourism. In her second activity Angela asked children to produce a leaflet for visitors to Exmouth and she extended this in
her third activity, 'Mighty, Mighty, Exmouth' with the intention that children produce the script for a promotional video for the town. In both these activities she stated a major aim was for children:

- to consider the positive and negative aspects of their area in relation to the production of tourist material.

(Draft write-up of activities, Angela Smith, August 1991)

Angela's fourth activity involved children role playing tourists on holiday and sending postcards home. She indicated that this was an attempt to get children to discuss good and bad holiday experiences and relate these to the wider issue of tourism marketing.

A number of Angela's activities, 'Going Places', 'Good and Bad Holidaymakers', 'Bed and Breakfast' and 'When the Tourists Flew In' were intended to involve children in discussion of the relationship between tourists and hosts. The activities 'Round the World Game', 'One World Week and 'Adopt a Footpath' were intended to develop geographical knowledge, while 'Adopt a Footpath' and 'Bed and Breakfast' aimed to develop geographical skills.

The activities 'Adopt a Footpath' and 'Timetable for a School for Tourism' were attempts to involve children in action in relation to solving problems generated by tourism, and the latter activity also had the aim of involving children in consideration of the future development of tourism. The activity 'What's On in Exmouth' was the only activity that Angela intended to use to develop a historical perspective, while 'One World Week' aimed to provide a review of much of the Project work that Angela had attempted.

Anne produced four activities for the Project, and unlike Angela used the terms knowledge, understanding, skills, attitudes and values in her aims.
Anne's activities, however, unlike Angela's, were not sequenced and she did not seem to have the aim of creating related activities. There was no clear intention to consider children's progression. Two of these activities, can be regarded as 'one offs', although these two were very closely linked in their aims. The other two activities took place at a much later date in the school year but were linked to each other although not clearly linked to the previous two activities.

Anne's two related 'one off' activities were titled 'Visit to an Airport' and 'Visit to a Railway Station'. The main aim for both of these activities, Anne indicated in her written draft documents, was for children to experience different modes of travel. Anne also made specific reference to a Project aim in 'Visit to an Airport' when she stated:

children should develop curiosity and interest about the people and environments involved in travel and tourism and develop sensitivity and concern for the environment in which travel takes place.
(Draft write-up of activities, Anne Hawkins, August, 1991)

In the summer term of 1991 Anne developed two linked activities, the first of which was titled 'Village Guide Book'. Anne indicated, at interview, that the main aim was for children to examine and understand the use of guidebooks and that children should understand the needs of visitors to their own village. She also intended that children should undertake extended and collaborative text writing, in this activity.

In her fourth activity 'Holiday Brochures' which was linked to 'Village Guide Book' Anne intended that the main aim was for children to understand the persuasive power of language used in travel brochures. This activity had some similarity with 'Mighty, Mighty Exmouth' developed by Angela as it
focused on advertising and marketing in tourism. Anne wanted children to consider to what extent the 'truth' is written in travel brochures and to what extent the language and images used are related to the need to sell holidays.

At Redhills School some activities were developed collaboratively by Brenda and Neil, but I initially discuss those developed by the individual teachers. Brenda developed seven activities independently and five of the seven activities had a strong environmental dimension and were linked activities. Her first Project activity 'Our School Environment' was aimed to involve children in the use of their senses in the school environment, to critically study the school grounds and to identify ways in which they could be improved. Her second activity, 'Litter', was an attempt to raise awareness of litter in the schools grounds, as an initial way to get children to consider litter generated by tourists. The aims of the activity 'Pollution' were closely linked to that of 'Litter' in that it was intended that children should be involved in becoming more environmentally aware and critical of factors affecting the environment as well as consider their own attitudes to pollution and also propose actions to remedy the situation. Finding a solution to the litter problem was an aim of 'Litter Picking Device' and other related aims were to present children with the problem of designing making and testing a device and then evaluating their solution to the problem. 'Rubbish Tip Dilemma' involved children in consideration of the siting of a rubbish tip.

Brenda's two other independently developed activities were linked to each other, but not to the five activities discussed above. 'Symbols' had the aims of asking children to identify and use map symbols while her activity 'Codes' had the aim of requiring children to explore the different meanings and use of codes. Children were asked to develop their own codes of behaviour and create codes for tourists and hosts.
Neil developed four activities, two of which involved collaboration with Brenda, and two were developed independently. The activities Neil developed independently were linked and entitled 'Exeter Guide Books' and 'Video Postcard of Exeter'. Both activities were intended to develop children's knowledge of their own environment, and assess their attitudes to their urban area. 'Exeter Guide Books' asked children to consider how they should be sensitive in the reception of visitors to the urban area, and provide appropriate guidance, which was a part of the process of developing responsible attitudes as hosts. In 'Video Postcard of Exeter' children were also asked to express their view about their school, home, local environment and urban area. A related aim was to help children develop an understanding of different environments in Britain as well as make them aware that the way an area is valued varies according to whether one is a resident or visitor. This aim was similar to the Project objective of developing awareness of the environment in which tourism takes place.

In relation to the jointly planned, but separately taught activity, 'Drascombe Charter', Brenda stated, at interview, that its main aim was to inform children of fluctuations of population in a tourist area, while Neil emphasised that the main aim was for children to understand the impact of tourism on the local economy, and more specifically to compare the effects of tourism on different businesses.

The jointly planned activity 'Two Islands', according to Brenda, had a number of related aims. These were as follows: to involve children in creating imaginary islands; to role play hosts and visitors; to develop sensitivity towards the social and cultural aspects of the imaginary islanders; and to evaluate their attitudes to different cultures. Neil stated a very similar set of
aims for this activity but articulated the aims of role playing a host and visitor in more detail when he stated:

to explore how one's behaviour is adapted when in an unfamiliar environment (the role of a tourist) and to explore how one's behaviour alters when accepting visitors into your natural environment (the role of a host).
(Draft write-up of activities, Neil Williams, July 1991)

Neil also made specific reference to three Project objectives in this activity. He indicated, in his original draft, that this activity was an attempt to enable children to develop their ideas with a critical mind (Project Critical Thinking Skill 'children should be able to approach issues with an open and critical mind') and to assess the development of attitudes and sensitivity of the children in relation to people and environments connected to travel and tourism (Project Attitudes and Values Objective 3), 'develop sensitivity and concern for individuals and cultures in which travel and tourism takes place' and (Project Attitudes and Values Objective 4), 'develop sensitivity and concern for environments in which travel and tourism takes place'.

Analysis of the Curriculum Content of Activities
Pollard and Tann (1993) suggested that an appropriate method of analysing curriculum tasks is to consider what they termed 'elements of learning' (p174). They meant by this the following: knowledge, concepts, skills and attitudes. Pollard and Tann used the following definitions of these elements of learning:

Knowledge: selections of that which is worth knowing....,
Concepts: generalisations which enable children to classify, organise and predict - to understand patterns, relationships and meanings......,
Skills: the capacity or competence to perform a task.....,
Attitudes: the overt expression of values and personal qualities....
(Pollard and Tann, 1993, p174)
Pollard and Tann indicated that skills can be subdivided under the headings personal/social, physical/practical, intellectual and communication. They also gave examples of attitudes which include curiosity, initiative, open-mindedness, trust, honesty, respect and responsibility.

Pollard and Tann suggested there are three aims in analysing curriculum activities in this way. As they stated:

In the first place it allows us to examine the breadth and balance of the provisions we are planning, across the curriculum as well as in terms of subjects. Second, it encourages us to think more precisely about we are trying to do ....... Third it provides a framework which we can use to monitor children's learning.
(Pollard and Tann, 1993, p175)

However, this approach is not without its problems. Definitions are one problem, particularly with reference to the term skills. Pollard and Tann suggested the term skill can have at least two meanings. It can be used in the sense of a component skill of a particular activity. In this meaning an activity can be broken down into a number of separate skills which when combined contribute to overall mastery. The other meaning of skill is something much less mechanistic, less specific to a particular activity, more flexible and therefore transferable to other situations (Pollard and Tann 1993). Pollard and Tann also claimed that attitudes are not necessarily easy to distinguish from skills. They considered the relationship between social behaviour and skills and suggested that it requires skills to behave in a chosen way.

Despite the problems discussed above Pollard and Tann suggested the analytic power of the distinction between knowledge, skills, concepts and attitudes is very useful in gauging what children are being asked to do. What children are being asked to do, by implication, relates to what teachers plan to teach. Hence
the framework of knowledge, skills, concepts an attitudes has been used to analyse the Project activities.

In advance of the creation of activities I made suggestions to teachers that they should employ the headings of knowledge and understanding, skills and attitudes and values in their planning in general and also for specific activities. The rationale for this is explained in Section Four of this chapter. In her activities Angela did not, however, use these headings but she did however state aims that could be included under Pollard and Tann's headings of knowledge, concepts, skills and attitudes.

Seven of the thirteen activities developed by Angela referred to the development of geographical knowledge. Two activities referred to developing historical knowledge although only one, 'What's on in Exmouth', had a solely historical focus. Perhaps surprisingly as many as three of Angela's activities made no reference at all to developing children's knowledge.

Analysis of Angela's written drafts and my question at interview 'What were the key areas of your work in the Project?' enable me to suggest that Angela's key concepts were as follows:
images of tourism through marketing advertising;
impacts of tourism, economic, social, environmental;
the relationship between visitors and hosts;
contrasting tourism in the local area with tourism in developing countries;
future developments of tourism; and
caring for the environment/stewardship.

The development of geographical skills, in terms of mapwork were referred to in three of Angela's activities and fieldwork featured in one of these also.
Angela only referred to skill development in English specifically in three activities, but the development of language work in terms of either listening, reading and writing featured in the great majority of her activities. Technology skills were to be developed in two activities, 'Bed and Breakfast' and 'One World Week'. The History skills of investigating the past were referred to in two activities. Skills related work in Art also featured, to a limited extent, in three of Angela's activities.

Nine out of the thirteen activities Angela developed made specific reference to attitudes and one 'Good and Bad Holidaymakers', she claimed, was concerned exclusively with values and attitudes. This activity focused on tourist behaviour in relation to particularly hosts and the host environment, and several other activities that were concerned with attitudes examined these relationships.

All four of Anne's activities made reference to developing geographical knowledge. In two activities this knowledge was related to the theme of travel, in one geographical knowledge of the local area was to be developed and in the other the focus was on developing geographical knowledge of a Mediterranean location. Two activities, 'Holiday Brochures' and 'Guide Book' made reference to the development of knowledge in English.

A particular focus of Anne's work was language skill development which featured strongly in 'Holiday Brochures' and 'Guide Book' and to a lesser extent in her other two activities. In both these activities there was detailed reference to the development of skills in the area of listening, speaking and writing. The geographical skills of fieldwork were an important part of both 'Visit to an Airport' and 'Visit to a Railway Station'. These activities also
required the skills of questionnaire design, data collection and analysis which were referred to in the Mathematics document at the time.

Responses at interview and study of Anne's activities indicates the following key concepts:
the importance of different modes of travel;
tourism in the local area;
tourism images;
experiencing travel.

Only one of Anne's activities referred specifically to attitudes. This was 'Holiday Brochures' and here children were asked to:

be aware of the underlying value system in the marketing of tourism.
(Draft write-up of activities, Anne Hawkins, September, 1991)

Anne also referred to the cross curricular themes in this activity and in relation to attitudes indicated that children should develop respect for alternative viewpoints. Both of Anne's activities involving visits made reference to developing concern for different transport users and hence by implications work on attitudes would form a part of such activities.

Five of the seven activities that Brenda developed independently of Neil made reference to the development of geographical knowledge. This knowledge was predominately concerned with environmental factors and damage to the environment as a result of human activity. Two activities were concerned with developing scientific knowledge. One activity was intended to develop Mathematical knowledge and another knowledge in Technology.
Three of Brenda's seven independently developed activities were intended to develop the geographical skills of mapwork, whilst one required children to use fieldwork skills. The Technology skills of planning and designing were significant in one activity. The English skills of listening, reading and writing featured in the great majority of Brenda's activities but were only stressed as being particularly important in two.

Information gained at interview and from her activities indicates that Brenda's key concepts were as follows:
- environmental dimensions of human activity;
- environmental impacts of tourism;
- economic impacts of tourism;
- images and marketing in tourism;
- visitor host relationships;

There were few direct references to attitudes in Brenda's activities, the exception being 'Codes' where children were required to consider issues in relation to the production of a code of behaviour for tourists. In this activity Brenda made reference to the cross-curricular theme of Citizenship to support the work on values and attitudes.

Both of the activities that were created independently by Neil referred to developing geographical knowledge, and in both cases this was in relation to the local area. Developing historical knowledge was important within these same two activities.

The English skills of drafting and redrafting formed an important part of both of Neil's independently developed activities, and the geographical skills of
fieldwork and mapwork also featured prominently. Neither of these two activities made specific reference to work on attitudes.

The activities themselves and Neil's interview comments indicated that the key concepts in his work were as follows:

- images and marketing in local area tourism;
- people involved in tourism including workers and also hosts;
- economic impacts of tourism;
- visitor host relationships.

Brenda and Neil developed two activities collaboratively, one of which they taught separately and the other they combined their teaching. 'Drascombe Charter/Seasonal Fluctuations in a Local Tourism Business' focused on developing knowledge of the economic impact of tourism in the local area. Both teachers referred to the development of geographical knowledge of the local area and also Neil indicated the activity was developing knowledge of how businesses operate referred to in the cross curricular theme 'Education for Economic and Industrial Understanding'. This activity, both teachers stated, also involved Language and Mathematical skills.

The activity that Brenda and Neil planned and taught collaboratively was entitled 'Two Islands'. This activity was intended to cover a number of curriculum areas, and they both referred specifically to knowledge work in Geography, English, Technology and Art. Skill development was intended to be in the curriculum areas of English Maths and Technology. Attitude work was particularly prominent in this activity with children required to evaluate and assessing their attitudes to cultures and environments. Neither teacher linked this statement on attitudes to a National Curriculum subject area.
Pedagogy of the activities

The use of the word pedagogy here relates to the teaching methods or strategies that the teachers employed. Bernstein (1971) defined pedagogy as the frame or context within which learning takes place. He also indicated that this refers to the relationship between teacher and taught. My key question, in relation to the analysis of the pedagogy of the teachers was: 'What teaching strategies were deployed?' This required consideration of what Pollard and Tann (1993) referred to as classroom organisation, how learning was being managed and how teachers and children communicated with each other.

The chief source of information for the teaching strategies was the 'Methods' section of each write up of the teachers' activities. I also obtained comments at interview on teaching strategy, particular with reference to teachers' evaluation of their activities.

In terms of the classroom based activities that Angela developed almost all involved organising the children into groups. This was done on the basis of friendship groups. Both Brenda and Neil also tended to favour group work with on occasions pairs instead of a larger group. Brenda and Neil also suggested children should sit together on a social basis rather than being subdivided on ability grounds. Anne organised two of her activities on a small friendship group basis but the two activities involving visits were intended to take the form of predominantly whole class/large group activities.

In terms of the way learning was managed and communication conducted a number of different approaches were adopted by each teacher. Some teachers tended to favour the more frequent use of a particular approach than others. Brenda suggested the following approach in five of the seven activities she developed independently of Neil. The activity begins with a teacher-led
introduction to the whole class, this is followed by a question and answer session from the children, directed through her, then children work in groups or pairs before a whole class feedback or discussion. Neil, Anne and Angela also suggested this approach, but also indicated other methods.

Angela tended to suggest a wide range of strategies. As many as five out of thirteen of her activities, including 'One World Week' and 'When the Tourists Flew In' involved the use of role play. Only one of Brenda and Neil's activities, 'Two Islands' involved the use of this strategy. Three of Angela's activities involved simulation, with the creation of an airport in 'One World Week' an imaginary island in 'Golden Island' and in another activity converting one's house into bed and breakfast accommodation. Two of Angela's activities 'Going Places' and 'Adopt a Footpath' involved fieldwork. Two of Anne's activities also involved fieldwork and both of these also involved a simulation of real experiences, as well as actually experiencing a real flight and train journey.

Neil made use of mainly group work in his two independently developed activities, but he also indicated that children should have a good deal of control over their learning. In the activity 'Video Postcard of Exeter' he suggested children should be in charge of producing their own video and he also provided opportunities for children to have a high degree of autonomy in the activity 'Two Islands'.

Discussion
Given the variety of activities in terms of their aims, content and pedagogy there is evidence of what Shipman (1974) claimed when he indicated that once a Project is in schools it is not one Project but as many as there are schools.
In relation to the aims of activities and the overall aims of the Project it would appear that all four teachers made attempts to make appropriate links between them. Angela would seem however to have most closely linked her activities to her stated aims. As commented in the previous section, the aims of Anne, in particular and to a lesser extent those of Brenda and Neil could be viewed as over ambitious in relation to what they actually developed as activities.

All four teachers also attempted to link activities to the aims/objectives of the Project, but with varying degrees of success. An important reason for the apparent success of Angela in linking her general plan aims to activity aims and also to the Project aims was because she developed a relatively large number of activities, which were clearly sequenced. Brenda also developed a significant number but for reasons explained below, the great majority of those she developed independently did not appear in the Project book.

In terms of the knowledge to be developed in the activities most emphasis was placed on geographical knowledge. This I suggest was partly due to my influence in terms of what I said and what I had given teachers on paper. It would also seem from the activities that teachers were very aware of the environmental dimensions of tourism and viewed Geography as the main National Curriculum subject concerned with the environment. Given the environmental dimension I expected teachers would develop a greater number of activities involving work in Science. That there were so few was partly a result of the perceived and real overlap between Geography and Science in the National Curriculum at the time. Another explanation could be that teachers viewed the cross curricular theme of Environmental Education as a vehicle for gaining knowledge about the environment rather than Science as this cross curricular theme was referred to in nine of the total number of activities. Another explanation relates to primary teachers

Only a small number of activities were intended to develop historical knowledge. I suggest this was partly due to the way the study of History in the National Curriculum was defined as a process of learning and not merely about knowledge of the past. There was limited reference to developing knowledge in the National Curriculum subjects of Art and Technology, and even Music in two activities. That there was only limited reference was probably to do with teachers perception that these areas were marginal to the Project aims, but also because there were no National Curriculum documents in these areas at the time.

The key concepts varied between teachers but all placed some emphasis on impacts of tourism with environmental impacts of greatest concern, particularly Angela and Brenda, but economic and social effects also featured strongly in a number of activities. There was an emphasis on visitor /host relationships in the activities of all four teachers, particularly in the work of Angela. More than other teachers Anne emphasised travel as a major theme. All teachers also produced activities concerned with tourism images and in particular Angela and Neil. All of the above concepts are linked closely to the Project aims and objectives. Drafts of these activities were sent to Alison my WWF editor and she and the publications editor at WWF, Cherry, provided comments. In relation to the activities concerned with creating tourist leaflets and guidebooks and those involving travel they had the following comment:
The question should surely be raised as to whether this is desirable - is it always a good thing to encourage tourism? What are the costs and benefits...in relation to lifestyles and impacts on the environment?...Pupils need to recognise the conflicts of interests over transport, especially between transport and the environment. (Editorial comments by WWF staff, March, 1992)

Alison and Cherry also suggested that these activities which promoted tourism and travel were not in line with the Project's stated aims of developing a caring attitude to hosts, the host environment and the environment in general. They suggested to overcome this teachers should encourage children to take a more critical stance in relation to tourism marketing and travel promotion.

Perhaps surprisingly, given the references in the Project aims and objectives, only a few activities were concerned with the future of tourism and attempts at sustainable tourism. It would appear that without this dimension activities developed could have emphasised the problems of tourism more than possible solutions. This could lead to the types of issues that David Hicks had warned about during the meeting at WWF offices.

In terms of skills those relating to the use of language were referred to most in overall terms but there were significant number of activities developing geographical skills with the emphasis on mapwork and field work. Each teacher devised at least one activity which developed geographical skills and Angela had seven of her thirteen that were intended to do this. The importance given to geographical skill development would appear to be related closely to the significant amounts of geographical knowledge also to be developed in activities. A small number of activities were intended to develop mathematical skills of data handling.
Although the aims of the Project related closely to environmental factors there were few activities that made reference to the skills of scientific investigation. Only Brenda developed activities which made reference of any description to Science. These activities, 'Pollution', 'Litter' and 'Rubbish Tip Dilemma' did not appear in the Project book, for the following reasons. It was my opinion and those of Alison, at WWF, that these three activities did not relate closely to the aims and objectives of the Project. Although they had strong environmental dimensions they did not have a strong tourism focus and hence they were not included for publication. Alison and the publications editor for the Project book provided detailed comments on the draft activities I sent for publication and the extract below indicates their rationale for rejecting the 'Litter' activity.

The Litter activity is not exactly a novel one, so what about looking at problems wildlife face, e.g. turtles have a bad time. They swallow plastic bags in mistake for jelly fish, beach umbrellas destroy nesting sites....turtle hatchlings are disorientated by disco and hotel lights.
(EDITORIAL comments by WWF staff, March 1992,)

The product of the rejection of a number of Brenda's activities which referred to Science was that none of the published activities made reference to the process of investigation in Science, and in fact Science as a National Curriculum subject did not feature in any activity.

In general it is possible to state that references to attitudes did not feature as prominently as those to knowledge or skills development in the activities. This would seem to be confirmation of what David Hicks and Jenny Button were arguing during the meeting at WWF offices when they stated that unless it was to be assessed it would not be taught. The area of attitudes they claimed would not be assessed. Anne provided a reason why she had made so little
reference to attitudes in her activities when she suggested, at interview, that she could not find supporting statements in National Curriculum documents.

However as many as seven of Angela's activities made specific reference to work on attitudes and unlike the other teachers Angela did not refer to the National Curriculum documents in individual activity plans. It would seem she developed activities in line with her educational philosophy and was not as influenced by the National Curriculum. This would appear to be the case from statements she made at interview about her overall planning, where National Curriculum documents did not feature that prominently. Almost all of Angela's activities, (eleven out of the thirteen, plus one other in a modified form), appeared in the Project book. This was a result of them being viewed by me and WWF staff as meeting the aims and objectives of the Project. Brenda and Neil also produced an activity 'Two Islands', which Brenda regarded as her most successful, which was concerned primarily with exploration of attitudes and this activity was also published. Hence, despite the pressures and constraints of the National Curriculum, activities concerned with attitudes and values were considered of sufficient merit to be published with a national target audience.

In terms of the pedagogy of activities each of the four teachers shared a common approach, at least in some activities. This approach can be summarised as a sequence which proceeds as follows: stage 1) the teacher talks to the whole class, and this is mainly an introduction and instructions are given; stage 2) children have an opportunity to ask questions about the task; stage 3) children work in pairs/groups; stage 4) individual children/pairs/groups feedback responses to the whole class with the teacher acting as a chairperson/facilitator.
Teachers produced no activities where whole class teaching lasted throughout a session. Some activities proposed that children should work on their own, but a greater number indicated they should work in groups. Most groups were organised on friendship basis, there were no suggestions that children should be organised on an ability basis, hence groups were to be of mixed ability.

Teachers suggested the use of a variety of teaching methods including fieldwork, simulation and role play as well as the more conventional class discussion in their activities, although the WWF staff commented prior to publication that there were in fact too many role play activities. Teachers also used the Project to employ what could be regarded as generally less frequently used teaching methods/learning contexts such as asking children to create cartoons, devise codes of conduct, produce videos and create a school timetable.

The process of my visiting schools to comment on and return teacher's work provided insights into the relationships between me as co-ordinator and teachers as curriculum innovators. Both Parsons (1987) and Shipman (1974) commented on the quality of the relationship between a Project co-ordinator and the curriculum developers. Each referred particularly to the frequency and quality of visits to Project schools by the co-ordinator. At interview after the development of activities I asked teachers about their role in relation to my role as co-ordinator. Angela commented that she believed that she had an appropriate number of visits and they were mostly very worthwhile. Angela also indicated that when she had had problems she was able to contact me and I visited the school quickly, in response to her concerns. This was due to the proximity of her school to Rolle Faculty, University of Plymouth, she indicated. Anne, however, stated at interview that she felt isolated in terms of contact, and she explained this as partly a result of being alone in
developing activities. This had been exacerbated, she said, by the decision of
the Headteacher, Helen, to withdraw from the Project citing pressure of the
introduction National Curriculum Standard Assessment Tasks at KS 1 as the
chief reason for this.

Brenda indicated that at the beginning of the Project she was not quite sure
what I expected of her and Neil and this affected how she planned activities.
She indicated that this was, at least in part, due to the infrequency of my visits.
In fact my field notes indicate I visited Redhills School on more occasions
than either Bassett's Farm or Clyst Hydon during the Spring Term of 1991.
Other circumstances, however, prevailed in Redhills School during the
introduction of the Project, which, I suggest, affected the nature and quality of
activities produced, and I discuss these below.

Four BEd students from Rolle Faculty, University of Plymouth were involved
in research projects at the school, at the time, with two in each of Brenda and
Neil's class. I was supervising these students and their intention was to
research the development of Project activities by Brenda and Neil. For a
period of nine weeks, three before and six after Christmas 1990, these students
were in school on a one day per week basis. I visited the students on all but
two of these weeks. Despite these visits I gave much more attention to the
students than either Brenda or Neil. Partly as a result of this both teachers
allowed the students to develop activities which were part of their research
projects, but that Neil and Brenda, at the time mistakenly believed were
activities for the Project. Hence it would appear that quality of visits rather
than frequency is of more importance.

The great majority of my visits to schools were to discuss activities with
teachers. On a number of occasions particularly during the Spring and
Summer Terms of 1991 I was returning to teachers drafts of their activities intended for publication. In relation to the nature of my visits and teachers activities there were very different views on the value of these, which provide insights into my role as coordinator as perceived by the teachers. Angela indicated that she found the great majority of the visits useful. She believed my comments were intended as constructive criticism. I suggest, as she had only recently graduated from the University of Plymouth, she was used to having her work 'marked'. As she stated at interview:

> It was the first time I was really doing some work that others valued. The fact that my work was being valued meant I worked more at it and thought about the children.

(Interview with Angela Smith, July 1991)

Rather different views were given by Brenda when she indicated:

> I did not look forward to you coming in and returning activities, as it usually meant more work.

(Interview with Brenda Knowles, July 1991)

I believe, however, my comments to Brenda could have been more critical. I suggest I did not give Brenda enough advice and support at the outset of the Project as I felt insecure in my lack of primary experience, to offer useful advice to one who had lengthy service in primary schools. I indicated to her, at the time, words to the effect that she was the professional with lots of experience and knew best. I suggest this contributed to the misunderstanding in relation to the research students. I believe that this lack of advice and guidance at the outset led to her regarding my comments as too critical when it came to submitting written drafts of activities. Anne and Neil had views on my visits which were somewhere between those of Angela and Brenda, revealing a combination of anticipation and apprehension.
The specific comments on Brenda's activity by WWF staff, the comments they made about other activities and the more general comments about the Project reveal another tension and potential constraint. Teachers were aware that they were developing activities for publication purposes and not just to trial activities for their own future use in the classroom or for my research purposes. They were also aware of the link between generating appropriate activities and the payment of a fee by WWF. This tension was referred to by Brenda at interview when she said:

It was not so much the money I was concerned about - it was not a very large sum anyway - but I was worried that the activities were to be published and I had to get these right.

(Interview with Brenda Knowles, July 1991)
CHAPTER 4 THE PROJECT

Section 8 Findings: Observation of Activities

Introduction

This section is concerned primarily with the curriculum 'as observed' (Pollard and Tann, 1993). I was able to observe four activities that were developed for the Project. Two activities took place at Bassett's Farm School and one each at Clyst Hydon and Redhills School. Two of these however were substantial taking a full week in the case of one at Bassett's Farm School and three days at Redhills School, whilst the Clyst Hydon activity involved a full day's field visit. In all four instances I was a participant observer. Participant observation was selected as a technique partly because I wanted to experience activities in a similar way to children and note any effects or behavioural changes (Bailey, 1978). As Woods (1986) stated in relation to the rationale for participant observation:

The central idea of participation is to penetrate the experiences of others within a group or institution.
(Woods, 1986, p 33)

As I was not aware in advance what would be taking place within each session I felt it appropriate to join in with the activity and reflect on this after the event. Initially, however, I did attempt to take notes during activities but the process of participant observation made this difficult and I was unable to produce detailed comments. As two of the activities involved fieldwork I was also aware that this would make the taking of notes at the time problematic. My solution was to make field notes after the activities I observed.
I had two major aims in conducting this participant observation. I wanted to investigate whether or not teachers were actually doing what they had indicated in their planning of activities, and how the activities related to the aims and intentions of the Project. As Wragg (1994) stated the major aims of the use of classroom observation in relation to curriculum development are to find answers to the questions:

 is the teacher doing herself what she intended?..... Is the teacher doing what the curriculum developers intended? (Wragg, 1994 p90,)

More specifically my objectives in relation to the observed curriculum were to investigate:

1) the curriculum content of the activities in relation to the stated aims of the teacher;
2) the curriculum content of the activities in relation to the Project aims;
3) the pedagogy involved to reveal if this was linked to the teachers stated aims.

The observation also had the aim of investigating the possible effects of the Project, in other words this provided an opportunity to conduct the first evaluation. I therefore had another objective which was to investigate the reaction of children to activities. This was therefore an investigation of what Pollard and Tann (1993) referred to as the 'curriculum as experienced'.

In a wider sense my observations were an attempt to find some answers to the broad thesis questions related to the processes at work when a curriculum innovation is introduced. Observing the teachers gave me the chance to witness the nature of opportunities and constraints, the way in which teachers operated in implementing the curriculum and to gain insights into the effects on the teachers as well as children.
The activity I took part in with Clyst Hydon School involved a visit to an airport and a flight on a small plane. To make the flight financially viable all children in the school took part in the activity. A total of forty seven children went and were accompanied by the two school staff and also three parents. The children had each to pay £10 for the flight and airport visit. As the plane was only an 18 seater there were three flights. The children had had a tour of the airport in the morning of the activity but I was not able to be there during this and I arrived in the afternoon for the flight. The visit took place in mid-December 1990 and I went on the third and final flight.

Anne stated in her write up that the aims of the activity were for children to:

- know about the nature of different forms of travel used in travel and tourism and gain an understanding of the reasons for passenger choice of air travel;
- develop awareness of the impact of air travel; experience air travel at first hand;
- develop understanding with respect to; i) passenger needs ii) disabled passengers and iii) safety aspects of air travel; formulate relevant questions to collect, present analyse and interpret data.

(Draft write-up of activities, Anne Hawkins, August, 1991)

The first four of these aims were linked to attempts to gain knowledge and understanding about travel and tourism whilst the last was a more general aim related to skill development. On the day I asked her what were the aims of the activity and she responded:

This is a way to get children to investigate why people travel and different methods of travel. This is also follow-up work on the train journey and visit to the railway station we did earlier in the term... (and that) a chief purpose of the activity is for this to be an integral part of our topic on Journeys.

(Interview with Anne Hawkins, December 12, 1990)
Anne also added there was another lesser aim in terms of the actual Project but one which she hoped would motivate the children. This aim, as she stated, was to fly the children over the school "as the culmination of activities to celebrate the centenary of the school" (Interview with Anne Hawkins, December 12, 1990).

These aims given on the day were not at variance with those Anne had written but the reference to celebrating the school's centenary as a reason for the flight provided me with an added impetus to discover children's views on the aims on the activity. So as well as asking Anne about the effectiveness of the activity I also intended to use the children as one source of information on whether or not the aims were being put into practice. I discuss the response of children below, before returning to Anne's perspective on this activity.

I was able to conduct informal interviews with a number of children during this activity. As there were three flights scheduled I was able to question those children waiting for the second and third flight and as I travelled on the third flight I was also able to ask some children both during and after it. I questioned seven children, four girls and three boys in the age range 7-10 before the flight. Only two of the seven had flown before and none on such a small plane. I have given them pseudonyms in my account below. Their responses gives an indication, for them at least, that this was a particularly exciting and central part of the day's activity.

My questions related to what the children saw as the intentions of the activity, their prior experience of flying, their expectations of the flight, their response whilst on the plane and their views after the flight. The stated aim of the activity, 'experience air travel at first hand', appeared to be the aim
that meant most to the children I questioned. Five of the seven I interviewed stated that they were excited at the prospect and three of this group also indicated anxiety. The response of one girl Carol indicates this excitement tinged with anxiety:

I'm excited, and I'm a little worried, I don't like heights.
(Interview with Carol, December 12 1990)

While Ruth's response indicates that the classroom preparation time and the morning spent at the airport had had an effect. As she said:

I'm excited and nervous, less nervous than I thought I would be but its because of what we have been told here at the airport and what we were told in class.
(Interview with Rachel, December 12 1990)

And one boy Paul indicated the degree to which he was both concerned and excited when he said:

I've been worried for a long time, I'm not sure how I'm going to feel up there. My father had flying lessons. He told me there are more accidents in cars than planes. I felt nervous when I went on the train journey. I think after the flight I will be even more excited and I will want to fly again. When we've landed I want to write down how I felt (before), as well as during and after the flight.
(Interview with Paul, December 12, 1990).

Three of this group of children were also worried about the size of the plane and the possibilities of it crashing.

Once in the air the majority of the children lost their anxiety. A number of comments associated with flying were made such as, 'I don't like the noise of the engines' and 'I don't like my ears popping'. Some children who had flown before compared this flight with that on larger planes making such
comments as, 'The plane seems much lighter than a big jet'. Most comments after the flight were also about the enjoyment of flying such as, 'I've been to America on a big plane, I liked the little plane' and 'I liked the take off and landing'. Other comments indicated that some children were overcoming fears of flying.

Despite the fact that Anne had not indicated in the aims of the activity any reference to the development of knowledge and understanding in Geography it would appear to have great potential as is revealed by the following statements made by children during and after the flight.

I didn't realise the city was built on a hill.  
Look how the river gets wider as it gets nearer the sea.  
That road is really straight (a motorway) the others are much bendier.  
Aren't the houses small?  
The Cathedral is big and its near the middle of the town.  
I thought my house was much further away from school.  
The school looked different, I've never seen any of that from the sky.  
Seeing it from a different angle I saw different pieces.  
(Summarised responses from interviews with children, December 12 1990)

There is even some evidence that this activity was modifying children's attitudes to other aspects than merely flying, as is revealed by the following statements:

I liked seeing my house, it was so small, so different.  
I never seen my house from the air and it was a really good but small.  
The school looks nice from here better than (from) down there.  
(Summarised responses from interviews with children December 12 1990)

Anne produced a written report of the day's activity which was intended to be a part of the material for publication. In this she made reference to the morning's activities achieving its aims. She did not, however, make
reference to children overcoming their fear of flying, nor did she comment on the potential of the activity for developing geographical knowledge and understanding.

I wrote some comments immediately after the flight and they indicate that I had considered the flight particularly in terms of reaction of the children and had concentrated on children's anticipation and emotional reaction to the flight seeing this as an experience that was likely to have a lasting effect. I also indicated that the experience seemed to have led to development of knowledge and understanding of Geography.

Several days after the flight I wrote a more detailed account of my reaction to this activity which provides a different perspective to that of my notes immediately after the flight. I was particularly concerned to reflect on the activity in terms of its relationship to the aims of the Project. The following extract from this reflexive account provides an indication of both my pleasure at what I saw as positive aspects and the shortcomings of the activity:

This seemed to be a great experience for the children on one level. They should remember it, particularly if it was their first flight. But I'm also concerned that although they concentrated on the safety/security angle there was little discussion about the environmental effects of this form of travel. Aircraft use limited resources and what happens to the exhaust in the atmosphere? - these issues were not discussed. I'm sure it could be argued that this flight was just a waste of resources. There was no economic reason for the flight. What argument is there to defend it? It seemed to encourage children to overcome fear of flying, although this may be a good thing for them, individually, if they are encouraged to fly then this is hardly promoting the aims of the Project of concern for environmental effects of travel. Yet one of the aims that Anne gave was to understand the impact of air travel. However there is no doubt an argument, from those who advocate experiential learning which could be summarised as 'You must have the opportunity to experience first before you pass judgement'. And perhaps
experiencing will develop greater understanding and allow children to judge for themselves. I should take this point up with Anne when I next see her.
(Fieldnotes, December 18, 1990)

One of the two activities I observed at Bassett's Farm School was concerned with air travel, but unlike Anne's activity this one involved a simulation rather than the real thing. The activity that Angela created was entitled 'One World Week' and was linked in its title to the national week of that name, but Angela did not make clear that its aims were intended to be similar to those of that particular week. Angela indicated in her write up of the activity that its aims for children were as follows: to gain insights into the working of the travel sector of the tourism industry; to gain insights into the advantages and disadvantages of travel; to develop knowledge and understanding of other countries and cultures; to experience the role of hosts and guests; and to develop respect and responsibility for the host environment.

The activity involved the whole school and took place during a full week in May 1991 and was originally planned as the culmination of all Angela's Project work. As Angela said on the first of my three visits during this week:

This is really an attempt to celebrate our work in the Project.
(Interview with Angela Smith, May 1991)

I visited for the first time on the second morning of the week, on the third afternoon and also on the final morning. My comments here are based on the field notes I produced immediately after the visits.

I noticed on the first of my three visits the comparative ease with which this whole school activity appeared to be running. As the school had only one real classroom and the rest of the school was made up of open areas clustered around an assembly area, it was relatively easy for children and staff to feel
involved. A number of the open plan areas had been created as 'destinations' for 'tourists' and the assembly area had been turned into a simulation of an airport departure lounge.

On the first visit I was immediately struck by the purposefulness of the children and the teachers. However, later during this visit and on my subsequent visit it became clear that the junior children were more aware of the nature and content of 'One World Week' than the infant children. After talking to different classes several of the infant children did not appear to have a clear idea of what was intended. Angela had indicated to me during my second visit that it was the intention that all children would have the opportunity to role play both tourists and hosts. However a number of infant class groups had created places to visit and although they would have the opportunity to act as hosts, they did not know that it was intended that they would also visit other destinations as tourists. In fact two of the infant classes failed to role play tourists because of time constraints.

The tourist destinations appeared to have been created very imaginatively but were also linked to the National Curriculum. The Year 6 class destination was Egypt and they had designed and created a Pharaoh's tomb within a pyramid. They had also created a number of Egyptian artefacts. The Year 6 class teacher indicated that she had visited Egypt two years previously and was building on her experience to develop work related in particularly to History, Technology and Art. Reactions from visitors to 'the tomb' clearly indicated to the year 6 class that they had achieved an authentic experience.

Angela's class were involved in a number of roles during the week, the more important of which were role playing the staff in the airport simulation, but also they had created the destination of France. This French
setting centred on a café and Angela's class had made bread and bought croissants and served coffee to visitors. The remaining junior classes in the school had attempted to create 'China'. The infant children in years 1 and 2, with the assistance of their class teachers, had created an environment referred to only as 'Africa'.

A particularly successful part of the activity in terms of meeting Angela's aim 'gain insights into the working of the tourism industry, particularly how an international airport works' was the simulation of the airport. I took part as a potential passenger. We - I accompanied a year 4 class - arrived at the airport and saw a number of destinations presented on a large board which corresponded to the simulated destinations of various classes. Children in Angela's class took on various roles as customs and immigration officers and baggage handlers before we boarded the 'plane'. The follow on from this was a simulated flight. This took part in a cordoned-off area of the hall where chairs were arranged to simulate seats in a passenger airline. The simulation of a flight also involved the showing of a film related to the destination. In the roles of both airport and airline staff the children of Angela's class generally took their roles very seriously but did not take advantage of the situation or become embarrassed and those who played the role of cabin staff were convincing when giving a demonstration of the safety equipment and also when acting as cabin staff bringing food and drink.

Arrival at the 'destination' after the simulated flight gave me some concern, however. All of the destinations were clearly the result of much preparation on the part of teachers and appeared, initially to me, to be creating a convincing simulation of reality for visitors and hosts alike. As one of the aims of the activity was to develop knowledge and understanding of other
countries and cultures I was particularly interested to see if this was being achieved. I was therefore concerned to hear one primary teacher, whose class had helped create this destination, talking about the 'country' of Africa and I became more concerned when the sole environment created was labelled a 'jungle'. This jungle was, however, very convincingly created with creepers, and an attempt had been made to represent the different vertical layers of a tropical rain forest and this was accompanied by realistic models of appropriate wild life. There was, however, no attempt to indicate that this was only one amongst many varying environments of Africa, and in fact one visited by relatively few tourists in comparison with African Mediterranean destinations or Egypt.

I felt the likelihood that at the least misunderstanding and more likely the danger of the presentation of stereotypes of places could be an outcome of this part of the simulation. I felt there was a particular danger of this in relation to China, a country which is a large as a continent, and to a lesser extent that of France. Children wearing 'coolie' hats and stuck on droopy moustaches were an indication of the potential stereotyping that could result. Chinese food, of the Chinese take away variety, was on display and children were trying to eat this with chopsticks.

Angela's own class were somewhat incongruously dressed in costumes representing the French Revolution while serving food and coffee in a Parisian street cafe. My concern at the potential misunderstandings that could be caused in this part of the simulation seemed at odds with the banner that hung prominently in the entrance to the school stating: 'How can people of the world live in peace if they don't understand each other?'
I asked Angela about this problem of stereotyping at interview after the activity. I provide an extract from her response below:

It was important to consider stereotyping at that stage, especially through the choice of costumes chosen to represent a different culture. The impetus of this part of the Project was to learn about and interact with cultures other than our own. We wanted the children to show a deeper understanding than stereotypes. So my class dressed in period costumes of the French Revolution as they had been studying that within the Project. I allowed other children to make up their costumes to keep them cool for the hot countries they were representing.

(Interview with Angela Smith, July 1991)

The school had a number of real visitors during the week who were invited to attend the 'One World Week'. These visitors included a Botswanan studying within the University of Plymouth and also a Chinese Professor who was a visiting lecturer. The Botswanan told me that he thought the activity was an excellent idea and fun for the children, that he had enjoyed it but with a smile he said his own country was not like the 'Africa' he had just visited. The Visiting Chinese Professor was pleased to be asked to demonstrate Chinese writing. When I asked her about her experience, she said that it had been enjoyable, and that she had been very pleased to talk about China as some of the comments she had received from children acting as hosts and visitors to 'China' were not very accurate. She said "We don't cook food in that manner in Chengdu and we don't always use chopsticks".

The other activity I observed at Bassett's Farm School involved fieldwork. I had instigated this activity by informing all Project teachers of a scheme in which Devon County Council was encouraging local communities to adopt footpaths. Angela was the sole Project teacher to respond. Although not planned as such this was the last activity of her Project work and it came after the previously discussed activity. It took place in July 1991 and Angela
indicated that it was necessary to conduct the activity at this time to enable a number of seasonal factors relating to the field work to be met.

In preparation for the activity Angela asked a member of the County Council to speak about the footpath scheme and was informed about and subsequently asked for support from the British Trust For Conservation Volunteers (BTCV). On the day that the path was first visited two members of the BTCV accompanied us.

Angela in her write up of this activity gave four main aims. These were as follows: to raise awareness of the impact of recreational and tourist activities in the local environment; to involve children in monitoring footpath use; to encourage children to take action in the form of footpath maintenance; and to assist in the development of the concept of sustainable use of the environment.

She linked these aims to both the National Curriculum Geography and Environmental Education documents. She quoted the AT5 Environmental Geography statement 'children should suggest ways in which an area can be improved' and referred to the statement about children considering possibilities for protecting and managing environments. She also quoted the Environmental Education document where it referred to the need to help children adopt a positive attitude to the environment and develop a foundation upon which they can build a wider understanding of environmental issues. On the day that we visited the footpath for the first time Angela indicated that the main aim was to get children to take action in relation to the environmental effects of locals and visitors.
On the day of the activity the pre-lunch session was spent examining large scale maps to locate the footpath. Children were then provided with photocopies of the area of the footpath. A disadvantage of the scheme upon which the activity was based was that only a certain number of paths were considered suitable for adoption by the Council and the nearest one available to the school was over 2km away. From the perspective of the majority of the children it was in a relatively unfamiliar suburb of the town.

As the path was some distance away we had to walk to it and on this short journey I asked children about the activity. Several children indicated that the aim of the activity was to adopt a path and this appeared to have some meaning to these children as they referred to it as 'our path'. One of the children also referred to the sheet that Angela had prepared for them which asked them to look for certain features on the path. A small number were also excited, but this was not clearly related to the activity itself and seemed largely linked to being out of school.

On arrival at the footpath Angela asked the children to look at the sheet she had prepared for them. This sheet asked children to look at particular features including nests, burrows, stiles gates, waymarkers and other signs. Angela also asked the children to look out for signs of human activity referring to litter as an example and then one of the two male BTCV staff then gave a ten minute talk on the nature of BTCV work. We then walked the path pausing at a number of places, stopping at its far end, about 1km from the start, for a brief rest before returning along it. My comments below are based on notes I produced on the evening immediately after the walk.

During the presentation by the BTCV staff a number of children were growing restless and several looked already tired after the walk from school.
During the walk the majority of the children walked quickly along the path only looking at what they were directed to by the worksheet. By the latter stages of the walk the children were spread out in a long line and most were no longer paying much attention to the worksheet instructions. They were talking to each other in groups and appeared not particularly interested in the natural or semi-natural features. A small number of children however did show interest in plants and the evidence of animals. Most children noticed and made comments on the dog mess. A small group of children surreptitiously dropped sweet wrappers and one boy dropped a sweet paper openly, but was seen by a BTCV worker who commented. The boy looked slightly puzzled before he picked up the paper.

The BTCV provided information about keeping the path clean in terms of clearing out the hedges. A group of older girls in the class appeared particularly attentive to the young male BTCV workers but it became clear from their conversation they were attracted to them rather than their environmental message. The boys in the class were generally less keen to listen to the BTCV workers and were inattentive as was revealed by photographs I took during the walk. Three boys, one of whom lived near and used the path regularly, however, were engaged in the activities of the walk, and a group of three girls appeared to have benefited from the walk itself. One of them said "Can I walk along here with my mum and dad?" and another said "Can we do this after school?"

Angela followed this up in class with discussions about ways to continue monitoring the use of the path and suggestions on how to improve its condition. She revisited the path with the children two weeks after the first visit and in small groups they made maps, but I was not present on this occasion. She also indicated at interview that several of the children had
revisited the path outside school time, but was not clear on their motives as she had become aware some children had previously played on the path. Angela commented that one girl had reported that she had seen less litter than before, which appear to be an indication that the activity had at least raised her awareness. In her general evaluation of the activity Angela claimed that the children's appreciation of the environment grew as a result of it, as she stated "the children were enthralled with the idea of being responsible for an area of the countryside "(Interview Angela Smith, July 1991). However she was not able to provide concrete evidence of this.

The following comments are based on my field notes and subsequent reflections:

This activity had great potential in terms of actively engaging children in monitoring the use and abuse of the environment. It also had an appropriate focus on leisure and recreation, in terms of the aims of the Project. However I felt the tourism dimension was not as strong as it could be as the footpath was at some distance from the main tourists area of the town and was walked mainly by locals not visitors. Children would need to make an assumption that tourists used footpaths and had similar effects as those they had noticed. This would require children to make a link from this case, which was not a particularly representative example to a different general situation. This intellectual process would be difficult for some children and hence the aim of making children aware of the effects tourist have on footpaths would not necessarily be achieved. (Fieldnotes, July, 1991)

Although Angela had attempted, prior to the walk, to link the condition of the footpath to the use of it made by humans and this had been repeatedly stressed by the BTCV staff, during the walk this had not come through strongly. The main impression I gained was that the children viewed this as a pleasant nature walk requiring a minimal amount of response and thought from them. This was partly a product of Angela's worksheet which
focused mainly on the natural and semi-natural features and also the lack of significant amounts of litter or evidence of damage caused by people. The presence of dog mess was not viewed by some children as a result of human activity. If children failed to note that human activity could damage the path then I felt that a number of the important aims of the activity would not be achieved. In particular I believed it was unlikely that children would be actively involved in further monitoring of the path’s use or develop understanding of the need for maintenance and management to ensure sustainable use.

There were practical reasons why I felt this activity would not achieve its aims in the long term. The County Council had suggested a minimum of three visits per year in a long term monitoring process. Given the relative distance of the path from the school and that the children in Angela’s class had only a short time before they left primary school before moving onto the secondary phase I felt even this minimum number of visits would be unlikely.

The activity I observed at Redhills School lasted three days and it was planned and taught by both teachers. The activity, which took place in June 1991, was similar to Angela’s ‘One World Week’ in that it was intended to be the culmination of all the Project work by Brenda and Neil. Brenda indicated at interview that this was an attempt not only to bring together many elements of their previous work, but also to deal with themes and subjects they had not been able to cover earlier in the term. The activity had the following aims according to both Brenda and Neil: to enable children to experience the roles of tourist and host; to enable children to develop sensitivity towards people and places involved in travel and tourism; and to
enable children to assess and evaluate their attitudes to different cultures and environments.

The activity involved several curriculum areas and in particular Brenda and Neil referred to Geography, Art, English, Technology and Maths. It required a good deal of preparation before the actual days of the activity and during the first day itself children were involved in the creation of two imaginary islands. Each of the teacher's classrooms became the setting for these islands. The children were asked by their respective teachers to create the language, culture, customs, religious beliefs, codes of behaviour, currency, leisure activities, physical appearance of the islands and dress of the islanders. As a major part of the activity was to visit the 'other' island, children were also asked to create, or provide information in relation to services for visitors, including food, drink accommodation, places of historic interest and places of worship and shops.

The islands created were given the name Red Island and Freedom Island by children from the respective classes. I attended the second day of the activity when children from one island were involved in a visit to the other and each class took on the role of either tourist or host. Upon my arrival I became a participant as an honorary resident of Red Island and we were about to visit Freedom Island. Initially we passed through customs and exchanged money, before being accompanied by a guide from Freedom Island to a special welcoming ceremony and this was followed by the reading of a brief history of Freedom Island which had been created by members of the class. A part of the history of the island was then dramatised for us and we were subsequently given island refreshments and then taken to visit the chief religious shrine, the grave of the founder of the island. We were then left to visit a leisure activity centre to take part in island games, visit a traditional island craft centre and a souvenir shop. We were finally
accompanied back to immigration and customs before departure. In general terms the children who role played members of the Freedom Island population were convincing and stayed in role throughout the visit.

The following day the children from Freedom Island visited Red Island, and then on the subsequent morning each island played host to visits from other junior and infant classes in the school. I was only able to be present again on the fourth day during the post-visit evaluation. Brenda and Neil each asked the children to write down how they felt in their roles of visitor and as hosts. They then asked children how they responded as visitors to hosts and vice versa. I was able to discuss with, and note down comments of, children during this evaluation. A selection of evaluative comments from children in relation to role playing hosts were as follows:

I found out what it was like to welcome guests to your island.
We worked as a team it turned out better than I thought.
I liked the way they organised their island, the hosts were nice and friendly.
(Evaluative comments from Neil Williams' class, June 1991,

and

What a busy day, my mouth aches because I kept smiling at everyone.
It was hard because I really wanted to argue with someone and that would not have been right.
Most of the visitors were really nice, you could tell they were enjoying themselves.
I don’t think I was such a good host at the end of the day as at the beginning. I was tired.
(Evaluative comments from Brenda Knowles' class, June 1991)

Children also appeared to gain a better understanding of what it is like to be a visitor, as the following statements from Brenda's class show:

It was very hot and noisy and I felt I was in a strange place.
The food and drink was strange. I didn't want to try it but I didn't want to be rude. It was horrible.
They had a really good guide who looked after us
Because they didn't speak a language I could understand, I felt deaf.
(Evaluative comments from Brenda Knowles' class, June 1991)

A number of Neil's class also appeared to have gained greater understanding of the role of a visitor as the following selection of statements reveal:

Our host was a bit rude and said hurry up in the temple.
We needed more time to look in the museum.
I wish we had more time. One person wasn't a good host because he kept rushing me.
I felt stupid because I couldn't understand them.
(Evaluative comments from Neil Williams' class, June 1991)

The evaluative comments produced by the children would seem to indicate that 'Two Islands' had been particularly effective in addressing, if not actually achieving, the activity's stated aims of 'enabling children to develop sensitivity towards people and places involved in travel' and the related aim of 'enabling children to assess and evaluate their attitudes to different cultures and environments'. These aims were closely linked to the Project aims: 'to develop sensitivity and concern for individuals and cultures involved in travel and tourism' (Learn to Travel Project, Attitudes and Values, Objective 3); and 'to develop sensitivity and concern for the environment in which travel and tourism takes place' (Learn to Travel Project, Attitudes and Values, Objective 4)

Although the exposure to and development of values and attitudes was an important element of this activity these aims were not linked to any National Curriculum subject. Aims of the activity in connection with National Curriculum subjects related almost exclusively to gaining knowledge and understanding. A major reason for this, as previously discussed, was that the ATs for each National Curriculum subject were written with assessment in mind. In relation to Geography (at least) early drafts of documents had statements concerned with values and attitudes
within the ATs and Programmes of Study. These references to values and attitudes were largely removed in Geography in the National Curriculum (DES, 1991a). It had been argued at the WWF Project meeting that it was unlikely that values and attitudes would be assessed in the National Curriculum and hence teachers would be unlikely to develop activities with such a concern. 'Two Islands' with its main focus on values and attitudes would appear to contradict that view.

Not only did this activity have a values and attitude focus but Brenda at a subsequent interview claimed that she felt this it was particularly successful. As she stated:

Two Islands was the most successful activity and I would attempt this again, and I would probably start with it, yes I'd make it the first activity if I did it (the Project) again.
(Interview with Brenda Knowles, July 1991)

Brenda also gave a detailed evaluation of this activity in her overall evaluation of Project work, and this provides her reasons for suggesting it to be successful. She indicated that the activity focused the children's attention well to the idea that tourism has two elements, by which she meant tourists and host. She believed that the activity not only made the children aware of the problems that both visitors and hosts have to face but as she stated:

they were able to become more aware that both visitors and hosts have responsibilities.
(Interview with Brenda Knowles, July 1991)

She claimed this development of responsibility came about partly through the work on codes of behaviour that formed a part of the 'Two Islands' activity, as well as being a result of earlier Project work on codes. She said that in their formal evaluation of the activity and in more informal
situations the children in her class had been quite critical about themselves and the parallel class while in their roles. She stated:

I feel on reflection this could have been extended to be our only unit. It had great potential to incorporate all the aims of the Project as well as providing opportunities for all the curricular areas covered in our smaller units.
(Interview with Brenda Knowles, July 1991)

She tempered this comment however by indicating that the motivation of the children was very high for this activity and might not have been maintained over a whole term's work. She added that the children approached the 'Islands' work successfully because of the previous Project work they had completed.

Discussion
In relation to the activities I observed Geography was the most referred to National Curriculum subject, featuring in all four activities. English and Maths were also referred to in three of the four activities and Art and Technology featured in the same two activities. The cross curricular theme of Environmental Education was referred to in one activity and the theme of Citizenship in another of the four.

In terms of opportunities offered for making use of the National Curriculum and meeting the Project aims the activity 'Adopt a Footpath' provided much scope in terms of Geography. Angela involved children in mapwork and field work skills. However, I had suggested in the Project Objectives that it should enable geographical enquiry to be undertaken. One Objective provided an eight point framework for conducting a geographical enquiry. I had created this framework using the ideas of Storm (1989) and the Proposals for Geography (DES, 1990). Angela could have therefore combined the two
skills of mapwork and fieldwork within an overall framework of geographical enquiry. She could have then produced a sequence of questions such as:-

Where is the footpath?
Why is it like it is?
What do you feel about it? Do you like it or dislike it?
How is it changing?
How could it be improved?

Angela had produced some questions similar to those above, but they were not within a structured sequence. I suggest the reason that Angela did not use an enquiry approach was because I had not provided her (or the other teachers) with written statements to support what I had said about geographical enquiry during our pre-trialling meetings. Although I had a process of enquiry set out in the skills section of the Project objectives it would appear that Angela did not realise how to apply this. Geography in the National Curriculum (DES, 1991a) was also singularly unhelpful in this area. Although the term 'enquiry' was used in this document there was no attempt to define it. Even the Non-Statutory Guidance (England) (NCC, 1991) buried a very short reference to enquiry in a paragraph towards the end of what was a rather bland document. The Welsh Non-Statutory Guidance (WCC, 1991) provided a very clear exposition, with examples, of the nature of geographical enquiry but was not published until after Project activities had been developed.

'Adopt a Footpath' also offered scope for Science work particularly in terms of the process of scientific enquiry set out in AT1 Scientific Investigation. Angela did provide a checklist on her worksheet (burrows, nests, etc.) which could be interpreted as developing scientific knowledge, but she did not refer
to Science in her aims for the activity. She could have combined scientific knowledge development with the process of scientific investigation. Given the potential for knowledge and skill development in Geography and Science she could have far more clearly identified the areas of these two subjects to be developed in 'Adopt a Footpath'.

This would be of little consequence if Angela had created some other activities involving geographical enquiry or scientific investigation. However, in her total of thirteen activities none provided such opportunities. As none of the other three teachers developed an activity involving geographical enquiry, and only Brenda produced Science related activities and yet the Project was viewed as very strongly environmentally linked this is worthy of comment.

In relation to the lack of work on Science in the Project this would seem to support the arguments of Bennett et al (1992) and Carre and Carter (1993, 1990) concerning teachers' perceptions of their ability, or rather inability, to deliver the Science National Curriculum. These authors indicated that at the time of the introduction of the National Curriculum, which coincided with the introduction of the Project, many primary teachers felt ill-prepared to deliver Science.

It would appear, in relation to geographical enquiry, despite the statement in the skills section of the Project objectives, that it was the lack of examples of how to employ the enquiry process that was significant. In the materials I gave teachers in advance of activity production I had provided them with examples of role play activities and three of the four teachers had developed Project role plays. I had also given teachers a copy of A Young Persons Guide to Colwyn Bay to aid activity creation. All four teachers had
subsequently developed some form of local guide in their Project activities. Also in relation to material I produced to assist teachers Angela stated at interview:

Some of the material you gave me was helpful. I liked that 'Young Visitors Guide' and the stuff on tourism and development, but the aims and objectives of the thing did not mean much to begin with.

(Interview with Angela Smith, July 1991)

I conclude from this that when introducing this innovation writing out and explaining to teachers the Projects aims, intentions and objectives was not as successful as providing them with possible examples of activities. Teachers responded to real examples and case studies as these were a far greater guide to what they could achieve in their classroom and these were much more influential. If there were no examples then teachers were less inclined to attempt to apply the aims and objectives in what they might consider unfamiliar territory. Conversely and perhaps perversely it would appear teachers also used the examples, not as examples but in a more prescriptive way, as there is some evidence to suggest that teachers appeared to view them as the 'best' way to develop activities rather than just one strategy amongst several possibilities. This could also be interpreted as the teachers finding an easy way to produce activities. Alternatively it could also be viewed as an attempt by teachers to keep me happy as co-ordinator, with teachers believing I had given them 'model' activities to base their own upon.

I have indicated above that I was concerned that Angela's other activity 'One World Week' could lead to stereotyping, and I believe found some evidence of this amongst children and teachers. Angela was very aware of the issues of stereotyping and several other of her activities made attempts to address
the issue. In relation to 'One World Week' I suggest that problems arose in relation to stereotyping for reasons related to the organising of the activity and the original aims. This was a big activity, which included at some time all children and all teachers in the school. Inevitably with such an activity compromises were made. This seemed the case in relation to some of the destinations created. For example it was not clear whether teachers and children in the infant classes were aware of Angela's Project work and its aims, or had been merely requested to produce an environment called Africa, rather than a specific tourist destination. There was also a danger that those on the margins of this activity, including again the infant children, would not benefit from the aims of the activity. There was evidence that some infant children had the opportunity to take on only one of the two roles of tourist and host. Their perspective on the relationship of tourist and host would therefore be limited and more likely to contribute to rather than overcome stereotypes.

A major concern I had with this activity, however, related to what Angela stated on the day of the activity as an important aim. She indicated that it was an attempt to celebrate their Project work. Initially I saw this as very appropriate, but then considered that it meant significant dangers for both Angela's class and the other children involved. Although Angela had clearly indicated that this was a celebration of their work, this could be misinterpreted as a celebration of travel and tourism. If this was the interpretation by other children (and teachers) in the school then the aims of the Project involving the promotion of a critical stance towards tourism were unlikely to be achieved. If this were the case in relation to Angela's class much of the work she had done previously to make children more aware of tourism's impacts could be undone. On the other hand, I believed, the activity could open up thinking for children not directly involved from
the start. By undergoing a simulation of travel they might want not only to travel, but become concerned about tourism's impacts and the issues around it.

The approach of Brenda and Neil in their 'Two Islands' activity was perhaps more successful at avoiding stereotypes, and seemed to enable children to develop greater awareness of a range of attitudes and values. I suggest the reason for this lies in the fact that children created imaginary locations. This avoided an initial reaction "What do I know about this (real) place?" which would probably have led to stereotypes. Also the children created, for example, history, religion and customs for their island. In this way they felt a part of what they were creating and probably believed they had ownership of it. When challenged or complimented on an aspect of the island they reacted as if it was their own culture or custom referred to and the 'ownership' factor was demonstrated in their emotional reaction whilst in role and which was also revealed in the post-role play evaluation. By feeling ownership for something, even if imaginary, children were in a situation closely approximating to reality. This would therefore seem to be an argument in support of experiential learning, which as I have stated previously, appeared to be part of the underlying educational philosophy of all four Project teachers.

Despite the apparent success of 'Two Islands', its main aims of concern with exploration and development of values and attitudes was not closely linked to any one National Curriculum subject or cross curricular theme. Brenda went as far as to indicate that this was the most successful activity, because of its focus on the affective rather than the cognitive domain. Two years later at interview, in the summer of 1993, Brenda again stated that this was the
most successful activity she developed and, as is discussed in the section concerned with long term impacts of the Project, she was still using it.

Two of the activities observed were concerned with the relationship between visitors and hosts, these were 'Two Islands' and 'One World Week'. This issue also formed an important dimension within the other activities Angela devised for the Project. These two activities can be linked to the Project objectives of enabling children to develop awareness of the impacts of tourism on culture society, economy and individuals (Learn to Travel, Knowledge and Understanding Objective 5) as well as work on values and attitudes, particularly developing sensitivity and concern for individuals and cultures involved in travel and tourism (Learn to Travel, Attitudes and Values Objective 3). In both activities role playing tourists and hosts was an explicitly stated aim, although it was less clear in 'One World Week' how precisely this was related to attitudes and values work. Nevertheless this focus would seem to be at odds with arguments made by those experienced educators at the first Project meeting. They had claimed that the emphasis on assessment required by the National Curriculum would mean teachers would not develop activities concerned with 'unassessable' values and attitudes. Not only did teachers attempt such activities, but according to their evaluation, my observation and children's reaction they were relatively successful activities.

Anne's activity 'Visit to an Airport' was criticised by WWF staff, Alison and Cherry, when they saw the write-up of the draft and their criticism was very similar to mine. They said that this activity should have more reference to the conflict of interests in travel particularly between convenience and the environment, as well as between people's expectations and the environment. As they stated:
many people nowadays expect to go abroad for their holidays, or to be able to travel from one end of the country to the other in a matter of hours... pupils should be made aware of the causes and consequences surrounding these transport issues and the environment.

(Editorial comment by WWF staff, March, 1992)

Alison and Cherry also indicated that Anne could have used the visit to the airport to get children to investigate the effects of package tours on foreign cultures and environments. They also said that the visit could have led to work focusing on noise pollution. And in a wider sense children could have considered how air travel has led to changes in attitudes to distance and time, Alison and Cherry stated. This activity, rather like 'One World Week' had therefore a danger of promoting an uncritical attitude to tourism. Given that an important Project skill objective was 'critical thinking', by implication this indicates that I could have provided clearer guidance to Anne and the other teachers on the types of activities, with possible examples, they could develop which would provide this critical perspective.

The activities I observed were developing some skills which were related to objectives within the Project, but teachers did not generally include these within their aims. Angela suggested in relation to 'Adopt a Footpath' that drawing and using maps was a skill the activity was designed to develop. She could also have referred to children becoming 'aware of their responsibilities as stewards of the planet and take action accordingly' (Learn to Travel Attitudes and Values Objective 6) as monitoring the state of the path and clearing away litter could be placed under this heading. She did not do this, however, and neither did she overtly link the aims of the activity to 'political thinking' which was under the heading of skills within the Project aims. The Project aim of political thinking related to making children aware
that they could influence decision makers. Angela suggested in her write up of this activity that children, having monitored the condition of the path, could produce a written report which could be sent to the local council and the media so she was indeed linking this activity to the Project aim but was not making it explicit in her activity.

A number of different pedagogical styles were employed by teachers in the activities I observed. All four teachers at interview indicated that they favoured group work where possible, but I observed a good deal of whole class teaching with instructions being delivered to all members of the class as well as whole class question and answer sessions and feedback and review activities involving the whole class. I also saw children working on their own and in pairs. There was however a similarity in terms of the pedagogy in that teachers tended to favour group work rather than whole class work where this was possible.

Role play was also used in two of the four activities observed. Role play also featured in several other activities not observed, particularly those of Angela. Role play and simulation would appear to be particularly appropriate for activities for children considering the nature of tourists and hosts and the relationship between them. Simulation would also seem a more appropriate teaching approach than actually gaining first hand experience when one of the aims of the Project was to develop concern for environmental consequences of travel. It is likely, however, that experiential learning will be defended by those who believe there is no substitute for the real thing.
CHAPTER 4 THE PROJECT

Section 9 Findings: My teaching of Project related activities

My decision to teach a number of activities should be viewed within the overall action research strategy I adopted. I believed it would provide an opportunity for me to investigate, at first hand, the process of curriculum innovation. By teaching I hoped I would also gain further insights into the opportunities and constraints created by the introduction of the National Curriculum. This approach was therefore a part of the 'progressive focusing' (Hammersley and Atkinson, 1983) of the action research method I employed, in that I felt I had gained some data from my investigations of the 'intended' and 'observed' curriculum (Pollard and Tann, 1993) but now required another perspective.

Up to this point I had studied teachers' plans, their written draft activities and observed activities. I now wanted to put myself in the position, or as near as possible to this, of a teacher involved in the processes of developing and implementing activities. I wanted to be the creator and implementor of activities, in addition to my role as co-ordinator. This would give me a new perspective from which to obtain data and was part of the process of observer triangulation, in which I gained through first hand experience data and insights, which added to those I had previously obtained at interview with teachers and through investigation of their documents.

I also saw the opportunities within my teaching to trial and evaluate activities developed by Project teachers. This I hoped would provide new perspectives in addition to those I had previously gained via my study of teachers' plans, written documents and my observation of activities.
My intention to teach was also related to the fact that although I had had the opportunity to investigate teachers’ plans and study all their draft activities on paper it had only been possible to observe four of the Project activities. These four activities, although having similar aims and objectives to several other activities, were not particularly representative in terms of organisational aspects, in particular their scale and resource requirements, time factors and in the case of two activities the setting beyond the classroom. I wanted to attempt to teach and gain insights into what I regarded as more conventional classroom activities. From the experience of my teaching I hoped to gain insights into the nature and effectiveness of the curriculum content of activities. I also intended to try out and evaluate different pedagogical approaches, some of which had been employed by Project teachers. As the teaching would obviously take place in a classroom I could also obtain the reaction of children to my activities.

The specific aims of my teaching of activities are summarised below.

i) I wished to develop my own Project related activities, trial and evaluate these;

ii) I intended to evaluate some of the activities previously developed by teachers in the Project;

iii) I wished to trial and evaluate an activity developed for the Project and previously trialled elsewhere; and

iv) I wished to investigate the effects of these activities on children.

My Teaching

In planning to teach I had to make decisions on the nature of the school and children to be involved. I wished to have approximately the same conditions operating in the school in which I taught as the Project schools to
enable valid comparisons to be made. Of particular importance to ensure valid comparisons were the age of children, the location and size of school.

The school I taught in I refer to here under the pseudonym, Earlham School, met the criteria I had set in advance in that the children were of the same age group as those in the Project schools. They were also in one of the same urban settings as a Project school. As with the Project schools there was a fairly even balance of males and females in the class. However, the size of the class was larger than those in the Project with forty children on the register, although during my time in the school there were only a maximum of thirty seven children present. Other factors in selecting the school included willingness of the headteacher and class teacher to allow me to develop and trial activities and ease of my access to the class.

My teaching took place in the summer term of 1992, and I spent six weeks in the class. This teaching was part of an overall renewal of school experience scheme run by my University so that I also taught other activities not related to the Project. As I was expected to teach other aspects of the curriculum than just Project activities and although I was not a full-time employee of the school this situation gave me the opportunity to experience the pressures teachers were under during this phase of the introduction of the National Curriculum.

The initial stage of my planning was not the same as that for the Project teachers as I had the advantage of a number of activities already prepared and tested from which I could select. My aims were therefore not identical to the Project teachers as a part of my teaching was an attempt to evaluate the work of others. Additionally, however, I did wish to develop my own activities. This was related to my attempt to trial a particular activity, the
geographical enquiry, which I believed should be possible but had not been employed by Project teachers. I also wished to undergo the processes of planning that Project teachers had been through.

As a preliminary to my teaching I conducted a questionnaire that was related to my aim to obtain information in a pre-intervention survey. I discuss the design, process of conducting and results of this survey in Section Ten of this chapter. Following on from this survey, as part of the action research strategy, I created plans to teach a number of activities, some of which had been developed by teachers and some I intended to develop myself. I intended to teach activities that related to the varying areas of the objectives of the Project, knowledge and understanding, skills, values and attitudes and consider how these related to the National Curriculum. I also wished to investigate what I had set out as important themes in these objectives and to evaluate activities that had identified what the teachers (and I) regarded as important themes. My aims were also to give a varying geographical focus involving study of a number of localities, including the local area and distant places. I also wished to evaluate a variety of pedagogical approaches, some of which I had observed being used by teachers, and others suggested in the write up of activities by teachers.

I planned to start with a locally based activity, employing the idea of the concentric curriculum that advocates starting locally and working out to more distant parts of the world (Bale, 1983). This was also the approach of three of the four teachers in the Project. I also intended to teach the theme of travel and this was partly related to approach taken by Anne at Clyst Hydon School. An important theme investigated by all teachers, and in particular Angela at Bassett's Farm School, but also Brenda and Neil at Redhills School, was the relationship between visitors and hosts and I
wished to trial and evaluate activities in relation to this theme. I was also interested to investigate and evaluate activities that considered the nature and impacts of tourism in distant places and particularly in developing countries, and this again was a theme featuring in the activities of some of the Project teachers. The focus on developing countries also related to my concern, which was based partly on activities I had observed, about stereotypes of distant places and people. I wished to investigate how activities could prevent stereotyping.

My first planned activity was a guide to the local area, 'A Town Guide'. All four Project teachers had asked children to produce some form of local guide. Depending on the local circumstances and aims of the teacher this had been an urban or rural based guide and had involved the production of a written or illustrated guide and in relation to two classes had focused on the use of video. These guides had aims that appeared to be closely related to the Project aims and were also linked closely to National Curriculum subjects. Brenda, Neil and Anne at interview had also indicated that they had been influenced by the Young Visitor's Guide to Colwyn Bay in the devising of their activities and so I also consulted this. The production of a guide to the local area also appeared to be an appropriate first activity because of its relationship to some of the questions on the questionnaire survey I had conducted. These questions were concerned with what children's would like and not like a visitor to the local area to see, and with the impact of tourism on the local area.

I identified the following aims for the production of the guide and these were closely linked to those of the Project: 'children should develop knowledge and understanding of the natural, social, cultural and economic context for tourism' (Learn to Travel Project Knowledge and Understanding
Objectives 4 and 5); and 'children should develop interest and curiosity about the people and environments involved in travel and tourism and investigate a range of values with regard to travel and tourism' (Learn to Travel Project Attitudes and Values Objectives 1 and 2).

I identified links between the activity and the National Curriculum areas of English, Geography and Technology. The English work it was intended would involve children selecting information and producing a range of writing in various forms, assembling ideas, drafting and redrafting these ideas. The Geography work would involve children using large scale map and producing their own sketch map, I intended. As children were to be involved in the production of a guide I saw potential for design skills to be involved and hence made reference to Technology. I intended, initially, the activity to be part of a geographical enquiry but did not give much time to working out a sequence of enquiry questions and hence decided I would use the enquiry approach in a subsequent activity.

The activity itself was spread over six half day sessions of the first week of teaching. As the class was large, it was sub-divided into two approximately equal size groups and I supervised the activity twice. The first part of the activity involved small groups of two or three children in discussion. I asked children to discuss and then note down their own likes and dislikes in relation to their town. We then had a feedback session in which I asked the small groups to inform the other children of their likes and dislikes and I also asked them to provide reasons for their response. The majority of children indicated that there were particular features that they liked and disliked in the environment. The beach was the most frequently referred to area that children liked. A large number of children also referred to 'the docks'. This area had previously been part of a working port, but was at
the time run down and neglected awaiting planning permission for redevelopment. A majority of children indicated that this was an area they disliked as it was dirty/untidy, but a small number also indicated that they liked it. Other significant features such as park land, play areas as well as the sports centre and swimming pools were referred to by a number of children, as were particular buildings/features such as churches, cafes and public houses. A number of the children also referred to environmental quality in this discussion, and this was frequently given as a reason for their response. The presence of litter was mentioned by a great majority of children, while a clean/tidy town was discussed by children as an aspect that they liked. There was little difference between the two groups in their responses.

The second part of the activity involved the use of a large scale map of the town. Again working in small groups and using a photocopy of the map children were asked to identify the areas/features that they liked and disliked. After this children I asked children to plan a route around the town to show visitors locations that they liked. These maps were produced in small groups of two or three children. Despite a number of minor differences these maps showed a great deal of similarity. Just under half planned routes that had features/attractions found predominantly close to the school. These routes tended to start at the school, generally included the main shopping streets and the leisure centre with only one area visited, a large urban park, being a distance greater than one mile from the school.

Just over half of the route-way maps covered a relatively large area of the town. These routes included visits to the beach, frequently included the entire length of the sea front, in most cases stopped at a grassland common close to the beach, visited the sports centre and visited some of the main
shopping areas and some of these maps also involved visits to the docks area.

In response to questions about why they had included particular locations and features, there was an indication that those children who had planned longer 'more distant from school' routes had given specific thought to where they believed tourists visited, whilst several of those who had drawn maps which focused on the area around the school indicated that they had done so based on their own likes and dislikes and had given little consideration to the likes and dislikes of tourists.

The final part of the activity involved children providing a written commentary in relation to their route. It had been my intention to make this merely the first part of the guidebook/leaflet activity. As it had been necessary to run the activity twice as I had two groups, I decided to stop the activity at this point. I wanted to ensure I left enough time to conduct some of my other planned activities.

I wrote field notes during this time of teaching in school. I provide below an extract which I wrote immediately after I had finished teaching this activity, which attempts to evaluate the activity in terms of the curriculum areas addressed:

I suppose the activity achieved some success in relation to the subject area of Geography in terms of children making use of large-scale maps to plan their route. But it did not really develop into an enquiry. This was partly due to lack of sufficient time, but I did not clearly set this up as an enquiry. Did any teacher develop an enquiry in terms of the way I set out the process in the Project Objectives? I don't think they did. Did this activity develop any geographical knowledge? Did it make the children any more environmentally aware? Yes, in a limited way they demonstrated knowledge and used skills of interpreting a large scale street maps and annotating a map, but it
tended to provoke only superficial responses in terms of likes and dislikes, so I don't think they did develop any more awareness. What about the English and Technology? The product of the activity was really only a map with some writing and perhaps a little bit of design involved in it. I don't think I can make many claims about this activity in terms of these subject areas.
(Fieldnotes, June, 1992)

My field notes reveal that I then gave some thought to this activity in relation to the Project Objectives. I referred in these to the children's maps and commented on the problems they seemed to have in putting themselves in the role of tourists when expressing their likes and dislikes. I concluded my field notes as follows:

I hoped they would be able to transfer their thinking from the very local to the town as a whole and the parts visited by tourists, but for some children this did not happen. There was not much evidence this activity made children aware that human activities which led to negative impacts on the environment could adversely affect tourism. Nor yet any idea that tourists themselves could contribute to damage and the long term impacts of this.
(Fieldnotes, June, 1992)

Despite my perception that in relation to Project aims this activity had not been successful, I still wished to engage children in a study of the local area having a tourism dimension which would be more explicit from their point of view. Initially I reconsidered the idea of a detailed guide, but time constraints were likely to make this not advisable given the other activities I planned, I believed. I wanted to attempt to extend the Geography work and if possible include some field work. This was partly related to the fact that Project teachers had developed a number of activities where Geography had been a major component and also two of the activities I had observed had involved fieldwork. I believed my activity 'Town Guide' also had potential for fieldwork, but this had not been realised.
To assist in the decision-making process about what to teach next I re-read the activities created by the Project teachers. I noted that all the teachers' activities involving a guide/tourist leaflet had, at least, an implicit historical dimension. Two activities, one developed by Neil and one by Angela, had an explicit historical focus. Neil's activity involved the production of thematic guides, using different periods of history as one of several themes. I took this idea and adapted it to fit a modified version of a well tried and tested technique for investigating the local environment, the town trail (Lui Fyson, 1978, Adams, 1982, Mills, 1988).

The activity I created I titled 'A Historical Town Trail'. I stated the aims of the activity were for children 'to develop first hand knowledge of the environment through fieldwork investigation', 'to gain knowledge and understanding of the local area' and 'to provide an opportunity for children to produce their own town trial, and to act as guides on a town trail'. The third aim of the 'Historical Town Trial' was related to the aims of the activity 'Town Guide' where children had produced their own tourist route. But I intended to extend this, by enabling children to conduct fieldwork to assist in the creation of their route. The particular emphasis on tourism was contained in the last part of the statement of the third aim. I wanted children not only to create a route but act as guides for the route that they had created. In this way children would role play tourists and hosts, an important element of several activities developed by Project teachers.

In preparation for the activity I made a video recording of a route through the town. As Exmouth has a number of fairly prominent Victorian buildings and landmarks I selected this historical era as my focus, and followed a route that included a number of such buildings and landmarks. The first part of the teaching involved the use of this video recording which
I showed to the whole class, asked children to identify buildings and then locate them on a large scale street map. This part of the activity was linked to the National Curriculum Geography aims 'to identify features from a large scale map' and the National Curriculum History statement 'to describe different features of a historical period'.

I then informed the children that they should work in small groups and would be expected to prepare a trail with an historical focus. I indicated they would have resources, including maps, guidebooks, photographs, local histories and the video I had made available to help them. Once again for practical reasons and at the request of the teacher the class was divided into approximately two equal size groups, and I supervised them separately. Children were given a half day to prepare this part of the activity and spent the time reading, discussing, drafting and re-drafting their routes.

The next part of the activity involved the children walking their planned routes, while being supervised by parent helpers, to note the features and landmarks already in their route and to include any other features they wished. Children were then informed that they needed to produce a written commentary for their route and should decide on a way of presenting it for the 'visitors' they would show around. They also had to decide whether to have a leading guide or each take a fairly equal role as guides and to ensure their route took approximately one hour to walk. On the day the class was divided into two roughly equal size groups. In the morning, half of the class in their separate groups became guides and the others visitors, while in the afternoon roles were swapped over. This related to my intention that children should not only act as guides but also have the opportunity to evaluate the route chosen and ability of other children to act as guides.
I refer here to my field notes to provide an indication of my immediate evaluation of this activity.

Most of the groups produced very similar routes and these were themselves similar to my video trail. The took in a number of landmarks which were fairly obviously Victorian. These were typically the clocktower, site of the old railway station and buildings with dates on including the library. This was rather disappointing, I hoped they might be more adventurous, and include locations they had read about/researched rather than just those I had included in my video.
(Fieldnotes, June, 1992)

However three groups, out of the total of twelve, had the docks area in their trails. This was despite the fact I had not included the area on my video trail, due solely to technical problems with the camera. In class I had mentioned this area as a possible location for the trail, but had not discussed it in detail. I was particularly interested to note the area’s inclusion as many children had said they disliked the area when I had introduced the 'Town Guide' activity.

I accompanied one of the three groups which visited the docks on their trail and asked the children why they had included the area. Two children indicated the importance of the area in Victorian times and its link to the railway. I reminded the group that in class most children had said they disliked the area and would not show it to visitors and asked them why we were there now. One girl replied "Its a bit of our history, so we should show it to visitors". Another girl said that although it was dirty, it was still used by yachts and that made it attractive. She added that she did not know there were boats in the docks until the visit to prepare the trail. The only boy in the group added that it was a good place to go fishing and sometimes it was possible to buy fish from boats. The responses suggested that these children
had possibly become more aware of their local environment as a result of this activity. And the response of the girl who had referred to the docks as "a bit of our history", revealed she had at least a rudimentary idea of the importance of heritage as a tourist attraction.

I discuss below the nature of the process of children acting as tour guides through reference to my field notes. In terms of the group that I accompanied each child had a particular area of the trail that they were responsible for and talked about. In all but one case in this group children read out what they had written in the guide. One girl talked without reference to what she had written and pointed out buildings around a Victorian park area. She told me later that she had talked about this area, as she lived close to it and visited it often. I asked the parent helpers to comment on what had occurred in the groups they were supervising. My field notes provide the response to the question.

Most groups seemed to have a leader, or at least one child who did most of the guiding. Several parents said that not much was said. More often than not the leader read out what they had written and in some cases said something like: "We are now at the clocktower, next we are going to the station". One group of boys appeared not to have a leader, but each had a location they were responsible for. They each took the visitors there, but said nothing and were clearly intent on being the first back to school! In relation to this group I don't think either guides or visitors got much out of it. However two parents said that they had learned something new about the town. One of them learned the age of the clocktower and another why a particular building was built and when it was built. (Fieldnotes, June 1992)

This activity appeared to support the aims of some National Curriculum subject areas. In relation to Geography, children had used large scale maps and also drawn their own sketch maps. They had also conducted fieldwork and used maps and fieldwork to prepare and then create a route. Children
had also conducted work in English in terms of producing some non-chronological writing. There was evidence that some children had developed greater environmental awareness, which was partly a result of the requirement to act as guide, although there was also evidence that a number of children did not take their role as a guide very seriously. Although there was some evidence that children were becoming more aware of the range of tourism attractions in the local area, I still felt that there was little to suggest that many children were aware of the effects of tourism, as yet. I therefore decided it was important at this time to introduce an activity that involved children in an investigation of the effects of tourism.

My original plans had included the intention to teach about tourism in distant places and I wanted children to compare and contrast tourism in the local area with a distant place. I intended to make this distant place somewhere in the developing world, as I also wanted to attempt to investigate issues of stereotyping of place and people. None of the Project teachers had selected a particular destination/location in the developing world within their work, although Anne had made use of travel brochures in her activity 'Holiday Brochure Images' and Angela had used fictional locations in the developing world in the activity 'Wish You Were Here'.

I also wished to try out different pedagogical techniques to those I had previously used and to trial activities that had been designed by Project teachers in an attempt to evaluate them. I had in my plans the intention to evaluate the activity designed and taught by Brenda and Neil 'Two Islands' and this was partly related to the fact that I had observed this activity. As Brenda and Neil had taught this as the culmination of their Project teaching, I decided it would be necessary to provide some form of introductory
activity. However, I could not initially locate an activity created by Project teachers that would fit with my intentions and the time constraints.

My WWF commissioning editor, Alison and I had asked Jenny Button, who had been present at the WWF meeting, to adapt her 'flood disaster' activity and attempt to prepare other activities for the Project. Jenny worked on a part-time basis for Oxfam and she informed me she had trialled a small number of Project-related activities in primary schools in Kent and Sussex. She, like the Project teachers, was paid a fee for this by WWF. Bearing in mind her experience and concerns I was very interested to trial a Project related activity she had designed. This activity 'Tropical Beach Hotel' was designed as a role play and involved the use of photographs from travel brochures. Jenny had also indicated that this activity was in some ways a substitute for fieldwork, as she had stated that it would allow children to explore situations they were unlikely to personally experience, but would nevertheless have a relevance to them. She had also provided comments indicating that this activity had been very successful in use with children.

Although Jenny had designed 'Tropical Beach Hotel' as a role play I used a modified version of the activity, which was intended to concentrate more on the impacts of tourism, and did not require the longer preparation time that the role play required. It was my intention to follow Jenny's activity with 'Two Islands' so I did not want to repeat the use of role play. The aims of the activity I designed were as follows: to explore the impacts of tourism on developing countries; to investigate stereotypes of distant places and people; and to use geographical enquiry in relation to photographs of people and places.
As my aims indicate I saw the opportunity of using this activity as a vehicle for geographical enquiry. In fact I linked the aims of the activity closely to National Curriculum Geography, citing four of the then five ATs. I intended the activity would enable children to: 'use geographical vocabulary', 'describe how daily life in a developing country is affected by landscape, weather and climate', 'give reasons for ways in which land is used and how conflict can arise', 'describe ways in which people have changed their environment', and 'discuss whether some types of environment need special protection'.

I was able to take the class as a whole for this and organised it into twelve smaller sub-groups of approximately three or four children, allowing them to select their group on the basis of friendship, which was the common approach adopted by Project teachers. Children noted down their responses on paper during small group discussions and then we held a whole group feedback session in which children gave their responses orally. I produced a write up of the activity on the evening of the day it occurred and I have used this to provide the account below. A brief summary of the responses to the initial questions is given below, and I provide more detailed comments on the second part of the activity.

The activity involved each group receiving a copy of an identical photograph taken from a travel brochure and this was selected to show a tropical beach environment, which had a mixture of semi-natural and natural vegetation and little evidence of human activity. The photograph was selected to show an attractive environment, which was representative of the images employed by tour operators when marketing holidays in tropical destinations. A copy the material used in this activity can be found in Appendix 2, and photograph A is this tropical beach scene.
I based the geographical enquiry questions on those of Storm (1989) and those in the Welsh National Curriculum Council Non-Statutory Guidance (Welsh NCC, 1991). The questions were also very similar to those that I devised when analysing Angela's fieldwork activity 'Adopt a Footpath' and were as follows:-

1) What is the place like?
2) How is it like/unlike Exmouth?
3) How could the place be changing?
4) Would you like to visit the place?
5) Where is the place?

Responses to the first question 'What is the place like?' were primarily children's attempts to describe what they saw in the photograph. Most children referred to the vegetation and a majority to the water. The quality of the environment was mentioned with adjectives such as 'clear' and 'blue' being applied to the water, while the vegetation was frequently 'lush' or at least 'green'. Children initially tended to see differences between the photograph and their town and commented again on the vegetation, the blue sky and sea, but a number of children also stated that the place in the photograph had a beach, and the sea was not that different from the sea in their area. One girl also pointed out that their town and other places on the South West coast had trees similar to those in the photograph. Three groups of children commented on the lack of people in the photograph and one group said that they thought there should be people fishing and fishing boats on the beach.

Most children indicated that they expected that there would be people using the beach in response to the question about how the area could be changing. They mentioned tourists ('sunbathers' and 'swimmers'), and local people
such as 'fishermen'. Generally children took a very short term view of change, commenting on what could be happening within an hour or half day after the photograph was taken, although two groups referred to tidal change and one group to seasonal change of the vegetation. One other group considered what the beach environment would be like at night, regarding this as likely to be 'scarey'. There was no reference to change meaning improvement or decline in the environmental quality.

In response to the question 'Would you like to visit this place?' a majority of children indicated that they would like to, but a significant minority also responded that there would be little to do there and they would be bored, and hence would not want to visit. Most groups used the term 'tropical' in their response to the question 'Where is this Place?', and a large number also indicated that the photograph was of an island. I asked some groups what they meant by 'tropical' and responses generally included terms such as 'hot', but only two groups added reference to rainfall in relation to the term tropical. Three groups used the term 'paradise', both to describe the photograph and in relation to where the place was. Additionally in response to the question, 'Where is this place?', three groups used the term 'Caribbean', two groups mentioned the Seychelles, two groups said Africa and one group India.

The next part of the activity involved changing the scene in the photograph in an attempt to gain comment from children. I had previously cut photographs of large multi-storey concrete hotels from a travel brochure which contained images of destinations in the Mediterranean. I now gave a photograph of a hotel (photograph B in Appendix 2) to each of these groups of children and asked them to place the hotel on their beach scene photograph. I then posed the following questions:-
How do you feel about the place now?  
Would you like to visit the place now?  
What would you do there?  
What effects does the hotel have?

The results of placing the hotel on the photograph are discussed below. The great majority of children (29 of the 36 who were present) reacted immediately by stating they did not like the hotel on the photograph. Three children indicated that they still liked the photograph as much as previously, while the remaining three children stated they now liked what they saw more than before. A variety of reasons were given by the children as reasons for not liking what they saw. The more frequent responses were:

- It spoils the view.  
- It does not fit in.  
- It's too big.  
- I don't like the look of the hotel.  
  (Fieldnotes, June, 1992)

Less frequent but still immediate responses included:

- I wouldn't like to stay in that sort of hotel.  
- It's too crowded now.  
  (Fieldnotes, June, 1992)

The three children (including one who had previously indicated that she would be bored) who had indicated that they liked the scene with the hotel in it all indicated that there was now something to do. I asked what they meant by this and two of them said that there would be friends to play with and the other said she thought there would be a swimming pool or a games room.
I asked the children who had initially reacted in a negative way to the placing of the hotel if there was anything they liked about it. Although a majority maintained that they did not like the hotel and would not visit, a large minority indicated that they agreed with the three children who said there would be something to do. One group indicated that the hotel would probably organise barbecues and two girls said that they hoped there would be a disco there. Gradually other children began to add comments about the benefits of the hotel, including water sports, being able to buy souvenirs and even send postcards home. It was however sometime before a child indicated that without the hotel there would not be anywhere to stay/sleep. This led others to comment on food and drink being available in the hotel. By the end of this discussion it was evident that approximately half the class were still opposed to the hotel but the other were now willing to accept that a hotel should be there, although several of them were still unhappy with the style of the hotel.

I then tried to get children to make further suggestions on the impacts of the hotel. Initially the children found it difficult to provide responses, but I reminded them of what they had already said about the apparent positive and negative effects of the hotel. I then asked them to consider the hotel’s effects from the point of view of local people. One of the first responses I received was that there would be jobs available in the hotel. I asked about the nature of these jobs, and received the answer that the jobs would include being a waitress and cook in the hotel. I asked if their would be other jobs and one girl indicated that there could be work making and selling souvenirs. I then asked if any jobs would be lost as a result of building the hotel and although initially no one was able to answer one boy eventually stated that the fisherman might not be able to use the beach. A girl argued, however, that the fisherman would be able to sell his fish to the hotel.
Another boy then suggested that farmers could also benefit by selling their produce to the hotel.

I asked children to consider the negative effects of building the hotel, reminding them of their statements regarding the hotel not fitting in. I asked them to indicate any other possible negative effects. One boy indicated that the hotel could pollute the sea, and when asked for further information stated that he was referring to sewage. Later in this feedback session another boy stated that if the sea became polluted then it could affect the fish and fishing activities of local people. A number of children also claimed that the beach could become dirty and have litter on it as a result of tourist use. Air pollution caused by the hotel and by delivery vehicles was also mentioned by one group.

I asked children whether or not there were more good effects of the hotel. It took some time for a response but one girl stated that the people in the local area would get more money as a result of the hotel being built. Two groups, one of which had children who liked the building of the hotel, stated that the hotel was better for tourists than no hotel and said that it was good because tourists could swim there. One girl also said that it would give a chance for tourists and local people to meet each other. I asked if there were any other comments and the final comment came from a boy who stated that one negative effect we had not mentioned was that the farmer who owned the land where the hotel was built would lose that land.

My evaluation of this activity written immediately after it reveals I believed it had been particularly successful in meeting the intended Project objectives and also had linked closely to the National Curriculum subjects I had set out in my original aims. I provide an extract below to support this claim.
The children seemed for the first time to gain an awareness of some of the impacts of tourism. Their comments at the end took a while to come but I eventually received a good number of environmental, economic and social effects. Although the majority of children started off being against the hotel a significant number had changed their minds by the end of the discussion to a realisation that tourism has both positive and negative effects. Some of the children were happier with the hotel than without it as it provided an opportunity to do something. Clearly they were not thinking about the environmental or social effects on the local environment and community. They were responding as tourists. This would support the idea of the activity as a good way to examine a number of different value positions and hence it appears to be fulfilling at least one of the values and attitudes objectives of the Project.

(Fieldnotes, June 1992)

This evaluation also indicates that I considered that the geographical questions had worked and this therefore seemed to be a good basis for a geographical enquiry. Given that no Project teacher had produced a geographical enquiry this was important as I had included the process of enquiry prominently within the Project Skills Objectives. I also noted that some children appeared to have developed an awareness that there were different groups of people involved in tourism and the views of the groups could be different and even opposed. Indicating the conflict between different uses and users of resources was an aim of the Project and I felt this activity had come close to achieving this aim.

I also reflected on why this activity had been apparently successful. My reaction was that it had a clear structure imposed on it by the geographical enquiry questions and that it had accessible information in the forms of photographic images. But another significant factor was that the location was easily defined by the photograph in that it did not contain too much detail and that children did not need to know precisely where it was that was portrayed to react and feel involved in the activity. The pedagogical
technique of providing one set of circumstances and then introducing change had provoked a strong reaction. This change then provided the stimulus for children to suggest a range of impacts which they may not have considered if they had been presented initially with a photograph having a hotel already in place.

The final activity I planned to teach was developed by Brenda and Neil and titled 'Two Islands'. This was an activity that I had previously observed and participated in. A major reason for the selection of the activity was that Brenda and Neil had informed me that this was the most successful activity they had taught and that its success was based on the emphasis on values and attitudes. Brenda at interview had indicated that the activity met most if not all of her aims in Project teaching and in her evaluative comments she had also said she could have started Project work with 'Two Islands' and that it was possible that it may not have been necessary to teach other activities.

Practical considerations relating to the size of the class and the requirement that children visit their intended secondary school in the period I was to teach the activity led to a division of the class into three sub-groups. These groups were established by the class teacher who generally allowed children to work in friendship groups and the activity thus became 'Three Islands'. I introduced the activity to the whole class, however, and informed the children that the activity involved the creation of imaginary islands and that they would be role playing visitors to the islands, as well as hosts. I also informed them that as residents/hosts their role would be to create an island environment, and I referred to the islands that had been created at Redhills School as possible examples. During the rest of the activity I viewed my role to be predominantly that of a facilitator as this was the role adopted by Brenda and Neil when they taught 'Two Islands'.
I asked children next to work in their groups to decide on the nature/atmosphere/environment of their island. Two of the groups found this process relatively easy, but one group took much longer to make their decision. The outcome was the creation of 'Happy Island', 'Peaceful Island' and 'Mystery Island' the third of these being the title adopted by the group that had had difficulties coming to a decision. The next part of the activity was to assign tasks within each group and to a great extent I allowed children to assign their own roles, encouraging leaders to emerge, if this was viewed as necessary, but only intervening when it was clear children could not come easily to a decision.

After children had been assigned or taken on the various roles I produced a checklist of tasks and possible suggestions on what they could do on the day tourists would come to their island. The remaining time before the day of the visit was spent in preparing resources. My field notes suggest that I noted the purposefulness of children in this period. In addition to the high level of motivation of most children of varying abilities I was particularly impressed by active involvement of a number of less able children and one child with behavioural difficulties. As I noted:

Even Gregory (pseudonym) is involved. He is part of the Mystery Island Group, and I believe he was partly to blame for the group taking so long to decide on an island environment. He was using the discussion time devoted to this to be disruptive and annoy others in the group. Now he has a task, I think he assigned himself to it, which is to make souvenirs. He told me he is making models of beetles and bats which are linked to the island environment. He is also designing the island money.

(Fieldnotes, June, 1992)
On the day the practical arrangements were not easy with three groups but each had the opportunity to be both host and visitor. There were some similarities to each group’s ‘presentation’, but each also had particularly distinctive parts. The similarities included food and drink provided by each island and each had created some form of history and some entertainment. Differences were partly in the content but also the form of the activities of each group.

The Happy Island, for example, produced a song which told the story of the creation of their island while the Peaceful Island created a dance which was meant to symbolise an early war in the island’s history, which had led to the island people deciding to become peaceful. Mystery Island attempted to create the atmosphere of their island through a number of mobiles depicting birds and other flying creatures. They had also produced a map which located important sites in the island’s history. The souvenirs were card representations of the wildlife and monuments on Mystery Island.

In general terms children were very involved in the activity and although there were many opportunities when children could have disrupted proceedings, they tended, to a great extent, to stay in role. If anything the excitement of active involvement was too much for some children. The Peaceful Island were the third group to act as hosts and the three girls who presented their dance became annoyed with each other and the ‘visitors’ when they had failed to perform as they had intended. This led to a potentially disruptive situation, but I was able to resort to commenting on the possible need for the island ‘police force’ if there was any conflict between visitors and hosts. This rapidly diffused the potentially disruptive situation.
Immediately after the activity I conducted a whole class evaluation. I asked children to write down their comments and then we discussed them and I later collected them. Some of the comments are presented below as they provide an insight into the nature of the role play activity as well as children's reaction to it.

A Peaceful Island girl said "I was really excited about doing our song, I think it went well. It was a bit like doing an assembly, except we had made it up".
A Happy Island boy said "We were really patient while waiting to visit".
A Mystery Island girl said "It was really tiring being a host, they all asked for food at the same time".
A Peaceful Island girl said "You had to listen hard to what the people (hosts) told you about their island".
A boy from Mystery Island said that "Some visitors did not like our souvenirs, that upset me 'cos I made some of them".
A Peaceful Island boy said "I didn't like the look of Mystery Island Food, but I didn't tell them and when I ate it was good".
A Happy Island girl said "Some boys laughed at our dance", and another of the dancers from the island added "Then I forgot I was a dancer and wanted to tell the boys to shut up".
(Fieldnotes, July 1992)

As part of the evaluation I asked children whether they had been good visitors and hosts and I wrote down children's comments. After some accusatory remarks between individuals in different groups, one boy said "I wasn't a good visitor 'cos I did not listen to what they told me, I just ate the food". One girl also remarked "We were not very good hosts because I was thinking about the work I had to do and not thinking about the visitors". But one girl provided a statement which I believe summarises the views of the majority of the class. She said "We worked hard to set up the things on our island, the food and drink and the story, the visitors should have appreciated what we did for them"

Discussion
Despite differences in the way in which I was able to conduct the initial stages of planning activities I found similarities between my planning approach and that adopted by all four teachers. As with the Project teachers I found it feasible to come up with ideas first and then look at National Curriculum documents for supporting statements. I found it was relatively easy to link the aims of the Project to the aims of particular activities and in general Project teachers had also been able to do this in a relatively straightforward manner. I found supporting statements in particularly the Geography National Curriculum Documents, but also other curriculum subjects including specifically History, Art, Technology, English and Maths. As with the Project teachers I could not easily locate supporting National Curriculum statements for my work on values and attitudes, although I found both the cross-curricular themes of Citizenship and Environmental Education provided some relevant comments in relation to this area.

In relation to my actual teaching, although I was not able to fully experience the pressures on a full-time primary teacher, I believe I gained important insights. As I was involved in teaching other curriculum areas than those linked to the Project, I became very aware of the time constraints that existed for teachers. With the amount intended to be used for the core subjects, there were problems of lack of time for work in the non-core foundation subjects. The traditional topic approach to the curriculum, favoured by most primary teachers prior to the implementation of the National Curriculum, was also threatened by the amount of time required for the core subjects. As the Project had been perceived by the teachers as involving a predominately topic approach then its chances of making it into the primary curriculum at this time seemed less likely.
In relation to my ability to plan and implement activities I was in the fortunate position to be able to look at examples from other teachers of what could be attempted. This made me aware that I had not provided such an opportunity for the Project teachers. Angela and Anne in their separate schools had to rely on their own individual resources, while Brenda and Neil could work collaboratively, but could not draw on others' experiences. I realised that it would have been advisable to have offered the Project teachers opportunities to meet together. This could have taken place at the beginning of the Project, to generate ideas and to plan activities, and then at later dates to share evaluative comments.

That I had not given teachers in different schools the chance to collaborate in the ways suggested above now seemed a glaring omission. This was particularly so when I reflected on the statements made by the likes of Carr and Kemmis (1986) and McNiff (1988) which indicated that collaboration between participants, if not a pre-requisite, was a vital element of such work. Why had I not provided the opportunity for collaboration between teachers in different schools? I realised that time had been a constraint. Both teachers and I were involved in the Project in our 'spare' time and teachers had even more calls on their time than prior to the introduction of the National Curriculum as they were frequently involved in INSET meetings related to this new curriculum, I had believed.

The other major contributory factor to the lack of meetings and collaboration between teachers related to the way I perceived and organised the Project and the relationships within it. I viewed the situation as one in which despite the Project being a 'spare' time activity teachers had an individual responsibility to me as co-ordinator and I had a responsibility to WWF as the financial supporter. Each of us had targets and deadlines to meet, I believed.
At the beginning of the Project I considered the most appropriate way to get the best out of teachers was to give them a good deal of autonomy to develop activities. However, given that the activities were intended for publication I regarded it as important that I had a large pool of activities to select from for publication purposes. I perceived that if I encouraged teachers to meet regularly to share ideas this could lead to a situation in which the same activity was being trialled in three schools at the same time, rather than what I desired, which was for three separate activities being trialled at the same time.

Given that I had been in the situation of having others' ideas and activities to inform my planning and teaching, I now realised that it would have been very useful for teachers in each school to meet regularly to share ideas and trial activities. My perception of the Project in relation to the intended publication and our varying responsibilities and duties, however, had in fact restricted the opportunities for teachers to collaborate.

In relation to 'Tropical Beach Hotel' the structured sequencing of questions, within the geographical enquiry approach, appeared to make this a successful activity. The nature of the teaching strategy, which involved a dramatic change in the situation portrayed, may also have assisted in this. But the enquiry questions had produced comments which demonstrated children were developing and applying geographical knowledge. Most children remarked on climatic and vegetation factors and linked the two through such terms as hot and tropical. Some also made reference to the effects of tides. Human activities, in addition to tourism itself, including fishing and agriculture were discussed by children. Children also had the opportunity to express and hear a number of views and attitudes. Hence this activity enabled the development and expression of much important geographical
knowledge, children were involved in the skills of analysing photographs and were exposed to a range of differing attitudes in relation to environmental, social and economic factors. In relation to the placing of the hotel I would also like to suggest at least in the case of some children that the activity developed critical thinking.

Why, therefore, was geographical enquiry not used by Project teachers? As indicated in the discussion in the previous section I had not provided examples of such enquiries in my Project documents and National Curriculum documents did little to provide assistance, but I suggest other factors were also important.

Primary teachers as 'generalists' rather than subject specialists were not used to thinking in terms of subjects (Alexander, 1992, Campbell, 1985). If the rhetoric of the post Plowden era is to be believed then there was active discouragement of the subject approach in English primary schools of the 1970s and 1980s, with a consensus that children should learn from experience and, in the real world, knowledge is not compartmentalised into separate subject (Derricott, 1994). Yet the National Curriculum was written in terms of subjects. The very nature and underlying philosophy of this subject-based curriculum were at odds with the views of many primary teachers (Chitty, 1993). The feeling amongst primary teachers was exacerbated by what they viewed as the ignoring of their voices and particularly primary teachers' voices, during the devising and introduction of the National Curriculum (Simons, 1988).

This curriculum was also written very much with assessment in mind and with an indication that subject knowledge would be the main curricular aspect assessed (Lawton, 1989). Teachers reading of most National
Curriculum documents would have led them to believe that the focus was on areas of knowledge they had to deliver to children, and upon which the children would be subsequently assessed. The National Curriculum Geography document, in particular, did not indicate that there was an important process of learning in Geography (the process of enquiry), nor that this would form a part of assessment in the future. Teachers could therefore interpret this document as being concerned with a body of geographical knowledge and the skills of mapwork and fieldwork, and these were all that was to be assessed.

At interview both Brenda and Angela provided support for this when they claimed that the National Curriculum was based on a secondary school model of education where separate subjects were taught and was not relevant to primary schools. I therefore suggest that the failure of Project teachers to employ a process of geographical enquiry related to their difficulty with the notion of a subject based curriculum, and in particular a subject called Geography, and the lack of guidance on the need to ensure that children were involved in a process of geographical learning as well as studying the body of knowledge known as Geography.

Having trialled the activity 'Three Islands' and also observed the original version previously at Redhills School, I was now in a position to make a more detailed evaluation of it, both in terms of its curriculum content and pedagogy. To a great extent my teaching of the activity confirmed the observations I had made at Redhills School. It was clear that children were creative and used their imagination well. Most had created a role for themselves and assisted in preparation for the role play day and participated well during this part of the activity. This led to a high level of motivation and engagement and I suggest children felt a good deal of ownership of the
various tasks. I also noted from my own teaching that even the less able children become actively involved. Hence a particularly difficult child gave himself the role of souvenir producer, several girls created dances, other children chose to write a history and religion for their island.

I suggest an important reason why this activity was successful was that it had a definite time scale. Activities in primary school do not to always come to an obvious conclusion, but this activity had preparation time and this led up to performance/presentation. The activity therefore involved a clearly defined process which the children were actively involved in and this was leading to a known product which was set to occur at a particular time.

The activity was intended to be one involving co-operation and children were able to work in friendship groups. As they worked in three separate groups, however, there was some degree of competition both in terms of preparation and in relation to the actual day of role play. This was not a problem in the preparation stages, if anything it helped maintain a high level of motivation, but during the actual role play day, the competitive aspect led to some bad feelings and disruption. It was however possible to use the context of the role play to curtail this disruption which hence limited its effects.

The activity managed to avoid the problems of stereotyping of people and place as it was not based on real locations. However as children may have drawn on experiences of real people and places to create their island and their roles the activity could be a starting point for a discussion of stereotypes. The activity therefore seemed a good way of addressing the Project objectives concerned with values and attitudes and in particular the objectives relating to investigating a range and variety of values in relation
to tourism and developing sensitivity and concern for people involved in tourism. Children's own evaluations indicated they had gained insights into the nature of the roles of host and visitor.

'Three Islands' was an activity that had aims that were clearly linked to Project Objectives but the National Curriculum was of little importance in it. The aims of the activity, as written by Brenda and Neil, were expressed in relation to experiential learning and the affective domain, involving the statements "to experience the role of...", "to develop sensitivity towards...." and "to assess and evaluate their attitudes...". I had the impression now, after my teaching of it, that Brenda and Neil had designed this activity with what they regarded as important educational aims which were however not easy to identify within the National Curriculum. It would appear that they had then attempted to link these aims to National Curriculum statements, at a later date, in response to my request for them to do this for publication purposes. They had, in fact, referred to a number of National Curriculum subject areas in relation to the activity, but when I taught it I did not address the subject areas as overtly as in other activities I had taught. I suggest therefore that the particularly successful parts of the activity were not closely related to the National Curriculum.

My teaching at Earlham School involved another role play activity. 'A Historical Town Trial' had involved children role playing a guide in their own town, while 'Three Islands' had an imaginary setting. From this experience and the observations at Redhills School it would appear that the role play in an imaginary context was more successful. On the imaginary island children were able to create roles which they identified with strongly and maintained a high level of motivation. When role playing a guide in their home town some children were less able to be so involved, were more
self conscious and this contributed to this aspect of the activity being less successful than the role play in an imaginary setting.

I hoped to gain further data on the effects of these role play activities and the other activities I had taught through my final activity at Earlham School which was the post-intervention questionnaire survey. The results of this post-intervention survey as well as the pre-intervention survey are discussed in the next section.
CHAPTER 4 THE PROJECT

Section 10 Findings: The Questionnaire Survey of Children

Introduction

This section discusses the results of the pre- and post-intervention survey conducted at Earlham School. The background to the use of the questionnaire is discussed, and this includes reference to the overall rationale for use of a questionnaire and also that for individual questions.

Background

My original intention had been to use a questionnaire survey in relation to the children in the classes of teachers in the Project. The planned survey would have been an attempt to evaluate the effects of Project teaching on the children in the Project classes. As McCormick and James (1983) and Hopkins (1989) stated attempts at evaluating change usually require some attempt to gauge conditions prior to intervention before an attempt to assess any impact that it has had. I was not, however, in the position to be able to do a pre-intervention survey as teachers had introduced the change in terms of Project teaching before I had the opportunity to design and employ a questionnaire. This would seem to be an example of what Marris and Rein (1967) refer to when discussing the problems of the apparent incompatibility of action and research. In this case the action had proceeded well ahead of the research.

My immediate solution to the problem of having no pre-intervention data was to consider surveying children from schools not involved in the Project. As they had not been on the receiving end of the intervention it would be possible to compare the results with those children who had undergone the
intervention. Misunderstandings at one Project school, however, influenced the future course of events, as is explained below.

In May 1991 I had drafted a questionnaire, received comments from my University colleagues and sent a copy of the draft questionnaire to the teachers in the Project schools, to obtain their comments, with the intention that I would then conduct a pilot questionnaire in a non-Project school. Approximately two weeks after I sent them out for comment I received, to my surprise, two sets of completed questionnaires from Redhills School. These had been completed by the children in Brenda and Neil's classes. This posed a dilemma as I had not conducted a pilot of the questionnaire and I did not know the conditions under which the surveys had been conducted at Redhills School. My initial reaction was to consider abandoning this technique of data gathering. Shortly after this initial reaction I decided as I now had some responses it would be worthwhile conducting a survey with the other Project schools for comparative purposes. This would also provide me with an opportunity to either implement the survey myself or observe its implementation, I reasoned. I therefore used the survey with Project schools as a pilot for my intended solution to the problems discussed above.

This intended solution was to be a pre- and post- intervention survey in a class that had not been involved in the Project. In this class it was my intention to conduct a pre-intervention survey, teach some activities on tourism and then conduct a post-intervention survey. The school selected for this questionnaire survey was Earlham School and my teaching of activities has been discussed in the previous section of this chapter.

I conducted a preliminary analysis of the responses from classes in the three Project schools in an attempt to gauge readability, ease of answering
questions and whether or not the questions produced useful data. The results from these surveys, which involved one hundred and sixteen children, provided evidence that, except in the case of two questions, they could be read and understood and yielded useful responses.

As it was my intention to conduct a pre- and post-intervention survey at Earlham School I decided to also conduct a survey with a comparable group, who would not undergo the intervention, to ensure the greater validity of my findings. I selected a group with a similar age, in a roughly equivalent class size, but in a different school, in an attempt to exclude possibilities of unique features operating at Earlham School. This school was also in the same town and I hoped it would ensure that these children had opportunities, beyond school, to achieve similar experiences to those at Earlham School.

The class were in Year 6 at what I refer to by the pseudonym Weston School. I have referred to them below as a 'control' group, but use of the term 'control' could be somewhat misleading in that it implies the type of experimental conditions discussed by Dolan (1976). This was not the case and 'control' group is used merely to indicate that this group did not undergo the intervention that occurred at Earlham School. Strictly speaking children at Weston School were a 'pre-test control' group only, as I did not conduct a post-intervention survey with them as no intervention took place in this class. The implications of not conducting such a survey at Weston School are however discussed in relation to the findings of the post-intervention survey at Earlham School.
Pre-Intervention Questionnaire Design

When initially creating the questionnaire, prior to my decision to use the responses from Project schools as a pilot of the pre-intervention survey, I had given much attention to its lay out, the style, use of language and even the font of the type face. As I had responses from over one hundred children before employing the questionnaire at Earlham School and Weston School I felt confident about the appropriateness of its general design and layout.

The questionnaire contained a mixture of questions in terms of content and style. The majority of questions, twelve out of fourteen, were open-ended and were designed to ensure as full a response as possible. One question involved a simplified version of a Likert scale (see McCormick and James, 1983) and one other was divided into two parts and asked for up to three comments in each part. A copy of the pre-intervention questionnaire can be found in Appendix 3.

A majority of open-ended questions were selected for use in the questionnaire for a number of reasons. The main reason was that I viewed the field of tourism as being new to the primary curriculum and thus few assumptions could be made about what children would understand about it. Creating closed-ended questions would therefore be difficult and could produce artificial categories for respondents to use and as Munn and Drever (1990) claimed open-ended questions allow respondents to answer in a way that seem appropriate to them. Using predominantly open-ended question would, I hoped, also produce richer data, and hence provide more useful insights into children's knowledge, understanding, values and attitudes in relation to tourism.
Munn and Drever (1990) suggested that open-ended questions should be used at the beginning of the questionnaire with more closed questions towards the end. The initial questions I considered should be relatively straightforward, asking for children to state their knowledge and understanding. What could be regarded as more problematic questions, involving children being required to give their attitudes and values, followed on from those in which they were required to give factual responses.

The first three questions required children to demonstrate their knowledge and understanding of what I regarded as important concepts in tourism. Question 4 was an attempt to discover if there was any link between children's responses to other questions and their actual holiday experiences. Questions 5 and 6 were also concerned with children's holiday experiences, but these two questions asked children to indicate their values and attitudes in relation to these experiences. Question 7 was an attempt to obtain a response that drew on children's experience of holidays, their attitudes to holidays and their views on a 'perfect' holiday. Question 8 was an attempt to get children to provide reasons why tourists made visits to their area. Questions 9 and 10 were an attempt to get children to provide their attitudes to their town as a tourist destination. These two questions also had the wider aim of trying to establish children's views on what they valued in their local environment. Questions 11, 12 and 13 were concerned with the effects of tourism. Question 11 asked children to provide their attitudes to statements on the effects of tourism, while questions 12 and 13 focused on impacts of tourism in the local area. The final question, Question 14, was an attempt to enable children to state their values in relation to the behaviour of tourists in the local area.
Process of Pre-intervention Questionnaire Analysis

The method of analysis of the open-ended questions was based on that suggested by Miles and Huberman (1994) and Dey (1993) in which they advocated the creation of combined categories. I read a sample of the responses, including short and long answers and attempted to create categories. Once I had found common elements in a number of responses, I created a number of single categories and attempted to fit answers to these categories. If particular responses did not fit the categories I had created I then re-examined the categories and created more if required. A significant proportion of responses to these open-ended questions were short phrases/sentences and this involved placing them in more than one category.

In general terms the responses from children at Earlham School and Weston School revealed few differences. Children in each class had similar views on the meaning of the terms holiday and tourist. Very large proportions of each class were unable to explain the term host, although almost a quarter of those at Earlham School compared with less than a tenth at Weston School used the term 'a guide'. Although there was a great variation in actual locations visited by children while on holiday, roughly equal proportions in each class had taken holidays in the South West and the rest of the UK, but half of the children at Earlham School compared with only a third at Weston School had taken holidays beyond the UK. Children in each class expressed very similar 'likes' and 'dislikes' in relation to holidays taken.

A wide range of responses were provided in relation to the question concerned with children's choice of a 'perfect holiday', but a visit to Disneyland/EuroDisney was a desire of significant numbers in each class. Weather conditions and the opportunity to swim were also referred to by a
relatively large number of children in each of the classes. Very similar responses were provided by each class in relation to questions 8, 9, and 10. Most of the various parts of question 11 produced similar responses from each class, except in relation to statement F), 'Tourism causes traffic problems', where a greater proportion at Weston School responded 'agree' than at Earlham School, and J) 'Many tourists come from foreign countries to visit Britain so tourism helps the country get more money', where a greater proportion at Earlham School responded 'agree' than at Weston School. There were also differences in relation to part C) 'Jobs in tourism only last for the summer months' and part E) 'Money from tourism is used to help preserve buildings and conserve the environment', but in both classes a large proportion responded 'Don't Know' to each part of the question. Responses from both classes to questions 12, 13 and 15 were generally similar.

Rationale for the post intervention questionnaire

The comparison of the results from children at Earlham School and the 'control' class at Weston School had revealed few differences and I therefore felt confident that there was little likelihood the children in the class at Earlham School were unique or unusual. I believed, therefore, I was in a position to assess the effects of the teaching of Project activities on the children in the class at Earlham School and I therefore prepared another questionnaire for use at the end of teaching of Project activities.

I believed it would be appropriate to include questions in this post-intervention questionnaire which were identical to those in the pre-intervention questionnaire. This would ensure that a direct comparison could be made. I also decided to include questions which were a modified version of those on the pre-intervention questionnaire. Other questions
asked children to evaluate what they had been taught. This strategy had the dual purpose of allowing some direct comparison, but also to ensure variation so that children would not feel they were involved simply in a repeat of the first questionnaire and was thus an attempt to avoid the possibility of boredom and hence a less than adequate response.

A copy of the post-intervention questionnaire is shown in Appendix 4. Questions 1 and 2 on this questionnaire were identical to 2 and 3 respectively on the pre-intervention questionnaire. Question 5 on the post-intervention questionnaire was identical to Question 11 on the pre-intervention questionnaire. It was thus possible to make direct comparisons of responses to these questions on their respective questionnaires.

Post-intervention Question 3 was designed to be very similar to pre-intervention Question 9, while post-intervention Question 4 was designed to be very similar to pre-intervention Question 10. Questions 6 and 7 on the post intervention questionnaire were a modification of Questions 12 and 13 on the pre-intervention questionnaire. Questions 8 and 9 on the post intervention questionnaire were designed as a modification and extension of Question 14 on the pre-intervention questionnaire. Although direct comparisons could not be made, I believed it would still be possible to draw valid conclusions from an investigation of the responses in relation to these questions on their respective questionnaires.

The final three questions on the post-intervention questionnaire (Questions 11, 12 and 13) were an attempt to obtain some evaluative comments from children about Project work. These were open-ended questions which asked for responses in terms of what children had liked, disliked and learned in relation to Project work. The method of analysis of the post-intervention
questionnaire survey involved the same processes as those for the pre-intervention survey.

Results of the Post-Intervention Questionnaire Survey at Earlham School

In total thirty eight of the class were present during this survey of whom thirty six had also been present at the pre-intervention survey. Only the results of those involved in both pre- and post-intervention surveys are included in the account below. Results are presented as percentage figures with the actual number of children in brackets after the percentage figure, unless otherwise stated. Results are presented with minimal analysis, but a discussion with analysis is provided after the results of all questions. Results are discussed in the following sequence:-

i) questions that could be directly compared between the pre- and post-intervention survey are presented first.

ii) those questions where only an indirect comparison between pre- and post-intervention questionnaire could be made are discussed subsequently and

iii) finally the evaluative comments of children are discussed.

Question 1 Post-intervention survey, Question 2 Pre-intervention survey

What is a tourist?

In the pre-intervention survey the most frequently used term was "a holidaymaker" referred to 36% (12) of children, while "visitor to another place" was referred to by 28% (9) of children, and "visitor here" also referred to by 28% (9) of children. Although responses were fairly similar in the post-intervention survey in terms of the categories they could be fitted into, in general terms they were more detailed. For example 17% (6) of responses in the pre-intervention survey were merely "a holidaymaker", while only one of the responses (3%) (1) in the post-intervention survey was as brief as this. Responses in the post-intervention survey were more typically "a
person who goes on holiday to/visits another place" (63% (21) of responses)
or "a person who comes here for a holiday" (21% (7) of responses. These
responses also provide some indication that a large number of the class were
more aware that tourism involves visits to tourist destinations. This would
seem further supported by the fact that as many as 17% (6) of children used
the word 'distant' in their response, referring either to visits to distant places
or visitors coming from distant places. This term distant was not used in
any of the responses in the pre-intervention survey.

Question 2 Post-intervention, Question 3 Pre-intervention survey :
What is a host?
In the pre-intervention questionnaire 28% (9) of the class indicated that they
did not know the meaning of the term. In addition 17% (6) of the children
responded they were not sure of the meaning and 15% (5) did not respond,
which I suggest indicates that a further 32% (11) of the class did not know the
meaning of the term. Additionally a further 12% (4) gave an inaccurate
definition providing responses which tended to confuse the terms tourist
and host. In summary the total of those who did not know, did not respond
or gave an inaccurate response was 72% (24) of the class. A small number
(21%) (7) of children referred to the term "guide" in their response, while
16% (5) indicated that a host provided some form of service to tourists.

In general terms responses in the post-intervention survey were more
detailed than responses in the pre-intervention survey. In the post-
intervention survey only 3% (1) of the class responded "Don't Know", while
6% (2) gave responses which revealed they were confused over the meaning
and a further 9% (3) failed to respond at all. Hence the percentage of the class
who were unable to provide a response which contained some degree of
accuracy had fallen from 72% (24) to 18% (6).
In terms of those children who did provide an indication that they had an understanding, 43% (14) used the term "a guide" and a further 22% (7) of responses contained reference to a host being a provider of services to tourists, including five of the class who referred specifically to hosts providing a service on an island. Almost one fifth of the class (7) indicated that a host had to live in an area and I suggest this was an attempt to indicate that a host was not a visitor but a resident.

The percentage figures above are aggregates and give no indication of changes in response of individual children. Of the original ten children in the class who had indicated that they did not know the meaning of the term only two maintained this response in the post-intervention survey. Of the eight whose responses had changed four responded in the category "a guide", and two "a person living in the area", while two were confused over the term's meaning. Three of those who had responded "not sure" previously, now indicated a host was "a guide". Of the four who had failed to respond in the first survey two now responded that a host was a provider of services, one responded "don't know" and one again failed to respond. None of the post-intervention responses indicated that a child who had a reasonably accurate understanding of the term modified this to a response which was less accurate.

Question 5 Post-intervention survey, Question 11, Pre-intervention survey

The effects of tourism (using the Likert scale)

The table below shows the results for this question on the pre-and post-intervention survey displayed as percentages only as is explained below.
Results of Question 11) on Pre-Intervention Survey (shown here as Pre-) and from Question 5) on Post-Intervention Survey (shown here as Post-)

Statement A) Tourism brings money into the local area as tourists buy food and drink and need somewhere to stay

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement A</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Don't Know</th>
<th>No response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre-</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Statement B) There are too many holidaymakers in Devon each year.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement B</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Don't Know</th>
<th>No response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre-</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>19</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Statement C) Jobs in tourism only last for the summer months.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement C</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Don't Know</th>
<th>No response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre-</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>47</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Statement D) Having lots of visitors to Devon in the summer months means there is a chance to meet new friends.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement D</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Don't Know</th>
<th>No response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre-</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Statement E) Money from tourists is used to help preserve buildings and conserve the environment.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Don't Know</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre-</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Statement F) Tourism causes traffic problems.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Don't Know</th>
<th>No Response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre-</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Statement G) Tourists leave litter on beaches.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Don't Know</th>
<th>No response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre-</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Statement H) Tourism means more jobs in Devon as people are needed to work in hotels, cafes, restaurants when tourists come.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Don't Know</th>
<th>No response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre-</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>22</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Statement I) Tourists damage the environment.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Don't know</th>
<th>No response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre-</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>25</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Statement J) Many tourists come from foreign countries to visit Britain so tourism helps the country get more money.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Don't Know</th>
<th>No response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre-</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>28</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Presented in this way there would appear to be a great deal of similarity between the pre- and post-intervention survey results, except in the case of Statement F). An examination of individual children's response to each question in the pre- and post-situation reveals something rather different. The table below indicates the percentage of children who had changed their response from the pre- to the post-intervention survey.

**Percentage of children changing responses in relation to Question 5 of Post-intervention survey compared with Question 11 of Pre-intervention survey.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question Part</th>
<th>Percentage change</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A)</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B)</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C)</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D)</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E)</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F)</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G)</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H)</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I)</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>J)</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
This table shows that in relation to each of the statements except D), G) and H) at least one third of the class changed their views. In relation to Statement A) "Tourism Brings money into the local area as tourists buy food and drink and need somewhere to stay" 33% (12) of the class changed their response between surveys. Of these twelve children eight changed their response to "Agree".

In relation to Part B) "There are too many holidaymakers visiting Devon each year" 42% (15) of the class changed their responses. Six of these children now responded they agreed, five now disagreed, and another five indicated that they did not know. Of particular note here was that the five who responded "Disagree" in the post-intervention survey had all responded "Agree" initially.

As many as 50% (18 children) of the class changed their response to Part C) "Jobs in tourism only last for the summer months". Eight of these children who had previously agreed or disagreed responded "Don't Know" in the post-intervention survey. Seven children changed their response to "Agree" and three to "Disagree".

In relation to Part E) "Money from tourists is used to help preserve buildings and conserve the environment" 42% (15 children) changed their responses. Equal numbers (5) in each case changed to "Agree", "Disagree", and "Don't Know". Of note here is that all children who changed to respond "Disagree" had previously responded "Don't Know". In relation to Part F) "Tourism causes traffic problems" 39% (13) changed their response. The greatest proportion of this group, ten children, changed to respond "Agree". Part I) "Tourism damages the environment", involved 56% (20) of the class
changing their response between surveys. Of this group ten changed to response "Disagree", five to "Agree" and five to "Don't Know".

In relation to Part J) "Many tourists come from foreign countries to visit Britain so tourism helps the country get more money" 47% of the class, (17) changed their response. Seven of the children changed their response to "Agree", five to "Disagree" and five to "Don't Know".

**Question 3 Post-intervention survey, Question 9 Pre-intervention survey,**

**What would you like a visitor to your town to see?**

**Please give reasons for your answer**

The responses to this question can be subdivided into two categories. Children referred to particular places and landmarks, and also to the quality of the local environment, including statements on the absence of litter and "a clean beach/town/area". Approximately one third (11) of the children in the pre-intervention survey referred to the quality of the environment while 47% (17) did so in the post-intervention survey. Only 22% (7) of the class on the pre-intervention survey gave reasons for their response while 47% (17) did so on the second survey. In general terms responses were in greater detail in the post-intervention survey. A number of features in the local environment were referred to more than previously including local schools which were mentioned by five of children. Six of the children in the post- intervention survey gave as a reason for their response that visitors would return again if the environmental quality was good. A further five children in the post-intervention survey indicated that visitors lived in cities and this was the reason children gave for the features they suggested they would want visitors to see.
Questions 4 Post-intervention survey, Question 10 Pre-intervention survey
What would you not like a visitor to your town to see?
Please give reasons for your answer

Environmental quality was referred to frequently in both pre-and post-intervention surveys and predominantly in terms of litter and pollution. Approximately one third (11) of children gave a reason for their response in the pre-intervention survey, while three quarters (27) did so in the post-intervention survey. As many as twenty three of responses in the post-intervention survey combined reference to particular local features and the quality of the environment in that location, while only nine of responses did so in the pre-intervention survey.

It is not possible to make direct comparisons between Questions 6-9 on the post-intervention survey with any on the pre-intervention survey as the precise wording of questions on each survey was different. These questions on the post-intervention survey were, however, similar to those on the pre-intervention, as explained below. Question 6 on the post-intervention survey asked for children's comments under two headings 'good effects' and 'bad effects' in connection with the effects of tourism in their town, whilst Question 12 on the pre-intervention survey asked "What effects do tourists have in your area?". Question 6 on the post-intervention survey can also be compared with Question 13 on the pre-intervention survey where children were asked to consider the effects of tourism generally without reference to a particular location, but used the same categories 'good effects' and 'bad effects'. Questions 8 and 9 on the post-intervention survey, being concerned with the behaviour of tourists and hosts, were similar to Question 14 on the pre-intervention survey which referred to the creation of a code of behaviour for tourists to Devon. Although it is not possible to make direct comparisons between pre- and post-intervention survey responses in
relation to these questions it is however possible to infer from responses on each survey any possible changes of knowledge, understanding and attitudes. I provide a comparison in general terms of responses to these questions on both pre- and post-intervention surveys.

An immediate difference, even before an examination of content, was that responses to Question 6 on the post intervention survey were in greater detail than those for both Questions 11 and 12 on the pre-intervention survey. Although generally the nature of effects of tourism was similar on both pre-and post intervention surveys, the range was greater on the post-intervention survey responses, and there was a shift of emphasis. The pre-intervention responses tended to mirror the categories concerned with effects of tourism contained in the statements I provided in Question 11 of the pre-intervention questionnaire. The post-intervention responses included some that were very similar to these statements, but there were a greater number of additional effects presented within responses. Pre-intervention responses had litter as the single most important negative effect of tourism, while this remained so on the post-intervention responses, overcrowding and traffic congestion were more frequently referred to as negative effects than previously. A small number of children in the post-intervention survey referred to damage to wildlife and vandalism and these were not significant responses in the pre-intervention survey. Tourism bringing money into the town and the opportunity to meet new friends were positive effects of tourism on both pre- and post-intervention survey, but bringing money to the town was a more frequent response on the post-intervention survey. A positive effect that was not present on the pre-intervention survey but included in the post-intervention responses was the opportunity to learn a foreign language, which was referred to by five children.
In relation to codes of behaviour for visitors, as with a number of other questions, children managed to produce more detailed responses in the post-intervention survey. When children were asked to produce a code of behaviour for visitors to Devon, in the pre-intervention survey, over half (19) referred to litter. Although litter was referred to by 39% (13) of children on the post-intervention survey 45% (15) of children indicated that visitors and hosts should attempt to achieve good relationships, which did not appear as response on the pre-intervention survey. There was a large number of "don'ts" in the code suggestions in the pre-intervention survey, responses from children in the post-intervention questions on tourist and host behaviour were far less admonitory with very few "don'ts".

Question 7 on the post-intervention survey asked children to consider the effects of tourism in relation to a tropical island. This question was included partly to assess the effects of the two activities 'Tropical Beach Hotel' and 'Three Islands', and also to investigate whether children believed effects of tourism on a tropical island would be different from other locations. The great majority of responses, however, indicated that children considered effects on the tropical island to be very similar to those in Exmouth. There was some evidence that children had been affected by my teaching of the activity 'Tropical Beach Hotel' as four in the class referred to a hotel as a bad effect of tourism. Creating jobs and bringing money were the major positive effects of tourism, and these were considered of slightly greater importance on the tropical island than in Exmouth. Another small difference between the responses in connection with Exmouth and the island was that 15% (5) of children considered the tropical island would suffer noise problems as a result of tourism.
The final three questions on the post intervention survey were an attempt to obtain the views of children on what I had taught and an indication from them about what they believed they had learned from my teaching, if anything. These questions, therefore, only appeared on the post-intervention survey. At the outset of the survey I had asked children to write their names on the questionnaire as it was my intention to also interview some of them, although time constraints prevented this. Therefore responses to these questions, particularly, should be seen in relation to the fact that I could identify children, they would be unlikely to wish to antagonise me and that given that this survey took place at the end of Project teaching they may have viewed the questions as a form of assessment.

Question 10) What work in the Learn To Travel Project did you like doing?
The most frequently referred to activity was 'Three Islands' with as many as 69% (22) of the class indicating this. This total figure of twenty two included twelve children who referred to making the islands, five who enjoyed role playing visitors and three who liked playing hosts. Few children referred to other activities, with only two indicating they liked the tropical beach hotel activity, two drawing maps and one acting as a historical trail guide, but almost one fifth (7) of the class indicated that they liked everything.

These responses can be partly accounted for as a result of 'Three Islands' being the activity immediately prior to the questionnaire survey and would be freshest in children's memories. The reaction of a majority of the children during the activity, in which they showed enthusiasm and involvement would seem to relate to their written responses. My immediate evaluation of 'Three Islands' also would support the children responses. Similarly my post activity statements about the first two activities
I conducted, 'The Town Guide' and 'Historical Town Trial', in which I indicated that these were only partially successful would seem to be supported by the lack of enthusiasm for them from children.

**Question 11 What work in the Learn to Travel Project did you not enjoy?**
As many as nineteen of the class responded "Nothing" to this question, with four of this group adding that they liked everything. Aspects of the 'Three Islands' activity were referred to by a small number in the class, however, with six referring to the problems they had when role playing hosts, and three of these children mentioning "difficult visitors". Two children also indicated that they did not like making the preparations for 'Three Islands'. Only one child referred specifically to the first two activities I had taught as being work not liked.

**Question 12 What do you think you have learned in the Learn to Travel Project?**
This question provoked a relatively wide range of responses. Responses were grouped under two category headings based on the data. These categories were "knowledge and understanding" and "behaviour and conduct". In the category "knowledge and understanding" as many as 29% (10) of children responded they had learned the meaning of the term 'host'. Unusual, but, particularly interesting responses included "I have learned what it would be like to visit a foreign place" and "I have learned that travel brochures do not always tell the truth".

Almost half (17) of the children made reference to behaviour/conduct in their answers, with 25% (9) indicating they now knew how to behave as a visitor and a further 18% (6) referred to appropriate behaviour as a host. A small number of children (4) made reference to behaviour in more
general terms with statements about not dropping litter and respecting local people. An example of a dual category response was "I have learned what a host is and how to behave as a good host". Most children, however, provided only a short phrase containing one response category, whilst 18% (6) had responses I allocated to both categories.

**Discussion**

Comparison of the responses from children at both Weston School, the 'control' group, and Earlham School to the pre-intervention survey indicated few differences and hence justified my attempt to conduct a post-intervention questionnaire survey with children at Earlham School.

In the discussion of the results of the pre-and post-intervention surveys at Earlham School it is important to state that I cannot directly link any perceived changes in responses to the hypothesised change agent, which was my teaching. However, responses by children on the post-intervention survey at Earlham School would seem to provide some evidence that children had been affected by my teaching of Project activities. The clearest evidence of this would seem to be in relation to changes in knowledge and understanding. The term 'host' had little meaning to the great majority of children before my teaching. The post-intervention survey not only provided evidence that over 80% of children had a reasonably accurate understanding of the term host, but as many as 28% claimed themselves that this was something they had learned in the Project. Children also appeared to have modified their understanding of the term tourist. Further evidence that children appeared to have had their knowledge and understanding extended by my teaching was in the form of more detailed responses on the post-intervention survey. Children also appeared to have modified and
deepened their understanding of the effects of tourism as a result of my teaching.

Children appeared to have changed their views in relation to tourism issues between the pre- and post-intervention surveys. This was most clearly demonstrated in their responses to Question 11/5, which employed the Likert scale. In relation to each of seven out of the ten statements in this question more than a third of the class changed their response. There was however no clear pattern of change. One interpretation of this could be that my teaching opened up children's thinking on the issues, but did not enable them to make up their minds. Alternatively it could be argued that the issues presented were too difficult for children of this age to have strong views upon and they merely went through the motions of providing answers to 'keep teacher happy'. Yet another interpretation could be that children's views would be changing anyway at this age, in a way unrelated to school experiences. A survey with my 'control' class at Weston School conducted at the same time and using the same questions as my post-intervention survey could have perhaps provided insights to help resolve this. I had, however, not done this and could not attempt such a survey at Weston School as, by the time I had benefited from the analysis of the Earlham School results, the children in my 'control' class had moved on to secondary school.

Children appeared to have developed awareness of a variety of both appropriate and inappropriate forms of behaviour in relation to the roles of tourists and hosts, although as with responses concerned with their views I cannot claim that this was as a result of my teaching. However in questions concerned with codes of conduct almost half the children (47%) stated themselves that they had learned about behaviour during my teaching.
Children tended to confirm my evaluation of the activity 'Three Islands'. They indicated that this was a particularly enjoyable activity, and for many the one they liked most. This evaluation was also in line with the statements made by Neil and Brenda about their activity 'Two Islands' upon which my activity was based. This also provided further evidence that an activity involving the pedagogical technique of role play in an imaginary setting was successful.

Although only one class was involved and for only a short period of teaching there is therefore some evidence in general terms that the ideas of the Project had effects on children. This would appear to contradict the views of some at the WWF meeting that introducing the Project at the same time as the National Curriculum would not be appropriate and was likely to be ineffective.

There is some evidence in the reaction of the children that the Project was particularly appropriate to the local area. This is in line with the views of Prideaux (1993) when he claimed that curriculum change at the local level can make programmes more relevant, more enjoyable and more useful for those for whom they are designed. This could be interpreted, however, as an argument that the Project was only relevant to an area where tourism was an important activity. This point is one of several which is discussed in the next section which is concerned, in part, with the impacts of the Project on the wider educational community.
CHAPTER 4 THE PROJECT

Section 11 Findings: Longer Term and Wider Impacts of the Project

As Parsons (1987) indicated, however promising the response to an innovation at the outset, an accurate measure of its impact can only be gathered at a point some time after the first period of implementation. It would seem particularly important in relation to the 'Learn To Travel' Project, as it was a small scale school-based innovation, being introduced at a time of national curriculum change, to assess any longer term effects it had, and this relates to one of the important questions within the overall research strategy.

This section therefore discusses longer term impacts in relation to the Project schools, the school I taught in and the impacts on teachers and children involved. It also discusses impacts beyond these schools, teachers and children, which I refer to as wider impacts.

Longer Term Impact in the Project Schools

Two years after the initial Project teaching had been competed, in July 1993, I returned to Project schools and interviewed teachers. My aims in these interviews were to investigate:

i) if teachers had taught Project activities since completion of the first trialling in 1991;

ii) if teachers were planning to teach Project activities;

iii) if teachers had used activities created for the Project by others;

iv) if other teachers in the school had been influenced by Project ideas/activities;

v) if the principles in the Project (e.g., importance of teaching values and attitudes, the importance of environmental education) had affected teachers;
vi) teachers longer term perspectives about the Project;

vii) if teachers had informed other teachers beyond their school about the Project and/or had received comment about it from other teachers.

I also wished to obtain teachers comments on the longer term effects of the Project (if any) on children they had taught.

I used these aims to create questions for a semi-structured interview (Cohen and Manion, 1985, Wragg, 1978). I converted the aims into questions which were written out as a prompt sheet at interview, but allowed teachers to extemporise. I did not follow a question order but used the sheet to ensure I had covered all areas I believed relevant. I suggested teachers should ask me questions and make any relevant comments that they wished. Immediately before the interview I outlined to teachers its aims and the question areas, but also suggested they could add comments and raise questions on other areas that they believed relevant.

I interviewed Brenda and Anne separately in July 1993. These interviews were recorded on a micro-cassette audio tape recorder with the permission of both teachers having been previously sought. Brenda indicated that she had not taught any Project activities during 1992/3, but there were particular reasons for this. She had planned to teach Project activities, but the teacher who would have been working collaboratively with her on these activities had left at Christmas. They had planned to teach the Project activities in the summer term. She had however taught in collaboration with another teacher the activity 'Two Islands' in the summer term of 1991/1992. This had been part of a topic on the environment. She had also used the idea of a guide book to the town, based on the Project activity that she and Neil had developed, in a History topic 'Victorians' during 1991/2.
Brenda indicated that she was planning to teach Project activities again collaboratively in 1993/94 and this would be with the teacher of the parallel Year 5 class. In the summer term they planned a topic titled 'Tourism' and would use a number of Project activities prominent amongst which would be 'Two Islands'. She indicated that she intended to use at least one activity created by another Project teacher which was 'Round The World Travel', a board game designed by Angela. She intended to teach this as it involved Technology which she said she had difficulty fitting into other topics and so saw this as a good opportunity.

I asked Brenda why she intended to teach these Project activities. I provide her response below as it a strong argument for the continued endurance of the Project:

> The Project was cross-curricular, I mean it covered so many areas of the National Curriculum. I don't just mean our activities, but the ones produced by other teachers show this as well.
> (Interview with Brenda Knowles, July 1993)

She found support for this claim by indicating other activities that she had previously taught and those she was intending to teach. She referred to the requirement to study contrasting localities in Geography and discussed a comparative study of a locality in the town of Dawlish with a locality in Exeter which had tourism as a key theme. She referred to tourism in relation to human impacts on the environment as important within Geography and Science and said she was intending to teach about materials used in tourism as part of a Science based topic. She also indicated that there were opportunities in the new RE guidelines, where there was reference to pilgrimages and stewardship of the planet, to study tourism. Brenda also referred to a new activity which she had taught the previous year which had
been an attempt to get children to produce a form of tourism 'yellow pages' for the use of visitors.

I asked Brenda if tourism would have been as important a part of her teaching if she had not been involved in the Project. I provide her response as it gives an indication of the impact of the Project on her views on tourism as a theme worth teaching:

It would have played a small part, but not anything major. I thought at the beginning (of involvement in the Project) that it would be a narrow topic. But now I see how cross curricular it is.
(Interview with Brenda Knowles, July 1993)

At these interviews I wished to gain comment from teachers on whether the Project had particular relevance to the South West of England and Brenda suggested that tourism was a topic that was particularly relevant to children in the region. She indicated that this was so because they, like children in other regions, took a two week summer holidays, but unlike other children for at least six months of the year they saw tourists in the region and the effects they had. I asked if this meant that the Project would not be of relevance to teachers in areas where tourism was not a significant activity. Brenda responded she thought it could be less relevant, but not irrelevant and that she would be interested to know how her activities could be used in such areas. This view of the relevance of the Project to the South West would seem to be further confirmation of what Prideaux (1993) claimed in relation to the contribution of locally based projects to the curriculum.

Providing a response to my question on the long term effects of the Project on the children in her class was not an easy task, Brenda said. She made the point that Fisher and Hicks (1986) and others have made when commenting on the impacts of teaching and learning on long term behavioural change.
She indicated that it was very difficult to tell if any change was due to the hypothesised change agent. She said, however, that a group of children from her class had voluntarily taken on the responsibility of monitoring the condition of, and actually tidying up, the school environment. They had done this in the year that they had moved up from her class, but she suggested that the emphasis on stewardship which had been an important part of her Project work could have contributed to this voluntary activity by the children.

Anne at interview said that she had not used any of her own Project activities again but had used 'Good and Bad Holidaymakers', an activity developed by Angela. She had not used her activities as her class then, as now, was made up of 7-12 year olds and she still had some of the children who were in the class in 1991 and did not want to repeat work.

Within her History topic on Ancient Greece, however, Anne had investigated modern Greece and looked at behaviour on holiday. She had attempted to compare and contrast ancient and modern Greece, had also considered consequences for Ancient Greece of modern visits and had put children in the position of being a Greek host providing services to British tourists. She would not have looked at Modern Greece if it had not been for the Project, she stated. The work on Greece was an attempt to study an EC locality and she spent five weeks on Modern Greece in the Spring Term of 1992. Although History was the starting point for all of this work on Greece, it was the first work on a distant locality, related specifically to Geography, that Anne had attempted.

Anne also indicated that she had used Project 'ideas' in drama work. This had involved work on values and attitudes. She had also concentrated on
classroom behaviour partly as result of Project work on values and attitudes, but this had been previously a particular concern of hers. She intended that children take responsibility for actions in the classroom and this applied also to holidays. This extended to codes of behaviour in the classroom and beyond.

In relation to my question about possible changes to children as a result of the Project, Anne like Brenda indicated that it was difficult to answer. A complicating factor was that she was already doing work on behaviour and any change might not be due to the Project. Anne indicated, however, that the Project work probably reinforced other behaviour work and vice versa. She also stated that most children in the class were environmentally aware, and the Project had reinforced this awareness.

Anne had taught a topic on development which she titled 'One World Week' although not the one planned by Angela. Although this did not have a tourism focus it had used the techniques of photograph analysis she had developed in the Project in her 'Holiday Guide' activity. Anne indicated she intended to use the role play techniques derived from the 'Two Islands' and 'Holiday Game' activities in History work in 1993/94. Anne also indicated that the other teacher in the school, the head, had been influenced by her Project activities. The head, Helen, who had originally been involved in the Project, had informed Anne that she was hoping to take the whole school on a flight over the school again and was intending to try some Project activities with the infant children in her class.

The reason that interviews were conducted with only Brenda and Anne was that two years after the first trialling of activities of the four Project teachers who had been initially involved only two remained in post in the same
schools. Neil who had taught at Redhills School and had worked in collaboration with Brenda had left the school to take a full time MA course in Media Studies. Angela had moved to become an advisory teacher at a teaching centre in London.

In relation to Angela's move to another area its effects would appear to support the claims made by Parsons (1987) and Shipman (1974) that when a teacher leaves a school then an innovation dies. When I contacted the school in July 1993, although I was unable to find conclusive evidence of this, informal contact with teachers indicated that no Project activities were being, or had been, taught since Angela left. She had left in the summer term of 1991, but the school had also had a new headteacher appointed in January 1992. This head had changed the ethos of the school and this was probably another contributory factor to the likelihood that Project activities were no longer being taught.

The process of departure of Neil and Angela however provides evidence of another effect of teacher involvement in curriculum development that has been noted in other studies. Both Neil and Angela used me as a referee in their respective applications. They specifically asked me to comment on their involvement in the Project in the reference. This would seem to support what several authors including Skilbeck (1984), Shipman (1974) and Stenhouse (1975) were referring to when they claimed that curriculum development can contribute to staff development. In the case of Neil and Angela staff development meant career development. Anne also attempted to obtain another teaching post and used me as a referee. She was not successful in her efforts, although it would appear to further support my claim in relation to curriculum development and staff development.
The longer term effects of my teaching at Earlham School

Although the teacher in whose class I had taught informed me that for a variety of reasons that he had been unable to teach Project activities my work at the school had effects on others there. In July 1993 I was asked to attend a planning meeting with the teachers of two parallel Year 3 classes. They were planning to teach the topic 'Egypt' in the Autumn term 1993/4. They asked for my advice on how they could incorporate, as one of them said, "a tourism dimension into our work". I attended their planning meeting and with their permission recorded this using a micro-cassette recorder.

At the planning meeting, which was very wide ranging as the teachers were considering their whole year's plans, they indicated that their Egypt topic was related closely to the requirements of National Curriculum History. Both teachers, however, wanted to incorporate more than History work into their teaching. I discussed Anne's approach to her work on Greece (as discussed above), and also informed them of the approach at Bassett's Farm School in terms of the visit to the Egyptian tomb as part of the 'One World Week' activity. The Earlham School teachers indicated that they particularly wanted to compare and contrast the past and present in Egypt. This led them to consider geographical as well as historical approaches to the study of Egypt. I suggested that they could attempt a comparison between a locality in Egypt with their school locality. I indicated that this could avoid the problems of stereotyping, as 'Egypt' created images in children's minds, but studying a small area of the country could provide more accurate insights. An important issue in the discussion was the apparent lack of resources, available at that time. I suggested that they should make use of travel brochure images, as an available and free resource.
Although I was unable to conduct a formal interview with either teacher after they had attempted work on Egypt one teacher, during an informal discussion after the Inservice Training (INSET) session discussed below, indicated that they had made use of some of my suggestions. These suggestions were the use of photograph analysis and discussing stereotypes which had been derived from Anne's activity 'Holiday Brochure Images' and 'Snapshots' another activity devised by Jenny Button, who had created the original version of 'Tropical Beach Hotel'.

I was asked by the Headteacher of Earlham School to run an INSET activity based on ideas developed in the Project. This activity took place after school in January 1993 and it involved all fourteen teachers in the school. The headteacher had asked me to make the activity Geography based, but use something from the Project. He had informed staff that I would be "coming in to do some Geography". As I only had approximately one hour I used a modified version of the activity 'Tropical Beach Hotel'. I selected this activity as it also provided me with the opportunity to trial and evaluate the process of geographical enquiry with teachers. As such this was a continuation of my action research 'progressive focusing' (Hammersley and Atkinson, 1983). With staff permission I recorded this INSET activity on micro-cassette recorder. As there were possible implications for the uptake and implementation of the Project I provide a summary of the findings from this INSET activity below.

The activity involved asking teachers to study the photograph of the tropical beach and then respond to the questions which made up the geographical enquiry. These questions were similar to those I had used with children at the school. A majority of the teachers responded in a similar way to a majority of the children at the school. They liked the scene before the hotel
was there and initially they reacted with hostility to the 'placing' of the hotel, but considered after more reflection that there could be some positive as well as negative consequences. They also liked, even enjoyed, doing the activity, and the geographical enquiry approach appeared to work well. I quote directly from this report to indicate my concern, however, at the reaction of some teachers:

For a minority of the teachers present the term tourism was clearly linked to 'holidays'. This produced a particular mindset where the idea of holiday' is at the opposite end of a spectrum from work including school work. I can sum this up as "This is play, its fun time, do we really have to behave when on holiday?" This affected their attitude to the activity and the idea of teaching about tourism. Two of the teachers viewed the impacts of tourism very much from the perspective of the tourist. They seemed unwilling/unable to consider the views of the host. All they could say could be summarised as, 'For what they are about to receive the hosts should be truly grateful!' (Fieldnotes, February, 1993)

As a result of this activity a Year 5 teacher, present at the INSET indicated, that she was interested in using Project activities and hoped to do this during the summer term. She did make use of a number of activities, but as this also relates to the wider effects of the Project I discuss it below.

The Wider Impacts of the Project

Before making further reference to work at Earlham School I discuss wider impacts of the Project in relation to the publication of the book which contained the Project activities. The Project book Learn To Travel : activities in Travel and Tourism for the Primary School was published in October 1992. Reviews of the publication appeared in the Times Educational Supplement (TES) and in the journal Tourism In Focus which is produced by the NGO, Tourism Concern. The TES review appeared on March 12, 1992 and the reviewer was Wendy Morgan, the only member of the Geography
National Curriculum committee with primary experience. Her review was short but indicated that the book should:

stimulate pupils and teachers at key stage two.
(Morgan, 1993 p21)

She referred to the cross-curricular nature of the book stating that it presented:

environmental education across the curriculum
(Morgan, 1993 p21)

She also indicated that the book contained important reference material and valuable INSET activities.

I was informed by the editor that the reviewer for *Tourism In Focus* was an inner-London primary school headteacher. She was sent a copy of the book by the editor of the journal and was not in anyway involved in the Project. She produced a very enthusiastic review. As this review was by an actual practitioner in primary education I suggest it provides an important evaluation of the Project. Her introduction to the detailed review gave an indication of what she considered to be the general professional relevance of the book. She stated:

The book is a clear statement of the present state of play in education and the issues that have to be considered. It illustrates splendidly how to deliver the national curriculum in the primary school without resorting to subject teaching and specialist teachers. It is especially reassuring in that it takes the imposed changes of the last few years and fits them into the framework of assumptions about education which have underpinned primary school teaching since the 1960s. The format of the book is brilliant.....sections deal with tourism in the primary curriculum in a refreshingly straightforward, jargon free way making the link between teaching the national curriculum and enabling the development of well-rounded, thinking children seem possible, practical and sensible.
(Rudolf, 1993, p17)
I was not in a position to be able to contact this reviewer, but took her comments to mean that the book build on early traditions of topic based (and implicitly child-centred education) and linked these to the requirements of the National Curriculum without the need for some of the changes in teaching methods being suggested at the time. The reviewer's comments also provide some evidence that the Project had relevance beyond the area of the South West and was not just applicable to obvious tourist regions. She also provided a further comment on whether the Project objectives were achievable. As she said:

The last section is the appendix outlining the objectives of the Learn to Travel Schools' Project. I closed the book feeling yes they can be achieved, I want to try - roll on September. (Rudolf, 1993, p17)

It is not possible to say what link there has been between these reviews and sales of the Project book. By the end of 1994, however, WWF reported sales figures were approximately seven hundred and fifty copies. This was in just over two years since publication in October 1992. WWF Publication Department staff indicated that these figures were equivalent to a KS2 English book which had been published at almost the same time as the Project book. WWF had anticipated that the English book, being for a National Curriculum core subject, would sell a greater number of copies than the Project book. They were pleased that the Project book had sold more copies than they anticipated. By contrast, Southgate the joint publishers of the book, although distributing it separately, indicated that sales were only just in excess of two hundred copies in the same period. Southgate staff were disappointed with sales and stated that, although they did not know why sales were poor, they attributed this to the lack of reviews.
referring to them as joint publisher and also to teachers not being aware of how the book was linked to the National Curriculum.

The total sales figures of just under one thousand copies in approximately two years may not appear to be a large number but can be compared favourably with the *World Studies 8-13* (Fisher and Hicks, 1985) book of activities. This book was based on a nationally-piloted and later nationally trialled project, was published by Oliver and Boyd and in its first two years it sold just under two thousand copies (Hicks 1989).

In the summer of 1994 I had an article entitled 'Tourism and Environmental Education', published in the *Journal of Environmental Education*. This article made reference to the Project and was read by a freelance journalist who was at that time writing a book about the impact of tourism. He wrote to me and asked to visit a school where Project activities were being taught. Knowing that teaching of Project activities was likely to be the occurring at Earlham School I contacted the Year 5 teacher whom I believed would be teaching relevant activities. She was in fact teaching a topic entitled 'France' and was planning to include some activities from the Project.

I arranged for the journalist to visit in late May 1994. He visited on a day when the children were involved in group work. He wrote an article based on his visit to the school and this appeared in the *TES* in June 1994. The journalist was particularly interested to note that the main subject area involved was Geography, but also the cross curricular theme of environmental education was being developed. He referred to other National Curriculum subjects, specifically History, Maths, Science and Technology and stated that the teacher he observed had found the
activities particularly suitable for language work. He discussed what he regarded as a particularly important aim of the Project, to encourage children to become more aware of their holiday activities on the environment and indicated that overall he saw the Project's main intention was to help children understand the concept of sustainable tourism. He also discussed the emphasis on values and attitudes both within the Project generally and in the work on France at Earlham School. In relation to the work on stereotypes he wrote:

On the window of the classroom is a giant cut out man complete with beret, onions and a goatee beard, the result of the class's initial view of a Frenchman. (As the teacher claimed...) "Now they have done the research all that has changed.....They realise it's just a stereotype."
(Croall, 1994, p.v)

In March 1995 WWF produced an INSET pack of materials and activities entitled Reaching Out: Professional Development for Teachers. The 'Reaching Out' pack was designed to be used by INSET providers to promote critical environmental education. According to the its aims 'Reaching Out' is a set of workshop materials intended for primary and secondary teachers and enabling them to:

explore those kinds of environmental education which best contribute to more sustainable ways of living.
(Huckle, 1995, p iv)

Part Two of the Tutor's pack contains sessions six to ten for primary teachers. Session Nine 'Local to Global Thinking Through Topic Work' refers to Learn To Travel : activities in Travel and Tourism for the Primary School, generally, as a source book. It also presents, specifically for use in this workshop session, an extract from the 'Tropical Beach Hotel' activity. The Project is therefore likely to reach a wider audience via this publication.
Discussion

Evidence from discussions with Project teachers indicated that some Project activities were still being taught in the schools that had developed them two years after the original development period. There was some evidence that teachers in one Project school had used the activities developed in other such schools. This had come about through teachers gaining access to others' activities through Learn To Travel: activities in Travel and Tourism for the Primary School. Additionally teachers had applied principles and techniques from the Project, such as work on values and attitudes and photograph analysis, to activities not related directly to the Project.

The work conducted after 1991 and up to 1993 indicated that the Project continued to provide a number of opportunities for teachers to use it as a vehicle for delivering National Curriculum subjects. The Project activities were still being located, however, primarily in a topic-based approach to teaching, being part of for example Brenda's topic 'Tourism' at Redhills School.

Despite the difficulty of assessing the impact on children's values and attitudes two Project teachers indicated that there was a possible link between some Project activities on children's views and their behaviour. One teacher claimed that the Project could have assisted children to develop greater environmental awareness and may have contributed to them taking action in relation to an environmental issue in the school grounds. This action took place some time after the Project work and was difficult to ascribe directly to it, but it could be a long term impact of the Project. If this was the case it would be clear evidence of Project related work achieving an
important objective of children becoming 'aware of their responsibilities as stewards of the planet' (Mason, 1992 p. 120).

My trialling of the geographical enquiry process with teachers at Earlham School generally confirmed what I had found in the use of it with children in the school. The structured sequencing of questions in relation to the photographic images worked well pedagogically and stimulated worthwhile discussion. Running this activity had also indicated that for some teachers accepting that tourism was a valid area of study in the primary curriculum would not be easy and hence INSET was likely to be necessary.

There was evidence of what Parsons (1987) and Shipman (1974) found in their studies that when a teacher leaves a school then the innovation developed by that individual dies. Angela developed some of the more successful Project activities at Bassett's Farm School, none appeared to remain after she left. If this was the case at Bassett's Farm School, it was not so, however, at Redhills School when Neil left, as Project work was continued by Brenda. This would seem to be an argument for collaboration between staff in a school to maintain the existence of an innovation if one of them subsequently leaves.

The departure of two staff also provides evidence of what Fullan (1991), Parsons (1987) and Skilbeck (1984), claimed when stating that curriculum development is closely allied to staff development. Anne, Angela and Neil asked me to act as a referee in relation to their career development plans and both Angela and Neil referred to the Project work in their respective applications.
Although it was not possible to achieve an accurate indication of where those purchasing the Project book were using it, the number of sales, the fact that WWF sell nationally and internationally mainly through their catalogue and that there was national publicity for the book probably suggests it was being used beyond the tourist region of the South West. This claim can be further supported by the statements made by the reviewer for Tourism In Focus about the book's applicability to her school situation in London.

There is evidence that my relatively frequent visits to Earlham School, after my initial teaching of activities there in 1992, in assisting with planning meetings, through INSET and involvement with the Year 5 topic on France helped keep the Project alive in the school. I suggest my visits made staff aware of the continuing existence of the Project, and gave me opportunities to influence teachers to teach activities.

The production of Learn To Travel: activities in Travel and Tourism for the Primary School enabled me to publicise the Project both within my work in the University and at conferences for teachers and advisors. This, coupled with the publicity from reviews, the journal article, the newspaper article and the WWF 'Reaching Out' INSET pack enabled the Project ideas to reach a relatively large number of potential users which was far in excess of the original teachers who developed the activities.
CHAPTER FIVE CONCLUSIONS

The conclusions to this study are a discussion of the main findings of the research and focus is on the period from when the Project was introduced into schools. The findings are examined in relation to the original research questions which were concerned with two main areas: the processes involved in the curriculum innovation and the impacts of the innovation. The conclusions are organised and presented under separate headings. The first two sections Planning and Teaching Project Activities and Coordination and Collaboration in the Project are concerned with the processes involved, while the third and fourth sections focus, respectively, on the impacts of the Project and research methodology.

Planning and Teaching Project Activities

Planning activities

Once the Project was in the three schools there was a good deal of evidence from teachers' plans, the activities they developed and the activities I observed that, in some ways, this was not one Project but as many projects as schools involved (Shipman, 1974). Nevertheless there were a number of similarities as well as differences.

The process of planning activities revealed a number of similarities in that all teachers started with a brainstorm, noted ideas on paper and then referred to the National Curriculum documents to support their ideas. Each of the teacher's brainstormed exhibits a creative use of the imagination, which was suggested by McKernan (1991) as a key feature in his definition of brainstorming. All teachers indicated that the approach to planning was similar to planning other curriculum areas and, in fact, stated at interview that they regarded teaching about tourism as teaching a topic. The planning
approaches employed by the Project teachers were also very similar to those reported in the fairly large scale survey of the teaching of topics in Geography and History conducted in the late 1980s and reported on by HMI (DES 1989d). To a great extent the approaches of the Project teachers were also very similar to Richards' (1988) pre-National Curriculum planning of tourism at Tintern Catbrook Primary School.

The planning of particularly Anne, Brenda and Neil indicated important features of the topic approach discussed by both Kerry and Eggleston (1988) and Antonouris and Wilson (1989). One such feature was an integrated approach to the curriculum planning of the topic. To a great extent the Project was interpreted as being in the field of humanities, but there was also evidence that teachers saw it as multi-disciplinary, as there was reference to Language, Science and Maths in topic webs. This is a similar finding to that of Kerry and Eggleston's (1988) when they indicated that a topic maybe interdisciplinary and not merely thematic. Antonouris and Wilson (1989) claimed that the major aims of the primary curriculum were that children should learn worthwhile knowledge and acquire important skills and that a topic approach could achieve this. There was evidence from their planning that teachers used the topic approach in the Project in an attempt to deliver these aims.

There was also evidence from interviews and their planning documents to support the view that teachers responded to Project work as if they were engaged in a topic, and not a separate subject. This would seem to be in line with national surveys (DES, 1989d) which indicated approximately fifty percent of time in primary schools was being employed in topic approaches during the early phase of the introduction of the National Curriculum,
The National Curriculum was, however, influential in the teachers' planning. Brenda and Neil at Redhills School and Anne at Clyst Hydon School made specific reference to National Curriculum subjects in both their plans for, and the write up of, activities. The plans drawn up by these teachers show that they appeared to be trying to incorporate almost every National Curriculum subject into their Project teaching. This approach ran the risk suggested by Marsden (1993, 1994) and Stannard (1995) of a lack of focus and coherence and a tendency towards idiosyncrasies, and there was evidence from their activities that these teachers were in fact unable to deliver the totality of what they originally planned. The way in which subjects were combined together in an approach which pre-dated the introduction of the National Curriculum, however, would seem to add further support to the claims of Ball and Bowe (1992) about the continuing need for the curriculum to be created in the classroom and those of Knight et al (1991) who argued despite a government produced curriculum there was still a requirement for interpretation before the curriculum could be delivered.

The write up of the individual activities by the teachers provided another insight into the relationship between what was planned and what was actually delivered in the classroom. Few of the individual activities were attempting as wide a coverage of the curriculum as was suggested in the teachers' topic web plans. Although the majority of teachers' activities included reference to more than one National Curriculum subject, (nineteen out of the total of twenty seven) only three referred to as many as four separate subjects, four to three subjects and twelve referred to only two subjects. The remaining eight activities referred to only one National Curriculum subject. This would suggest that teachers interpreted the field of tourism, within the Project, as being a subject-driven topic (Weigand,

Angela's planning was different from that of the other teachers in that she made no specific reference to the National Curriculum but it was linked to a framework developed for teaching about tourism as an issue (Button and Holland, 1990). The use of headings such as economic, social, environmental and political enabled her to monitor what she taught in relation to what she planned, she indicated. This framework would seem appropriate, not just for teaching about tourism, but for teaching that requires an issue-based approach.

Curriculum content of activities
Teachers reacted in a variety of ways to the field of travel and tourism. A majority of activities were concerned with the impacts or consequences of tourism. This is partly due to the emphasis I placed on this area in my written and oral comments to teachers, but most tourism authors, (see for example Matthiesson and Wall, 1982, Mill and Morrison, 1985 and Burns and Holden, 1995) have argued that impacts are a key issue in tourism studies. In particular the focus in teachers' activities was on environmental consequences of tourism and the majority of Angela's activities and a number of those devised by Brenda and Neil made reference to such impacts. Most of these activities presented negative consequences, rather than positive effects, and this would seem to be in line with much recent work on tourism's environmental impacts (see for example Krippendorf, 1987, Ryan, 1991, Burns and Holden, 1995). Very few activities considered the economic aspects or effects of tourism (an exception being Drascombe Charter, created by Brenda and Neil which focused specifically on tourism as a local industry). This would seem to indicate that teachers had some
difficulty including an 'industry' dimension in their Project work, despite the supposedly influential statements on the importance of industrial studies within National Curriculum subjects and the cross curricular theme of Education for Economic and Industrial Understanding and suggestions within the School Curriculum Industry Project (Smith, 1988).

Travel is an essential element in the definitions of tourism according to Jafari, (1977), Pearce, (1989b) and Cooper et al (1993). Relatively few of the activities developed by teachers, however, made reference to travel. Only Anne produced activities which had a strong focus on travel and both of these involved fieldwork. In 'One World Week' Angela produced an activity which involved the simulation of travel, and she also produced a game relating to the environmental consequences of travel. I suggest there are pedagogical reasons for the general lack of activities focusing on travel, and these are discussed in more detail below in relation to teachers' activities on tourism and development issues.

The relationship between tourism and development has been discussed by a number of tourism authors including Pearce (1989a), Burns and Holden, (1995) and Lea (1988). A relatively large number of teachers' activities focused on the relationship between tourists and hosts and these provided opportunities for a consideration of tourism and development issues. All four teachers developed at least one activity with such a focus, with Angela particularly prolific and Brenda and Neil's 'Two Islands' also concerned with this area. A number of important social aspects and impacts of tourism were presented in these 'tourist-host' activities. However, most of these activities lacked specific locations, being either imaginary or merely referred to as 'tropical'. There were opportunities for teachers to make reference to specific distant places that would have provided a real spatial context for the study of
the issues in relation to tourism and development particularly in Angela's 'One World Week' and Brenda and Neil's 'Two Islands'. The only specific distant places referred to, however, were Egypt, China, the inappropriately referred to 'country of Africa', France and in Anne's original version of the activity 'Holiday Brochure Images', Cyprus. In general the teachers' approach ran the risk of encouraging stereotypes, but appeared to relate to their pedagogical motives which were part of their overall topic approach (Kerry and Eggleston 1988, Antonouris and Wilson, 1989). Such activities, it seemed, were an attempt by teachers to encourage children to be creative and gain ownership of their work by actively involving them through such strategies as role play.

With the exception of a number of activities created by Angela concerned with negative impacts of tourism relatively few adopted an overtly critical stance. No activity made overt or specific reference to attempts at the types of alternative and sustainable tourism discussed by, for example, Eber, (1992) and Bramwell and Lane (1993). Angela, however, did produce an activity that focused on the educational aspects of promoting sustainable tourism. The general lack of such activities could be attributed to teachers' lack of knowledge of these critical and alternative perspectives, and also my lack of guidance and failure to provide examples of such activities. An alternative interpretation is that teachers were more realistic in their expectations of junior age children's ability (or lack of it) to cope with such activities. This would be in line with comments made at the WWF meeting, where it was suggested a degree of maturity would be required by children to understand some tourism issues. Another view is that teachers' own value positions may have made them unwilling, or even unable, to adopt a critical stance. The fact that most of the critical activities that were developed came from
the teacher with previous links to the Green Party would seem to add weight to this argument.

In terms of National Curriculum subject areas the Project provided opportunities in all subjects. Both in terms of what teachers planned and what I observed Geography stood out as the major subject area. It was referred to in nineteen of the twenty seven activities in the Project book, and in twenty three of the original thirty three activities produced. Attainment targets in English were referred to in thirteen activities in the Project book. Maths was referred to specifically in six activities, while Technology featured in five and History and Art in three activities respectively. PE and Music each featured in one activity. In terms of the cross-curricular themes six activities made reference to Citizenship, five to Environmental Education and three to Education for Economic and Industrial Understanding.

Geography was referred to particularly in terms of knowledge and understanding. The skills of Geography in terms of mapwork and field work also featured in teachers' activities, but no teacher used the process of geographical enquiry. The National Curriculum Geography document was written mainly in terms of knowledge to be acquired, and the subject was presented as a body of knowledge. Although specific skills were referred to there was a failure in this document to spell out the process of enquiry. Although secondary school Geography teachers, advisers and staff in higher education and the Welsh Curriculum Council (Welsh Curriculum Council 1991) argued strongly for the inclusion of geographical enquiry at all levels, including primary, in the English National Curriculum Geography document there was a failure to explain or give detailed examples of the nature and process of enquiry. The lack of a geographical enquiry could also be attributed to teachers' concerns about their competence in Geography.
This would be in line with findings of a national survey conducted at the introduction of the National Curriculum, reported on by Wragg (1993), which indicated that the percentage of teachers feeling competent in Geography fell from forty eight percent in 1989 to thirty six percent in 1991, and while most other subjects fell in this period the fall was particularly marked in Geography, it was claimed. The findings of Platten and Ellis (1992) also provide insights into the reasons behind the lack of a geographical enquiry in the Project. They claimed that for a geographical enquiry approach to be successful three factors were necessary. They indicated that Geography needs to be seen as more than the simple acquisition of facts, secondly they argued the enquiry approach is very demanding of teachers' time and thirdly it requires a level of subject expertise primary teachers may not have.

In the Project objectives I provided teachers with a framework of enquiry, based on the original Proposals for Geography (DES, 1990). I did not, however, provide an example of an enquiry. I suggest that in addition to reasons given above a factor contributing to the lack of an enquiry produced by a teacher was my failure to give examples of how to teach a geographical enquiry. I demonstrated, however, in the context of the activity 'Tropical Beach Hotel', through my use of it with both children and teachers, that the process of geographical enquiry could be applied within the Project.

Although three activities produced by Brenda referred to Science none of these were included in the Project because of their perceived failure to refer to tourism issues and hence none of the published activities in the Project book included National Curriculum Science. It could appear that tourism was viewed, by teachers, as an inappropriate vehicle for delivering Science, but given the number of Geography related activities and that five also
included reference to Environmental Education the lack of the inclusion of Science appears a significant omission. This would seem to be evidence of the type of uncertainty in relation to the teaching of Science that Bennett et al (1992) and Carre and Carter (1993, 1990) found when the National Curriculum was first being introduced.

Despite what was said at the WWF meeting that it was unlikely that teachers would create activities on areas of the curriculum that would not be assessed, the Project clearly demonstrated, particularly through the activities 'Tropical Beach Hotel', 'Two Islands', and 'One World Week', that it was possible to teach and involve children in learning about, in National Curriculum terms, the non-assessed areas of values and attitudes.

**Pedagogy of the activities**

A number of different pedagogical styles were employed by teachers in the activities. All four teachers at interview indicated that they favoured group work, paired work and individual work, but I did observe whole class teaching, which involved instructions being delivered to all members of the class as well as whole class question and answer sessions and feedback and review activities. The whole class teaching, however, was generally part of sessions where group work and individual work predominated. This would seem to suggest that no teacher fitted entirely into the 'traditionalist' or 'progressive' camp in terms of their teaching methods (Alexander, 1992, Campbell, 1985, 1993). The teachers in fact appeared to be 'pragmatists', selecting and employing a range of teaching techniques (Lawson, 1979, Alexander, 1992).

Kerry and Eggleston (1988) argued that a key feature of the topic approach is that it is child-centred and children actively participate in learning. Kerry
and Eggleston also stated that topic work involves small groups and this view is echoed by Antonouris and Wilson (1989). Several of the Project activities involved field work, an approach Antonouris and Wilson suggested is particularly significant as it is rooted in the concrete experience of children, and there was extensive use of role play and simulation in the Project, particularly where it was not easy to obtain first-hand experience. The evidence from teachers' activities would tend to suggest, therefore, that they believed in experiential learning. Here is further confirmation that the teachers reacted to the Project in terms of it being a topic as they used predominantly child-centred pedagogy and experiential teaching strategies involving group work rather than whole class teaching.

A number of authors and researchers (see for example Alexander et al 1992, Stannard, 1995, Lawlor, 1989) have been highly critical of the continuation of the topic-based pedagogy during the introduction of the subject-based National Curriculum. Findings from the 'Learn to Travel' Project would, however, seem to be more in line with those of Silcock (1993, 1994) where he indicated that the child-centred ethos and accompanying topic teaching will persist in primary schools because they are economic and practical and that the success of the National Curriculum depends not on the abolition, but perpetuation of this approach.

Co-ordination and Collaboration in the Project

Co-ordination

My role as co-ordinator of the Project was problematic. I viewed myself as an outsider and to an extent the teachers appeared to regard me in this way. The teachers viewed me as an expert on tourism, but were also aware of my inexperience in relation to the primary curriculum. This inexperience partly explained my decision to allow teachers a great deal of autonomy about what
and how they should teach. Two teachers at interview, Brenda and Anne, indicated, however, that they felt I had not provided enough advice at the early stages of the Project. Angela, however, responded that it was necessary for her to become both anxious and excited to learn about tourism before this galvanised her into teaching.

I believed I allowed the teachers to be professionals by encouraging them to take important decisions on the curriculum and giving them a good deal of autonomy to teach what they wanted and to select appropriate methods to deliver it. This was a very different approach to that suggested in the highly prescriptive statements of National Curriculum documents. My approach was more in line with that advocated by Stenhouse (1975) and Hoyle (1975, 1980) of taking power from the 'centre' and giving it to the 'periphery', and teachers appeared to react positively to my approach. The Project therefore seemed to be closer to an earlier period of curriculum development where schools and teachers had more autonomy and would appear to be similar to Skilbeck's (1976a) 'intuitive' model of educational management where teachers are encouraged to be creative and to make their own decisions.

However, the National Curriculum was important in teachers' planning and teaching. The response of teachers in relation to my comments on draft activities and at interview indicated that they viewed the Project as a way to develop familiarity with the new curriculum, but employ it in the 'traditional' approach of a topic. My approach therefore was also similar to the 'rational interactive' model suggested by Skilbeck (1976a) where teachers have an active role in adapting the curriculum at the school level. The reaction to the Project would also appear to be in line with Skilbeck's (1982) and Campbell's (1985) claims that school based curriculum development does not have run counter to national curriculum guidelines and would
seem to fit Campbell's views when he argued, in relation to such guidelines, that school based projects can 'ride on them' (p34). In this way I would appear to have been an interpreter of the National Curriculum, converting this 'power coercive' strategy (Bennis et al, 1969) via the Project and helping the teachers accept and deliver this new curriculum and hence can be viewed as an unwitting servant of government policy. I also suggest, as interpreter of the National Curriculum, I was enabling a 'second order' change (Fullan, 1991), involving attempts to alter the fundamental ways in which schools worked including their goals, structures and roles, to be recast by teachers as no more than a 'first order' change (Fullan, 1991) with the less dramatic aims to improve the quality of what was already there.

Despite assertions from amongst others Simons (1988) and Lawton (1989) that school based curriculum development would become a virtually impossible task after the introduction of the National Curriculum, the Project indicated that it was still possible to successfully introduce change at a school level and that the role of the external co-ordinator was particularly important in terms of the interpretation of this nationally imposed curriculum. My role as interpreter of this external innovation would appear to be similar to that of the co-ordinators reported on by Shipman (1974), within the Keele Integrated Studies Project, and Parsons (1987), in relation to Geography for the Young School Leaver.

My strategy of allowing teachers a good deal of classroom autonomy, however, was not without risks. The great majority of Brenda's activities did not appear in the Project book as they were viewed as not meeting Project aims, while two of Anne's activities were criticised by WWF staff for not taking a critical stance to travel. But it is clear from Brenda's comments at interview and the other activities that were developed by Anne that
teachers learned from what I, WWF staff and even the teachers themselves regarded, as mistakes. Allowing the opportunity to learn from mistakes would seem to be essential in the introduction of any new curriculum. McKernan (1991) indicated that the primary school practitioner should, in fact, not fear failure but distance herself or himself from any sense of personal failure and this should result in the gaining of valuable insights. With its underlying ideology and its emphasis on assessment the National Curriculum, however, did not appear at the time to provide scope for the insights gained from 'failure'.

I did not encourage complete autonomy in the classroom, however, as I provided teachers with possible examples of activities to trial. This approach was not entirely successful. Although teachers did note the activities I suggested, if anything they seemed to regard these not as mere examples amongst many possibilities, but examples of good practice which they should imitate. I had provided examples of types of guidebook and all teachers developed an activity involving some form of guide. I had suggested teachers should be informed by two examples of role play I had previously written and there were also a large number of such activities. The effect of this also appeared to be to limit the range of other activities developed.

It is possible to conclude as there were few activities critical of tourism, no teacher developed a geographical enquiry and Science did not feature prominently in Project teachers work that, as co-ordinator, I had the type of unrealistic expectations of teachers that Anderson (1979) noted in his study of the Schools Council Health Education Project.
Collaboration

Many commentators on curriculum innovation (for example Fullan, 1991, Rosenholtz, 1989, Hargreaves, 1989, Campbell, 1985, Eggleston, 1980) have cited the important role of collaboration. Although collaboration took place in the Project it was largely not of the kind discussed by these commentators. Most writers on the subject refer to collaboration between teachers, but the only collaboration of this type was between Brenda and Neil at Redhills School. Virtually all other collaboration took place between me as co-ordinator and the teachers, on a one to one basis. Initially I provided ideas and then later commented on teachers' activities, but I did not promote a climate or culture of sharing ideas between teachers (Hayes, 1994). This was partly due to time constraints, but also related to my role as co-ordinator of a Project with publication of trialled activities as the chief product, and with the pressure that publication deadlines create. This strategy was also used to prevent some of the problems Hargreaves (1989) referred to such as time wasting meetings and false feelings of group support.

One teacher found this one to one relationship useful as she was able to receive positive feedback from me, while another tended to regard it as a pupil/teacher relationship in which my comments to her as pupil were not necessarily welcome. Despite the fact that teachers did not ask for the opportunity to meet their fellow innovators in other schools nor did they show great interest in what others were developing, I suggest I could have created a much more supportive framework for teachers by enabling them to meet regularly. Such meetings may have, for example, persuaded Anne that teaching values was worthwhile and achievable and prevented Brenda from developing a number of activities that were subsequently viewed as not suitable for publication. McKernan (1991) made the point that advances in knowledge do not come about through any one individual's skills but are
the combined results of the community of discourse in the field of curriculum development. Thomas (1993) also indicated that when people involved in planning and delivering the primary curriculum begin to work together they need opportunities from the outset to discuss and share their pedagogic, professional and personal concerns. Hence a greater degree of collaboration could have led to more and better Project activities.

Despite Anne's stated isolation at Clyst Hydon School and comments from Brenda about misunderstandings, the Project appeared to provide evidence that runs contrary to the view, put forward by for example Carr and Kemmis (1988) and McNiff (1989) that collaboration is essential. Two of the teachers did not collaborate with other teachers and the two who did collaborate with each other restricted this mainly to planning and not to sharing teaching activities. As two teachers were actually able to develop activities independent of others and almost all of these appeared in print this further suggests that collaboration between teachers was not vital. The Project would therefore seem to be in line with the claims of Whitehead (1985) and Waters-Adams (1994) that however desirable collaboration may be it is not essential. Evidence from the Project would also seem to support the findings of Waters-Adams (1992, 1994) that often what is said about action research in terms of collaboration is an ideal, and is more part of the rhetoric than the reality.

Paying the teachers a fee for their work appeared to be a relatively unusual feature compared with other projects. This could be interpreted as bribing teachers to do what they did not want to do, but as Parsons (1987) and Fullan (1991) argued it is important to provide the incentive of rewards in curriculum innovation. Jenkin's (1974) idea of 'The Exchange of Gifts', based on an interpretation of the Keele Integrated Studies Project, would
seem to be a useful metaphor for this aspect of the Learn to Travel Project, given the way I viewed the various responsibilities of those involved. However, as Brenda indicated, the amount teachers were paid was relatively small and was insufficient for the time and effort involved. Payment appeared only to be an inducement to get teachers through difficult parts of writing up activities.

Getting one's name in print could be seen as another reward for involvement in the Project (Parsons, 1987), and although relatively unusual this followed in the tradition established by Richardson (1980) and Fisher and Hicks (1985) of naming, in publications, teachers who have created activities. Having to produce activities for publication, however, would seem to have been a stressful activity. In this situation I was in the role of assessor of teachers' work and this put pressure on the collaborative relationships. For three of the teachers, particularly Brenda this was not an easy relationship. Only Angela appeared to respond positively claiming that she felt through my comments that her work was being valued. I suggest that being only two years in teaching and a recent graduate she found it easier to respond to criticism from an outsider than Brenda who was the most experienced teacher. It is possible to suggest therefore that less experienced teachers may respond more positively to this kind of innovation than more experienced ones.

Parsons (1987) argued strongly that a Project needs to be clearly identified with an important educational movement or organisation to have a chance of success but there was very little evidence in teachers' statements to suggest that the involvement of WWF in terms of its educational policy and general philosophy mattered significantly to teachers. Angela's previous involvement with the Green Party I suggest was important, however, as this
would appear to have made it relatively easy for her to see the environmental dimensions of her Project work. It is probable that she was able to develop a large number of 'successful' activities, in terms of publication, at least in part, because of her political beliefs. Anne did refer on one occasion to the need to ensure an environmental dimension to her work because of WWF involvement, but neither Brenda or Neil made specific comment on WWF.

Impacts
The Project in terms of activities remained in two of the three schools two years after the initial development. Teachers also employed published activities developed by other teachers and there was also evidence that the principles developed in Project work were transferred by teachers to other non-Project activities. This would then seem to provide some evidence that issues of relevance to the local area may be used with relative success in school based projects (Prideaux, 1993), although a number of Project activities involved a comparative element in terms of place and/or the use of imaginary settings.

In more general terms in relation to the Project's impacts, Bolam (1982) and McCormick and James (1983) referred to the take up of an innovation as a major way to evaluate it. Sales of the Project book of approximately one thousand by the end of 1994 provide some evidence of the comparative success of the Project. Although it was not possible to say whether or not sales were regionalised or more national, it would seem safe to assume that sales have occurred in not just tourist areas, and although there is no hard evidence, the review of the book by the London based primary headteacher (Rudolf, 1993) would suggest that the Project has a relevance beyond obvious tourist regions.
For any innovation to be successful teachers attitudes and commitment are important (Parsons 1987, Fullan 1991). Angela's initial enthusiasm was related to her perception and realisation of the potential of teaching about tourism, for example. There is some evidence to suggest that enthusiasm varied amongst teachers over time, with Brenda's in particular increasing towards the end of activity development. Probably more than the other teachers Brenda modified her views on the significance of tourism studies and the primary curriculum. This would seem to be in line with Bolam's (1982) comments about individual teacher's change being linked to curriculum change.

As Shipman (1974) and Parsons (1987) argued another important way to evaluate an innovation is through its contribution to staff development. There is evidence of the importance of this innovation contributing to staff development in that two of the teachers moved on in their careers immediately after their involvement in the Project. Both teachers used me as a referee in their career moves and one of the other two teachers also tried to obtain another post and used me as referee in her application.

There is also evidence of Parsons (1987) claim that if a teacher leaves a school then a Project dies. When Angela left Bassett's Farm School it seemed clear that the Project activities were not repeated after her departure. In the case of Neil, when he left Redhills School, his work was continued by Brenda, however, and this I suggest is a strong argument for collaborative work in an innovation.

This also reveals an interesting paradox. It would appear less experienced teachers are more receptive to curriculum innovation. Such teachers,
however, may use the experience of involvement in a curriculum development project for career development purposes. If such teachers move on then unless they take the innovation with them it is likely to die. More experienced teachers, however, appear more resistant to curriculum change and seem less likely to be involved in innovations. If such teachers do become involved in a new development it would appear, however, more likely that the innovation will remain in the school.

As Parsons (1987) has indicated links with an influential education organisation are important in the success of a Project. In terms of the wider impact of the Project, the involvement of WWF was very important as they provided critical comment on early drafts of activities, secured relatively large sales figures for the Project book mainly via their catalogue and offered the opportunity for the use of Project materials in 'Reaching Out' (Huckle 1995), the pack designed to be used within INSET courses.

There is some evidence that my teaching of Project activities had an impact on children. The children's changing understanding of the term 'host' is an indication of this, as are children's changed responses to a number of questions on pre- and post-intervention survey. The fact that children gave generally longer responses on the post-intervention survey is also evidence of this. Further confirmation comes from children providing comments on the post-intervention survey on what they had learned about the behaviour of tourists and hosts.

In relation to actual changes in children's attitudes and behaviour I cannot guarantee any changes were linked to the hypothesised change agent, (Hicks and Fisher, 1985), but from the statements of Brenda, Angela and Anne there would seem to be at least a possibility that this occurred. The reaction of
children during my teaching and my observation and the teachers comments at post-intervention interview is further evidence of impacts on children. However in terms of the class I taught children's views did not change as I expected. In relation to their responses to Question 11 on the questionnaire and their reaction to the 'Tropical Beach' activity their views changed generally to being less certain after than before my intervention. This could indicate their minds had been opened up rather than made up, or it could be their thinking was naturally evolving independent of my intervention. A survey with my control group could have helped provide explanation, but I failed to do this for reasons previously stated. This area of children's attitudes in relation to tourism issues, however, would seem particularly worthy of further research.

Research Methodology
In relation to the methodology involved in the field research there were a number of significant issues. Despite McNiff's (1988) assertion that action research allows a focus on the enquirer in addition to the substantive concern of the enquiry, it was difficult to conduct such research when being both an advocate of the innovation and also required to stand apart from it and view it critically. This is the type of dilemma discussed by both Golby (1993) and Hargreaves (1989). I suggest leaving a relatively long period after the initial Project development and implementation before writing about its processes and effects has assisted in my attempt to stand back and be critical.

I discussed in Chapter Three the critical comments made by Marris and Rein (1967) about the apparent incompatibility between action and research. This Project, although suggesting they are not incompatible, certainly points to significant problems in relation to action and research. I found that action is far less controllable than research and on occasions conditions for research
become difficult, particularly when action ran ahead of research. The form of action research I used created problems and mistakes were made. The example of what happened at one school on receipt of draft questionnaires for comment was just one such problem.

An important problem of the action research methodology used here was that the techniques were not set in advance and neither were they in a preset timetable. The research process in which data are gathered, reflected on before the next stage of research, which involves acting based on reflections on the data, was particularly stressful as it was more often than not conducted to a relatively tight time scale. The uncertainty about the nature and quality of data gathered at each stage of the research was also a problem. A related issue was that a significant amount of data that had been gathered was subsequently rejected and this is a problem noted by Golby (1993) and Adelman et al (1977) of this type of research.

Despite the problems discussed above associated with the methodology, the action research approach had advantages in that it allowed for a good deal of flexibility in terms of what to do, how to do it and when to do it. Using action research also enabled me to try out a teaching approach, the process of geographical enquiry, that had not been used by Project teachers and yet was one I considered should be feasible. Additionally through trialling of previously developed activities I also gained new insights into these as well as children’s responses to them. I suggest other non-participant, non-action oriented methods would not have permitted the strategy I adopted.

In this type of research it was necessary to employ methodological and observer triangulation. Methodological triangulation included the use of the techniques of interviews, questionnaires, the study of documents and use of
fieldnotes. Observer triangulation involved the use of the perspectives of teachers, children and myself in the research process. Both forms of triangulation were used in an attempt to include greater rigour, reliability and validity.

This thesis, then, has attempted to derive insights from a case study of several schools at a time of great national reform when central direction appeared to be dictating events. It has demonstrated through the example of the 'Learn to Travel' Project, how teachers as interpreters, planners and implementers, informed by a variety of perspectives, continue to create the curriculum.
APPENDIX 1
APPENDIX 1

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS USED WITH TEACHERS, JULY 1991

What did you produce in the Project?
How did you plan?
Why did you plan in this way?
Where did the Project work fit in with your schemes of work?
Where/how does the Project work fit with the NC?
How suitable is the Project work for a) the age range
b) the ability range?
How closely did your work fit the aims and objectives of the Project?
How successful has the work been and how did you evaluate?
How would you modify/change/develop?
How did you see your role and my role in the Project?
APPENDIX 2
Appendix 2 A Photograph used in connection with activity 'Tropical Beach Hotel'
Appendix 2 B  Photograph of hotel used in connection with activity 'Tropical Beach Hotel'
APPENDIX 3

Pre-intervention questionnaire used at Earlham School and Weston School
LEARN TO TRAVEL SCHOOLS' PROJECT QUESTIONNAIRE

Please write your name, age in years, whether you are a girl or boy, and your school in the space provided below.

NAME.................................................................................................................................
AGE........................................
GIRL/BOY..............................
SCHOOL.............................................................................................................................

Please write your answers to the questions in the spaces provided. The first three questions are concerned with your understanding of important words. Please write no more than one or two sentences for your answers to questions 1, 2 and 3.

1) What does the word holiday mean?

2) What is a tourist?

3) What is a host?

The next three questions are concerned with holidays you have taken. Please think of any holiday you have taken in the last two or three years. Holidays can include a weekend away visiting relatives or friends, as well as visits to beaches, other parts of Britain or going abroad.

4) Where have you been on holiday?

5) What have you liked about holidays you have taken? (include up to 3 things)
6) What have you **not liked** about holidays you have taken? (include up to 3 things)

Think about what you have **liked** and **disliked** on holiday and then answer the next question.

7) What would be your "**perfect**" holiday?

Think about **visitors to your town or village** and then answer questions 8, 9 and 10.

8) **Why** do visitors come to your town or village?

9) What would you like a visitor to your town or village to see? Please give reasons for your answer.

10) What would you **not** like a visitor to your town or village to see? Please give reasons for your answer.
11) This question is to do with the **effects of tourism**.

Read the sentences, A - J, and then put a (ring) around the word or phrase after each sentence which best describes the way you think.

A "Tourism brings money into the local area as tourists buy food and drink and need somewhere to stay." **AGREE** **DISAGREE** **DON'T KNOW**

B "There are too many holidaymakers visiting Devon each year. " **AGREE** **DISAGREE** **DON'T KNOW**

C "Jobs in tourism only last for the summer months." **AGREE** **DISAGREE** **DON'T KNOW**

D "Having lots of visitors to Devon in the summer means that there is a chance to meet new friends." **AGREE** **DISAGREE** **DON'T KNOW**

E "Money from tourists is used to help preserve buildings and conserve the environment." **AGREE** **DISAGREE** **DON'T KNOW**

F "Tourism causes traffic problems." **AGREE** **DISAGREE** **DON'T KNOW**

G "Tourists leave litter on beaches." **AGREE** **DISAGREE** **DON'T KNOW**

H "Tourism means more jobs in Devon as people are needed to work in hotels, cafes, restaurants and shops when tourists come." **AGREE** **DISAGREE** **DON'T KNOW**

I "Tourists damage the environment." **AGREE** **DISAGREE** **DON'T KNOW**

J "Many tourists come from foreign countries to visit Britain so tourism helps the country get more money" **AGREE** **DISAGREE** **DON'T KNOW**

12) What effects do tourists have on your own local area?
13) Please write down your views on the effects of tourism. Include up to three things under each of the headings.

Good effects

Bad effects

14) Imagine you have been asked to make a code of behaviour for tourists to Devon. Write down your ideas on the ways you think tourists should behave in Devon.

Thank you very much for completing this questionnaire. If you have had any problems answering questions, or have anything else you want to say, please write your comments below or on the other side of this page. Please return this questionnaire to your teacher.

P.M. 1991.
APPENDIX 4

Post-intervention questionnaire used at Earlham School
LEARN TO TRAVEL SCHOOLS' PROJECT QUESTIONNAIRE  
(after completion of Project work) 
Please give the following information in the spaces provided: 
NAME.................................................................................................................
AGE........................................................................
GIRL/BOY.............................................
SCHOOL........................................................................................................
Please write your answers to the questions in the spaces provided. 
The first two questions are concerned with your understanding of important words. Please write no more than one or two sentences for your answers to questions 1 and 2. 
1) What is a tourist ?

2) What is a host?

Think about visitors to Exmouth and then answer questions 3, and 4. 
3) What would you like a visitor to Exmouth to see? 
Please give reasons for your answer

4) What would you not like a visitor to Exmouth to see? 
Please give reasons for your answer.
5) This question is to do with the **effects of tourism**.
Read the sentences, A - J, and then put a (ring) around the word or phrase after each sentence which best describes the way you think.

A "Tourism brings money into the local area as tourists buy food and drink and need somewhere to stay." **AGREE**  **DISAGREE**  **DON'T KNOW**

B "There are too many holidaymakers visiting Devon each year." **AGREE**  **DISAGREE**  **DON'T KNOW**

C "Jobs in tourism only last for the summer months** **AGREE**  **DISAGREE**  **DON'T KNOW**

D "Having lots of visitors to Devon in the summer means that there is a chance to meet new friends to play with." **AGREE**  **DISAGREE**  **DON'T KNOW**

E "Money from tourists is used to help preserve buildings and conserve the environment." **AGREE**  **DISAGREE**  **DON'T KNOW**

F "Tourism causes traffic problems" **AGREE**  **DISAGREE**  **DON'T KNOW**

G "Tourists leave litter on beaches." **AGREE**  **DISAGREE**  **DON'T KNOW**

H "Tourism means more jobs in Devon as people are needed to work in hotels, cafes, restaurants and shops when tourists come." **AGREE**  **DISAGREE**  **DON'T KNOW**

I "Tourists damage the environment" **AGREE**  **DISAGREE**  **DON'T KNOW**

J "Many tourists come from foreign countries to visit Britain so tourism helps the country get more money" **AGREE**  **DISAGREE**  **DON'T KNOW"
6) This question is about the effects of tourism in Exmouth. Please write your views on the effects of tourism in Exmouth. Include up to three things under each of the headings. **Good Effects** | **Bad effects**

7) This question is about the effects of tourism on a tropical island. Please write your views on the effects of tourism on a tropical island. Include up to three things under each of the headings. **Good Effects** | **Bad effects**

The next two questions are about the behaviour of visitors and hosts.

8) Write down ways in which you should behave when you are a visitor.

9) Write down ways in which you should behave when you are a host.
10) What work in "The Learn to Travel Project" did you like doing?

11) What work in "The Learn to Travel Project" did you not like doing?

12) What do you think you have learned in "The Learn to Travel Project"?

Thankyou very much for completing this questionnaire.

If you have had any problems answering questions, or have anything else you want to say, please write your comments below. Please return this questionnaire to your teacher.

P.M. 1992
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