26915

National Library of Canada | Bibliothèque nationale du Canada
CANADIAN THESES ON MICROFICHE | THÈSES CANADIENNES SUR MICROFICHE

NAME OF AUTHOR/*NOM DE L'AUTEUR* James John Shuttleworth.

TITLE OF THESIS/*TITRE DE LA THÈSE* Community Education and Recreation in England and Wales: Its Derivation and a General Approach.

UNIVERSITY/*UNIVERSITÉ* Alberta

DEGREE FOR WHICH THESIS WAS PRESENTED/*GRADE POUR LEQUEL CETTE THÈSE FUT PRÉSENTÉE* PhD.

YEAR THIS DEGREE CONFERRED/*ANNÉE D'OBTENTION DE CE GRADE* 1975

NAME OF SUPERVISOR/*NOM DU DIRECTEUR DE THÈSE* Dr. R. A. Glasford

Permission is hereby granted to the NATIONAL LIBRARY OF CANADA to microfilm this thesis and to lend or sell copies of the film.

The author reserves other publication rights, and neither the thesis nor extensive extracts from it may be printed or otherwise reproduced without the author's written permission.

L'autorisation est, par la présente, accordée à la BIBLIOTHÈQUE NATIONALE DU CANADA de microfilmer cette thèse et de prêter ou de vendre des exemplaires du film.

L'auteur se réserve les autres droits de publication; ni la thèse ni de longs extraits de celle-ci ne doivent être imprimés ou autrement reproduits sans l'autorisation écrite de l'auteur.

DATED/*DATÉ* 9 Oct 1975 SIGNED/*SIGNÉ* J Shuttleworth

PERMANENT ADDRESS/*RÉSIDENCE FIXÉ* 34 Heywood Boulevard
Thingwall, Wirral
Merseyside. ENGLAND

NL-91 (3/74)

THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

COMMUNITY EDUCATION AND RECREATION IN ENGLAND AND WALES: THE DERIVATION OF A GENERAL APPROACH

by

JAMES JOHN SHUTTLEWORTH

A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

DEPARTMENT OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION

EDMONTON, ALBERTA

FALL, 1975

THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research, for acceptance, a thesis entitled "COMMUNITY EDUCATION AND RECREATION IN ENGLAND AND WALES: THE DERIVATION OF A GENERAL APPROACH" submitted by JAMES JOHN SHUTTLEWORTH in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

.....
Supervisor

.....

.....

.....

.....

Date ..... 19 .....

.....
External Examiner

ABSTRACT

The primary purpose of this dissertation is to examine and critically appraise the community education and recreation sector of the education system in England and Wales. A general approach to the planning and management of this sector is derived subsequent to the taxonomical review.

The dissertation is divided into two parts.

Part I examines a conceptual matrix of the inter-relationship between work, leisure and education; recurrent education, community development and community social solidarity; and the planning and management of community education and recreation. It ascertains that a problem exists in the efficiency with which education and recreation planners elicit and fulfil the individual's need for self-fulfilment. The process by which the psychological needs of the individual and the community's need for development and generation of social solidarity are facilitated by recurrent education and recreation, are then discussed. Part I concludes with a critical appraisal of local government provision for community education and recreation with special attention being given to the description of a recommended urban hierarchy of recreational provision and the dissonance inherent in the organisation of the dual provision scheme.

Part 2 is concerned with authenticating the general approach developed in Part I and exemplifying dissonance in selected community education and recreation organisations. An organisational analysis

of the Alumwell Centre in Walsall and a review of four other community colleges is effected utilising a recreation research model and a recreation management organisational analysis model devised for this specific purpose. The conclusions drawn from the processing of the social survey data validate the recommended general approach which is subsequently succinctly delineated in the concluding chapter.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I wish to express my gratitude to the members of my thesis committee, Dr. D.R. Pugh, Dr. H. Scott, Dr. H.G. McLachlin and Professor A.F. Affleck, and also to my External Examiner Dr. E.F.Broom. In particular, special appreciation is extended to my supervisor Dr. R. G. Glassford for his guidance and unstinting help.

I would also like to acknowledge the assistance received from the following personnel: Mr. P. Ashe, Mr. M. Lawson, Mr. A. Vernon, Mr. B. Vicary, and Mr. P. Miller in the collection of data; Mr. S. Buttimer in the management field; Mr. T. Shaw in regional and urban planning; Dr. L. Okeem in sociology, adult education and overall scholarship; Mr. W. Murphy in recurrent education; Dr.T.Riley in the processing of data; and Dr. V. Thomas for enabling the research to be conducted during my tenure as a senior lecturer at Liverpool Polytechnic.

In addition to the personnel listed in Appendix 8 who afforded me every assistance during my research, I would like to mention especially Mr. J. Rennie, Mr. E.M. Hughes and Mr. M. Collins for their expert advice and cooperation in providing material. Thanks also go to my typists Ms J. Segal and Ms A. Gillespie for their speed and expertise, and to Ms A. Parker for her help with figures and design.

I am also indebted to the Canada Council Humanities Social Science Division for the granting of a Doctoral Fellowship without which the thesis would not have been completed.

Last, but by no means least, my thanks go to my family, colleagues, students and friends for their forbearance during the writing of the thesis.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Page

LIST OF TABLES xi

LIST OF FIGURES xii

PART 1

THEORETICAL APPRAISAL AND SYSTEMATISATION

OF COMMUNITY EDUCATION AND RECREATION

Chapter

1 THE STUDY OF LEISURE 1

1.1. SOCIO-CULTURAL PHYSICAL EDUCATION 1

1.2. THE SOCIOLOGY OF LEISURE 4

1.3. LEISURE AS A SOCIAL PROBLEM 8

1.4. DEFINITION OF TERMS. 14

1.5. THE PROBLEM 17

1.6. SUB-PROBLEMS 20

1.7. JUSTIFICATION OF THE STUDY 22

1.8. DELIMITATION OF THE STUDY 24

1.9. LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY 25

2 WORK LEISURE AND HUMAN NEEDS. 27

2.1. THE WORK LEISURE INTER-RELATIONSHIP 28

2.1.1. Occupations and Leisure 29

2.1.2. Theoretical Studies of Work and Leisure. . . 31

2.1.3. Theory and Fact. 32

2.2. SELF-FULFILMENT THROUGH WORK AND LEISURE 34

3 EDUCATION RECREATION AND COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT. 40

Chapter Page

3.1. EDUCATION WORK AND LEISURE 40

3.2. RECURRENT EDUCATION RECREATION AND COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT 45

3.2.1. The Concept of Recurrent Education 45

3.2.2. Recurrent Education and Community Development. 51

3.2.3. The Basic Functions of Recurrent Education in Community Education and Recreation . . . 59

4 RECREATION COMMUNITY SOCIAL SOLIDARITY AND URBAN MALAISE . 72

4.1. RECREATION WITHIN THE COMMUNITY 72

4.1.1. Trends in Society and Recreation. 73

4.1.2. Recreation and Community Solidarity 90

4.2. RECREATION PLANNING AND URBAN COMMUNITY MALAISE . 93

4.2.1. Urban Malaise. 93

4.2.2. Recreation Planning 99

5 COMMUNITY EDUCATION AND RECREATION 105

5.1. THE CONCEPT OF COMMUNITY EDUCATION AND RECREATION 105

5.2. THE COMMUNITY SCHOOL AND COLLEGE 110

6 URBAN COMMUNITY EDUCATION AND RECREATION PLANNING AND PROVISION 137

6.1. SOCIAL PLANNING AND PUBLIC PARTICIPATION 137

6.2. THE STRUCTURE OF LOCAL GOVERNMENT WITH RESPECT TO RECURRENT EDUCATION AND RECREATION. 144

6.2.1. Local Government Structure 144

6.2.2. Recreation and Local Government 159

6.2.3. Recurrent Education and Local Government . . 174

6.3. RECREATION HIERARCHY OF PROVISION. 179

6.3.1. A Hierarchy of Urban Recreation Provision. . 184

Chapter Page

6.3.2. The Community School 188

6.3.3. The Community College 194

6.4. DUAL PROVISION OF COMMUNITY EDUCATION AND RECREATION FACILITIES 196

6.4.1. The Concept of Dual Provision 196

6.4.2. Origins and Development of Dual Provision 202

6.4.3. The Implementation of a Dual Provision Scheme 211

6.4.4. Dissonance Within Community College Dual Provision Schemes 222

6.4.4.1. Local Government Parameter of Dissonance 226

6.4.4.2. Community College Parameter of Dissonance 235

6.5. ORGANISATION OF THE STUDY 251

PART 2

SOCIAL RESEARCH IN THE COMMUNITY EDUCATION AND RECREATION SECTOR

Chapter Page

7 RECREATION RESEARCH 254

7.1. RECREATION RESEARCH METHODOLOGY 255

7.2. RECREATION RESEARCH MODEL 560

8 ORGANISATIONAL ANALYSIS OF COMMUNITY EDUCATION AND RECREATION 271

8.1. APPROACHES TO ORGANISATIONAL ANALYSIS 271

8.2. CLASSIFICATION OF THE COMMUNITY COLLEGE FORMAL SERVICE ORGANISATION 276

8.2.1. Conflict Within the Formal Service Organisation. 277

Chapter Page

8.3. RECREATION MANAGEMENT ORGANISATIONAL ANALYSIS MODEL 280

8.3.1. Organisational Analysis of Educational Organisations 280

8.3.2. Organisational Dimensions and Units of Analysis 281

9 METHOD OF ENQUIRY 292

9.1. COLLECTION OF DATA 295

9.1.1. Research Techniques - Case Study 297

9.1.2. Research Techniques-Questionnaire Survey 299

9.2. ORGANISATION AND PROCESSING OF DATA. 300

10 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION 303

10.1. CASE STUDY REPORT 303

10.1.1. Background to the Organisation 303

10.1.2. Goals of the Community Education and Recreation Department 310

10.1.3. Formal Organisation of the Community Education and Recreation Department . . 318

10.1.4. The Autonomy of the Unit 337

10.1.5. The Informal Organisation 339

10.1.6. Organisation - Environment Interface. . . 342

10.2. QUESTIONNAIRE SURVEY REPORT 343

10.2.1. Visitation Characteristics. 344

10.2.2. Catchment Area Characteristics 369

10.2.3. Users' Personal Characteristics 370

10.2.4. Correlation Matrix and Principle Component Analysis. 372

10.3. SUMMARY OF THE SOCIAL RESEARCH INTO COMMUNITY COLLEGES. 377

Chapter

Page

11 CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS 386

BIBLIOGRAPHY 401

APPENDICES 439

LIST OF TABLES

Table		Page
1	Daily Attendance	347
2	Duration of Visit	347
3	Purpose of Visit	347
4	Duration of Main Activity	348
5	Influence of Centre	348
6	Ancillary Activity	349
7	Type of User Group	350
8	Type of Attendance	350
9	Frequency of Attendance	352
10	Mode of Travel	353
11	Origin of Visit	353
12	Home Address	355
13	Destination of Visit	356
14	Journey Time	356
15	Car Ownership	357
16	Sexual Status	357
17	Marital Status	357
18	Educational Status	358
19	Age	358
20	Class	359
21	Means and Standard Deviations	360
22	Correlation Matrix	373
23	Principal Component Analysis	374

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure		Page
1	Local Government Structure in England and Wales	147
2	Metropolitan and County Authorities in England and Wales	148
3	Central Government Involvement and Recreation Provision	149
4	Cross-National Government Involvement in Recreation Provision	150
5	The Distribution of Functions Within Local Government	151
6	Metropolitan District Authority Committee Structure	165
7	Metropolitan District Authority Corporate Management Structure	166
8	Leisure Services Department Management Chart	167
9	Education Department Management Chart	168
10	Hierarchy of Urban Recreation Provision	186
11	User Needs and Provision of Facilities in a Community School	191
12	Management Structure of a Typical Dual Provision Community College	240
13	Recreation Research Model	263
14	Community Education and Recreation System Demand Constraints	264
15	Recreation Management Organisational Analysis Model	284
16	Official Local Education Authority Catchment Area	304
17	Potential Catchment Areas	305
18	Walsall Metropolitan Borough Education Department Management Chart	315
19	Alumwell Centre Management Chart	316

Figure		Page
20	Alumwell Centre Community Education and Recreation Department Formal Organisation Management Structure . . .	317
21	Visitation Characteristics	361
22	Catchment Area Characteristics	363
23	Users' Personal Characteristics	366
24	Recommended Community Education and Recreation Organisation	394

Chapter 1

THE STUDY OF LEISURE

1.1. SOCIO-CULTURAL PHYSICAL EDUCATION

Physical Education, in company with other recently emergent fields of study, has experienced problems in adequately delineating its area of operation and in formulating a coherent rationale. This search for systematization in Physical Education can be readily identified within the socio-cultural area.

It is suggested that Physical Education, due to exogenous and endogenous forces affecting the profession and discipline, is in the process of collective introspection as it seeks to explicate more clearly the legitimizing rationale for its role within the educational system and society in general. Perhaps, because of their concern for values, researchers within the socio-cultural area are leading this collective task of professional introspection.

It is germane at this juncture to examine Physical Education's search for systematisation as it underpins the basic research orientation of this dissertation. Physical Education's evolution reflects in part what Ways (1969, 1-3) terms the universities' transition from power to knowledge; from the aecumenical liberal arts concept to the highly delimited disciplines. The social irrelevancy of much of this disciplinary academic education, the fragmented structure of higher education, its failure to coordinate and synthesize diverse units of knowledge, and its disdain for vocational

education have made it reluctant and powerless to innervate or even influence social changes. It could be said that Physical Education, in its pursuit of academic recognition, is guilty of a similar transition.

Whilst it has been acknowledged by such scholars as Henry (1964) and Abernathy (1964) that the body of knowledge concerned with man and his movement constitutes the academic discipline of Physical Education, the acquisition of such academic knowledge at a theoretical and scholarly level has increasingly been assumed to be an adequate objective. It is contended, however, that Physical Education has responsibilities as an agent of change and community "outreach" and its content, in keeping with education in general, in addition to being academic should be utilitarian with a demonstrably vocational orientation as advocated by Entwistle (1970).

It is important to note that although Physical Education's body of knowledge constitutes an academic discipline it is in essence aecumenical and cross-disciplinary. Its curriculum, in accordance with Bernstein's concept of open education, is " . . . not so much a subject as an idea - say, topic-centred interdisciplinary inquiry" (1971, 167). It utilizes certain aspects of a range of contributory disciplines in the examination of leisure activities and man's interaction with his movement. This instrumental and utilitarian application of Physical Education's body of knowledge in a cross-disciplinary context does not, let it be emphasized, result in " . . . 'mules' who somehow cannot compensate for the loss of depth in each discipline by the breadth of insights gained from more general

overviews" (Fereday, 1967, 180). Its strength as a field of higher study is based upon the fact that it is an aecumenical and teleological discipline the implications of which, with respect to the pure versus applied research dichotomy, are significant.

From a position where they regarded natural phenomena as objects of intellectual understanding, scientists have come to realize their power and responsibility for effecting social change that scientific understanding has placed upon them. Such a responsibility can be reflected by the adoption of a deliberate policy of applied research within Physical Education.

> It bears a resemblance to the discussion in philosphy between those who accept unchanging absolute values and those who believe in relative values adjusted or interpreted according to time and place. It is also akin to the consideration of the divergence between pure and applied science and educationalists are likely to follow their colleagues who recognise more and more the validity of relative values and of applied studies (Gillett, 1969(a),1-2).

It is recognised that pure and applied research are not mutually exclusive and that the latter tends to inhibit research within the confines of the problem's frame of reference. However, provided that the researcher designs his work within the scientific as well as the social problem framework, practical applied research permits the application of knowledge to concrete social problems (Goode and Hatte, 1952, 39).

The adoption, by this dissertation as a basic premise, of the instrumental, utilitarian and vocational approach to Physical Education's body of knowledge in conjunction with a modified and flexible interpretation of the problem solving applied research orientation, would seem to indicate an exclusive alignment with what Dawe (1970) terms the social system approach as opposed to that

of the social action approach. But, in addition to being closely aligned to the ideology and consequent epistomology and methodology of Freire's (1970) education for liberation and conscientisation process, it is also cognizant of less instrumental functions. The research rationale thus attempts to synthesize these two approaches by recognizing, within the qualitative action approach, the need of autonomous man to fulfil himself and be able

". . . to create a truly human social order only when freed from external constraint" (Dawe, 1970, 214), as well as the valid contribution of sociological theory operating at the quantitative structural level of analysis.

The socio-cultural area of Physical Education is considered to embrace the study of man and his leisure; both active and passive. Sociology is an acknowledged tool not only for solving social problems but also for acting as a critical framework through which such problems are assessed; and leisure poses just such a critical assessment.

1.2. THE SOCIOLOGY OF LEISURE

The sociology of leisure can be said to promote the ". . . systematic study of the incidental or deliberately induced relationship between leisure and the other factors in social life, and between leisure and society as a whole" (Dumazedier, 1960, 527). Such an expansive definition does not reflect the volume of research in this area, in fact it tends to belie the relative dearth of attention given to leisure by the discipline of sociology if not by socio-cultural Physical Education. The rejection has been implicit in that leisure institutions and activities have been considered an

appendage to such institutions as the family, education or work. Unfortunately, even those who have sought to establish a separate identity for leisure studies have frequently, in attempting to avoid a rigorous sociology of leisure operating at the purely structural level of analysis, concentrated upon a psychological reductionist approach. This has led, in the opinion of Parry and Flowers (1974), to the sociology of leisure becoming isolated from the main-stream of sociological thinking.

The main emphasis of research, as exemplified in the works of Wohl (1966) and Gras (1971) has traditionally been the concern with the economic process of industrial society, based upon the assumption that the relationship of man to industrial society is best interpreted through the centrality of economic institutions and processes. In attempting to redress the balance of emphasis it is " . . . important to see leisure institutions and processes as a subject area in their own right, not as a dependent appendage which is only marginally relevant to sociological explanation" (Smith,1973,2).

A second tradition in sociology has also tended to reinforce the avoidance of leisure as a topic worthy of research. The social problems approach referred to earlier, has, although based upon humanitarian ideals and the social utility of sociology in delineating, examining and solving problems of human need, tended to neglect areas of human operation which are apparently well adjusted. Leisure, it has thus been assumed, is non-obligatory without the compulsion of need. It only becomes relevant to the strictly problems approach when it appears disfunctional or antisocial and in some way conflicts with the institutionalized means of need fulfilment. Such a viewpoint fails

to acknowledge the significance of leisure in terms of people's life choices and self-fulfilment. There is a need to build towards a view of man whose physical and psychological needs are linked to his capacity for play, imagination and authentic relationships (Klapp, 1968, 50-62). This does not render redundant a problem approach emphasis. The circumstances under which social phenomena come to be defined as problems and the remedial action to be subsequently taken by public authorities is of prime importance particularly in such areas as the underprivileged in recreation facility provision or urban blight and community education. In fact, researchers in the area of leisure might find it incumbent upon them to align themselves with Rex's (1974) tenet that sociologists should be critical. This suggests that an open-minded and a political contribution to social problems remedial policy in the leisure area is both a viable and useful proposition which does not preclude appreciation of non-problem designated areas of research or a recognition of the need of autonomous man to attain self-fulfilment through the medium of leisure not unduly hindered by external societal constraints.

Western industrialized society with its highly differentiated structure and organisations and specialised economic and social institutions has generated a depersonalised society with its attendant problems of anomie, ennui and alienation (Marcuse, 1965, 190-207). Within this contemporary societal environment the role of a sociology of leisure is not simply that of providing a framework and methodology for the examination of these problems and the subsequent assessment of the viability of policy solutions. It includes in addition, the function of explaining the values and assumptions upon which society

is based. It attempts to enable man to become aware of the choices and relationships and the social framework in which he can increase his own social awareness and better participate in the creation of society. This questioning and probing function of sociology as a whole, and the sociology of leisure in particular, enables it to become " . . . the mediator of the tension between a rational basis for the social organisation of society, and man as an enquiring social being concerned through his choices to express his identity and change his society" (Smith, 1973, 3). The institutions and organisations of leisure may be considered mediators between this culture versus structure; action versus system confrontation identified by Dawes (1970).

In sum, therefore, the justification for the study of leisure through sociological method within the context of socio-cultural Physical Education, is its interpretive and directive function. The objective is to identify the social significance of a leisure based culture facilitating the attainment of identity. The method is thus not purely one of descriptive analysis and the sterile formalism of quantitative data gathering on leisure activities. The elicited data should be interpreted within the critical framework of a culture based on the recognition of the individual's need for self awareness and fulfilment and thus man's participation in the control of the society he creates.

This rationale has implications for the psychological justification of leisure and for the inclusion of education in its broadest sense as a means to self-fulfilment, within its delimitations. These relationships will be examined in the ensuing

sections. It also exemplifies the basic tenets underlying the sociological analysis framework and methodology employed in this dissertation. In attempting to define and delineate the role of the sociology of leisure within the socio-cultural Physical Education framework, the attainment of which is central to an adequate conceptual and empirical analysis, the aim has been to establish the essentially socially relevant nature of the field. The research rationale recognizes the instrumental and utilitarian function of the field within an applied but flexible problems approach analysis at the quantitative structural level, whilst remaining cognizant of the qualitative, interpretive and formative responsibilities in respect of self actualizing man within culture.

1.3. LEISURE AS A SOCIAL PROBLEM

It is proposed to critically examine the structure and function of community education and recreation in England and Wales within the context of urban community social solidarity; eliciting dissonance and subsequently recommending a rationalized structure, employing the analytical framework and principles already outlined.

The apparent demand for leisure and recreation resources provision, particularly at community level, has increased greatly during the last decade although concern shown for the problems associated with increased leisure in industrial society has a long historical tradition. It could be said to have commenced with the advent of the 1847 10 Hour Act which defined the work-non-work pattern and introduced recreation as a non-work activity (McIntosh, 1968). The palpable manifest demand of the mass of the population and potential users does not necessarily reflect people's

latent needs or requirements, however. It is this very point which prompts several scholars to question the validity of the problematic nature of leisure at the grass roots.

Becker (1967) points out that for social problems to be fully understood one must know how they first come to be defined as a problem. As this dissertation is concerned with one facet of the problem of leisure it is germane to examine the dimensions and social reality of the problem. For a social issue to achieve the status of a social problem, the concern of a minority group must attain the dimensions of widespread consensus as to its importance. In order to become a defined social problem it must be embodied in an influential institution or official organisation. The tendency then is for personnel in the organisation to redefine the problem in accordance with their own concepts and vested interests. Evidence and opinion which questions the validity or pervasiveness of the problem is rigorously opposed by the organisation as it poses a threat to their very existence. Becker (1967) considers that this syndrome applies to such fields as deviancy, education, race relations, housing and leisure. It is contended that concern for leisure is not widespread throughout the general population but only amongst the relatively few policy making, mass media, professional organisations, and other personnel with vested interests in the expansion of the leisure industry. It is the institutionalization of leisure that has precipitated the problem situation not the manifestation of need amongst the populace. Here is perhaps a classic case of a socially constructed knowledge paradigm conceived by the moral entrepreneurs with the requisite power and status (Young, 1971).

Many writers would not support this sceptical view of leisure's incipient onslaught:

> Three great waves have broken across the face of Britain since 1800. First, the sudden growth of the dark industrial towns. Second, the thrusting movements along far flung railways. Third, the sprawl of car based suburbs. Now we see under the guise of a modest word, the surge of a fourth wave which could be more powerful than all the others. The most modest word is LEISURE (Dower, 1965, 5).

Several scholars support this assertion. As early as 1938 Durant was referring to leisure as a problem; more recently Hollander (1966) was referring to leisure as a threat to social stability, an attitude which predisposes the qualitative and normative function of leisure advocated by Pieper (1962), Berger (1963), and the Newsom Report (1963). The more recent opinions of Gretton (1971), Boston (1968), De Grazia (1962), and Linder (1970), seriously question the advent of an age of leisure with its attendant problems. In fact Linder points out that many persons in the white collar and professional sections of society are experiencing a decreasing amount of lesiure time. The concern expressed over the social upheavals that are predicted to follow any increase in leisure time are not a new development, for, as Simpson states: " . . . since 1860 the average industrial worker has gained 1500 hours a year of non-work time, and at each stage of this increase some public concern has been expressed about the social and moral consequences" (1966,22). There is thus a sizeable body of opinion which would oppose the concept of leisure as a social problem. There is little doubt that Roberts' (1970) suggestion of there being no evidence to suggest that people feel their leisure is a problem or that they are conscious of finding it difficult to fill their free time gains considerable

credence amongst many researchers in leisure if not amongst the planners and managers within the leisure institution.

The basic problem originally posed concerning people's needs has as yet been inadequately answered. It is contended that despite a significant consensus of opinion indicating an absence of a real social problem in leisure time utilization, and also the apparently contradictory demand for increased resources from leisure organisations to meet the burgeoning demand for leisure, there is a problem as such in the understanding and thus the meeting of people's needs.

As many studies in organisational sociology have shown, and as planners and providers are increasingly aware, there is a problem of relating what is done at the macroscopic level of social institutions to phenomena at the grass roots people's level. This situation prevails not only in leisure provision but in all sectors of politics and governmental planning, large organisations, and in general social life. It involves the relationship between the individual and society, an understanding of the functioning of these separate systems and their linkage with a concern for the quality of this interface. It is manifest in the field of leisure in the planner's empathy for the users' needs. From the perspective of personnel in institutional roles such as planners and administrators, the most widely employed indicator to assess the phenomena at the users' grass roots level, with which they seek to link their activity provision, is need. Marketing strategies in services and facilities, social policies, the leisure industry, and sundry industrial products are provided in response to what are taken to be people's needs. Politically motivated planners sometimes formulate these needs as rights:

> Leisure rights - for variety, tranquility and privacy, free association, space to play in, space to explore, access to materials that will deepen and widen experience, opportunities for exercise, experiencing sensations, being surprised, being stretched and opportunities to succeed (Hudson, 1971, 2).

The salient concept in the leisure-needs relationship is perhaps included within his quotation. The attainment by man of self-fulfilment, the stimulation of imagination, the widening and deepening of human experience through the medium of education and leisure in their widest sense as advocated by Howarth (1973 and 1975).

The ability of the individual to achieve fulfilment is dependent at the macroscopic level upon the effectiveness of the planners in eliciting and anticipating needs and subsequently meeting them through resources provision. At the individual level a whole combination of socio-psychological factors impinge upon the problem. Socialisation and numerous agents of this process play an important role. However, within the field of leisure, the type and quality of education is playing an increasingly significant role. Recognition is slowly being accorded the fact that the formal education system is having to adapt radically in order to meet more effectively the needs of an increasingly egalitarian, ephemeral and less deferential society. Education is being seen more as a private right than a public dignity and the individual's capacity for informed choice enabling him to participate more effectively in the process of societal evolution has lately been recognised in the community education concept (Midwinter, 1973). The convert function of this type of educational process has been one of a remedial measure to counteract incipient urban blight and malaise. Other examples of community education schemes have as one of their objectives, in

addition to the basic one of role allocation, the development of community social solidarity. That the generation of such a social condition within the urban environment, in the context of the community school and through the medium of education and leisure activities, could facilitate the attainment by the individual of self-fulfilment is the basic premise of Foster (1971).

The problem is thus one of identifying the strategies by which the planning, administrating and management organisations within the education, leisure and recreation fields can better facilitate the individuals' self-fulfilment through more effectively meeting their needs. The structure, function and management of such organisations as these designed to effect the interface of the two systems of society and the individual, or the organisation and its environment, is of great significance. Concern for the quality of this interface is growing amongst scholars and researchers not least within education and leisure.

At the present time rapid institutionalisation is in progress in the leisure, recreation and community education field. When the patterns of organisation become set and crystallized they will undoubtedly prove more resistant to change than at their present state of adaptability and fluidity. Consequently, the opportune concern of this dissertation is to rigorously and critically examine the organisational structure and planning and management systems of community education and recreation and to subsequently derive a general approach to this sector.

1.4. DEFINITION OF TERMS

The following definitions apply to this dissertation:

Education: the process by which the personality of individuals of all ages is developed thus enabling them to participate in society and its development.

Adult Education: the provision, by a range of agencies, of non-vocational courses. Although in certain circles it is regarded as a macro term synonymous with recurrent education it is considered by many local education authorities, including that of Walsall, to refer to non-vocational and liberal studies. It is thus synonymous with evening institute provision.

Further Education: the provision, by a range of agencies, of vocational courses. Although, as with adult education, it has been the custom to employ it as a macro term it refers solely to vocational education exclusive of higher education.

Evening Institute: the provision by local government of non-vocational courses ranging from cultural to sporting activities for individuals who have completed secondary education or are over the age of eighteen.

Recurrent Education: an omnibus term referring to all post-secondary education, exclusive of higher education, both vocational and non-vocational. As the term implies, it may be indulged in intermittently throughout an individual's life.

Community Education: the participation in recurrent education by individuals of a community who as a self-determining corporate body exercise a controlling interest in the planning and management of community activities.

Work: " . . . the activity involved in earning a living plus necessary subsidiary activities such as travelling to work", it may be said to also include work obligations which entail" . . . voluntary overtime, doing things outside normal working hours associated with the job or type of work that are not strictly necessary to a minimum acceptable level of performance in the job, or having a second job" (Parker, 1972, 27).

Leisure: " . . . time free from obligations either to self or to others - time in which to do as one chooses" (Parker, 1972, 27). Discretionary time is the essence of leisure as it implies time that can be used at an individual's own discretion according to choice.

Recreation: the activities or spheres of action which take place during leisure time. It includes sport or physical recreation, the arts, and informal enjoyment of the countryside. It may be active as in participation in recurrent education or passive as in the social intercourse experienced in a public house.

Community Education and Recreation: the community's participation in and management of all activities offered by recurrent education, arts, recreation and leisure services departments of local government, voluntary agencies, social services departments of local government, private clubs, and all ancillary formal and informal organisations and associations in the community.

Community: " . . . the existence of a network of reciprocal social relationships, which among other things ensure mutual aid and give those who experience it a sense of well-being" (Midwinter, 1973,48).

Urban Community: a social unit whose minimum population is set at 10,000. It is composed of the legally incorporated local government political and administrative unit plus its immediately surrounding suburbs

and other high-density residential and commercial sections (Olsen, 1968, 289).

Neighbourhood: a spatially perceived and demographically and politically determined urban services unit utilsed by social planners and local government officials. For the purposes of this dissertation it is considered to correspond to the primary community school catchment area of 3 to 5,000 population. Approximately five or six such urban units constitute the community college catchment area.

Community Development: the process by which people are enabled to exercise increased control over their own lives and the communities in which they live by the enlargement of the opportunities in directions which they themselves see as desirable (Benington, 1973,172-3).

Community Social Solidarity: the manner in which a community achieves cohesion through common ideals, beliefs and sanctions. It is manifest only in the form of institutions and explanation can only be found in terms of primary group social activity characterised by intimate face to face association and cooperation.

Recreation Planning: the production of a better distribution of activity and resources related to contemporary social and economic needs (Seeley, 1972,11).

Community School: constitutes the first tier of community education and recreation provision. It is based upon the primary school unit which caters for children between the ages of five and eleven and its function, in addition to that of traditional formal education, is one of a centripetal node and resource centre facilitating community development in the neighbourhood unit.

Community College: constitutes the second tier of community education and recreation provision. It is based upon the secondary comprehensive school unit which caters for children between the ages of eleven and eighteen. Its function is synonymous with that of the community school except that, in addition, it services a catchment area consisting of five or six neighbourhood units with a wider and more specialised array of facilities and resources. It also acts as a resource nexus centrifugally stimulating ancillary foci of recreation in its catchment area.

Dual Provision: the integrated planning of facilities for educational establishments and for the community so that each facility is augmented and improved to the mutual benefit of all users. It is frequently referred to as "Joint" Provision, the two terms are synonymous.

1.5. THE PROBLEM

The purpose of the dissertation is to investigate, critically appraise, taxonomically review, and rationalise the planning and management of the urban community education and recreation sector of the education system in England and Wales. By so doing, it is subsequently intended to derive a generic approach to the planning and management of this sector within the context of the dual provision community school and college.

An extensive theoretical appraisal and systemisation of this sector will be undertaken in Part 1 in which an in-depth examination will be made of a conceptual matrix which embraces the fields of work, leisure, recurrent education, community education and recreation planning and provision, and community development and social solidarity.

In addition, a perusal of dissonance within the planning and management of this sector will be accompanied by recommendations for the rationalisation of their organisation and the development of a general approach.

Part 2 of the dissertation will complement the theoretical rationale of the first part by means of a succinct organisational analysis social survey of the Alumwell Centre community college and a review of four other community colleges. Information extracted from this social survey will exemplify organisational dissonance and authenticate the recommended community education and recreation generic model of Part 1. It will, in addition, provide a significant proportion of the data used to formulate the development of this generic model.

The social survey will investigate two parameters of organisation in which significant degress of dissonance have been identified; the general philosophy, objectives and rationale of community education and recreation provision as reflected in local government organisation; and the structure and function of the college's management system together with the interface and integration of its organisation with the catchment area environment and user clients.

In order to effect this survey it will be necessary to formulate both a recreation research model and a recreation research management organisational analysis model pursuant to the delineation of a recreational facility hierarchy of provision and an examination of the inter-relationship between community social solidarity and recurrent community education and recreation resources provision.

The formulation of the two research models will, in the case of the former model, be determined by current trends of data collection and research methodology in recreation and proven heuristic devices employed in recreation planning feasibility and viability studies. In the case of the recreation management organisational analysis model, validated organisation management models will be adapted and synthesized to facilitate rigorous examination of a recreation management hierarchy; its pattern structure and function, internal communication, environment sub-units, and organisation-environment interface and integration. The unstructured qualitative interview, questionnaire survey, documentary research, participant observation, and other ancillary research tools will be employed to elicit data for the research models.

The Alumwell Centre community college, situated at Walsall in the North Midlands adjacent to Birmingham, was considered ideally suited to an organisational analysis social-survey. Although it was by no means the first community college in England and Wales it was one of the first purpose built and planned centres. The Walsall Department of Education under the progressive directorship of Mr. R.D. Nixon initiated a radical reorganisation of the borough's educational system in 1969. The Alumwell Centre was completed in 1971 on a campus sited to serve a wide area of old, densely populated town housing with a large element of immigrant population in addition to long established housing estates. These estates lacked any central community facilities. The planning and management structure of the Education Department was actually organised to facilitate a synthesis of the complete spectrum of

community education and recreation. The structure and overt function of the centre appeared consistent with, and conducive to, the efficient functioning and goal attainment of the widely implemented dual provision community college. Arrangements were thus made to monitor the development of the centre over a three year period and to conduct a case study of its organisation.

The data and subsequent conclusions elicited from this social survey together with a succinct review of four other salient community college centres in England and Wales will be employed to exemplify dissonance in the sector and authenticate the configuration of the rationalized generic approach to urban community education and recreation planning and management within the dual provision community college expounded in Part 1.

Due to the dearth of well established community schools based upon the primary school unit it has proved impracticable to undertake an organisational analysis case study within this tier of community education and recreation. But several dual provision community colleges have been launched by various progressive authorities and four of these will be critically reviewed in conjunction with the increasing amounts of literature and documentation on both tiers of the community education and recreation sector. The data thus collected will enable the formulation of as definitive a generic approach to the planning and management of community education and recreation as is, at this point in time, feasible.

1.6. SUB-PROBLEMS

The effectuation of the purpose of the dissertation gives rise to subsidiary problems:

1.6.1. To identify and examine the inter-relationships existing between work, leisure, recurrent education, community education and recreation resources provision and community school solidarity.

1.6.2. To delineate an urban recreation hierarchy of provision with particular reference to the community school and community college components of the community education and recreation sector.

1.6.3. To effect a review of four salient community colleges in England and Wales within the two parameters of; sector rationale and local government structure; and centre management and organisation environment interface and integration.

1.6.4. To formulate a recreation research model which will facilitate a questionnaire survey designed to elicit data on the demand for, and utilization of, recreation facilities and also on the configuration of the community education and recreation system causal chain.

1.6.5. To formulate a recreation management organisational analysis model which will facilitate case study analyses to be made of community education and recreation organisations.

1.6.6. To undertake extensive documentary research and conduct a series of unstructured qualitative interviews with key personnel within the management hierarchy of community education and recreation in England and Wales.

1.6.7. To expedite an organisational analysis social survey of the Alumwell Centre community college the constituent research techniques of which will include; the construction and administering of a questionnaire survey of use and users; extensive documentary research of the centre's use, catchment area socio-demographic characteristics, and management structure; participant

observation over an extended time period; and the conducting of intensive unstructured taped interviews with all management personnel and selected ancillary staff.

1.7. JUSTIFICATION OF THE STUDY

The existence of dissonance prevailing in two organisational parameters of the community education and recreation sector of the education system in England and Wales will be fully demonstrated and documented in the following chapters. Additional evidence of concern can be witnessed in the proceedings of the British Council of Physical Education:

> With the establishment of departments of recreation and leisure and the development of community schools, the role of the Physical Educationist in community recreation warrants examination. Alan Storey was concerned that an umbrella structure be discussed and implemented within each local authority and that areas of responsibility particularly with reference to provision of facilities, operative programmes and staffing should be clearly defined. The extension of the concept of dual use allows for increased co-operation between schools and the local community. The implication of the above developments for institutions of teacher education and training can be met through a diversified programme of courses. The programme should make provision for the retraining of staff in for example recreation management and the introduction of new courses in sport and sports coaching (British Council of Physical Education, 1974,1).

These sentiments were anticipated in 1971 by Birch when he commented that "Specific studies should be mounted to assess the use and particular problems of dual provision Centres" (Birch, 1971,37). They have been recently acted upon at official level with the announcement by Denis Howell, M.P. Minister for Sport that a local Government Working Party had been instituted to study the management aspects of dual use in educational establishments. Howell has also intimated that there will be guidance forthcoming from the Department

of Education and Science in the form of a White Paper on Leisure and Recreation (Collins, 1975, 4-5). The prevailing climate of informed opinion sustains the contention of this dissertation that there is a need for appraisal and rationalisation in the community education and recreation sector. It is an opportune time to make recommendations regarding systematisation of the sector, for local government is still in a state of flux after the 1974 reorganisation and structures have not as yet become formalised. The dissertation's recommendations stand a greater chance of effecting organisational innovation at the present stage of community education and recreation's development than at a later date.

> . . . this is particularly important at present because of the rapid institutionalisation that is underway in the leisure provision field. After patterns are set and crystallised they will be more difficult to alter than while they are still in a state of some fluidy (Rapoport, Rapoport and Strelitz, 1975, 28).

The necessity for applied, socially utilitarian research in this field of pressing problems and scarcity of resources is demonstrated by Hughes (1974) who is fearful that unless there is rigorous examination by impartial experts and personnel actively involved in the field, planners, developers and the Department of Education and Science will impose educational innovations which could be educationally and socially inappropriate. The prevailing situation in this educational sector is one of uncoordinated development towards vaguely formulated goals and objectives with increasing amounts of ill-directed capital investment. The standpoint which this dissertation adopts, therefore, is that the most utilitarian contribution that can be made to the body of knowledge in this field of community education and recreation is one of critically appraising

and reviewing, rationalising and then systematising data in pursuit of deriving a general approach.

The objective of research of this nature is to evidence not only a mastery of the field's body of knowledge but to identify a gap in this body of knowledge or the process of its application and then to make a genuine contribution to the rectification of the deficiency. It is considered that the gap in the community education and recreation field will be more effectively rectified if the research carried out is of a taxonomical orientation reinforced by empirical social research rather than being exclusively reliant upon surveys with a tenaciously empirical and quantitative bias. This methodological stance is developed further in the discussion on recreation research methodology in Chapter 7.1.

1.8. DELIMITATION OF THE STUDY

The following delimitations apply to the dissertation:

(a) The documentary research was confined to accessible written material housed in the libraries of North America, Australasia, Western Europe and England and Wales.

(b) The terms of reference of community education and recreation are confined strictly to the urban neighbourhood unit in England and Wales.

(c) The questionnaire survey reflects usage of the Alumwell Centre in the month of July 1974 only. Data retrieved via case study research techniques pertain solely to the period Autumn 1972 until Spring 1975. New management personnel have now instituted a different ethos. The continual state of local government organisational changes immediately renders certain

information redundant, care has been taken, therefore, to incorporate recent and anticipated changes.

(d) Dual provision refers, in the context of this dissertation, to cooperation between education and recreation departments within the same or different tiers of local government. It does not refer to other forms of joint provision or multiple use.

(e) All data employed in the derivation of the general approach is derived exclusively from primary and secondary state schools in England and Wales.

(f) Although the theoretical exploration of community education and recreation includes both tiers, the collection of empirical data was soley confined to dual provision comprehensive community colle[illegible]

[illegible] of the dissertation is upon the urban context. [illegible]on for this orientation is that the relevance of facilit[illegible]ring concepts and techniques for the rural situation has already [illegible]ived serious consideration. This is reflected both in the subst[illegible]ial body of literature on rural multiple use that has emerged, [illegible]d in the development of the concept of "key villages" or rural "se[illegible]ice centres" (Bracey, 1970, 269-272). In contrast, the relevance of facilities sharing for urban England and Wales has been comparatively ignored.

1.5. LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The dissertation is limited by the following factors:

(a) The elements of time, distance and finance obviate the possibility of conducting more than one organisational analysis despite the generosity of the Canada Council's doctoral fellowship

and Liverpool Polytechnic's leave of absence.

(b) Access to primary sources of information, although greatly facilitated by active involvement in institutional executive agency planning and management, was slightly inhibited by political considerations within local government.

(c) Although the natural reticence of management personnel was largely overcome by personal identification with the centre via participant observation over an extended period, elicitation of the social reality was partially impeded by management's initial feelings that the research team might be agents of sanction from interested agencies.

(d) Due to the relatively slow development of primary community schooling, empirical research was confined to secondary comprehensive community colleges. The taxonomical documentary research appertains to both tiers of community education and recreation.

(e) Limitations which normally apply to certain instruments of social research will be outlined in Chapter 9.

Chapter 2

WORK LEISURE AND HUMAN NEEDS

The phenomenon of leisure is one which has attracted increasing attention since the advent of the 18th century Industrial Revolution. As a product of industrialisation created by the economic system, leisure has become compartmentalised off the direct influence of work. It is only recently that the situation has arisen of leisure's structural autonomy (Roberts, 1970, 89). 19th and pre-war 20th century society closely allied leisure to work mainly on moral and protestant ethic grounds. This new cultural awareness of leisure has instigated the creation of institutions whose sole concern is the provision of leisure requisites. Other more established institutions such as education have been forced to modify their structures to accommodate the individual's need for leisure. The differentiation of the leisure institution as a discrete structural element is one of the salient characteristics of the role that leisure plays in the life of urban man: it also poses some difficult conceptual, logical, philosophical and logistical questions.

If leisure is free of instrumental obligations it is logically immune to the restraints and regulations of organisation. Unfortunately such a situation can deteriorate into an anarchical state of boredom and escapism challenging the very precepts of democracy. Individuals are thus encouraged by educational and recreational leaders to use their leisure time creatively. Educational and recreational delivery systems overtly strive to encourage the development of the individuals' self-fulfilment and community social solidarity. This presupposes

that values thought to be inherent in certain leisure pursuits may reinforce salient facets of the society's culture. The task of identifying these values is part of the brief imputed to the sociology of leisure as elucidated in Chapter 1.2. Berger (1963, 37) expanding upon this function indicates that a prime objective is to describe the values sought through leisure, the patterns of activity through which they are sought, and the characteristics of the social structure that reinforces or changes them. This task, he goes on to say, is most eeasily performed " . . . under conditions where that behaviour is least constrained by exclusively instrumental considerations" (1963, 37). Within the educational system, the community education and recreation sector can be considered to exert a minimal formative influence as it attempts to integrate with the prevailing social system.

The dissertation's analytical framework has been developed in Chapter 1.2. and Berger's observations may thus provide an additional perspective on the examination of the leisure phenomenon. More importantly, however, they give rise to the main prerequisites of any theoretical or empirical study of leisure and that is its relationship with work and their respective mutually exclusive definitions. The latter of these two issues has been considered in Chapter 1.4. where the necessary operative definitions were delineated but the relationship of work and leisure which does require further examination also includes further considerations of the problems of definition.

2.1. THE WORK LEISURE INTER-RELATIONSHIP

Contributions to this field of study have not been numerous and a theory in the full sociological sense has hardly commenced

development although research emphasizing the social nature of behaviour and relationships is increasing. In reviewing and critically analysing contemporary research of this relationship three major categories of contributions can be identified; the reporting of data on different occupations and the nature of their leisure-time activities; the theoretical study of work and leisure; and the employment of data to formulate or test theories.

2.1.1. Occupations and Leisure. The majority of research in this area concentrates upon what people do rather than the nature of the work-leisure inter-relationship. In taking a comparative look at the leisure lives of managers in Britain and America, Child and Macmillan (1973) concluded that British managers divorce their leisure from work in that their leisure is mainly home based and not related to their work. The American counterpart does not compartmentalise his life so effectively. The American executive has little interest in the humanities or liberal arts and permits the dedication for his job to pervade his whole life.

When researching the Registrar General's manual occupational classes III, IV and V and their recreation activities, Brown et al. (1973), Mott (1973) and Tunstall (1962) found that leisure performs a compensatory function despite the leisure-at-work syndrome which many workers and miners, individual and social compensations and the opportunity to exercise skills which are lacking in the coercive, repetitive and alienating work environment, Etzkorn (1964) discerned the fact that the nature of the job determined the style of recreative camping. The campers whose jobs were routinized preferred the regulated public campground, whereas the campers with creative occupations sought out wilderness sights.

Several studies which have investigated the relationship between occupation and choice of activity conclude that leisure is a function of work. Reissman (1954), British Travel Association (1967), and Sillitoe (1969) generally found in their researches that the higher prestige classes with more stimulating work participated in a greater range of leisure activities than the lower social classes. It is important to differentiate here the executive businessman from the salaried professions. As was pointed out earlier the American executive tends not to distinguish between work and leisure, a situation which Vogel (1963, 21) found prevalent in Japan also where activities such as golf and geisha girls were merely vehicles of business. The salaried professionals, on the other hand, in both Europe and N. America tend, like the British executive, to make a sharp distinction between working and free time.

The advent of short-time working and the three and four day week has tended to bunch free time facilitating greater participation in different types of leisure such as the long weekend in the country-side. The four day forty hour week has also generally stimulated participation in a greater range of recreative activities according to Poor's (1972; 73) and Faunce's (1963, 88) researches.

Thus in the category of purely empirical research on work and leisure it would appear that they are causally related, with leisure a function of occupation. Although this is probably a far too simplistic conclusion, as researchers have concentrated more on the upper than the lower occupational classes, a reasonably clear picture of their inter-dependence emerges.

2.1.2. Theoretical Studies of Wrok and Leisure. The majority of work performed in this category is concerned with definitional considerations, an area already dealt with. However, several writers have sought to trace the ways in which industrialisation has influenced the work-leisure relationship and their findings are frequently in conflict.

Burns (1973) argues that the advent of the industrial revolution in the 18th century irrevocably changed social life outside the work situation. There has, he claims, been no return to pre-industrial attitudes during this era of increased leisure but merely the emergence of an industrialised style of life dependent upon efficient organisation of time. Roberts (1970) puts forward the thesis that Britain is approaching the state of a society of leisure. Not so much in temporal terms but more in terms of the fact that activities undertaken in free time play a significant part in the development of self identity, a concept to be further explored in Chapter 2.2. He is arguing in essence that work is becoming a function of leisure in that the extent of the individual's leisure activities make more difference to the amount of free time he has than his employment does. Bacon (1972), on the other hand would disagree as he feels that the majority of people still structure their lives around work. Leisure is not an autonomous sphere of activity and it can only be legitimately enjoyed in conjunction with the work experience.

Whereas these theoretical insights shed light on the relationship it is the employment of hard data to formulate or test theories and propositions which is most rewarding.

2.1.3. Theory and Fact. It is in this final category of research that the most sociaologically constructive contributions have been made.

Only Blakelock (1961) has attempted explicitly to link empirical investigation in leisure and work with classical sociological theory. He employed Durkheimian propositions regarding mechanical and organic solidarity and attempted to relate them, a little tenuously, with the dearth of active recreation in a shift worker's leisure time. Shuttleworth (1972) evolved a simialr model in inter-relating pre and post-industrial revolution society in Britain with the organization of sporting activities. Within the field of education Bernstein (1971) utilized the Durkheimian theoretical model in proposing more open democratic secondary schools although this was empirically verified. Similarly Dumazedier (1967) has researched a great deal in this area but his theory, being teleological in terms of resource planning, is slightly restricted and does not belong to any classical school.

A significant amount of research has recently been aimed at testing propositions concerning the relative improtance of work and and leisure as central life interests or vocations. Dubin (1956) pioneered this avenue of research concluding that, amongst industrial workers especially, work was not a central life interest. Parker (1972) arrived at similar findings although disagreeing; as does Entwistle (1970) in his plea for more rewarding and fulfilling work, with Dubin's conclusions that we should abandon work and concentrate on improving the compensatory function of free time activities.

Perhaps the most enlightening empirically based theories

developed recently are those of Wilensky (1960, 61-64), Salaman (1971), and Young and Willmott (1973). Parker's (1972) extension, neutrality, and opposition, modified Durmazedier linkage typology of work-leisure relationships was preceded by Wilensky's "compensatory" and "spillover" theories and both of these have been replicated in research projects. Salaman recently found surprising similarities between architects and railwaymen. Both occupations evidenced a high level of work-leisure fusion due, Salaman suggests, to the ability of both sets of personnel to attain self-image or identity within the job. Young and Willmott's study of family, work and leisure in London have perhaps contributed most to knowledge of th socio-demographic determinants of work and leisure patterns. Their observations of the manner in which family obligations can cut across traditional class and occupational determinants have proved immensely valuable in recreation planning and provision. They maintain that the more absorbing the work and varied the leisure interests the more people try to prevent both from undermining family life (1973, 223).

Despite the research effort that has recently been put into various aspects of work and leisure the progress appears diffuse. Theory has frequently diverged from data and work-leisure ideologies seem in many cases to be at variance with the actuality of free time activities. One of the latest examples of this type of theorizing is provided by Thorns (1973) who has developed a typology, not as yet empirically verified as a complete entity although components have been researched by other scholars, which inter-relates the protestant, social and domestic ethics with leisure attitudes and social class. He contends that individuals in jobs that fail to

offer fulfillment, the lower occupational classes, seek compensation in home based leisure activities and the domestic ethic. The older professional entrepreneurial group of workers who are considered as exemplifying the protestant ethic tend to reject the instrumentality of work and compartmentalize their leisure activities off from work. A third group of workers, the new non-manual organisation man, is very much a product of Toffler's (1970) ephemeral society[1]. Dedicated to their organisation their work and leisure overlap and the latter is even channelled into community organised activities, or what Thorns terms the social ethic.

Thorn's style of theorizing suitably concludes the review of research categories as it exemplifies the contention of Parker (1972) that what scholars think happens regarding work and leisure is as significant a variable as what is demonstrably taking place. The point that emerges most forcibly from such a review, in addition to the confirmation of a significant inter-dependence between work and leisure, is the necessity for understanding what these concepts mean to the individual and how they are related to his needs. The manner in which leisure activities enable individuals' needs to be met is an indicator of the potential contribution of community education and recreation to community development.

2.2. SELF-FULFILLMENT THROUGH WORK AND LEISURE

The most critical factor in the consideration of industrial man's social problems is the fulfillment of his physical and psychological needs. These needs may be said to be at the root of such contemporary issues as alienation, abdication of citizenship, the reassertion of individualism, reappraisal of values, the under-

privileged, the youth and adolescent counter-culture or the recreation drop-out (Affleck, 1971). Russell (1935) in his critique of the Protestant work ethic, as expounded by Jonassen (1947), emphasizes the point that in order to avoid alienation from work there must be a reduced emphasis on efficiency in production and on the creation of a surplus with an increased emphasis on consumption in leisure time. Work, therefore, should facilitate man's pursuit of his social and psychological needs not monopolise both his time, attention and effort. Both Friedman (1960) and Matejko (1971) qualify these sentiments by indicating that man has been subtly influenced towards increased consumer commodity consumption with a resultant comparative neglect of his psychological needs. The realisation of this trend by certain groups has led to the emergence of the counter-culture syndrome [2]. An examination of the inter-relationship between work, leisure and human needs is thus relevant.

The concept of human needs is in dispute amongst some sociologists. Cohen (1966) for instance, claims that the concept is fallacious whereas Etzioni (1968) feels that it possesses great utility and validity. However, particularly amongst psychologists, there is a general recognition that man has potentiality and a need for psychological growth. Silverman's (1970) personal construct theory, Allport's (1970) concern for the growth of the whole individual, and Bannister's (1966) emphasis upon human expectations would all seem to bear out this proposition.

Both Herzberg (1968) and Maslow (1968) consider that psychological growth is necessary to satisfy man's need to achieve create and develop his imagination. Herzberg, in his "motivation-hygiene two-factor theory", considers that job satisfaction is closely

allied to self-actualisation as promoted by the motivator factors of achievement, recognition, self-discovery and responsibility. Dissatisfaction with work, which often results in the conpensatory function or alternatively parallel disinterest in leisure, is due he claims to hygienic factors such as salary and general ambient working conditions (House and Wigdor, 1967, 125-6). Maslow's similarly empirically based theory of a hierarchy of human needs ranges from the body's psychological needs at the lowest stratum to self-actualisation at the fifth stratum. The motivator factors of Herzberg may be said to have approximate correspondence with Maslow's highest growth need but they both pose and leave unanswered the basic question as to whether these needs are genetically innate or culturally determined.

The debate is intense, for certain sociologists such as Herzberg (1968) tend to agree with Russell (1935) that certain psychological myths concerning man have been propogated to suit the requirements of industrialised society. Be that as it may, there is " . . . uncertainty surrounding the status of some suggested human needs, man needs to explore, create and develop his imagination to achieve self-realization. Whether such a state can be attained in both the work and leisure situation introduces the question of equivalence.

The prevalence of work centred values in industrialised society gives rise to the issue of the equivalence of work and leisure and whether or not the latter is as an effective vehicle for needs satisfaction. Havinghurst (1961), in equating his previous researches of 1959 and 1954, claims that satisfaction in terms of creativity, self-respect and popularity can be obtained equally through work and leisure activities whilst recognizing the

severe limitations of this equivalence. Both Smith (1973) and Klapp (1969) also concur as to the increasing role of leisure in identity but they similarly warn against the hasty dismissal of work's superordinal position. It would appear, therefore, that it is not theoretically valid to assume its complete inter-changeability with work in this regard in contemporary work centred society:

> . . . in our present type of society some job may well provide satisfactions and serve purposes, other than the provisions of income, some of which are not realisable at all or to the same extent if one has total spare time (Howarth, 1975, 8).

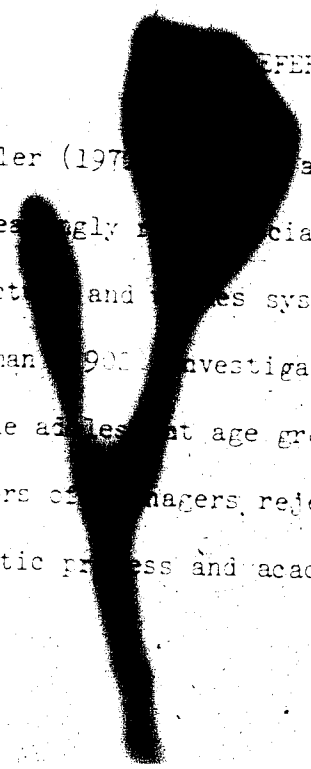
The complex inter-relationship of work and leisure, particularly with regard to the latter's compensatory function in conditions where work is coercive, depersonalising and alienating, has been discussed in Chapter 2.1. The two antithetical views are represented by Parker (1972) and Zwieg (1952), the former believing that dissatisfaction in work is reflected in a similar attitude to leisure and the latter feeling that leisure compensates for work alienation. The fact, however, that satisfactory leisure could in certain circumstances compensate for dull work does have implications for education. It reinforces the case for education for living both in the work and leisure, not solely the former as a discrete entity as tends to be the case despite theoretical statements to the contrary. Education is concerned with the realisation of the total human potential as well as the culturally determined expectations. Both work and leisure are important factors in this process.

The contribution of leisure activities is not confined solely to the provision of resources as both Glasser (1973) and Martin (1960) stress. It is concerned with the individual's role in the process of

community development. This proces is dependent, however, upon an effectively organised education system.

Martin's concern for man's inner capacity and resources for leisure is a salient one with implications for community education. He shares with others the feeling that this inner state of being at leisure has been stunted and remained largely undeveloped in many people due to the restrictions imposed in education, work and leisure. The developments in community education and recreation which tend to be of a broader, less restricted and unstructured nature could prove important in this context and also in participation and active involvement generally.

Education for leisure or for living is the latest rationale denoting education's social function. Many writers have been prompted to suggest that the panacea for the leisure syndrome lies within the scope of the educational system. Thus the belief that the incorporation of a wide range of recreational activities within the curriculum will radically influence the pupil's future life-style can be said to be widely accepted. The utility of an education for leisure programme does not go unchallenged, however. As has already been pointed out, doubts have been cast as to whether or not a leisure age has indeed dawned at all, in addition, the capability, and indeed the desirability, of the educational system ameliorating such a leisure problem has been seriously questioned by many educationalists. The issue is, therfore, problematic.



REFERENCES

1. Toffler (197[illegible] appraisal of contemporary society's increasingly [illegible]cial changes, refers to its social structure and [illegible]es system as "ephemeral".

2. Coleman ([illegible] investigated this phenomenan in the context of the adolescent age group and concluded that significant numbers of teenagers reject adult values associated with athletic prowess and academic achievement.

Chapter 3

EDUCATION RECREATION AND COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT

3.1. EDUCATION WORK AND LEISURE

The issue inter-relating work, leisure and education is not easily resolved. Automation, although eliminating a number of jobs which induce ennui and alienation[1], will not in the foreseeable future usher in an age of leisure. Certain other organistional innovations may also be made to reduce alienation as Wilson (1973) opines but it is fairly certain that the boredom associated with the conveyor belt routine will persist for a considerable period of time. Such working conditions pose the problem of the effects these routines have on leisure pursuits and education syllabi.

It is possible to identify two main schools of thought encompassing both the work-leisure inter-relationship and the function of both vocational and liberal education. Roberts (1970), together with other aforementioned personnel, feels that work and leisure are not causally related and that they can thus be "segmentalized". Although this may not be stated explicitly it is implied in his recommendations for challenging and creative leisure pursuits discrete from other aspects of life. On this context, leisure's function is remidial in that it seeks to compensate for the lack of academic education in the less able child's curriculum and on associated absence of vocational education. An example of such a compensatory function may witnessed be witnessed in the Newsom Report (1963) which seeks to function may be witnessed in the Newsom Report (1963) which seeks to facilitate the under-achiever's fulfillment through

large doses of recreative activities as an antidote to the low status knowledge they otherwise receive[2]. The research project on the problems and policies in "educational priority areas" concedes that this educational attitude has the " . . . obvious danger . . . of creating a second-class education for second-class citizens through curricula restricted to local horizons".(Halsey, 1972, 188).

The antithesis to the segmentalist school of thought is represented in the works of Bernstein (1971), Dumazediet (1967), Friedman (1960), Entwistle (1970) and Parker (1970) all of whom argue that work and leisure are closely inter-related. They do not accept the fact that leisure education's function is to provide remedial distractions for the less academically able. Entwistle points out forcefully that a large proportion of one's life is spent at work and thus efforts to increase self-fulfillment should be made through increased work satisfaction resulting from effective vocational education. The "integrationists"; therefore, believe that both work and leisure are equally vital components of utilitarian vocational education, a view totally opposed to the remedial or compensatory function of recreation.

If the fact that work and leisure are functionally related is to be accepted then an enlightened and relevant vocational education will be reflected, not only in more meaningful work, but also in leisure time activities on recreation. Both Dumazedier (1967) and Friedman (1960) suggest that there is evidence to verify the viewpoint that apathy in work is reflected in unimaginative and unrewarding leisure pursuits. The implications of this fact introduce the debate between the "holists" and the "dualists" with

respect to elite versus low on popular mass culture[3].

Protagonists of the holist camp, as represented by Dumazedier (1966), Friedman (1960), Lowenthal (1960), and Williams (1973), suggest that elitist value judgements encourage the emphasis to be put upon the traditional culture of the arts; literature, music, art and drama, to the virtual exclusion of the popular arts. The world of the mass media and entertainment and the traditional neighbourhood community pastimes or folk culture tend to be disregarded. Quite apart from the deprivational implications and social irrelevancy of this orientation, it would appear from empirical evidence; Mills (1973), Rigby (1974), Emmett (1971) and Leigh (1971), that this undue emphasis upon desirable cultural pursuits is not reflected in post-school life styles. Lowenthall (1960) and Friedman (1960) have also suggested that attempts to redress the balance have led, in certain instances, to leisure education gearing its provision to the demands of ephemeral consumer trends rather than the more stable traditional culture. The expansion of the leisure industries, it has been alleged, has encouraged the concomitant growth of passive spectatorism making individuals inert, lazy and alienated from their own leisure lives (Roberts, 1971, 73). Such a retreat from genuine culture to sham escapist admass tends mainly to " . . . reinforce the individual's subjection to social pressure, his conformism" (Lowenthal, 1960, 54), a view which Reisman (1969, 330) echoes in his plea for inner versus outer directed leisure. The holists argue, therefore, that the most realistic approach to leisure education is to imbue in the students a critical awareness of the values that predominate in their own particular sub-culture and society at large.

Anologists of the dualists school of thought are apitomised by Simpson (1966) and Roberts (1970). Simpson is vehement in his plea that elite mores should be diffused. Although he acknowledges the danger of totally ignoring mass-behaviour patterns he fails to detect intrinsic values in popular and traditional culture. Similarly Roberts' recommended strategy would seem to place emphasis upon elitist values:

> The only effective cure for the problems of anomie which beset the leisure of many members of modern society would be to find some way of equipping the public with a definitive set of values which would be essentially an educational task (1970, 116).

The basic problem in education for work and leisure remains the ethos of the prevailing system. Whereas the virtues of vocational education and holistic leisure education have been demonstrated, society tends to perpetuate both elitist values and non-vocational liberal education. The Recipients of the Newsom Report (1963) low status knowledge are socialised into seeking compensation through an education for leisure programme inconsistent with their vocational or social environmental needs. There is frequent thought given to humanities programmes for the less able, whereas the more able are not seen as having a leisure problem. The latter will be involved in a deferred gratification process of arduous studies leading to a rewarding and satisfying profession[4]. The former, for whom the chances of upward mobility through education have not increased in the last fifty years (Willmott, 1969, 287), tend to be given courses, attitudes and skills which will enable them to accept their prospects of unsatisfying insecure employment by means of limited aspirations (White, 1968).

The innate paradox in the British education system and

society in general is that it is those who pass examinations who get the greatest choice and thus satisfaction whilst a professed precept of education is that it enables each and every individual to exercise choice in his life. This inability, on the part of a significant proportion of the population, to exercise the right choice regarding aspirations in the work situation is replicated in the context of leisure where, as has been demonstrated in Chapter 2.2., the attainment of self-awareness and the need for the development of imagination and human potential is not being adequately realized due to dissonance in the individual-organization interface.

Divorce between work and leisure within the education system in Britain does, it is apparent, exist. It is contended that only when this division ceases and both become complementary can the problem be solved (Durant, 1938). The question of whether it is necessary to lay stress upon preparation for leisure is problematic. Education for leisure cannot be seen in isolation. All aspects of life, particularly the work-leisure inter-relationship. Perhaps, as Entwistle (1970) emphasizes, if the vocational aspects of the individual's job are adequately considered then leisure will look after itself: " . . . deeper problems of leisure, and the culture content of leisure time, can be solved only when leisure and work are easy companions rather than tense opposites" (Mills, 1970, 349).

The synthesis of work and leisure embracing an integrated vocational approach to education implies a continuing education in the context of the community and society at large. The importance

of practicing utilitarian education in a contempory society faced with numerous social problems cannot be overemphasized. The concept of continuing or recurrent education embracing both work and leisure activities at community level coordinated with the primary and secondary levels of formal education is crucial to the effective administration of community education and recreation and basic to the rationale of this dissertation.

3.2. RECURRENT EDUCATION RECREATION AND COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT

When considering the scope and function of recurrent education within the educational system it is appropriate to examine firstly the utilitarian concept upon which it is based. Although the rationale of the dissertation determines that the term "recurrent education" be employed, it is necessary when referring to the prevailing education system to use the terms continuing, further and adult education.

3.2.1. The Concept of Recurrent Education. The aforementioned views on education's social relevancy are reinforced by the philosophy of Freire (1970) who contends that continueing education should be for both liberation and conscientisation and should take place within the milieu of the community unit[5]. The ideas and techniques of Freire regarding adult education are complex but they are very relevant to the issue of education, work, leisure and recreation within the community.

Freire's point of departure is that it is impossible for neutrality to exist in the human praxis and that man must seek to improve his condition through education and subsequent action. He dismisses the traditional academic neutrality of liberal education as

merely "domestic" education whereby the teacher simply transmits knowledge to the students in a static as opposed to a dynamic process. Education for "liberation", on the other hand, has a different espistomology.

The educator whilst conscious of his own limitations is not content merely to transfer facts but seeks to initiate a process. This is reflected in the problem solving and transforming approach. Freire thus prescribes a methodology which enables the student, embracing the full range from illiterate to academic, to comprehend the realities of his own existence. The conscientisation process then precipitates social action to liberate the individual from the social constraints which conpire to inhibit his personal and social development. Freire is referring to the underprivileged elements of the third world countries. However, the concept of education innervating social action and thus community development is basic to community recurrent education.

The pedagogical techniques associated with Freire's epistemology are equally pertinent to community education and recreation. The conscientisation process should take place, he feels, within the realities of the individual's social milieu; the home, school, church or community centre. The process of life. The resultant examination of the constituent elements, structure, function and raison d'etre of these aspects of life, or as Freire terms it, "decodification", will imply a solution which should raise the consciousness of the people.

It is realized that Freire's ideas are essentially "ideal typical" and that they represent one polar type on the educational

continuum. Despite this and the fact that his ideas are essentially oriented to developing countries and South America in particular, there are very valuable pointers to strategies for programmes in remidial community education in urban areas of the developed world. Clinard's (1966) approach is very similar to that of Freire's and it exemplifies the application of the strategy to urban slum areas. It is based to a major extent on the use of group educational processes. Change is expected to develop out of the group's perception of the outside but defined by the group itself. Outside assistance is largely to facilitate the creation of a new type of social organisation in which the group process can take place. Change is to be sought not only in external resources and institutions but also in the identity and self-image of the participants. On the other hand, there is some recognition of the political element, a demand for decentralisation of some governmental functions, and a willingness to undertake conflict to achieve a shift in political power and transfer of resources (Clinard, 1966, 313). The concepts put forward by Friere and his recommended educational process are relevant to recurrent education strategies in modern urban communities when ammended to suit the prevailing social and political systems.

Freire's concept of education for social action and involvement within the community is further developed by Kidd (1971) who identifies six positions on an education-involvement continuum: at one extreme end is the position where education is valued but involvement is negated, the typical ivory tower syndrome; secondly, there are educational programmes which plan for and intend that community action will follow; thirdly, is the insertion of an

education component into a macro planning scheme intended to facilitate training; fourthly, is community action in which education is only a desirable bi-product, the provision of recreation facilities being an example; fifthly, there is community action which overtly precludes education; at the other extreme is the position where action-involvement is valued but education is negated, such a position prevails where anarchists seek to destroy the existing structure of society.

The implementation of positions at the extremes of such continuums is irresponsible but Kidd, as in the case of Freire, identifies the basic tenet that: "Education without action can be sterile and, in the deepest sense, irresponsible. But so can action without education . . . . Action without education can be destructive and tyrannical" (1971, 40).

Pursuant to the examination of the reasons why education should involve social action as a means to individual self awareness and community development it is necessary to review the other side of the equation; the motivation for, and nature of, the individual's participation in recurrent education and social action.

Wedell (1970) reflects sadly that only a small minority of any community are liable to participate. This participating elite, determined largely by the nature of secondary education, comprises a very small minority of what Wedell terms "joiners" (1970, 33). The "non-joiners" constitute the acquiescent majority who are socialised into a state of apathetic acceptance and non-participation in the decision-making process. Education in the community context must not restrict participation but cultivate it, for the essence of participtpion is " . . . more than being active in the concerns of the

community; it is real only if citizens feel that they have a stake in the community, and regard its decisions as theirs rather than those of a small elite" (Wedell, 1970, 38).

The question of what motivates participation and what are the determinants of these motivations, in addition to the type of education as Wedell indicated earlier, has been examined by Houle (1963). Most adults who are engaged in recurrent education regard it, not surprisingly, as an important element in their lives. They all have short term goals which they wish to achieve and they all felt it a significant experience for its own sake. But while they were all basically similar in these respects, Houle found that they varied in terms of their conceptions about the purposes and values of recurrent education. Houle (1963, 15 - 16) classified them into three subgroups, namely: the "goal-oriented" who use education as a means of accomplishing fairly clear-cut objectives; the "activity-oriented" being those who participate because they experience in the activity a meaning which in most cases has no connection with the expressed aims of the course; and "learning-oriented" who seek knowledge for its own sake. Such a classification gives an insight into the type of people Wedell terms "joiners". The motivation for participation of these joiners stems in the main from their educaion on their socio-economic background. Kidd (1971) expands upon Houl's typology by including not only the joiners but also the non-joiners. Such a comprehensive classification is essential if one is to fully appreciate the contribution of the individual through work, leisure, recreation and recurrent education, to social action within the community. But underpinning this whole question of the participation of the individual

in community evolution through the medium of recurrent education is the cardinal principle that:

> . . . citizens of a community ought to have the opportunity, and perhaps have an obligation, to give something back to that community, through responsible community involvement. I know that such service will enlarge them as people and is one cure for the alienation, boredom, and corrosive loneliness which is the sad lot of so many (Kidd, 1971, 37).

Such a benefit only accrues to Wedell's joiners and those embraced by Houle's typology; the individuals who will deeply engage, who have considered their goals, and who have developed an ethic about change. There is a considerable majority of non-joiners fall into six categories: those who are "opting out" such as hippies and those dependent upon drugs and alcohol; those who are "copping out" represented by people who break the law or who cheat and gain unfair advantage from the system by sharp practice; the "free escalator riders" who reap the social benefits of society without deigning to put anything back into it; those who desire "swift radical change" by means of confrontation and radical action but whose engagement is only transitory; those who are "alienated from society" and who only rarely contribute any constructive input; and finally the "system smashers" who obtain gratification through destruction not constructive evolution (1971, 38 - 39).

Although these categories do not lack validity it would be unjust to condemn out of hand such relatively significant elements of society as disfunctional. Miller (1964) is aware of this fact and of the conditions which are conductive to greater participation. The potential participants must be adequately motivated to change their to change their behaviour patterns, the rewards must be manifest. They must also be aware of their behaviour inadequacies, what type of

behaviour is required of them and also possess the opportunity to practice such behaviour. Additionally, the physical resources must necessarily be available in conjunction with a reinforcement system to promote further continued participation.

Recurrent education, as an important element in education for work and leisure, has been shown to be a function both of the needs of the individual and in his community. Participation in recurrent education as a precursor to constructive action has been demonstrated to be a desirable but problematic phenomenon. The instrumental function of leisure as manifest in recurrent community education and recreation is acknowledged as it is felt that the needs of both the community and the individual can be fulfilled in this manner. "There has to be found or created a community with common interests, whose members can find satisfaction in being together and can take action to improve, develop and adapt their environment" (H.M.S.A., 1967, 36).

3.2.2. Recurrent Education and Community Development. The goals, aims and contest of recurrent education in respect of both the individual's and the community's needs in the developed contries' urban areas are concisely encapsualted in the declaration of the 2nd Montreal World Conference on Adult Education which stated:

> In the developed countries the need for vocational and technical training is increasingly accepted, but that is not enough. Healthy societies are composed of men and women, not of animated robots, and there is a danger, particularly in the developed countries, that the education of adults may get out of balance by emphasizing too much vocational needs and technical skills. Man is a many-sided being, with many needs. They must not be met piecemeal and in adult education programmes they must all be reflected (UNESCO, 1963, 11).

The 1960 1st World Conference on Adult Education in Montreal went further in indicating the specific brief for adult education.

It made mention of the fact that in addition to preserving the traditional as opposed to exclusively elitist culture, people must be encouraged to understand and promote change. It is through a continuing education that the adult becomes able to equip himself and herself to play as full a part as they might wish in social and civic life. Every adult, therefore, " . . . should have the opportunity of discovering how he or she can most satisfactorily and recreatively use his or her leisure" (Okeem, 1974, 51). The common ground interrelating recurrent education, work, leisure and recreation, social action, and individual and community development needs become increasingly more tangible when Lovett, the W.E.A. organising tutor for the E.P.A. Project, provides a cogent argument for coordinating these apparently disparate issues:

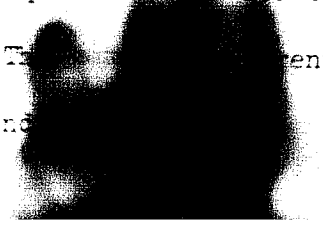
> . . . adult education must be seen not simply as classes and discussions for the adult members of the community, but rather as an integral part of a whole series of activities - sponsored by government, the local authority, voluntary agencies, churches, resident groups - which are community based and concerned with the total community (1971, 56).

He goes on to outline the major functions of adult education and the methods by which it might operate within the community unit. These include: a liaison with and resource in community development; an aid to parents and schools; a forum for discussing and resolving moral, social and personal problems; a counselling service for individuals and groups; and perhaps the most improtant for the purposes of this dissertation, as an extension of recreation and entertainment.

From the foregoing arguments it follows that education for leisure and recreation in the community embraces recurrent education; including primary, secondary, adult and further education, and that it

is a means to an end, a change in behaviour leading to overal development both of the individuals and of their environment, the community.

The concept of development is a critical one including as it does both that of the individual and of society. The two are by no means synonymous and the importance of fulfilling the individual's needs through the mediums of work, leisure and education have already been examined. But adult education has the potential to contribute to a strategy for community development as has been demonstrated and it must not be constrained, therefore, by the physical limits of its institutions. There must be a recognition, as both Kramer (1970) and Perlman and Gurin (1972) emphasize, by personnel engaged in this area that their sphere of influence infringes upon teachers, community development officers, social workers, librarians, recreation specialists, the mass media, union and management, local government and numerous other agencies within the community. Collaboration between these allies within the general field of community education and recreation can perhaps be cemented by a common commitment to the continued development of the community. A manifest aknowledgement that the common function is the personal development of the individual within the community which in its most utilitarian form aids " . . . society to determine its end, brings about a maximum re-adjustment of attitudes within society to any new and changed situation in the shortest possible time and which evolves and imparts the new skills and techniques required for the change" (Prosser, 1970, 52).



ent paradox existing in this situation between ind a need for self determination over and

against the good of the community has taxed statesmen throughout history. The nation state and democratic socialism has provided an equation that is largely viable. Civic freedom in all that concerns the individual combined with discipline in all that concerns the community has been generally considered a sensible strategy for statecraft. "The claims of the individual must always be defined and limited so as to fit into the complex and balanced pattern of the welfare of the community" (Marshall, 1970, 316). In recent times, however, this stability has been under stress due to " . . . the inability . . . to harmonize the large scale units which offer economics of scale with the smallscale units which allow for popular identity" (Midwinter, 1973, 49).

A solution to this dilemma may lie in the interposing of the community between the state and the individual. In this way it might perhaps perform some of the functions of local government more efficaciously. The inter-departmental power-struggle within local government has tended to inhibit its empathy with grass-roots needs with the result that there has been a loss of credibility in the ability of the state and its executive institutions to represent the will of the people. The concept of community development implying reciprocity of social relationships and mutual aid is not a new concept. The corporate ideal, whereby groups of similarly disposed men live communally for their shared and unified benefit, is common throughout history. Attempts at community governance can be witnessed in the Anglo-Saxon tythings and shire-reeves of medieval times; the laissez-faire trade reaction to state social and economic policies in 19th century England; the scientific socialism of Marx and Engels

which attempted ironically to counteract the omnicompetent state; and the 1871 Paris Commune. With varying degrees of success the numerous variations of the community unit have been seen as a mediator between the state and the individual. The problem of eliciting and meeting the individual's needs and the interface of the two systems of the individual and society examined in Chapter 2.2. indicate the necessity of the community representing the individual validity in a confrontation with the state.

There would seem to be an indication that the state provides and the community decides. An ideal model of the system would include the state, through its various departments and agencies from national to local level, providing the services, goods, personnel and facility resources. The community as a corporate body would then deliberate upon, formulate and execute policy. Thus within a national and required frame of reference the community would have the capability of deciding its own priorities, a tenet to be held in high regard in the management of the community school also. Although as will be demonstrated later in the analysis of a functioning community school, such a devolution of power and authority is not always efficacious. However, no organisation whose function is to serve its clients can claim efficiency unless it frequently engages them in a continuous process of feed back. The basic principle is that " . . . the state has a contracting role and the community a deciding role, this would be as close as possible to s solving the age old issue of effieciency versus democracy" (Midwinter, 19 1973, 50).

The times are propitious enough and the structure of local government is for a limited time sufficiently flexible to enable

the establishment of a constructive community input within the context of a federal structure of communities. But firstly, varying scales of reference are needed such as the national, regional or local coordination of services where decisions are taken by autonomous communities or federated combinations thereof. And secondly, a comprehensive and complex mesh of communities or associations has to develop within the process of community development, subject to the dictates of the geographical, historical and socio-economic milieu and serviced by a horizontal stratum of ancillary services such as social services, education, and recreation. In this way the development of community social solidarity can amiliorate the strain between administrative practice and social reality. In the process a counterbalance to technological and bureaucratic centralised power is produced by enabling the community to participate directly in the political process (Ellul, 1967).

The implications of these specifications for the community's role in social solidarity can now be extended to re-establish the link with recurrent community education and recreation. The confrontation of the individual with other community participants is of the utmost importance. It is part of the continuous learning process to exist, behave and think in the context of community. The entire human environment, including the urban milieu, is a full hierarchy of learning strata for the attainment of this goal. Learning is integral to the process of growing, participating and thus changing the community for, as the Skeffington Report (1969) recommends, participation must be informed and instructive. If the citizen's needs are to be fully realized participation must be worthwhile and this is dependent,

according to the report, upon children being educated in all aspects of community life. An important pre-condition to the successful achievement of this aim is that places within the physical environment must invite participation (Chermayeff and Tzonis, 1971, 157).

The Greek Agora meeting place which accommodated conversation, listening, participation in public debate and performance, and most important of all contact and activity, is an ideal prototype. The process of learning involving as it does, observation, participation and finally invention may be extended into maturity for the greater enjoyment of leisure as a natural extension of learning within such a physical environment. But this process necessitates both environmental conditioning, in the form of exploration, observation, discovery and creative action, and the complementary techniques of instruction, information and systematic research. These two facets cannot and should not be segregated either pedagogically or by physical resources:

> That part of the growth and change of man which is stimulated by his moving through the designed part of the environment must not be separated from intellectual adventures found in knowledge. It is not a matter of display of objects before "public view" (a fashionable attitude) but of access to places, which must involve the child, the adolescent, the adult and the elderly in regular encounters (Chermayoff and Tzonis, 1971, 159).

The process of education both for work and leisure within all sectors of the educational system is to a significant extent frustrated, therefore, by a dearth of provision of facilities for public social concourse. Decision-making is overtly encouraged by the state but the process of participation, the fulfillment of individual and community needs, is inhibited by a lack of resources and administrative systems. The physical conditions of urban areas provide provlems not

only of a basically soluble technological nature but also of a socio-psychological type the answers to which lie not solely within formal education or the improvement of social conditions but in the provision of learning places. The problem may be succinctly described as the maximisation of indivdual and communal advantage as complementary drives (Cherry, 1966).

Recurrent and formal community education and recreation for work and leisure, leading to social change and the community and individual development can take place most advantageously, therefore, within the physical environment of the community school and college.

3.2.3. The Basic Functions of Recurrent Education in Community Education and Recreation. In view of present -day technological, professional and occupational changes, new demands are falling upon the total education system. Accelerated social changes and the difficulties confronting the individual in the assimilation of the vast scientific and technological knowledge output cannot be accommodated within the limited scope of the formal education system. Contemporary trends in consumer consumption and living standards, high social mobility, rural urban drift, job redundancy and retraining, the development of qualifications and education attending economic social and technological specialisation, all greatly affect human needs and aspirations. The need for lifelong recurrent education is patently palpable and of specific importance for the individual's physical and mental development, for their increase in professional knowledge, skil and thus opportunity, their ability to participate in community development, their creative abilities and also their awareness of and concern for social values.

The prevailing situation of haphazard methods of provision for general and specific qualificaions and for leisure time activities, in conjunction with the formal education system failing to satisfy growing needs, gives rise to the need for a coordinated system of recurrent and community educution constituted as a:

> . . . universal social instrument for the harmonic development of the personality and all its creative abilities, and of the regulation of work qualifications of all members of society and the cultivation of their special-interest activities in leisure time (E.C.L.E. 1972).

The basic functions of recurrent education within the community education and recreation sector of the educational system with respect firstly to work are fivefold: compensatory; adaptional; specialisational; requalificational and conversional (E.C.L.E., 1972, 18-21).

The compensatory function refers to those individuals who require social advancement but who, due to their mature age, are ineligible for formal school education. The objective is to provide bpportunity for such people to become vocationally qualified thus providing them with access to higher education and more satisfying work. The total integration of the public ideally within the community college or a less desirable duplication of courses at a separate institution of further education is necessary to facilitate this service.

The adaptional function is less specific than the compensatory function relating as it does to the whole cross-section of occupations. It is also essentially short term in that its intention is to provide recently trained personnel with supplementary instruction in the often traumatic theory to practice transition. Infield experience at community level in a face to face situation

with future clients is essential in the generation of societal accountability.

The increasing differentiation of technological society results in the need for greater specialisation, a higher degree of professionalism and an intensification of a professional body of knowledge. Such a process would normally take place after comprehensive grounding in the macro aspects of an occupation. It would also necessitate the provision, in many cases, of educational institutions with superior resources to community schools and colleges. This function is closely allied to the requalificational function[6] whose aim is to update and revitalise, by means of refresher courses, stultified patterns of thinking. A significant proportion of both these functions could be expedited, subject to available resources, at community level where the likelihood of high attendance is greater than that at a centralised institution.

As a result of increased social mobility and continual economic reorganisation the need for retraining or conversional courses is increasing. Job redundancy particularly amongst the semi and unskilled workforce could be counteracted most effectively at grass roots community level by these two methods.

It is only the compensatory function which eventually embraces a complete cross-section of vocations, occupations and professional fields. Thus, whereas this function articulates well with the existing schools' examination hierarchies and can therefore be serviced adequately by the community college or school, the remaining four functions require a substantial input and cooperation from professional organisations, private enterprise

and employers due to the specialised and discrete nature of their affairs. All five functions of recurrent education with respect to work articulate fully with community education organisation. Because the nature of recurrent education and recreation usage proves to be essentially local, as will be shown in the ensuing section, it is not unrealistic to predict a significantly higher attendance at a community college than at a centralised institution with a large catchment area. Thus, providing the organisation and management of community education and recreation are designed to cater for these requirement characteristics, the five functions represent a comprehensive range of opportunities providing for a full articulation of the educational system with the community's needs.

Although the compensatory function necessitates the community being serviced within the existing secondary education structure and examination system thus depriving them of a genuine participatory role in course organisation, the remaining four functions require full participation by organisations and individuals in the community in the planning, organisation, management and teaching of courses thus fulfulling the salient criterion of Fabian's (1974) community education and recreation delineated in Chapter 1.4.

The functions of recurrent education with respect to leisure or non-subsistence activities are dertermined more by the contextural orientation of the courses and activities than the organisation of the educational system and its community environment as tends to be the case with the work spehere. From this standpoint five developmental functions in recurrent education for leisure can be identified:

socio-civic-political; cultural; physical recreational; social solidary; and personal interest.

In order to enable individuals to participate fully in civic and community affairs they must be cognizant of the social and political reality of their community and society at large. Such a service entails the opportunity to take an active role in grass roots community action groups, political and trade union organisations, religious and social service organisations, as well as enabling people to avail themselves of purely informative community resource services.

Cultural development engenders the elite versus popular culture controversy reviewed in Chapter 3.1. The point at issue is not, however, the relative merits of the course content orientation but that there should be available the opportunity for every individual to partake in creative and aesthetic activities irrespective of their educational or professional improvement potential. The total spectrum of both liberal and vocational education and elite and popular culture should be available in conjunction with a facility for periodic requalification and recurrent education.

The concept of the harmonic development of mind and body through the medium of physical recreation is one that has aroused considerable controversy, particularly amongst physical educators. The legacy of Platonic metaphysical dualism has been largely responsible for the schizmatisation of physical education and sport from the more exclusively intellectural pursuits[7]. "Plato, as the progenitor of metaphysical dualism is the symbol of the betrayal of the body in Western culture" (Fairs, 1971, 22). The contemporary

trend towards an introspective academic approach to physical education in an attempt to validate the "naturalistic" approach and withstand vigorous academic analysis is perhaps in many instances " . . . impossible for it would mean convincing those primarily concerned with knowledge that action is just as important" (Innes, 1973, 28). The common weakness in the arguments of apologists seeking to justify physical activity is the fact that the activities are used for extrinsic educational ends. The most meaningful rationale with respect to the provision of a range of physical activities for community consumption, quite apart form the manifest value of physical health and fitness, is the aesthetic. Numerous writers propound the merits of this approach, Adams (1969), Carlisle (1969), Anthony (1968) and Phenix (1964) being but four of a significantly large school of thought. The key concept in the aesthetic account, and one that adequately justifies the inclusion of physical recreation in community programmes, is that it offers opportunities for the development, in a range of physical environments and contexts, of skill and ingenuity for its own sake. The central focus, therefore, in physical activities is upon the quality of movements involved in the activities. For the purpose of community education and recreation provision, physical recreation might be defined as:

> . . . that part of general and aesthetic education, in which knowledge, understanding and the exercise and appreciation of skill is focused on a range of pleasurable activities which depend on the body as an essential part of the medium and object of action (Carlisle, 1969, 20).

The importance of social interaction and inter-personal face to face relations cannot be overemphasized in the generation of

community social solidarity and the counteraction of general social malaise. The provision of an environment conducive to this process may help resolve the problems of loneliness, retirement ennui, inter-generational conflict, marital instability, parenthood, vocational guidance, unemployment and numerous other social ills. It is not being suggested that the mere provision of facilities and courses to include the various segments of the community's population associated with these problems are a panacea for the urban malaise syndrome. But the implementation of the appropriate management structure in conjunction with these resources is a significant advance towards facilitating social rehabilitation and community social solidarity.

The sphere of special interest clubs and the institutionalised provision of hobbies and mutual interest groups is receiving increased attention from the planners and designers of community schools and colleges. Provision of resources where self-organised groups may pursue their particular activity, thereby acquiring knowledge, skills and creativity as a compensation in certain cases for alienating work, is an essential facility in any community centre.

Participation by the community in this range of work and leisure oriented recurrent education activity provision requires not only a personal decision and contextual choice on the part of the individual but an educational system capable of accommodating these individual and community needs. Motivation for participation stems from the individual's life situation, the work, home and leisure environment and educational status as discussed in Chapter 2.1., but in order to allow these features of recurrent education and recreation

to be developed the educational system needs to be rationalised:

> . . . it is necessary to gradually build such institutions whose statutory pattern, organisational structure and personnel, correspond to their educational purpose. These institutions, in connection with development to date, must create a professional basis, a pedagogical framework for educating an individual as an adult . . . . Only such crystalizational cores of a new link in the educational system can do away with amateurism, anti-methodical and cultural poverty of a good percentage of activities conducted to date in the field of cultural-educational work (E.C.I.E., 1972, 25).

The interchangeability of terms such as W.E.A., adult, further, continuous and recurrent education has, up until this point in the dissertation, been practiced subject to the specific definition of recurrent education. In discussing the structure of primary, secondary and recurrent education in England and Wales, however, such licence would result in inaccuracies as each term evokes interpretations which are reflected in the structure of the education system. It is these very interpretations and associated value judgements which result in a structure and adequacy of provision which inhibits rather than promotes certain categories of activities (N.I.A.E., 1970, 10-11). The exact delimitations of these terms as they apply to this dissertation are included in Chapter 1.4. but the employment of the ubiquitous term vocational would seem to merit elucidation impinging as it does upon all terms, including those of work and leisure in the foregoing section on recurrent education's basic function, and consequently upon the configuration of educational provision. The structure and specific scope of this provision will be outlined in Chapter 6.2.3. and the adequacy of its contribution to community education and recreation in Chapter 6.4.

In the widest sense the omnibus term recurrent education

refers to all post secondary education excluding higher education in the universities. The term has been coined to replace the more commonly employed terms of adult or continuous education as these have recently been considered to imply that one must be constantly engaged in some educational course rather than being able to participate in one when the need arises (C.E.R.I., 1973). Within this provision are included both vocational courses, in the sense that they are work oriented and designed to enhance professional competence culminating in the acquisition of a recognised award, and non-vocational courses, in so far as they are deemed to be purely recreational, non-utilitarian liberal studies of intrinsic merit. This vocational - non-vocational differentiation has been found already to be to a large extent fallacious (Houle, 1963) due to the difficulty of ascertaining the true motivation for people's participation. The reasoning determining this classification does not take into consideration the multitude of motivations inspiring people to partake in recurrent education. They may wish to understand themselves and their world better to give greater direction to their subsequent social actions or they may merely wish to develop skills and talents in the intellectual, physical, aesthetic, or practical sphere. Many find satisfaction in mere attendance at classes, enrolling in radio or television courses, or simply sharing in common pursuits with like-minded people. Thus any differentiation is based upon extremely tenuous relationships between work, leisure and recurrent education as is illustrated by the following statement:

> Such a distinction is not wholly true to the facts, because one man's work is another man's pleasure and vice versa and there is more to work than job performance requiring various levels of trained ability. The satisfactions

> and frustrations of work and the social consequence of living a large part of life in a community of work flow over into and condition the use of the non-working hours that we call leisure time - time available in the truest sense for re-creation . . . . Its distinguishing marks are personal decision-making and voluntary participation in leisure-time pursuits and preparation for social action, some of which may be in the working field (N.I.A.E., 1970, 10).

Despite this, the fact remains that for practical purposes of reality the vocational and non-vocational criterion is employed to categorise activities and courses as either "work-related" or "personal and social" respectively. These then become officially designated as "further education" and "evening institutes" or E.I. classes. Further education vocational courses are consequently segregated in separate institutions specialising mainly in commercial or industrial development whereas the non-vocational courses have gravitated to extra-curricular times in the schools.

There is clearly a danger in engaging in a circular argument involving inter-dependent terms none of which has a fixed definitive value. But the situation with regard to the adequacy of provision and the subsequent fulfillment of individual and community needs is determined by the manner in which community education and recreation is organised and the concept of community implemented. Thus although assumptions about culture, education and recreation are changing considerably affected by research, technology and socio-economic development, provision has to be made for educational and recreative activities based upon terms and categories rationally geared to manifest and latent personal and communal needs. The facilities and resources through which the provision is to be made; accommodation, staff, finance and publicity and their organisation and management; have consequently to be both appropriate, adequate and flexible.

The inter-relationships between education, work, leisure and community development have been examined. The holistic perspective of work, leisure and education predetermining an integrated formal and recurrent community education and recreation process designed to promote individual self-awareness, social action and community development incorporating both vocational and non-vocational activities, has been propounded as the basic rationale for the organisation of community education and recreation.

REFERENCES

1. Both Roberts (1970) and Entwistle (1970) devote considerable space to the consideration of the boredom and disinterest experienced by assembly-line workers. They do not anticipate that automation will significantly alter this situation before the end of the century.

2. Basini (1973) suggests that the Newsom Report (1963) ascribes the academically less able pupils to a leisure oriented syllabus thereby denying them access to careers of high status which require academic qualifications.

3. There exists considerable disagreement amongst educationists who propound the virtues of either high classical and minority culture, or mass popular culture associated with the lower socio-economic groups.

4. The custom of deferred gratification is associated with the white collar worker who is willing to sacrifice immediate material comforts for future job satisfaction through the process of ardu[illegible] professional preparation.

5. Freire (1[illegible]) in his work in the South American third world employs the term "conscientisation" to the process whereby the community [illegible] where through community education of their own reality in terms [illegible] reality of their social existence.

6. At the present time in England and Wales there is an increasing demand for the retraining of large sections of the work-force due to a large-scale reorientation of industry. The community education unit is [illegible] this re-qualificational [illegible] through the [illegible] of the community college's resources.

7. Fairs' (1971) thesis is that the intellectual orientation of Western culture towards physical education and the body emanates from two opposing Greek concepts of physical culture. The "naturalistic" viewpoint perceived an equanimity of spiritual, intellectual and physical values in man, whereas the "antinoturalistic" concept perceived the body and physical education as a servant of the intellectual process.

Chapter 4

RECREATION COMMUNITY SOCIAL SOLIDARITY AND URBAN MALAISE

4.1. RECREATION WITHIN THE COMMUNITY

A consideration of the terms "recreation" and "leisure" involves an intensive semantic critique which is not entirely relevant to the dissertation. The rationale underpinning the organisation of community education and recreation has not been subject to any differentiation between the two terms. Thus, up until this point in the dissertation the two terms have been considered mutually interchangeable. It is henceforth, however, intended to employ the term "recreation" as it is the one more widely accepted in the pragmatic field of planning and management of leisure time activities. Numerous scholars have applied themselves to the task of adequately defining recreation. Kaplan (1960), Giddens (1964), Glasser (1973) and Kelly (1972) have made scholarly but esoteric examinations of the terms which tend to make few practical suggestions that could be applied to the parameters of resource planning and provision. Indeed, Glass (1954, 4) is highly critical of the manner in which the supply-demand recreation planning approach identifies itself with leisure whilst basing its position upon education ensuring the useful employment of leisure time. Patmore (1974) amply illustrates this normative orientation of recreation: "The pedantic rightly draw a clear distinction between leisure as such - left--over time - and recreation, the active, constructive use of leisure" (1974, 3). The most objective

interpretation of recreation embraces the concept of activities as "spheres of action" both active and passive, as conceived by Rapoport, Rapoport and Strelitz (1975,34), for which provision has to be made at both home and at community level. Unfortunately recreation is often considered synonymous with physical recreation which is but one facet of the spectrum of activities embraced by recreation.

Thus although it is intended to refer to recreation in the context of resource planning and provision any transient departure from this term is not of any great significance. It might be noted that Levy (1974,548) in his proposition of an applied intersystem congruence model deems it counterproductive to differentiate unnecessarily between such emotive terms as play, leisure and recreation. It is a standpoint shared by this dissertation.

4.1.1. Trends in Society and Recreation. The purpose of the ensuing section is to review the nature of recreation in England and Wales and identify political and socio-economic trends and characteristics which will assist in the formulation of a meaningful policy for community education and recreation. The specific characteristics of the management and usage of dual provision centres will be reviewed in Chapter 6.4.

Taking a broad historical perspective it is hard to deny that, since the early industrial revolution era of the late 18th century, there has been a growth in leisure time and recreation. For the employed population, hours of work have steadily declined,

the child-rearing time span has been reduced, relative financial status of low-income groups has improved, and childhood, adolescence and retirement have become institutionalised periods of life free from work. The social structure of Britain, the patterns of social life and the general socio-demographic determinants of recreation have received increasing attention from recreation planners in the last decade.

The British occupational structure has not shifted as radically since 1945, from unskilled and manual to skilled, clerical and professional respectively, as is commonly thought. In fact as Routh (1965) shows, trends in occupational mobility have been much less marked than those in the economy where the increase in the female labour force and the movement from agriculture, mining and manufacturing to light industries and services has been quite marked. Although there has been a proportionate increase in the percentage of scientists and technologists the belief that a radical transformation of structure due to the technological revolution is taking place should be regarded with some caution (Bell, 1967,676). A parallel assumption that inter-class and occupational strata mobility is dramatically increasing deserves also to be treated with scepticism. The work of Glass indicates little inter-generational mobility and a rather high stability over the first half of this century (1954,188). Blau and Duncan's (1967) work in America would seem to confirm this diagnosis. The position in Britain with regard to occupational trends appears to be that of fairly high stability: "With occupational mobility, as with the broad occupational structure, the main impression is therefore that society has changed less than is commonly supposed" (Willmott, 1969,287).

Despite radical changes since 1944 the educational scene is similar. Although the numbers in full-time education have trebled in the last twenty years, doubled in the last ten years, and are expected to increase by 19% in the next twenty years (Leicester, 1972,7) the Robbins Report (1963,54) indicates that the proportion of children from manual homes entering university rose only 1.2% in the period 1930 to 1960 and there is little to indicate radical changes in the near future. The divisions of social class with regard to personal wealth are similarly formidable. Both Meade (1964) and Sampson (1971) suggest that the distribution of total wealth evidences little radical change over recent years: "It is in the distribution of capital that the inequalities of Britain are glaring - more glaring, for instance, than in the United States" (Sampson, 1971,207), Hughes would reinforce this opinion: " . . . although some measures have aided particular low-income groups, the main drive of the system towards inequality has been heavily reinforced" (1968,10).

This may perhaps be only one side of the social picture in Britain. The apparent divergence of the social strata may have been counterbalanced by a convergence of life styles of taste and consumption. Runciman (1966,118) concludes that social prestige and general deference are diminishing, characteristically through civil rights in the 18th century, political rights in the 19th century, and social rights in the 20th century. This exemplifies the paradox in the social class structure of British society whereby although all classes will increase in wealth, the share of wealth is unlikely to change fundamentally and with an increasing

governmental emphasis upon economic growth the pressures towards economic equality are likely to continue.

Superimposed upon this general structural configuration are a series of emergent trends all of which infringe upon recreation at community level. The trend in private consumer spending since the turn of the century has been for it to occupy an increasing proportion of the Gross National Product due to both real and disposable incomes having risen during this period particularly since 1945. During the period 1951 to 1969 the total consumption growth rate has risen by 2.6% per annum of which the purchase of durable goods such as cars, the running costs of motor vehicles and the acquisition of miscellaneous recreational goods constitute the major increase. It is considered that the budget shares of consumer expenditure will continue to be dominated, however, by convenience goods such as food and by housing (Leicester, 1972, 21-23).

It would seem that on past evidence it is not an oversimplification to apply Tocqueville's dictum that what the few have today, the many will demand tomorrow. In fact this is the rationale adopted by Dumazedier (1967) for recreation facilities planning in France.

The process of diffusion appears to be cumulative in so far as the convergence of life styles referred to earlier is a function of a homogeneity in consumer spending behaviour which evidences the acquisition of a whole series of material possessions leading to changes in behaviour. Thus the working-class individual who purchases a house in a middle-class suburb together with other ancillary possessions is likely to acquire, amongst other things, a middle-class recreational style (Thorns, 1973,134). The "global

village" syndrome envisaged by McLuhan (1965) would seem to be becoming an actuality threatening the cultural pluralism ethic cherished in many nations: " . . . the general trend is clearly towards a broad homogeneity, over the great majority of the population, in consumption patterns and in social behaviour" (Willmott, 1969, 291).

The association between social class and recreational life styles has already been reviewed in depth in Chapter 2.1.1. and it is not necessary to reiterate the points already made. Suffice it to say that despite the increasing homogeneity of life styles, including the cross-class diffusion of certain recreative patterns, the recent studies of Thorns (1973) and Davies (1974) indicate the tendency, amongst middle and working class residents in heterogeneous communities, to lay emphasis upon small social characteristics that differentiate them from their neighbours. It is clear, therefore, that diffusion is more likely to occur in the consumer environment outside the work situation whereas divergence prevails where basic values are linked to political and class loyalties (Willmott and Young, 1960, 122). The limits to class merging have been noted and are obviously substantial despite the bourgeoisification of the working class. The sub-culture of poverty syndrome is likely to persist due to the poorest 10-25% of the income distribution curve becoming locked in the cycle of social and economic deprivation.

There have also been some equally important changes in patterns of behaviour, one of the most dramatic of which has been the shift from the extended consanguine family with its extended kinship structure to the conjugal nuclear highly mobile contemporary

family unit. This pattern is beginning to permeate the lower socio-economic strata and is having profound effects upon community structure and associated life styles (Rapoport, Rapoport and Strelitz, 1975). Marriage too is undergoing a transition in so far as it is lasting longer. The Registrar General's Statistical Reviews for 1964 (1967) indicate that the life cycle of marriage is increasing as people marry earlier; 58% of women in 1961 were married by 24 years of age as opposed to 27% in 1921; and live longer. Marriage is also being transformed in terms of the partnership's division of labour and respective roles. The dual-career marriage and trend towards partnership in social life is making a big impact economically in terms of the female labour force; the proportion of working married women is expected to rise by 15% in the next decade (Leicester, 1972,7); and socially in respect of parallel or shared recreation activities (Rapoport and Rapoport, 1969). These trends are paradoxically tending to reinforce marriage in so far as the "domestic ethic" centred on the home and garden is growing:

> . . . the next 30 years or so are likely to see an ever growing demand for an increasing number of families for separate spacious homes with gardens and for the lives that go with them. The suburban way of life may be expected to spread to more sections of the population (Willmott, 1969,296).

Yet another behaviour pattern affecting the family is the reduction in working class family size and the increasing number of children in middle class homes. Although this will not in the near future affect greatly patterns of social interaction it could eventually offset the demand for individual recreations associated with middle and upper income groups.

The foregoing social changes are associated with the increase in leisure time. As was pointed out in Chapter 2.1.1. the standard working week has fallen from the [illegible] hours that followed the 10 hour day of the 1840's to the 40 hours of today. The fall in actual working hours has, due to overtime and second jobs, been much less marked, 43 hours per week was the average in 1972 (Leicester, 1972,32). Indeed, Hinder (1970) suggests there is an incipient anti-leisure trend amongst the professional classes due to increasing efficiency and productivity in work and also leisure resulting from the increasing scarcity of time. These apart, the general long term trend, also taking into account the increases in time spent on education and in retirement or recurrent education, is for the proportion of total time spent at work to continue to decline. This reduction will take the form of longer annual holidays, a shorter working week or shorter hours per day. Both Leicester (1972) and Poor (1972) believe that the emphasis will be on the first two rather than the last. Thus the 40 hour week will take the form of four 10 hour days as opposed to five 8 hour days and it will be accompanied by a 47 weeks year with five weeks of holidays (Leicester, 1972,39). The advent of the four day 40 hour week has already had a great impact on recreation patterns in those firms where it has been introduced. Faunce (1963) predicted that increased automation and shorter working hours would innervate workers into seeking more creative and active recreative activities. Poor's (1972,68-76) researches tend to confirm this prediction in so far as there was a significant increase in creative hobbies, family based activities, travel to countryside recreation, spectator sports attendance, adult education classes and

and general passive leisure such as lounging around the house and television viewing, following the introduction of a four day 40 hour week. Poor's conclusions, however, would not find favour with educationists propounding as they do the virtues of the compensatory function of leisure in a climate of work alienation:

> Many workers may have turned to leisure activities to justify their existence to their significant others. . . . On his free time activities, the workingman is accepted as he is, something he rarely experiences on his job. No longer is he a cog. He has become a wheel. He is important to himself and to the others to whom he desires to be important. In short, it is in his leisure that he may find salvation. . . . Our society is wealthy enough to permit an emerging leisure ethic to replace the declining Protestant Work Ethic for the so-called workingman, center of the new leisure class (1972,7).

This section has suggested that, although the social structure remains relatively unchanged in terms of its basic social classes and the relative distribution of wealth and opportunities, there is a convergent trend towards homogeneity in consumer patterns. Middle-class tastes and recreative patterns are diffusing in conjunction with increased travel, home-centredness, dual-career marriage, longer hours of leisure and increased opportunities for education. This will lead in the opinion of Gans (1967) to the development of mutual interest communities as opposed to the more traditional organic communities favoured by Packard (1962).

Alongside these changes in British society, shifts in attitude towards leisure have occurred. As a product of industrialisation created by the economic system, leisure has become compartmentalised off the direct influence of work and it is only recently as Roberts points out, that the situation has arisen of leisure's structural autonomy (1970,89). From the 19th century emphasis upon character-training and self-discipline through leisure

has progressed to the "fun ethic" where the principle of public support for the arts, countryside recreation and sport to simply allow people to enjoy themselves is scarcely controversial. Associated with this change in attitude and against the backcloth of social trends already discussed is a dramatic upsurge in participation in a whole range of creative activities.

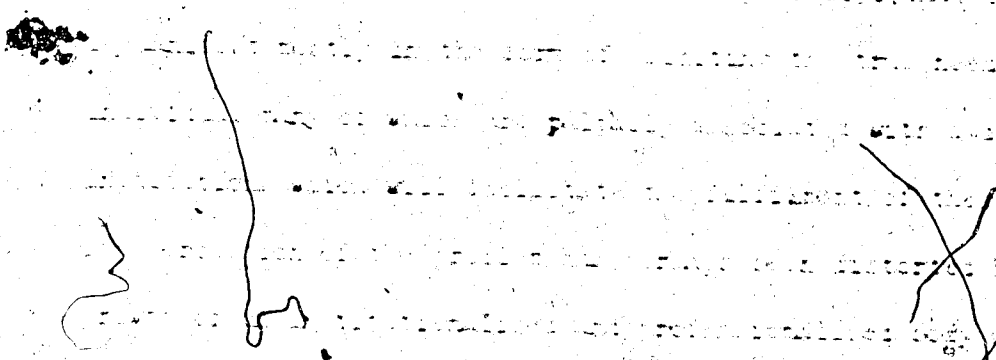
Sport is one field in which a current increase in participation is evident. The greatest increase has been in the minority sports of badminton, squash, water sports, golf, and outdoor recreation. These sports have the common characteristics that they do not need maximum fitness or a high level of skill, nor are they the exclusive preserve of the young male. They are also basically social in nature and can be played at convenient times. Much of this increase is attributable to the spread of sport to previously unsporting sectors of the population and to a lesser extent to already practising sportsmen and women taking up ancillary sports. Conversely, it appears that the traditional team games are only maintaining their popularity whilst the main spectator sports are in decline (Rodgers, 1973, 12). Recent surveys such as B.E.R.G. (1974(a), 1974(b), 1974(a), 1974(b)), Birch (1972), B.I.A. (1967), Dillitoe (1967), and the North West Sports Council (1972), indicate a general consensus as to the logistics of physical recreation. They suggest that only 1% of the population partake of physical activity weekly whilst only 11% within urban areas participate. Of this 11%, 64% were aged 12-19 years and 82% were under 30 years of age indicating that sport is the prerogative of the young, single male. Generally, however, the indications are of a gradual

permeation through age, sex and marital strata and of a quadrupling in number within the space of a decade (Roberts, 1974, 3).

Other types of recreation also appear to be entering a boom era, for there are parallel developments to that of sport in more casual forms of outdoor activities. There has been a great increase in visits to the countryside for walking, camping, climbing and simply "tripping", in fact, as Patmore emphasises, "the greatest increases in overall demand are shared beyond urban [illegible] activities, [illegible] pursuits" (Patmore, 1970, 1). The need cited by [illegible], New York, that surveys recently conducted in Scotland indicate only a small minority of people [illegible] truly natural rural [illegible]. By far the largest proportion, over [illegible]%, required purely [illegible] such as seats, pools, amusements and names [illegible]." [illegible] said people would be happier if they could visit [illegible] in the country without [illegible] the experience of [illegible] the countryside, but perhaps their real demand is [illegible] of parks rather than a truly rural scene as such" (Lefevre, 1970, 11). These findings imply also a dearth of such facilities in the urban environment a fact which is amply demonstrated in all recent surveys. It has been estimated that there is an immediate need in urban areas for 300 golf courses, an equivalent number of indoor sports centres and swimming pools and a drastic redesigning of urban parks to include the full range of sporting and cultural activities and amusements (Pickering, 1975,13-15). The urgency of the situation is exemplified in the London and South Eastern region where 140 acres of existing sports grounds have been sold to property developers and speculators in the last three

years when many London boroughs are grossly under-provided. The National Playing Fields Association recommended in 1[illegible] that [illegible] acres of permanently preserved playing space be provided per thousand of population, this was to exclude school sports facilities except where they were available to the public through the community school organisation (Booth, 1[illegible], [illegible]), (Booth, 1[illegible], [illegible]) and [illegible]. Yet in Inner London, for example, the [illegible] is only [illegible] acres per thousand, Lambeth, Southwark, [illegible] and Tower Hamlets have less than 1.0 acres, whilst Islington [illegible] acres (Baltmore, 1[illegible]). The critical position of urban areas with respect to recreation facility position is thus well documented. It is exacerbated, however, by the lack of central government grants which are currently seven billion pounds to physical recreation as opposed to twenty-three billion pounds the arts will receive. It is to be noted that the Wolfenden Committee (Sports Council, 1[illegible]) recommended a ten million pounds grant to sport [illegible]. The political determinants of the situation merit an extensive research appraisal in their own right, impracticable in this dissertation, but they do highlight the critical dearth of urban provision and the need to optimise the use of existing resources within the community.

The general growth in sport and countryside recreation is matched by that in tourism and the increasing popularity of camping, caravanning and activity holidays. The same trend appears across a range of cultural pursuits. Sales of classical records, attendances at art gallaries, libraries, museums and adult or recurrent education classes all show the same upward trend.



and the North West Sports Council's (1972).

Treating recreation as a series of activities in order to test propositions about how they relate to a range of societal and socio-psychological variables is rarely difficult due to the proliferation of activities, socio-demographic variables and alternate methods of measurement and data treatment. But the

most worthwhile perspective is that of considering recreation a functionally autonomous system with constant features across different populations. Phillips (1972) advocates the need to treat recreation as a whole focusing upon the system of recreation in which people participate, develop, maintain and change, depending upon their social milieux of family, work and community, in order that a more relevant view of people's needs with respect to recreation emerges. When this holistic perspective is adopted the recent upsurge in participation is seen to be accompanied by a substantial element of stability of home and community based activities (Rapoport, Rapoport and Strelitz, 1975, 29-30).

Television viewing, the frequenting of public houses and bingo clubs, and home-based activities show a remarkable stability of ascendancy over other recreations involved in recent growth (Myerscough, 1972). The British Broadcasting Corporation's (1969) survey and McQuail's (1969) researches confirm the pre-eminence of television viewing and public house patronage throughout numerous fads and transient fashions in recreation. Thinking of recreation solely in terms of participation in sports and out-of-home institutionalized activities is as misleading as it is to suppose that in the incipient age of leisure quality of life will depend upon the provision of facilities outside the home or immediate community.

> Compared with television, the amounts of leisure time devoted to all forms of participant recreation are miniscule, and current trends derive an "explosive" appearance only on account of their very low take-off points. . . . Our society of leisure, if it deserves the title, remains solidly anchored around home, family and television (Roberts, 1974,8).

It therefore appears that despite recent surveys employing increasingly valid social indicators there is still relatively little known about how people perceive the quality of their lives thereby leaving plenty of scope for the recreation planners to impose their values as a social filter (Emmett, 1971, 7-8). The concept of a recreation system as a totality is fully discussed in Chapter 7 where the research methodology is evolved. For the purposes of the present discussion it is sufficient to make the point that, instead of treating variations in recreation participation as the result of individual's preferences, it appears more accurate to conceive of recreation as a function of a social matrix. This network of social relationships is the total system in which an individual is involved and it encompasses the family, the total kinship structure, work, community and education. These components of the network will vary in their potency of infringement upon an individual's recreation life style according to the social network in which the individual is enmeshed. Variations in total systems of recreation life styles are closely related to the various types of personal social matrices that are characteristic of different sections of the population. And because the family, home and community account for a large proportion of recreation time, variations of an individual's involvement in these spheres are associated with significant shifts in the overall recreation system.

The undue emphasis upon the individual and his or her recreation activities witnessed in the facility-oriented attempts to identify socio-demographic variables associated with participation totally ignores the fact that the majority of recreation takes place in

groups within one of the aforementioned home-community spheres spectrum. It is more meaningful to relate recreation activities to the types of participating groups than solely to the education, income and occupations of individuals. The clear-cut associations between recreation activities and the types and composition of participating groups elicited in the Social Science Research Council's Merseyside Project (1974) bear witness to the importance of the family, kinship and friendship bonds and their composite community social solidarity with respect to recreation life-styles. Indeed, as the recent researches by B.E.R.G. (1974 (a) and (b)) confirm, participants in recreation activities are rarely solitary individuals. It is not unreasonable to assume that the activity itself is frequently only a minor source of the social relationships in which leisure is spent. More typically recreation activities appear to be selected from a range that will support systems of social relationships associated with the aforementioned spheres of life within the community. Recreation is in all probability providing milieux for groups that would otherwise discover alternative supportive environments (Roberts, 1974,12).

In order to bridge the identifiable gap between institutions of leisure facility providers and the needs and requirements of people seeking to develop self-fulfilment it is necessary to employ the social matrix framework. It is within this context that the community and its constituent groups of individuals pursuing their life-cycles assumes its true significance as a milieu for recreation. For it is within the community that the individual

plays out his life-cycle of family, kin, friendship, occupational and educational interests and it is within the community that the planners must create institutions ancillary to the home which will facilitate the cultivation of recreation systems (Rapoport, Rapoport and Strelitz, 1975, 34-35).

The significance of the community and social ties inter-relationship is further underlined by Willmott (1969,301-3) in his discourse on the "place" versus "interest" community. It is the opinion of writers such as Gans (1967) in his study of the Levittowners and Webber (1963) that because of increased communications the satisfaction derived from mutual interest communities within suburbia is considerable. Willmott would partially support this generalisation only in so far as certain middle class life styles are concerned for his researches of (1963), (1967) and (1964) and the experiences of Packard (1967) indicate the importance of the "place community". Many new suburban estates evidence strong criticisms, particularly from wives, of loneliness and the absence of shops, amenities and community spirit, the proverbial "new town blues". This suggests that there is a continuing role for the local community, even among many for whom local relationships account for only a relatively small part of their social life as a whole:

> . . . there will still be a function for local community. Local social relationships are important to many people, . . . and people do after all depend on local shops, schools, etc. The planning task is to create a neighbourhood structure to meet these functional and psychological needs (Willmott, 1969,303).

This feature of community solidarity is reflected in the local nature of urban facility usage. Rees (1972, 516) reports that over 83.4% of the British population live in towns over 20,000 inhabitants and 50% in cities over 100,000. The urbanised nature of Britain where 92% of the population are dependent upon urban facilities and amenities indicates the importance of the pattern of community recreation usage. Rodgers (1972) indicates that the city is largely self-contained in meeting most its own recreational needs. Most recreation trips are of short duration and recent studies of recreation participation show that 50% of the community are not prepared to travel more than 20 minutes and that 20% of these travelled less than 15 minutes whereas only 19% travelled for more than 30 minutes in order to play (Rodgers, 1973, 1). The essentially local nature of recreation activities is further emphasized by Crompton (1973), Seeley (1972) and the extensive research done by Birch (1971). Their works show that: 60% of users of parks travelled less than half a mile; 45% of indoor bowls players came from within 2 miles of the centre; 50% of squash players travelled less than 2 miles; 70% of sports hall users travelled less than 3 miles; 50% of theatre audiences travelled less than 5 miles; 55% of library users lived within half a mile of their library, and even when the large regional and national centres were surveyed it was found that 60% - 80% of users lived within 2 - 3 miles of the centre (Crompton, 1973,4). Seeley's investigations in Greater Nottingham carried out during the period 1967 - 70 (1972) reinforce the localised community centred nature of recreation activities even within middle-class

owner-occupier districts although markedly within working class communities.

The general societal and recreational impression of contemporary British society is largely one of stability. The "place community" retains its importance especially in urban working-class areas and notwithstanding a convergence, diffusion and increasing homogeneity of recreation tastes and popular culture fashions, there is a social class, educational and wealth divergence continuing to prevail. Despite the transition of the family and the increasing freedom of the housewife the importance of the family within the home, garden and community context remains paramount as does the recreation system's functional dependence upon the local social matrix of family, friends, work, community and home. Thus, within British urban communities, the local nature of recreation activities usage based upon groups operating within the home - community sphere can be seen to be enmeshed in a continuing pattern of community social solidarity.

4.1.2. Recreation and Community Social Solidarity. The theoretical paradigms inter-relating recreation activities and community social solidarity are well documented within the annals of cultural anthropology. The works of Caillois (1957), Salter (1967), Lansley (1968), Jones (1967), Roberts and Sutton-Smith (1962 and 1966), and Roberts, Arth and Bush (1959) made valuable contributions towards a more rational taxonomy of the roles of leisure activities in the socio-cultural system. Research by Glassford (1970), Shuttleworth (1972), Allardt (1970), Luschen (1970) and, in the educational field, by Bernstein (1971) offer

not only a systematic classification but seek also to reveal the latent sociological functions of games, sports and other recreational and educational activities within the social system. The reinforcement, by patterns of recreation activity, of the matrix of inter-related groups constituting social organisation witnessed in these works can be said to aid the generation of the solidarity required to develop the true community envisaged by Frankenberg:

> Community implies having something in common, . . . They work together and also play and pray together. Their common interest in things gives them a common interest in each other. . . . They form a group of people who meet frequently face-to-face, . . . (1971, 238).

The cohesiveness or social solidarity of any locality group and community is based upon a network of inter-locking kin-groups the important ingredients of which are the primary group characteristics and intimate face-to-face association and cooperation associated with a "cumulative community" (Sorokin et al., 1930, Vol. 2). Both the Seebohn Report (1968) and Eggleston (1967) emphasize the need to generate the reciprocity of relationships and mutual aid patterns found in the type of mechanical solidarity gemeinschaft community outlined by Durkheim (1960) and Tonnies (1940) respectively. The contractual and associational relationships symptomatic of much urban organic solidary gesellschaft society exhibit a dearth of the small group relationships endemic in the cumulative community. Homans expresses concern at this dearth and the resultant fragmentation of modern urban society. "If civilization is to stand, it must maintain, in the interrelationship between the groups that make up society and the central direction of society, some features of the small group itself" (1950, 468).

Beers (1953) assesses the situation as one in which a common purpose, loyalty, integration and solidarity must be generated. A unique opportunity for such social engineering is afforded in the building of new towns and communities or in the redevelopment of decayed traditional communities. Recreation, appropriately conceived and implemented by sensitive and skilled leaders, can play an important role in these new physical frameworks for life by acting as a catalyst in the promotion of social solidarity through face to face association within the group context:

> The building of new towns gives us the chance, not to fit the physical equipment for recreation into the interstices of a town seen in terms of shelter, work, and trade, but to make it an integral part of the structure (Taylor,1968,482).

Jackson in his research into older more traditional working-class communities discovered that recreation and the clubs that facilitated the various activities, was the key to community solidarity:

> The clubs help transform the kinship groups into neighbourhood groups, and from a basis of relaxation and pleasure serve innumerable human needs in a community under common pressure of accident, age, and that sudden drop in deprivation which the working-class household fears and seldom forgets (1972,71).

There are many such examples of the ways in which recreation systems, through their inter-relationship with the salient spheres of people's social matrices, reinforce community solidarity. Williams (1956) in his study of Gosforth established the close association between the structure of the class system and that of the committees governing the various activities. Frankenberg (1953) found a similar situation existing in the Welsh village of Glynceiniog where the various recreation associations provided

an arena wherein various social conflicts were ameliorated at the expense of the activity but not of the community as a whole. The miners of Ashton, studied by Dennis et al.(1969), evolved recreation institutions of a similar nature to those noted by Brown et al. (1973) and Gross (1973) in their investigations into the lives of shipyard workers and miners respectively. The most significant institution in all of these manual working-class communities was the Working Men's Club which was the hub of all social intercourse and the coordinator of the majority of ancillary sporting and social organisations. The objectives of such clubs express succinctly the role of this recreative institution in the integration of the individual into the community: "The Club is established for the purpose of providing for working men the means of social intercourse, mutual helpfulness, mental and moral improvement, and rational recreation (Dennis et al, 1969, 143).

The decay of many of these traditional communities into areas of urban blight, the resultant construction of new estates associated with the gradual transformation of modern society as a whole under the influence of technology, has been instrumental in the development of a social malaise peculiar to that sector of society referred to by Simpson (1966) as "homo conurbanus".

4.2. RECREATION PLANNING AND URBAN COMMUNITY MALAISE

4.2.1. Urban Malaise. The "lonely crowd" syndrome discussed by Reisman (1969) identified the social anomie experienced by individuals involved in the transition from a "tradition"

or"outer-directed" social environment to an "inner-directed" society where the control of the primary group has been loosened and given way to individualistic attitudes. The advent of a highly specialised and differentiated contemporary society has caused the same problems for highly integrated traditional communities of high social solidarity. High density and high level living; increased social mobility; the demise of the extended family coupled with the growth of the nuclear family; new housing; job redundancy and subsequent retraining in alien regions of the country in conjunction with the ennui inducing effects of mass advertising and entertainment, all combine to produce what Toffler terms the "emphemeral" society.

> By changing our relationship to the resources that surround us, by violently expanding the scope of change, and, most crucially, by accelerating its pace, we have broken irretrievably with the past. We have cut ourselves off from the old ways of thinking, feeling, of adapting. We have set the stage for a completely new society and we are racing towards it (1970,26).

Compounding this problem, which Toffler has perhaps over-dramatised particularly with respect to a slightly more stable British society, is the passive acceptance which results from these social conditions:

> Allied to . . . the increasing complexity, specialism, and professionalism of modern life is a sense of impotence - often manifested as apathy - in influencing let alone controlling social environment, in finding a place for giving any significant service to individuals to the community (Simpson, 1966, 25).

This passive acquiescence exhibited by modern man to the destruction of group interaction which lies at the core of community life has only succeeded in exacerbating social malaise

in urban communities. It is fashionable to castigate the anti-social behaviour of the adolescent counter-culture, the dearth of rational social planning in new town estates, or the self-imposed loneliness of semi-detached suburbia. But the malaise is deeper and more pervasive than even the sum of these constituent problems.

> The real disorder is the destruction of a community spirit that, whatever the shortcomings of the community, is nevertheless a cohesive and vital force. The community suffers from a communal emotional disturbance analogous to the loss of identity and aimlessness associated with depressive mental illness (Poster,1971,74).

The point can be made that, as Webber (1963) and Gans (1967) opine, the demise of the place community is not as catastrophic as many would imagine due to it being replaced by the mutual interest community. But, as Willmott (1969) points out, British society is not changing as rapidly as many assume it is and, in addition, the manifestation of social malaise is proving an immediate and severe social problem.

The urban community studies of White (1950), Mogey (1956), Willmott (1963), Jennings (1962) Wilson (1963) and Spencer (1964), all concur as to the severity of social malaise in urban communities, particularly on new or redeveloped housing estates.

Studies of housing estates show that institutions and organisations which provide focal points for activities in the old-established areas, have failed to repeat their successes under changed conditions. Often the incidence of symptoms of social malaise such as delinquency and vandalism has risen, there is much mental stress, and signs of mental ill health are reported as being disproportionately high (Jennings, 1962,220). Efforts to stimulate self-help and the restoration of social ties

by providing community centres have often proved unsuccessful and have many times resulted in conflict between various sectors of the estates. When the close ties of old, traditional matrilocal communities with their extended-family ramifications are broken, it seems that they cannot easily be restored or even substitutes created through inspired social planning. This has resulted in a search for another focal point for community activities on such estates which might help create communities with greater solidarity (White,1950,6-16).

The difficulties and growing pains of new housing estates are now acknowledged features of the total urban and suburban scene. They are not peculiar to simply working-class council estates, as Thorn's (1973) writings will confirm, although the great majority of research and subsequent publications have been oriented to such areas, Mogey's (1956) in Oxford, Willmott and ung's (1963) in Dagenham and White's (1950)in Liverpool being salient examples. The picture which emerges is one of al social malaise the most obvious indications being found in the overt manifestation of hooliganism, violence, delinquency, l neliness and isolation. The main problem in such areas, has been basically that Local Government has conceived its responsibilities as being solely to provide houses. Much the same accusation can be levelled at the private developer. On estates throughout Britain, therefore, there are rows of drearily similar houses which are pure dormitories completely lacking in those amenities usually associated with urban life and those required for the establishment of the estate

as a social entity. The failure to make any provision for leisure time for people who have been accustomed to having cinemas, billiard halls, clubs, pubs, and dance halls, etc., has resulted on the one hand in a bored and restless youth culture who find release in destruction and hooliganism, and on the other a listless, bored and unfulfilled adult population (Jennings, 1962, 128). Although it is now accepted that the proper planning and provision of essential amenities is of value, the major factor in the dissatisfaction encountered on these estates is a loss of common identity of community spirit, or of social solidarity which the mere provision of amenities cannot effectively counteract: "Community is a living and vital reality, but because it is of the spirit, free and intangible, it cannot be planned any more than freedom can be planned" (White, 1950, 46).

It has been pointed out earlier that the friendly neighbourhood pattern of life found in traditional well established communities springs from the stability and growth of interlocking family relationships which have developed over several generations. This has not had time to develop in newer communities, nor is it likely to develop to such an extent in future due to increased social mobility, the difficulties experienced by young-marrieds in obtaining accommodation near their families, and the demise of the consanguine family. The balance of age groups becomes progressively distorted so that instead of the natural mixture of all stages of the life-cycle the community consists of a progressively ageing group of original inhabitants (Jevons and Madge, 1946, 27-29).

Yet another phenomenon which militates against the spontaneous arousal of the community spirit on new estates is the emergence of the "family-centred" society as opposed to the "neighbourhood-centred" society that prevails in older traditional communities (Mogey, 1956, 152-3). As was pointed out earlier, the increasing homogeneity of society and convergence of leisure tastes has been associated with a tendency to home-centredness. The inward turning characteristics of the family-centred society mean inevitably that the family, particularly in the absence of community recreation facilities, will find its pleasures within the home. The current trend towards home based activities would confirm this situation. Whereas the continued development of the home around an increasingly introverted and socially isolated nuclear family is not considered to be totally undesirable, particularly if it strengthens the family unit, the undesirable symptoms of loneliness and dearth of social reciprocity which seem to attend this trend certainly are.

> . . . one of the main needs of an area is to develop a sense of community. The loss of mental health and crippling alienation due to living in a highly mobile society in which neighbours are strangers and relatives remote cannot yet be measured (Gillett,1969(b), 77).

The social fragmentation which inevitably results from the family's social isolation makes it hard for the provision of community facilities as a remedial measure to counteract basic deep divisions and lack of common purpose amongst the community.

> . . . just as the mere provision of good housing does not create a community, nor does the mere provision of facilities for entertainment, and public buildings, although such provision makes the task easier (Walls,1967,50).

4.2.2. Recreation Planning. The basic problem even when facilities are provided, is one of interface between the community and local government, a manifestation of the low quality of interface between macroscopic social institutions and the grass roots people's level identified earlier by Rapoport, Rapoport and Strelitz (1975, 28). Jennings (1962, 218) concluded that for the purposes of efficient management of council estates in particular, local government was guilty of subjecting tenants to dictatorial and whimsical restrictions. Similar restrictions are imposed upon the inhabitants of private owner-occupier estates where the enforcement of inflexible rules without consultation with regard to the use of open spaces creates resentment. Such an attitude has resulted in community inhabitants considering themselves to be:

> . . . relegated to the role of consumers and users of accommodation and services provided by corporate society. The fact that they acknowledged the provision made to be good. . . did not remove their sense of non-participation and lack of partnership with the authority (Jennings, 1962,218).

The implications for the management of community education and recreation in schools and colleges of this dearth of partnership between community and local government are profound. They are instrumental in the formulation of management systems designed to elicit and fulfil to the optimum the needs of the community. This problem is crystallised most concisely in Bacon's (1975) paper which purports to show how the professional middle-classes who dominate the professions concerned with recreation planning and provision, impose their value system upon both old and new communities. Bacon's researches in Corby New Town and

in a traditional community of Cosely during the period 1965 - 71 led him to the radical conclusion that social planning was merely one aspect of the process of social control and the maintenance of order in Britain's inegalitarian and class stratified society:

> Social caretaking-the planning, direction and staffing of social, recreational and educative agencies . . . stimulates a peculiar social atomisation which encourages people to adopt home-centred, retreatist and isolated styles of life. This not only makes them more receptive to the dominant culture but also more vulnerable to the mass-communicated norm of a materialistic, consumer-oriented society. In Short, . . . planning for leisure represents one more way of diminishing potential threats to the social order from 'down there' and ultimately helps to maintain privilege (Bacon, 1975,99).

Such a radical polemic has a tendency towards irrationality but the general theme of the thoughtless imposition of certain concepts regarding patterns of recreation by bureaucrats onto communities irrespective of their needs has been shown to be generally substantiated. The neighbourhood centred, extended family based recreation system characteristic of traditional communities, which functions within a network of community located recreation institutions has been subject to not only the convergent trend of home-centred homogeneous recreation tastes but the calculated disregard of recreation planners. Whereas it is not intended to pass judgement on a seemingly inevitable bourgeoisification and cultural homogeneity process, the role of community as an extension of the family in fulfilling human needs cannot be ignored.

> The community acts as an extension of the family, introducing its members to a range of leisure activities and defining standards against which interests catered for outside the community can be evaluated. In defining approved forms of leisure behaviour, the effects of the

> community and the family upon the individual are interwoven and inseparable (Roberts, 1970, 51).

Community institutions of recreation are in a position to exercise a pervasive influence upon an individual's recreation activities as the numerous sporting and cultural traditions within British society's sub-culture bear witness. Recognition of the basic inter-relationship is lacking at local government planning and management level. It has been typified in much Development Corporation planning and patterns of site layouts, leisure provision, and sponsored cultural programmes where the leavening pressure of a well established community sentiment is unable to influence the values of the professional planners.

The adoption of certain planning policies and the rejection of solutions congenial to a community has resulted in four areas of dissonance (Bacon, 1975, 95-97).

Firstly, the actual design of many estates, whilst being aesthetically pleasing with their large open-plan gardens and detached isolated houses, is not conducive to social intercourse and the generation of community spirit.

Secondly, the general recreational ethos of planners is that of attachment to, and formal participation in, secondary institutions where all the resources are supplied and merely [redacted]endance is required. They are less appreciative of the informal friendship and kinship groupings that typify many recreation systems. The necessity for informal community-directed activities appears to be ignored (Davies, 1974, 30-33).

Thirdly, the centralisation and institutionalisation of many community facilities within one corporate complex for rational and economic reasons may contradict the spatial and social dimensions of area awareness and sphere of movement patterns normally practised by members of a community (Keller, 1973, 147-159). The centralized placement of local facilities cannot be considered to aid the development of a local social infrastructure unless it is modified by enlightened management.

Finally, an institutional concept of education and the community dual-provision school designed to be a hub of community life is largely out of touch with communities' real needs. The concept of an "education-centred" community conflicts with manifest traditional attitudes towards education and long entrenched recreation systems oriented to ancillary facilities such as the public house, working men's club, bingo halls, the Church, and numerous other institutions,". . . concern with the value of deferred gratification and learning new skills was paralleled by a strange neglect of provision for the more hedonistic needs of the people" (Bacon, 1975, 97). An enlightened concept of the school or college as a centre of community activity can, as will be shown later, incorporate the long established elements of communal life with the needs of a changing society through the medium of recurrent education and the provision of community managed recreation activities (Davies, 1974, 37-38).

The community school and college are well placed to obviate the problems of urban community malaise and dearth of recreation facilities discussed in this section. It is

not anticipated, however, that the school should " . . . transform the existing physical community into an educational community" (Jackson, 1972, 7). But the contribution that the education institution could possibly make towards developing community spirit through recurrent education and recreation is nevertheless significant. It depends to a large extent, however, upon the incorporation within its structure or servicing of the traditional community informal groups and formal organisations and ancillary facilities in addition to a management system cognizant of its community's needs.

> The initiative of the people expresses itself particularly through informal groups and formal associations of neighbours, some temporary and others more lasting, some for a specific and others for a more general purpose. This coming together has sometimes been spontaneous but government has often played an active part in bringing together all active elements in the locality and in promoting local groups (H.M.S.O., 1967, 37).

This does not entail the necessity for a complete reorientation of community attitudes to education in order to coincide with idealistic planning, but a more subtle adaptation, readjustment and restructuring of the school to more fully meet the needs of its community and society at large. The community school and college are envisaged as community resource centres capable of facilitating individual self-awareness, social action and participation, community development and thus the development of community solidarity through participation in recurrent education and recreation group activities. It is hoped that they might fulfil the role conceived by Mays who said in an address to the National Federation of Parent Teachers Associations:

I envisage the schools as the community centres of the future. We have I think, tended to forget the importance of having a focal point and social centre in what we may loosely call the neighbourhoods of the modern big cities. The schools, it seems to me, are the only institutions which can carry out this function today (1963, 5).

Chapter 5

COMMUNITY EDUCATION AND RECREATION

The stage has been reached where the foregoing review and appraisal of the urban crisis, work and leisure, and education for leisure and recreation, can be transferred into concrete recommendations for the amelioration of the problems manifest in the community and in education. In reality, the crux of the problem is to ascertain the manner in which recreation and education can act as a catalyst in the development of community social solidarity within the context of the community school and college.

5.1. THE CONCEPT OF COMMUNITY EDUCATION AND RECREATION

The premise that a modified educational institution in the form of the community school or college can become a resource centre for any given community and can thereby be instrumental in resolving certain social problems, in promoting community development and in facilitating individual self-fulfilment, can thus be assumed to be a valid one.

The term "community", it was explained earlier, must now be accepted as meaning something more than merely a delimited demographic area or neighbourhood in which a group of people live in relative immobility and physical proximity. The reintroduction into urban neighbourhoods of the face-to-face primary group characteristics deemed necessary to generate community solidarity is a function more of deliberate social planning than spontaneous

social interaction. Beers gives a cogent summary of the situation:

> Community solidarity, community consciousness, and community loyalty for most of us, are not quite the automatic and unplanned products of simple living together as they seemed to be in the isolated rural neighbourhood. On the contrary, we will see that in many situations today they could exist - and would develop - only as results of definite and consciously undertaken plans and efforts of citizen members. What we once took to be the essence of community - the common purpose, loyalty, integration, solidarity - are no longer chiefly by-products of adjacent habitation, where and when they develop, they are more probably the fabricated products of direct efforts to produce them (1953, 18).

In a complex urban society it is not enough to leave direct efforts to one individual. The social planners who design housing estates can either help or hinder the development of community spirit but they cannot incorporate within the plan the creation of a community. Churches have played a large part in the past and still have a part to play, but not all people belong to a church or wish to participate in church-directed activities. Other mutual interest organisations can appeal to small sectors of the community. But one organisation, the school, which pervades all sectors of a community, has had its potential grossly under-used and underestimated in Britain (Walls, 1967,88-91).

> The school is well placed to engage in this task. Association for education is very much a part of the neighbourhood pattern. . . . As a consequence of its relationship with geographical community schools often find themselves serving areas which have many of the characteristics of the old communities. It is in its positive and constructive approach to this relationship that a school becomes a community school (Poster,1971,78).

The school in the United States has long been utilised as a conscious instrument of social change, but in England and Wales the emphasis has been upon the slow natural changes wrought through the generations by the growth of education. There has thus

been little interest in the school's potential for assisting the process of social adaption and social cohesion by direct intervention and by a considered effort to encourage the growth of personalities which are adaptable yet socially aware and thus capable of contributing constructively to the growth of a community.

The potential value of the school as a direct agent of social change is summarised comprehensively if a little verbosely by Carr, secretary of the American Educational Policies Commission:

> Whilst the primary contribution of the school is its long range educative service, the immediate measures available for direct action need not be disregarded. A school which helps parents in their homes to do a better job of educating their own children will have less errors to correct. A school which links its efforts to those of other agencies . . . makes all such efforts more effective. A school where teachers maintain close contact with the homes of the children, and participate in community activities can more readily offset adverse out of school forces. A school which is in the centre of wholesome recreation and education for an entire neighbourhood is already doing much to offset undesirable influences. A school which can . . . be open on Saturdays and Sundays, in the late afternoons and evenings, as a community centre, is not only grasping a direct educational opportunity, but is making all of its 'regular' work more effective (Samuelson,1953,206).

In contemporary mobile society where the family-centred trend is becoming the anchorage, a focal point to integrate family units into the community and initiate a neighbourhood-centred trend can be the school. The intention is not to counteract the family centripetality but rather to enhance its cohesiveness within an extended community network. The focal point must thus be one which is important to the family, and to which the family

is important, and one which will generate mutual aid patterns to replace the extended family. The need to be involved in group activities and thus social interaction in urban society characterised by impersonal, complex, indirect and casual interaction can be accommodated by the community school. In the majority of communities the children are the pivot of daily life, the school is thus in a uniquely advantageous position to meet these needs simply by a change in attitude and a conscious effort (Jevons and Madge, 1946,27). The local school is one of the few institutions with grass-roots contact with a large majority of families and they are almost all concerned with it at various periods of their lives. A school of children and their associated families can be encouraged to become socially concerned and conscious of their own and their community's needs thus reinforcing both the nuclear family and an extended community family.

Another social issue in which the school could play a leading role includes the promotion of community leaders who are genuinely and spontaneously involved with local inhabitants of the neighbourhood and who are essentially one of them as opposed to being imposed upon them by management or government.

The school too is well fitted to reproduce the consensus, the traditions and customs which integrate traditional communities, through an unobstrusive leadership as opposed to an aggressive directive influence.

> . . . organised activity on the part of adults may strengthen the conventional aspects of neighbourhood life both through participation in constructive neighbourhood activities and . . . the stimulation of such goals. To the extent that these activities create

> consensus and uniform values they are changing the community (Churchill, 1951, 551).

The school plant possesses many of the physical amenities for entertainment, social gatherings and recreation which constitute the network of community traditions. In areas which are noted for their lack of social amenities and a general paucity of facilities for recreation the school can fill much of the gap if it is realistically designed and sympathetically managed. The school's large capital outlay in multi-use rooms, specialist facilities for technology, arts and crafts, science, home economics, literature and physical recreation and a range of social amenities, is ideally suited to community needs. It would seem a reasonable assumption that an expansion of their use in areas of need is a natural development from both the community's point of view and from the school's economic viability perspective.

The decay of group identity and the apathy created through lack of opportunity for self-determination are problems which will tend to solve themselves if the school gives a lead and is prepared to participate in the life of the community. If needs are to be met, the school will have to elicit them, provide resources for their solution and initiate the process of their solution. In this process lies scope for participation by adults in the management of the school in the community. Through cooperation with both the school's management team and informal and formal community associations and organisations the integration of a neighbourhood demographic unit into a community may be achieved through the medium of the school or college.

The latent potential of the school as a catalyst in the development of community social solidarity has been demonstrated, it is now proposed to review the specific structure and function of community education and recreation and examine its modes of intervention in community life.

5.2. THE COMMUNITY SCHOOL AND COLLEGE

Morris (1924) was one of the first educators in Britain to recognise education's community potential. In his Memorandum on the Village College he indicated how these colleges might be instrumental in the regeneration of community spirit in rapidly populating rural areas of Cambridgeshire. Morris was inspired by the German educationist Gropius (1952) and his "Bauhaus" college as well as by the Danish Folk High Schools. The latter were the 19th century idea of Bishop Grundtvig who, in attempting to upgrade the life of a downtrodden rural proletariate, was motivated by Ling's social, cultural and recreational youth movement and a Protestant backlash at the traditional Roman Catholic Latin Schools, to the basic belief that education was of life not about it. Education was thus relevant to community life. Morris' first college was built in 1930 and although several more were constructed, as a general principle for educational innovation they were never adopted in Britain as readily as they were in the United States. It is significant that, although Morris' colleges were merely an attempt to rectify the community malaise legacy of rural urban drift, the brief he gave to them is identical to that suggested for the new urban community schools and colleges.

> As a centre of the neighbourhood the Village College would provide for the whole man, and abolish the duality of education and ordinary life. It would not only be the training ground for the art of living, but the place in which life is lived, the environment of a genuine corporate life (Morris, 1924,10).

A similar development in the United States inspired by Mann's work in the 1850's and implemented by educators such as Barnard and Dewey was oriented initially towards the integration of the new immigrants into American life. Dewey (1916), an educational pragmatist, was concerned with child-centred education within a school which was itself a community transmitting democratic ideals. This philosophy reified into a practical system of community education set the seal on community participation in the school which characterises much of American contemporary education. It can be witnessed in such schemes as the Hartland-Michigan project, the Delaware community project, the Michigan community school service and their Flint Community Schools, and most recently the Thomas Jefferson Junior High School and Community Center in Arlington Virginia (A.A.H.P.E.R., 1962).

The urban crisis in the United States has inspired certain innovations in the original concept which brings their community schools more into line with their British counterparts. The urban decay in ghetto areas arising from the plight of the underprivileged negro and immigrant population has created a demand for community schools as a reaction to bureaucratic centralised professional control by boards of education. The direction of United States urban educational innovation is now aimed at decentralised control, independent community appointed advisory committees, personnel working in both school and community, and multi-use plants (Herrick,1969,12).

The current feeling of educators in urban depressed areas is aptly summarised by a city councilman of Detroit:

> If the school is to fulfil its function of reaching and teaching the next generation it must be the agency that pre-eminently concerns itself with the total experience of the neighbourhood or community in which it is located (Herrick, 1969, 22).

Prototypes of such urban schemes can be seen in the United States in New Haven, New Jersey, New York, Boston and Detroit, whilst in Western Europe such countries as Sweden and Norway have employed a similar strategy for educational innovation. Sweden's educational evolution of the last half century has been allied to her societal transition from elitism to egalitarianism. Husen (1965) outlines the objectives and design of the new Swedish Grundskola emphasizing the democratic and community ideals which are incorporated into both rural and urban campuses. Within any one region, all ministries cooperate in the provision of community and education facilities within the one complex. A typical example of such a centre contains, in addition to normal educational resources, a sports centre, shopping and library area, restaurant, concert hall, theatre, lecture rooms, pensioners and disabled facilities, a children's nursery and the full range of welfare and social services. Similar centres are appearing in England and Wales in the wake of comprehensivisation of the educational system.

Tregear (1970), an authority on community education and schools particularly in underdeveloped countries, considers that a wider application of the principle evolved in the United States and Britain is inhibited by the divergence between the expressed aims of the educational authorities and the needs and wishes of society as a whole.

In order to rectify this dissonance Tregear recommends a progressive involvement between community and school life. The basic premise underpinning the whole question of community education is, he indicates, that education authority policies should encourage community participation in changing the educational programmes of their schools to meet the developing needs of each particular community. This is diametrically opposed to the principle that an "ideal typical" model of a community school can be devised and superimposed upon a neighbourhood to act as an agent of change designed to effect the plans of social engineers. Tregear considers the existence of the following conditions a pre-requisite to the fulfilment of this basic premise:

(a) A recognition by the teacher of the educational utility of the surrounding environment.

(b) The stimulation of the community's interest in the objectives and techniques of the school.

(c) The participation of the community in school activities.

(d) The collaboration of the community and school in community activities (1975.5).

Tregear goes on to give an expansive but perceptive definition of the term community school:

> It is a place where children learn the basic skills needed for interpretation of their environment and for adjustment to change through experience provided by that environment in the first stage, broadening out to take in the world outside their immediate horizon; a place where the knowledge and skills of the adult community are brought in to aid the teacher in his task; where close association is sought with the extension workers . . . a place whose buildings maybe placed at the disposal of these workers for meetings with the adult community; whose buildings and grounds are available for cultural and recreational activities by the community as a whole - adults and adolescents alike (1970,6).

Rennie (1974) has succinctly identified six modes of intervention which may be considered to facilitate the attainment of Tregear's four conditions:

(a) An extension of pre-school provision within the community through a series of annexes employing mothers from the area after a period of training.

(b) A programme within schools designed to develop home-school and community-school relationships.

(c) An in-service training and support programme for teachers in the use of the latest techniques for the development of communication skills to aid in the understanding of the culture of people in the neighbourhood.

(d) A curriculum development programme designed to introduce into the curriculum perspectives drawn from social experience and which raise levels of consciousness of the issues confronting the local community. Suggestions for the implementation of this concept being outlined in the Schools Council Working Paper No. 17 (1968) "Community Service of the Curriculum".

(e) A social education home-tutoring scheme for immigrant and underprivileged adults.

(f) An adult education and recreation programme which is community based rather than institution based. This can be serviced by peripatetic workers based at the community, school or college (Rennie, 1974, 4 - 5).

These modes of intervention have been proven viable in pursuit of the overall general objectives of community education and recreation which may be seen as:

(a) Assisting people in finding ways of meeting their needs and aspirations.

(b) Helping people to exercise increased control over their lives.

(c) Helping to enlarge the opportunities of people in directions which they themselves see as desirable (Rennie, 1974,3).

If these general objectives are to be achieved then a process of community education is necessary to raise the level of consciousness amongst both the disadvantaged and the general community about problems and opportunities for change. This process can be attempted in the context of the schools, both explicitly through the curriculum, and implicitly through the joint participation of children, teachers and parents in the decision-making procedures of the school. It can also be attempted in other established groupings such as adult and further education classes, evening institute courses, and semi-formal youth and adult organisations in the community such as clubs, public houses, churches and even launderettes (Ball and Ball, 1973, 81-103). The process needs to begin at the earliest possible age and to be carried on recurrently throughout the life-cycle. It is, therefore, not a schematic process with defined stages but a dynamic process unfettered by formal strictures. Thus, in order for community education and recreation to become a significant

factor in community development it must be accepted as complementary in role and status to community planning, community politics, community law and order and all other facets of community social organisation. Perhaps, though " . . . community education should be seen as the first among equals, providing a kind of support without which community development is unlikely to be effective" (Rennie, 1973, 9).

Community education and recreation projects within the context of the community school or college enacted via the aforementioned modes of intervention are in the final analysis concerned with certain specific objectives: increasing the capacity of relevant services such as education, recreation, social services, youth and community development; encouraging a greater interaction between schools and their neighbourhood catchment area and thus deepening their understanding of their clients' social and cultural milieux; and finally encouraging the development of new patterns of teaching, organisation, management and communication in order to create a social environment which will enable the development of skills of community consciousness, participation and thus change.

It is important at this point in the development of a community school education and recreation rationale to identify some significant differentiations within the community school concept which reflect varied interpretations of the general and specific objectives, conditions of functioning and modes of intervention.

The most common misconception is that the community school is synonymous with the use of the school plant by

community organisations and other non-school agencies during evenings and weekends for recreational, social and informal educational activities. These functions do not infringe upon or bear any relationship to the daytime educational process and the policy may be most aptly described as community use of the schools, identical in practice to the "dual provision" concept as it is most frequently organised. It falls short of the integration of the school with the life of the community which is fundamental to the concept. Although it is the most common interpretation of the concept, it fails to acknowledge the other complementary functions which include the ideas of school-community-agency interaction; the reciprocal and simultaneous use of school-community resources; and an obligation towards the fulfilment of community needs, as envisaged in Olsen's seven point classification of true community-school symbiosis:

(a) Improves the quality of living.

(b) Makes the school plant a community centre.

(c) Uses the community as a laboratory for living.

(d) Organises the curriculum around the fundamental processes and problems of living.

(e) Includes lay people in school policy and programme planning.

(f) Leads in community coordination.

(g) Promotes democracy in all human relationships (1963,306-8).

Gillett (1969(b), 78-80) identifies three progressive categories of development on the continuum of community education evolution.

Firstly, the community use of the school plant just described. Secondly, the use by the school of community resources. And thirdly, the true community school, which, in addition to exhibiting these two characteristics, serves the community. A similar but more definitive classification by Melby (1963, 397-403) embraces the total development of the community as its integration with the school passes through three stages. The initial stage is concerned with public relations and information when the public and parents are informed via meetings, bulletins, open days, etc., what the school is attempting to accomplish. The community are thus merely passive recipients expected to understand a process they are to assume is correct. A second stage of evolution is in reality an underdeveloped community school whereby the educational service is rendered to the people of the community. The primary emphasis is not in assisting people to do things for themselves but on securing their participation in activities which are considered educationally desirable for the individual and the community. The organisation and management of the community by the community in liaison with professional educationists is a basic criterion of community education and recreation, thus this second level of development cannot be considered to have achieved this status although it is an example of the compensatory remedial concept in leisure education. The final stage, entitled by Melby the "education-centred community", is based upon the assumption that people are capable of educating themselves in accordance with the basic criterion of community education and recreation in a fashion similar to that

prescribed by Holt (1971) in his book "The Underachieving School". Through involvement and participation the community can help organise its own educational objectives as well as utilize its own resources. The school thereby becomes no longer the only educational enterprise in the neighbourhood. Although due to its material, plant, and personnel resources and expertise it is a prime resource centre, it is employed together with churches, mass media, civic groups, private enterprise organisations and voluntary societies to promote the community's own education and recreation. The term education-centred community thus belies the true resource centre function of the school implying, as has been pointed out previously, that it must become a focal point of all activity centralising all community nuclei of spontaneous recreation into one corporate institution of recreation and education, a development viewed with abhorrence by Ball who fears the institutionalisation of community life.

> This escalation of provision and the associated institutionalisation of more and more aspects of community life in one place points clearly to the future: a future where the community has no life of its own, where all vitality is institutionalized. A hypermarket of corporate life, no less, available to those who can get there, and who are prepared to fight the inevitable bureaucracies that will grow to administer it (1974, 2).

There has been a further important divergence of opinion regarding the function and organisation of the community school. Such a school or college can be an idealistic socially engineered remedial organisation aimed at egalitarianism via the forced integration of representatives from each socio-economic group. Alternatively, it can be a true community school in that its

catchment area is delimited by the dimensions of its surrounding neighbourhood. Controversy rages in both the United States and Britain over the relative merits of these types of schools.

Whereas Herrick (1969) feels strongly that the neighbourhood school merely perpetuates the norms of depressed urban areas, or conversley, effectively insulates socially advantaged and affluent areas, the concensus of informed opinion seems to condemn the embourgeoisment of the working class areas' proletariat which the idealistic school perpetrates as an agent of radical social change. Bullivent (1971) exemplifies this body of opinion whilst outlining the functions of the community school:

> A school is not an education shop where we buy or reject . . . but a cooperative community "of, by and for the people". It is essential for my type of school to succeed that it is based on neighbourhood units and on the people who live in the streets. It must be a school which belongs to them and to which they belong (1971,31).

The British community schools reflect both sides of the argument although the idealistic socially engineered concept has caused considerable friction. Its compensatory banding concept consisting of equal proportions from each socio-economic group and the delineation of catchment areas which are intended to produce a socially and academically balanced comprehensive intake have caused much parental unrest. Suffice it to say, however, that whichever type of school political dogma decides is to be adopted, it is the actual functioning of the school and the implications this has for community education and recreation that is of prime concern to this dissertation.

The desirable design characteristics for community schools and colleges are of considerable importance in determining the success of the centres in the attainment of their objectives. The aim should be to encourage participation and informal gatherings rather than inhibit users and reduce them to the role of passive organised spectators susceptible to direct centralised management policies. Chermayeff and Tzonis specify the desirable and undesirable characteristics of such "people-containers":

> . . . none should be so monumental or so large as to appear purely ceremonial and by implication occasional and formal. Needless to say none should be awesome, but on the contrary should be capable of absorbing small events. Exclusively dramatic settings demand attention all the time. Doing anything oneself in their shadow is almost impossible. They reduce everyone to the role of spectator or listener; pageantry, message and propaganda get scrambled. On the contrary, the larger segment of our imaginary hierarchy of exchange concourse-places must include containers of variety in which events are seen in detail and the crowd is composed of recognisable persons (1971,157).

The salient characteristics of a community school are discussed in depth by Poster (1971) in his book on community education in which he reviews the functioning of a British comprehensive school. The school is typical of many in that it contains an evening institute for both youths and adults, a community council facilitating school-community contact social agency cooperation and project resource planning, ancillary activity areas for the full spectrum of formal and informal associations, and a comprehensive recreation centre embracing both physical recreation and cultural activities. As such a plant is conceived as being a resources centre and "pump-primer" providing servicing and "spin-off" to all sections,

ancillary facilities and organisations in the neighbourhood, it must conduct periodic surveys of the needs and available resources of its catchment area adjusting its curriculum accordingly and meeting the needs it elicits by drawing upon community resources and personnel. In brief, the school must go into its community and become involved in its everyday interests, at the same time offering service and encouraging people to improve their environment. Internally the school must encourage the community to come in and work in teams with a decentralised staff employing new methods and syllabi. In order to examine the internal functioning of these schools in greater depth the ways in which the parameters of curriculum and community development and multiple use of the school plant through recurrent education and recreation infringe upon the provision of community education and recreation will be considered.

Before examining the manner in which the community school and college can meet the needs of the individual within the community through curriculum and community development it is germane to examine aspects of the present "closed-school" organisation which might be considered to inhibit community-school synthesis through both parameters. Both Bernstein (1971,166-9) and Rennie (1974,10) point to the fact that the traditional closed-school has, by unduly emphasising academic-achievement and excluding parents and the community from not only the building but the school education process, been missing a major opportunity for effective work in several directions. They have deprived themselves of the opportunity of fully understanding individual

children's family backgrounds and the many environmental factors which govern their lives by failing to meet parents and other persons who could have helped provide this information. Closed-schools have also failed to enlist the expertise of parents and other personnel in the community as potential allies in assisting children to learn, and reciprocally in helping fulfil and solve community needs and problems.

The community school curriculum is not confined to the sole pursuit of academic excellence to the virtual exclusion of other functions. It aims, in addition to the function of role-allocation, to prepare pupils and adults alike for the pluralistic multi-racial society in Britain and its constituent mutually exclusive communities and sub-cultures. But many educators feel that there is inherent danger in such education for breadth as opposed to education for depth. The former is considered to be superficial and lacking in rigour whilst the latter purports to pressure the int[illegible]cademic categories and disciplines.

> Educati[illegible] with its implication of mixture of categories, [illegible] educational guardians an abhorrence and disgust [illegible]ation in breadth arouses fears of the dissolution o[illegible]nciples of social order. Education in depth, the [illegible]e expression of purity of categories, creates monoli[illegible]uthority systems serving elitist functions; edu[illegible]on in breadth weakens authority systems or so r[illegible]rs them pluralistic, . . . Such forms of social integ[illegible]on are inadequate to transmit collective beliefs and valu[illegible] (Bernstein, 1971, 169).

The interna[illegible]ormal organisation structure and function of the traditional closed-school with its academic ethos, of education for depth is hardly consistent with the aims of community education or conducive to any community school symbiosis. Thus it is felt that in addition to such academic rigour, which is

necessary for role allocation in the social system, the ability to live in and change society is dependent upon the acquisition of skills in the milieu of the community in which they will be utilized.

Midwinter's (1973) work on the Liverpool 8 E.P.A. project highlights the need for such a broad relevant community curriculum. The latter's function, he maintains, is to acquaint citizens with all the facets of their community and society at large, thereby enabling them to confront and handle the social issues with which they are faced (1973, 67-9). This community development function does not imply that the curriculum is inward looking, parochial and thus inhibiting. The need to develop man's imagination and creativity, to broaden his experience in all aspects of work and leisure is acknowledged. It is achieved through the acquisition of the normal literacy skills, but within the context of everyday relationships and functions such as those of the consumer in the leisure industry. The overall design is to introduce community-based values and elements into the curriculum and to make more relevant much of what is already there by adding a community aspect to the content. The objective, from the individual's perspective, of such curriculum development is thus:

> . . . to come to a more explicit understanding of their community and then, as a result of decisions which they were to take for themselves, become involved in their community in ways which they, themselves, saw as being desirable. This is very different from the more traditional community service work in schools which so often depends upon the social consciousness of the teacher rather than that of the children (Rennie, 1974, 18).

Such a strategy implies working within the social matrix of groups that infringe upon the life of all community members, such as the class, school, family, peer-group, work-group or recreation-group etc., and which inter-relate with their work, education or recreation systems. Midwinter (1973) advocates that the curriculum might employ projects or social themes as vehicles for this type of community development. Several such social service projects have been initiated in many community schools where themes such as "housing and redevelopment", "urban-survival" and "recreation facilities" have proved most valuable. These topics are susceptible to investigation not only at the local level, where the family, peer, or neighbourhood unit group might be used, but also in a cross-cultural and cross-temporal context. By such intervention and interest in its immediate environment the school can lead to the identification of areas of possible action and also "As an agent of the community it can promote and facilitate the means of taking action" (Poster, 1971,100).

It is a temptation to dismiss much of this type of curriculum as Newsom (1963) type low-status knowledge. Consequently it is in vogue for many schools to tacitly acknowledge their community responsibilities by participating in community service for the aged or disabled whilst avidly pursuing the traditional curriculum. The difficulties of resolving the societal demands for achievement through competitive education with a more relevant child-centred, community based and individualistic approach are appreciated. But, an open-school curriculum of breadth can maintain traditional academic standards whilst at the same time

recognizing the socio-cultural environment of the community it claims to serve and in which many of its pupils will work and recreate.

> The urban school is faced with the most appalling dilemma. It is anxious to help those children with potential to succeeed vocationally and they will leave the area. It recognises that the majority of children will stay in the urban cores . . . or be decanted to the redevelopment estates. It is in these districts, particularly as they reach downward to the areas of acute multideprivation, that social injustices are most rife. . . . Community development, with community education in a key role, may be one solution; it may be the only solution to complete dislocation (Midwinter, 1973, 69).

The second parameter of school-community symbiosis, in addition to community and curriculum development, is the community's use of the school's plant and resources through the medium of recurrent education and recreation. The traditional British attitude has been one of discouragement for such intrusion, fearing, perhaps, the development of the American School Board's control of the school. Efforts have been made to transform the Parent Teacher Associations of many schools into organisations that can provide improved lines of communication between school and community. Innovations which seek to establish lines of communication include such projects as regular newsletters, education "happenings" involving all aspects of community culture and leisure, parent-run clubs, canteens and play-centres, parent-teacher team teaching, and community councils. There are numerous ways in which closer contact may be achieved but the one natural extension of such a strategy is the incorporation of recurrent education opportunities within the school or college's formal organisation.

The first aspect of this community penetration via recurrent education of the school's organisation which deserves

consideration is the peripatetic or unattached education and recreation worker or leader. This innovation is consistent with the previously elucidated function of the community school as a resource centre and pump-primer as opposed to an exclusively centripetal nucleus of corporate community activity and education-centred community life. It serves very little purpose, except in exclusively middle-class areas, to institutionalize recurrent education in the form of adult and evening institute classes or W.E.A. and further education courses. An unattached leader meets a need for informal adult education and recreation in the community which no institution can hope to meet. This concept is relatively new and there are few guidelines as to it effectuation, but two areas of opportunity present themselves; one with existing grass roots organisations such as trade unions, tenants and residents associations, voluntary associations, the private and public enterprise sector, and the full range of independently managed community facilities; the second is with the diffuse informal groups in pubs and clubs.

The former area of formal organisations is relatively accessible and the establishment of contact and subsequent reciprocal servicing is enacted through the process of eliciting the expressed needs of the groups then fulfilling these needs via the involvement of local or outside agencies. Work with informal groups presents more problems, particularly of access. The leader has to become part of the local community and identify himself with the means and patterns of activity which prevail. A high degree of personal contact and knowledge of a

community's culture will enable a leader to ascertain ways in which the community school might be instrumental in providing a service from its resources or conversely, ways in which these informal groups might be recruited to assist the school or ancillary groups serviced by the school. The basic problem with both these spheres of operation, and indeed with any form of community development leadership or management, is the degree to which the leader's views are imposed upon the groups receiving servicing. This issue serves to highlight the necessity of a leader becoming part of the community in order that the groups perception of its social reality might be appreciated and the manner in which they interpret their environment understood. Pursuant to this being achieved, the leader's role is to resolve his perspective of the group's needs with his expert knowledge of the resources available and the constraints that are operative. The role of a leader thus connotes:

> . . . a person devoted to helping the community more effectively in the direction it chooses to move. The guide has some responsibility to help the community choose this direction intelligently, with due consideration of many factors of which he . . . may be aware because of his expert knowledge. But the choice of direction and method of movement must be that of the community. . . . Yet the professional worker does not operate without biases of what should be done in and by the community. . . . this preference for certain projects or for certain lines of action in the community is always placed behind his primary goal of helping the community function effectively in respect to its needs (Ross and Lappin, 1967, 204).

Yet another function of an unattached peripatetic worker is that of a home-tutor employing an education kit. Such a scheme is aimed mainly at either immigrants, the disabled or illiterate and consists of home visitations to service and counsel

individuals who are not part of formal or informal groups. The emphasis is upon establishing contact at a personal level rather than an institutionalised relationship of a tutorial situation (Rennie, 1974, 24).

The Russel Report on Adult Education predicted in 1973 an imminent explosion in the demand for recurrent education. Such a prediction is belied by the apparent apathy with which the second aspect of recurrent education and recreation's school organisation penetration, the integrated use of the school plant by the community, is regarded. It is extremely hard to change particularly the working class' entrenched attitude of well founded suspicion of the school and initiate participation particularly in the school or ancillary facility based activities. The majority of these school located adult and evening institute or further education and W.E.A. courses are patronised by middle-class persons who can identify with the long term aim of self-betterment (Lowe, 1970). The most realistic approach would appear to be the development of the school or college as a resource centre from which people can extract assistance enabling them to tackle individual or community problems. This entails the incorporation of all social services and agencies concerned with the community service, development and action, both formal and informal, within the school's organisation either centrally or embraced within an ancillary facilities network. Within this physical framework management techniques have to be devised to encourage participation in recurrent education and recreation both at the management level and at the participant level.

Integration of the school and community and incorporation of the latter's various elements entails the inclusion of the much maligned but highly significant "youth" subculture. There is no doubt that the community school will play an increasingly important part in youth work. The contribution in terms of personnel expertise and capital investment in facilities by the Youth and Community departments of local authorities to community school complexes is on the increase. A number of community schools have youth centres on the campus in varying degreees of relationship with the school. The Youth Service Development Council's report "Youth and Community Work in the 70's" (Fairbairn and Milson,1969) anticipates that such an integration of facility enables a greater coordination of youth activities as the school can act as a link with the community and a clearing house for information thus lessening the friction that tends to exist between youth and other sections of the community. The incorporation of youth and community departments within education departments in local governments in recent years is a clear indication that a youth service-education liaison is considered desirable by the education system. This recognition is complemented by the goals of the Inter-Club Board of ten national youth organisations which aims to extend the cooperation of its member organisations with schools and further education. The board's policy statement indicates this intention: "The flow of information between formal and informal sectors of education will have to be increased if productive relationships are to be established (Poster, 1971, 97).

It is vital, therefore, for the success of community education and recreation that the adult, youth, social service, community agencies, and informal and formal organisations elements are incorporated with the school or college's sphere of influence. Prior to any such move the haphazard methods of provision and fallacious vocational-non-vocational dichotomy examined in Chapter 3.1. needs rationalisation. Specific examples of dissonance within the recurrent education sector's organisation are reviewed in conjunction with those of the dual-provision school in Chapter 6.4., but it is significant to note that Lowe's (1970) general theme suggests recurrent education and recreation should be seen as a whole, of which vocational, non-vocational, general, formal, informal, liberal arts, cultural and physical recreation are constituent parts. Such a rationalisation of community education and recreation provision necessitates a systematisation of curriculum development and both aspects of school based recurrent education within an integrated school or college based resource centre.

The prevailing management structure of many community education and recreation systems does not unfortunately permit this total integration, in so far as the local government and school departmental areas of responsibility, terms of reference and management structures fail to articulate with the needs of curriculum development and both aspects of school based recurrent education.

The planning, provision and management of urban community education and recreation facilities has in the main failed to reify the foregoing elucidated rationale into a systematised general

approach capable of fulfilling the objectives of community education and recreation whilst continuing to operate within the dictates of the education system and the constraints of the structure of local government. In 1964 the Department of Education and Science did recognise, if only in a limited fashion, the need to maximise community use of school sports facilities when they issued Circular 11/64 "Provision of Facilities for Sport" (1964) to local government education authorities. This recommendation, but not directive, for public access to school sports facilities was followed in 1970 by a second Department of Education and Science document Circular 2/70 entitled "The Chance to Share" (1970). These recommendations, to be discussed in detail in Chapter 6.4., failed to have the pervasive impact that was intended and anticipated, the result being a general underuse of the school's resources and a dearth of an integrated community education and recreation system.

> A quick check on your local school will probably reveal that D.E.S. circulars may be well meaning, but they aren't exactly the precursors of shattering change. Just try getting your local school to open during the summer holidays (Ball and Ball, 1973, 202).

There is a slow but significant increase in the provision of purpose built facilities for community education and recreation within the school plant by certain local education authorities. These are an important contribution to the development of school-community symbiosis and an intensive appraisal of their structure and function is included in the research carried out as part of this dissertation. Community participation has in the main taken the form of physical recreation activities with a

notable absence of cultural or educational patronage. This is due in part to management policies failing to embrace the total community education and recreation rationale and also to the traditional apathy of the general public in patronizing school-based courses. But such a bias does not detract from the fact that any form of community-school interaction contributes towards the generation of community social solidarity, the fulfilment of the individual's need for self-realization, and the amelioration of urban malaise. This limited form of community use has, although falling short of that expected within a community school, involved the use of the school for five main categories of activities.

(a) The venue for W.E.A., further and adult education, and evening institute classes and courses.

(b) The provision of a centre for youth activities.

(c) The provision of school based social and multi-purpose ancillary accommodation for community organization and associations.

(d) Provision of physical recreation facilities and programmes for all age groups.

(e) Specialist provision for the aged, pre-schools, disabled, the underprivileged, and other minority groups.

The concept of community participation is, as has been demonstrated, far more pervasive. The potential of curriculum development and recurrent education and their various modes of

intervention remain to be fully realized even in community schools. But the trend of increased participation in physical recreation is not likely to diminish and the paucity of facilities will thus coerce the local education authorities into permitting the public to make use of the school plant. Although a great contribution can be made in terms of unattached recreation leadership and the provision of resources, the school's contribution is limited by its inability to compete with commercial leisure facilities, industrial recreation or the private sector of clubs and organisations. The present physical isolation and divorce of schools from town centres or zones of mass leisure inhibit the contribution that a community school might make to its neighbourhood catchment area (Davies, 1974, 30-33). Despite this, provided the school makes a firm commitment to make its facilities and management available to community participation a significant contribution to recreation can be made through these modes of intervention:

> First, it must in a community school be a matter of policy that there is continuity of recreational provision, so that there is not merely no distinction made between school leaver and older school pupil in out of school activities, but a positive aim of bringing them together in recreational activity. Secondly, a community school must encourage adult clubs to make use of its facilities for their training sessions and social occasions, so that the adult club leaders will be encouraged to create a bridge over which young people can cross in order to continue their recreational pursuit into adult life. Thirdly, because a community school is focal, it must promote communication between clubs, possibly through the creation or fostering of an area sports council (Poster, 1971, 92).

With the advent of dual provision, a development which will be critically appraised in Chapter 6.4.4., a plethora of variations

on the community school concept have arisen to facilitate these three modes of intervention. Dual use sports halls, swimming pools, lounge bar and restaurant facilities, theatres, squash courts, community centres, libraries, social services, and handicapped facilities etc., are now incorporated in many schools. Such educational and recreational centres often also embrace adult education, community association and youth centres in an attempt to bridge the cultural and temporal gap identified by the Albemarle Report (1960).

Recent developments in the community school concept therefore fall within Melby's (1963) second stage of community school evolution where the emphasis is upon the offering, by the school, of resources and the securing of the community's participation in educationally desirable or organisationally expedient activities. The innovations in the provision of recreation facilities have constituted, probably more than any other educational development, an attempt at stimulating the interests and activities of the community. The overt concern for sport or physical recreation in particular has thus not been motivated solely by the pressure for better facilities from sports governing bodies. It is due in no small part to the realization by educational and recreational planners that its contribution to community development and solidarity and a general school - community symbiosis is significant.

> If the desire for better sporting facilities were mere chauvinism then educationists would have little sympathy with it. There is not doubt, however, that the nation's concern is here the community's welfare (Poster, 1971,90).

The participation in school management by the community, the full application of curriculum development and the reciprocal use of school resources in a field which entails such large capital investment is still very much a radical concept. But the increasing incidence of social problems and malaise, the pressure for educational reform, the demand for increased and better facilities for recreation, and the need for recurrent education in an evolving society exert increasing pressure upon educational planners and managers to rationalise and systematise community education and recreation provision.

Chapter 6

URBAN COMMUNITY EDUCATION AND RECREATION PLANNING AND PROVISION

6.1. SOCIAL PLANNING AND PARTICIPATION

The pre-requisites for social planning ideally include a flexible attitude to change, a secular, non-doctrinaire, non-reactionary value system which is not entrenched in a tradition of moral virtue. Such a value-free social context does not prevail in most societies and social planning must therefore operate within the constraints of political ideology and public prejudice. In so far as social organisation is a continually evolving dynamic process it is always susceptible to purposeful social planning. The weight of the established social order and cultural heritage, however, limit the extent to which planners may impinge their ideas upon the course of organisational development. It is the complexities, restraints and conflicting interests in the process of social planning which necessitate the planners acquiring the necessary social technology in order that individual freedom is not restricted.

The aim of social planning is not to deny individual participation but to maximise the effectiveness of its input. Such a decentralisation of power entails the simultaneous restriction of a limited number of individual rights. But this loss of a certain degree of liberty is compensated for by the advantages gained by the majority of society. Any form of corporate social action entails the sacrifice of certain

rights for the common good but to focus upon this negative aspect is to diminish the contribution of social planning. "While restricting some individual rights, social planning can have the simultaneous benefit of greatly expanding the scope of activities open to all persons" (Olsen, 1968, 346).

Within a democracy, the role of social planning is to "promote the welfare of the majority" . . . by assisting in the attainment of their elicited goals, as opposed to a totalitarian system where the planners would seek to effect the attainment of the elite's ideological goals. Social planners should ideally have no views as to the desirability of the goals they seek to achieve. The process of social planning may, therefore, be defined as the " . . . means of rationally and effectively directing social organization toward the attainment of whatever goals people desire" (Olsen, 1968, 346). The process of setting the goals can therefore be differentiated from the process of rational social planning. The goals must be elicited via decision-making and policy-making procedures.

The general field of public participation in the decision making process is an extremely complex field and does not consist of a singular set of needs and problems. When considering society in England and Wales the higher level of economic, location policy, transport links and regional planning are dealt with by central government. Local government, on the other hand, at a lower level of decision-making, is more susceptible to public participation in its planning of houses, schools and land use.

In the private sector there is only limited concern for for public participation as this sector sees the market as a form of consumer involvement which is subjected to intensive advertising and market research. The whole spectrum of commercial leisure and recreation is thus involved in this process and it is the public's dependency upon a purely economic viability criterion which prompts Vitomir (1960) to castigate the private sector's exploitation of recreation.

> The para-cultural entertainments of today, propagated from a great variety of commercialized sources, are capable of plunging whole generations into a state of unquestioning passivity, or of creating pathological tendencies in the mass of the population (Vitomir, 1960,577).

Public participation in the public sector relies on elected representatives and ideally involves a high degree of mutual communication between the governors and the governed. Unlike the private sector where the public are in an albeit manipulated but decisive consumer role effective devices must be instituted in the public sector to facilitate participation in order that policy goals are not disproportionately influenced by certain groups.

The greater use of public grass-roots participation would, in addition to legitimising local government at the lower level, motivate in the fields of education and recreation both local government councillors and the public clients of the schools and recreation centres into a greater awareness of each other's needs. When the question of participation in the policy-making procedures of education and recreation arises, the problem of at what level the public's views will be most

effectively interposed raises the distinction between policies and decisions.

> The former may be conceived as broader in scope and general in their implications. As such they suggest a probability that particular decisions will coincide with the broad lines of policy. . . . Recognition of this distinction is important both to the creation of effective motive and for the development of appropriate strategies and tactics (Boaden, 1973,5).

The implications for community education and recreation within England and Wales are that local participation would not forestall general policies of educational reorganisation at county local education authority level, except in extreme cases, but the question of decisions regarding a particular school's operation and application of the general policy is more amenable to community involvement at the lower district authority level. In practical terms, therefore, the motivation to participate arises most readily where the effects of action are direct and immediate. This tends to involve decisions and concentrates the community's interest at school level where the organisation-environment interface is at its most vulnerable rather than the higher level of broad-policy formulation.

The timing of public participation is equally as important as the level at which it is most effective. Both early and late involvement have their drawbacks in that the former usually means there is less apparent effect on the ultimate outcome while the latter makes it less easy to promote possible alternatives so late in the process, legislation should, as Boaden indicates, provide for participation at salient points during the preparation of plans (1973,6). This entails provision

for user-client participation in the management and policy-making procedures of community education and recreation at the community school and college level. Present formal methods of participation in local government at the higher county level and lower district and school management level are confined to largely ineffective elections, council meetings and irregular and rare manager-client confrontation. The effectiveness of community input at district and county authority levels will be examined in the ensuing section but the power of the school's governors serves as a good example of the constraints affecting participation at the lower level.

The governors of any school or college are charged under Section 17 of the 1944 Education Act with the general direction of the school's conduct. This governing body should be chaired by a member of the education committee, an elected councillor and civic representative. Unfortunately, however " . . . all too often the majority of appointments are made to nominees of political parties, and places on governing bodies are accolades for services rendered" (Poster, 1971, 102). The general public's participation is thus minimal and the effective control of educational policy lies firmly in the hands of politicians or educational executives such as the director of education and the headmaster.

The Weaver Report (1966) identifies four main groups which ought to have representation on the governing body of a college of education and which, if transposed to the school situation, would include: the local education authority; the academic staff, institutions of higher education; and the community. In terms

of community participation for optimum effectiveness at the decision-making lower level the implications for school-community symbiosis and subsequent community development are manifest.

> Because the members of the community are users of the community school, as parents, and as members of evening classes and groups associated with the school, they too have a right to membership. . . . so parents can be elected by parents . . . and community representatives by a member's council or a community council (Poster, 1971,102-3).

The time is thus opportune for the achievement through informed social planning of a balance between the varied functions of leisure and an integration of them into the general life of society. In order that the personal development of the individual and his participation in the different fields of cultural, social and recreational life are given an appropriate place in societal evolution deliberate efforts of construction and integration will have to be effected to counteract the disproportionate influence of vested-interest power-groups. "The hegemony of small but powerful pressure groups seeking only to impose their own interests on an inhibited majority whose horizons are limited, must therefore be held in check" (Vitomir, 1960,577).

The situation is such that the demand for facilities and recreation leadership has reached the status of a social service and debates as to the ethical, human rights or questions of principles regarding planning have become largely redundant. The immediate need is for the introduction of rationality and an economy of effort in directing and stimulating all new concepts which are conducive to individual and social progress. This strategy involves the establishment of community sanctioned norms of recreation activity and the shortfall needs and consequent

aims to be fulfilled and achieved in order to attain these norms. It is these norms of recreation systems, elicited through public participation, which constitute for the recreation planner the delimitations of his strategy and it is the community needs which provide the short term goals.

These needs take three forms; subjective, objective and hedonistic. Vitomir (1960,580-81) argues that the first two of these are essentially too narrow in scope and diffuse in content to accurately ascertain whilst the hedonistic needs of pleasure, comfort and passivity lead to a state of individual stagnant inhibition. The real criterion of freedom or subjective freedom to attain individual needs within the constraint of democratic society would seem to reside, in the case of recreation activities, in a compromise between individual rights and the common good.

> . . . what is desirable is a maximum of selectivity, originality and creativity. In other words, leisure should permit the individual to express his personality with a minimum of passive conformism, whilst remaining within the limits of active adaptation to society (Vitomir, 1960,581).

At the lower level of user-client-community participation in the policy and decision-making process of community education and recreation management, adequate organisational-environment interface must be incorporated within the system to accommodate a resolution of the demands of community needs with the constraints of higher level policy-making. Input from both sources has to be received and converted into a rational plan for education and recreation.

6.2. THE STRUCTURE OF LOCAL GOVERNMENT WITH RESPECT TO RECURRENT EDUCATION AND RECREATION

6.2.1. Local Government Structure. Public participation at the first tier county authority level of local government is inhibited by the dearth of formal mechanisms by which access might be gained to policy-making procedures. Although major decisions regarding the professional factors of recreation planning are largely predictable, tangible and controllable, the process of committing significant resources to any plan involves the political sphere where local government acts as an arena and mediator between the public and the planners.

The majority of decisions on the provision of leisure facilities in the public sector are taken by local councils who are concerned about public opinion and their civic responsibilities. Planners face the reality of the fact that only a minority of the community partake in active recreation or take advantage of facilities provided so there is an inevitable built-in majority opposition to recreation planners' propositions. This orientation is reinforced by the equally valid claims of other sectors of public expenditure and the relative ignorance of both councillors and the public regarding recreational provision.

> There are always a number of other projects which would perhaps generate more popular and emotional public support e.g. housing, hospital, welfare provision etc., and since there is no successful method available for quantitatively evaluating opportunity cost, this reticence is understandable (Crompton, 1973, 3).

There are several means by which recreational planners might effectively inform both the community and their councillors

of proposed plans thereby enabling the former to participate in a more informed fashion in any subsequent decision-making. Attempts at initiating participation to minimize alienation and anomaly fall mostly within the realms of lobbying and education. Public meetings, exhibitions, local press coverage and addresses to local groups are all minimally effective in that they only involve a very small proportion of the community many of whom are likely to be representatives of vociferous minority groups. Other more scientifically rigorous methods such as potential demand surveys via questionnaires involve long gestation periods during which time building prices will have risen entailing a reduction in the facility provision. These methods would thus appear to lack viability or validity and Crompton is consequently forced to the conclusion that the compromise solution to the problem of public participation in recreation planning lies with the community having lower level links with community education and recreation management which in turn feeds this input into local government policy-making systems.

> In the light of our experiences we are tending to doubt whether participation in its ideal form beyond the level of information dissemination and public relations can be achieved, and that we are still dependent on the empathy of the local government recreation planner with the needs of all the various socio-economic, age and ethnic groupings (Crompton, 1973,9).

It is germane at this point to delineate succinctly the structure of local government and the manner in which it embraces community education and recreation and also the channels through which community input might achieve effectiveness.

Local government in England and Wales is conducted by elected local authorities, operating in accordance with duties and powers conferred on them by Parliament in matters concerning the population of a county or district. Government on a local basis has been part of the administrative system of the country for many centuries. In its present general configuration, excluding the major reorganisations in April 1974, it dates back mainly to the late 19th century, when the conception of a comprehensive system of locally elected councils to manage various services provided for the benefit of the community was first incorporated in statute law. The basic guiding principle in the allocation of duties between the two different kinds of local authority and between local and central government is " . . . that a service should be administered by the most local body that can administer it effectively" (H.M.S.O., 1972 (b),1). During the period of local government evolution the number and scope of its responsibilities have tended to increase although many services, due to increasing complexity, have been transferred to central government. Basically, however, the structure of local government has remained virtually unchanged with the result that, especially in high density conurbations, local councils have experienced increased difficulty in administering complex problems. Because of this, local government was reorganised into a two tier system in April 1974 (Department of the Environment,1974). The possibility that the structure might have to be altered to meet changing economic and social conditions had been

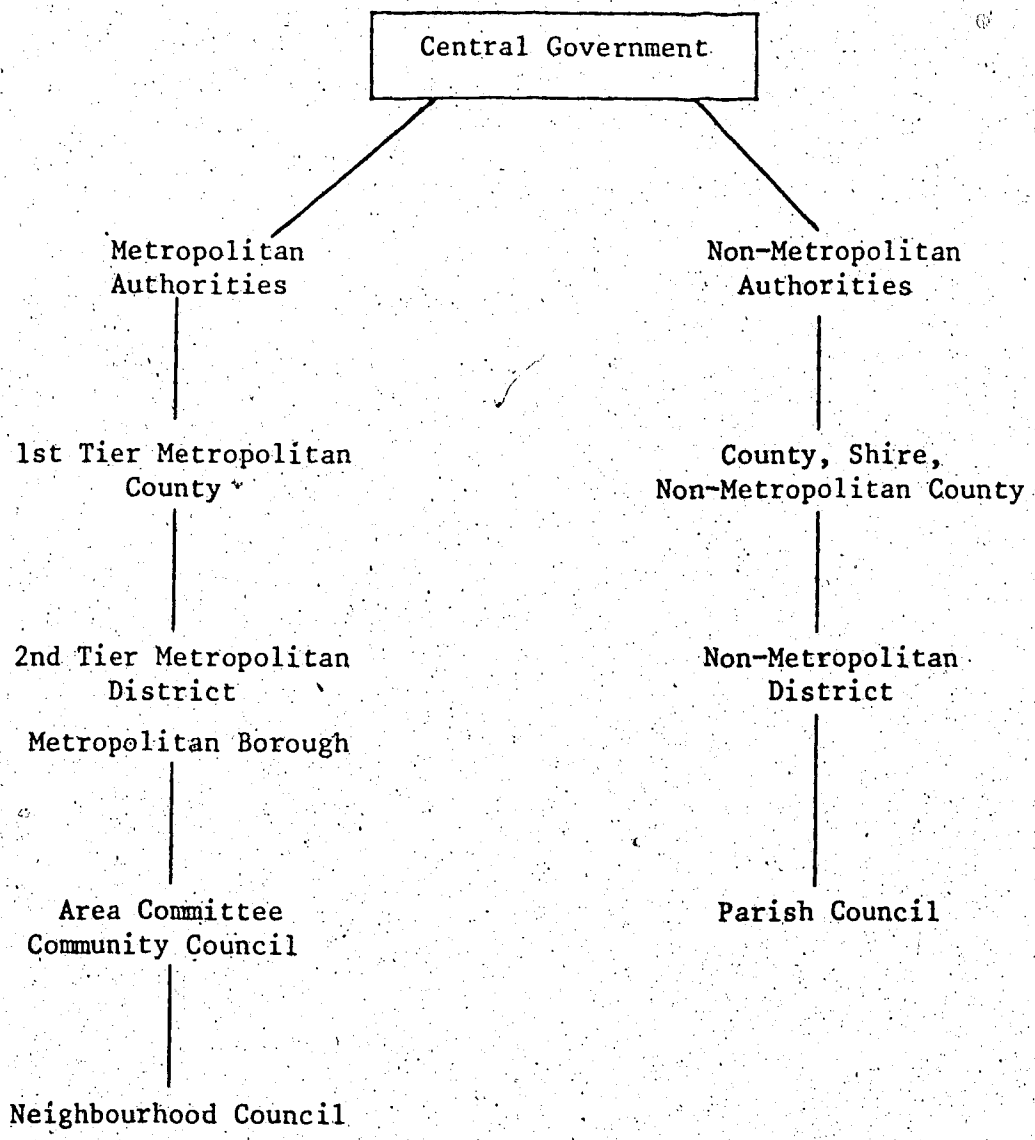


Figure 1.

Local Government Structure in England and Wales

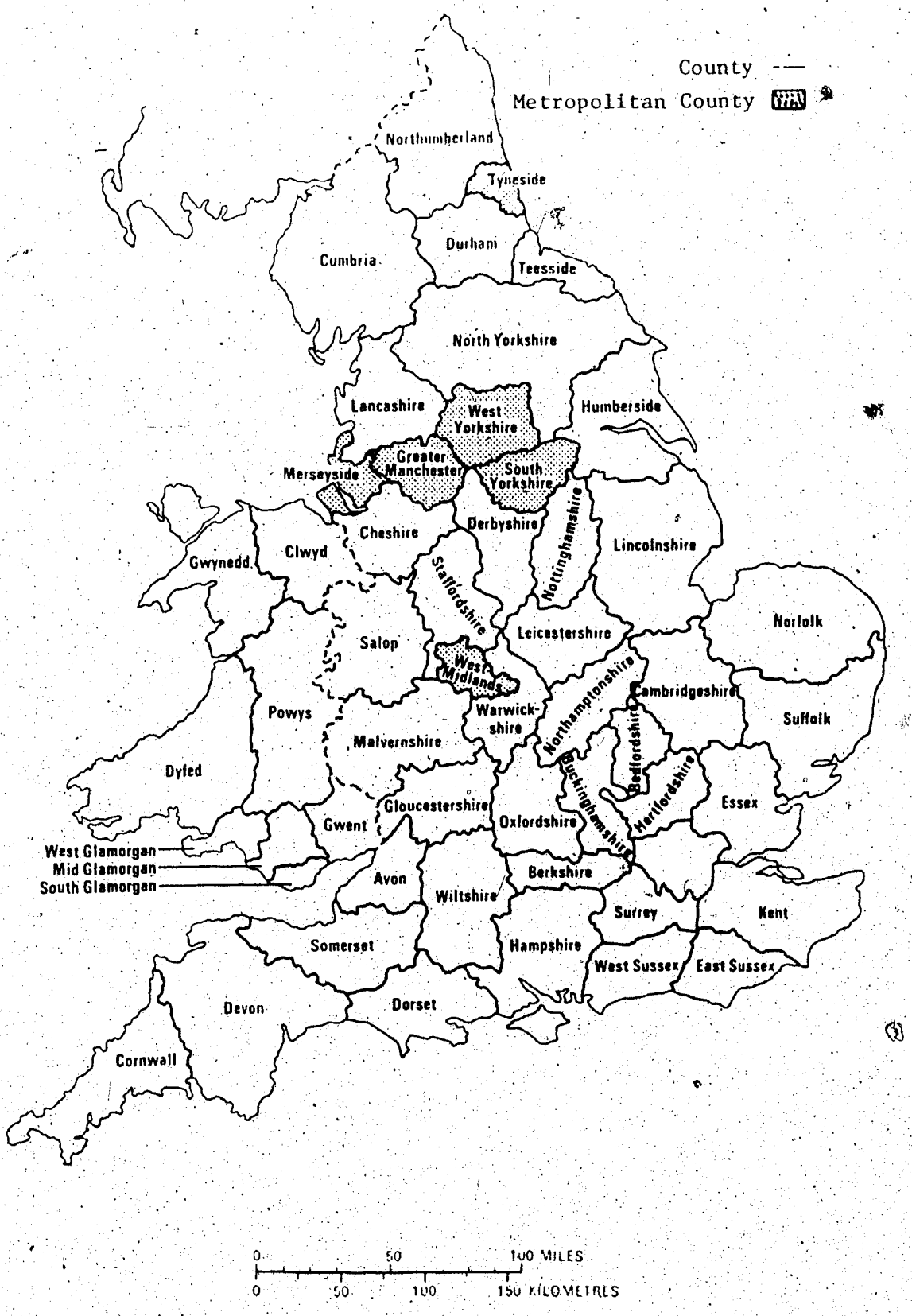


Figure 2

Metropolitan and County Authorities in England and Wales

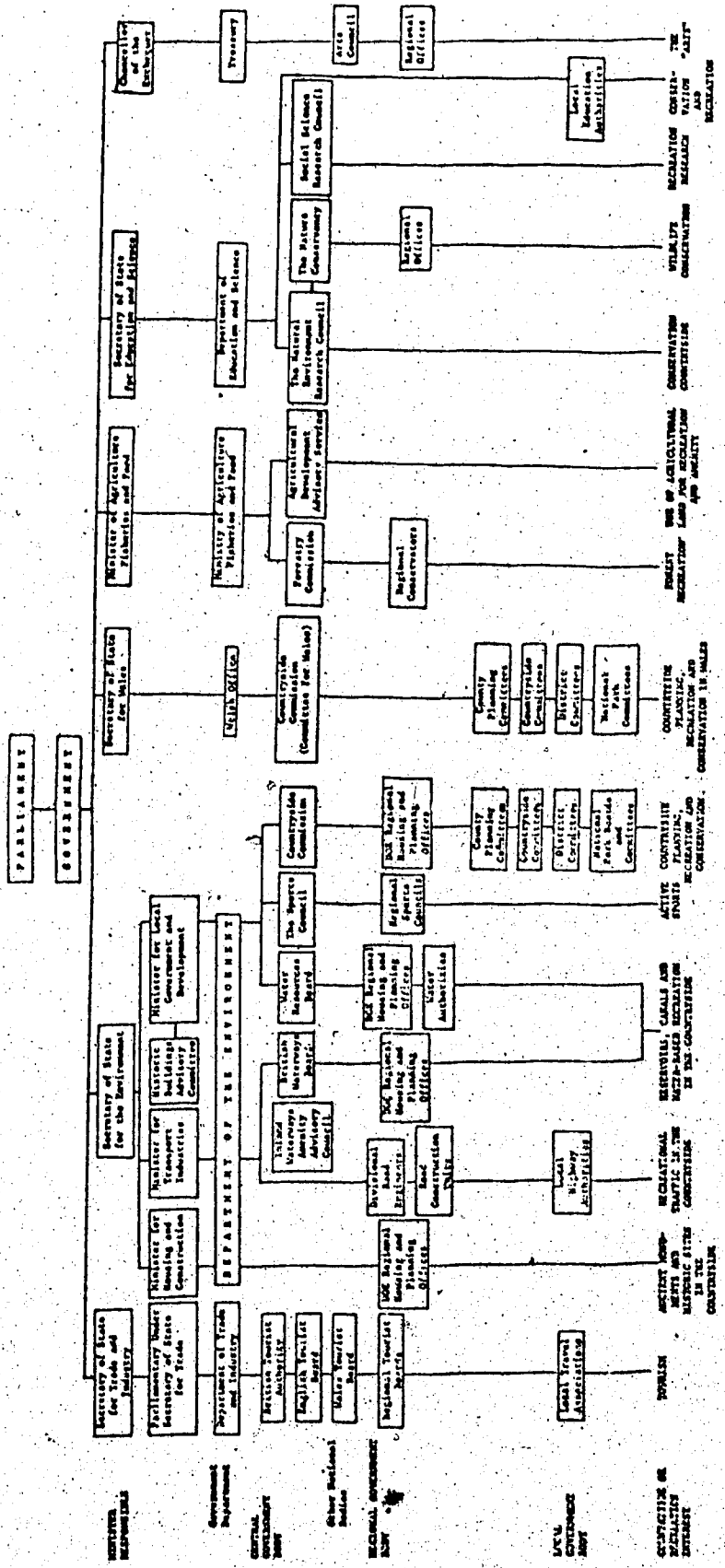


Figure 3

Central Government Involvement and Recreation Provision

Figure 4

Cross-National Government Involvement in Recreation Provision

Government level	Function	Examples (not exhaustive)
Central: bureaucratic	Co-ordination, financial allocation, long-term planning, not usually directly involved in management but Canada is exceptional	Bureau of Outdoor Recreation/USA Countryside Commission/England and Wales/ Scotland Department Environment/UK Department Indian Affairs and Northern Development/Canada (Federal land only) Landsplanudvalgets Sekretariat/Dk Stichting Recreatie/Netherlands
Central: resource managing	Provision and management of resource-based recreation Provision of resources which may function at both resource-based and intermediate levels, possibly even user-oriented	National Park Service/USA USDA Forest Service/USA (Wilderness areas) National and Historic Parks branch/Canada Staatsbosbeheer/Netherlands Nature Parks branch, Environmental Agency/ Japan Cultuurtechnische Dienst/Neths; HUD in USA
Intermediate (county, province, state): resource managing	Provision and management of areas which are resource-based for some, intermediate for others, depending upon accidents of location	County Councils/England Wales (National Parks management)
Intermediate resource managing	Provision and management of areas for local region only (but some of which may be resource-based viewed nationally	States/USA Provinces/Canada County Councils/England and Wales For Comm/UK
Special single resource-oriented joint government/ private bodies	Provision and management of intermediate and user-oriented resources	Aniter (Countries) Dk Verenging de Utrechtse Huveirug/Netherlands Plassenschap Loosdrecht en Omstreken/ Netherlands Derwent Reservoir Advisory Office (advisory only)/England
Local government: resource managing, single Joint authorities	Providing for own area: may be used as intermediate areas by outsiders Providing for own area: may be used as intermediate areas by outsiders	Metro Toronto and Region Conservation Authority/Canada Counties/USA East Bay Regional Park District/USA Lea Valley Regional Park Authority/England

Designations	Metropolitan 1st Tier County Authority	Metropolitan 2nd Tier District or Borough Authority	Non-Metropolitan 1st Tier County or Shire Authority	Non-Metropolitan 2nd Tier District Authority
FUNCTIONS				
GENERAL	Policymaking, Strategic Planning, Overall Development, Control Strategic and reserved	Decision-making, Local Plans	Policymaking, Strategic Planning, Overall Development, Control Strategic and Reserved	Decision-making, Local Plans
CONCURRENT				
Arts and Recreation Planning and Provision Museums, Art Galleries, Parks, Open Spaces, Cemetaries, Crematoria, Playing Fields, Swimming Baths	YES	YES	YES	YES
Development and Redevelopment land acquisition and dispersal for planning and development	YES	YES	YES	YES
Coast Protection	YES	YES	YES	YES
RECREATIONAL RESPONSIBILITIES				
Social Services and Community Development		YES	YES	
Education and Youth Services and Employment		YES	YES	
Allotments		YES		YES
Libraries		YES	YES	
PLANNING				
Structure Plans	YES		YES	
National Parks	YES		YES	
Country Parks	YES	YES	YES	YES
Conservation Areas	YES	YES	YES	YES
Footpaths	YES	YES	YES	YES
Commons	Registration Provision	Management Provision and Management	Registration Provision	Management Provision and Management
Caravan Sites				
Lake District / Peak District Joint Planning Boards	Combination of Authorities			
Traffic	YES		YES	
Parking	YES		YES	
Public Transport	YES		YES	Operation

Figure 5
The Distribution of Functions Within Local Government

realized at the end of the second world war. Pursuant to several commissions and enquiries Greater London was reorganised in 1965 (H.M.S.O., 1963 (b)), and the remainder of England and Wales in 1974.

The main pattern of local government organisation in England and Wales, outside Greater London, is a division of the county into a two tier system. The first tier consists of county authorities within which is a second tier of district authorities (Figure 1). Both types of authorities have independent separately elected councils with separate functions to perform. The county authority normally provides large scale local government services, while district authorities are responsible for local ones. In six highly urbanised and populated areas of the country metropolitan counties and their component metropolitan districts constitute the two tiers of local government.

There are 44 county, shire or non-metropolitan county authorities as they are variously termed, with populations ranging from 270,000 to 1.5 million. Within these county authorities are contained 274 district authorities with populations of 75 to 100,000. The metropolitan counties of the conurbations number 6 and contain 1.2 to 2.8 million people while the metropolitan districts, of which there are 34, normally embrace a population of 180,000 to 1.1 million (Figure 2). Certain larger metropolitan districts are entitled boroughs, a term which persists from the pre- 1974 reorganisation era. It denotes a district which because it embraces a town or city of substantial size, normally over 75,000 population has been granted a Royal

Charter. Walsall, the town in which the community college surveyed as part of this dissertation is situated, is an example of a metropolitan borough, a metropolitan district within the West Midlands Metropolitan County.

The distribution of functions throughout the country are shared between the two tiers. These functions are, with the exception of certain strategic planning responsibilities, mutually independent.

County authorities at first tier level are responsible for strategic long-term planning and the general policy making procedures which pertain uniformally over the component districts.

Districts are responsible at the second tier level for local matters and the day-to-day running of their locality. Most local plans, development control and the decision-making procedures concerning their localities fall within their brief. Both tiers of authority exercise concurrent powers over certain facets of the environment which require regional coordination. Rural and urban arts and recreation planning is one such facet. (H.M.S.O., 1972(b), 40-44).

There are certain exceptions to this allocation of responsibilities with respect to the metropolitan counties and districts which, because libraries, youth and education, arts and recreation services, and social services are controlled by the metropolitan districts or boroughs and not the counties as is the case in non-metropolitan authorities, has significant implications for community education and recreation. The distribution of functions is delineated

in Figure 5.

Below second tier level there is in operation a lower third tier grass-roots mechanism which is at present, in metropolitan areas, in the initial stages of development. In the non-metropolitan district the traditional parishes have been retained in an amalgamated form and they continue to possess powers rather than duties. In the urban metropolitan districts the new concept of a community, neighbourhood or area council is being initiated in a significant attempt to harness local community participation in the decision-making procedures of district authorities.

The community council, as it is increasingly being referred to, is aimed at linking the specific needs of communities to the districts authority councillors who determine local policy. "The point of the area committee concerned with all activities is that it brings in a new dimension: it brings a concern for the locality, a concern that goes beyond a particular service and centres more on general needs" (Stewart, 1973,651). Such committees or councils provide the local authority with other ways of considering problems and issues at member level than on the basis of discrete services. It could be argued that the corporate planning procedures now practiced in local government obviate such separation, but it is a mistaken concept that corporate planning can be built only at the centre of an organisation.

> If the whole of the rest of the organisation remains centred on separate departments and committees, it is not corporate planning that is being built, but a pseudo corporate planning. In such an organisation, thought, ideas and information can only flow on departmental lines (Stewart, 1973, 651).

The need for such an organ at community level is manifest as is the demand for involvement. The grass-roots needs of voluntary bodies, independent organisations, informal associations and individuals have up until recently lacked an effective means of access to local government and a coordinated approach to their problems.

> . . . the standard of services provided by voluntary bodies is often deplorably uneven, and that many individual organisations live in a state of more-or-less permanent crisis over their finances, their staffing and, indeed, their overall policy and direction (Colville, 1972,3).

There has been, as The Merseyside Development Officer comments (1972,6), a very natural anxiety concerning the loss of purpose and identity of individuals and groups in the community. The community councils can provide a strong voice on many issues and needs regarding all formal and informal community groups as well as being a source of information dissemination from district authority second tier level.

Stewart (1973,651) considers that the community councils, or area committees as he terms them, should fulfil the following functions:

(a) They should be formally constituted committees of the district council with full rights to report to any district committee or the full council.

(b) They should discuss major problems facing their communities and invite representatives from community groups to assist in identifying and understanding problems.

(c) They should consider major projects or developments in any major service such as education, housing or welfare, and comment or amend them before decisions are taken at second tier district level.

(d) They should keep community members informed of all matters affecting their area.

(e) They should be in constant contact with not only councillors on all of the relevant district committees but also the professional officers of the authority.

(f) They should be entitled to make minor executive decisions concerning issues which require local rather than specialised knowledged.

(g) They should be allocated small sums to spend on whatever was regarded as a priority in the community.

The optimum population served by a community council is considered to be approximately 20,000 (Stewart,1973,651). This is synonymous with the average catchment area of a community college or secondary comprehensive high school which ranges between 15-30,000. This inter-relationship is most significant, particularly when it is recalled that one of the

functions of the community college is to serve as a venue and resource centre for such a council. In practice, the community and curriculum development and community utilisation of school plant resource parameters of school-community symbiosis, discussed in Chapter 5.2., articulate closely with the expressed concerns of these councils.

> One of its concerns would be to sound the feelings of the community on educational issues. Its activities- provision of amenities for children and teenagers, entertainments, litter, lack of a local newspaper, local radio, loneliness of old people, and the like - could well be an integral part of the curriculum (Hoyle, 1972,47).

The specific tasks of community development undertaken by both the community school or college and the community council can be approached more effectively if the former incorporates within its organisation and management the latter. The recurrent education and recreation objective of self-awareness and community action and change through community participation can be most efficiently accomplished through a community council with direct access to the authority's education department and thus to other ancillary departments of the district council. It is to be noted that this segment of local government only exists within the urban metropolitan districts. It is assumed that a similar function could be performed by parishes within the rural community colleges.

It has been argued that the primary community school with its smaller catchment area of 3-5,000 population would provide an excellent location for a reduced and thus more sensitive neighbourhood council representing the community

school's catchment population. The neighbourhood council would possess executive powers as such and its main function would be to channel information to the community council (Dixey,1974,29).

Each local authority, both metropolitan and non-metropolitan be it county or district, consists of a council of elected member councillors. Councillors are elected for a period of three years by their constituent communities and, in the process of a minimum of four quarterly meetings, expedite the government of their authority. A full council is unable to work effectively as a unit due to the complex and specialised nature of the numerous departments and functions under its control the full range of which no single councillor could hope to encompass. For the purposes of efficiency, therefore, committees have been created each of which specialises in the functions of one of the authority's numerous departments. The committees of metropolitan county, borough and district councils have full powers to take executive action without specific reference to their council as have the committees of non-metropolitan counties, subject to standing orders. But the councils of non-metropolitan districts do not exercise their powers of delegation and retain their authority using their committees only in an advisory capacity. The full classification of these committees and their departments can be seen in Figures 6 and 7. It will be noted that education including youth and recurrent education, social services, and leisure services including libraries, are allocated permanent standing committees in this hypothetical but typical example of a metropolitan district.

Local authorities employ professional officers to fulfil the managerial and administrative functions of their various departments. These officers are not members of any authority committee but they are answerable to the council and its committees for questions of administration, management and especially policy issues in their various fields. Close and frequent contact is thus practised between heads of departments, and committees and the former attend the majority of committee meetings. The councils or committees are the sole arbiters of policy, but it often falls to the head of a department to suggest some adjustment to a proposed scheme or to initiate some project which his expertise leads him to believe is in the public good (H.M.S.O., 1972 (b), 15). In the urban metropolitan sector of local government, with which the dissertation is primarily concerned, it can be seen from Figure 6 that there are professional officer heads of departments for education and youth, arts and recreation and social services, a fact which as will be shown later militates strongly in favour of community education and recreation management. In the non-metropolitan sector, however, education and social services are within the first tier county authority's jurisdiction, a fact which creates numerous instances of dissonance in planning, provision and management of community education and recreation despite the fact that leisure and recreation are concurrent responsibilities between the two tiers.

6.2.2. Recreation and Local Government. In reviewing in more depth the responsibilities of local government with regard

to arts and recreation it is proposed to refer in the main to urban local government in the metropolitan authorities and to the community education and recreation level of provision.

In the provision of cultural, recreational and leisure facilities, local government is more advanced and coordinated than central government. In central government, responsibility is fragmented among such ministries as the Department of Education and Science, the Ministry of Housing and Local Government, and the Department of the Environment (Figure 3). Recreation has been regarded as a by-product of a primary function rather than a primary function in its own right. Regional organisations such as the Sports Council, Countryside Commission and the Water Boards perform an auxilliary coordinating role stimulating systematic regional development.

There is no statutory duty as yet imposed upon local authorities to provide recreation facilities although the 1972 Local Government Act, Circulars 33/70 and 121/72 concerned with Local Authorities responsibilities (Ministry of Housing and Local Government 1970 and 1972 respectively) and the 1968 Town and Country Planning Act make it abundantly clear what the responsibilities of local authorities are.

> Among the matters that the local authorities will be expected to set out in their planning policies will be their intentions in relation to land for sport and recreation. The Act also requires that there shall be full opportunity, while these plans and policies are being prepared, for local people to express their opinions about what should go in them (H.M.S.O., 1970, 3).

Local authorities feel that any statutory compulsion would be detrimental to future provision. In their view local authorities are in the best position to judge what is best for their own community and the imposition of a duty is likely to discourage the very many authorities who have set high standards. "A statutory duty will be a restraint on the enthusiastic, energetic authorities, of whom there are many, . . ." (Association of District Councils, 1974,1).

The present responsibilities are basically that county and district have concurrent responsibilities for arts and recreation. The former are responsible for the strategic planning of leisure and recreation for their whole area, the initiation, provision and design of larger regional and national facilities and the educational element of jointly provided and managed schemes, with the exception of metropolitan authorities where both education and recreation are on the same second tier district level. In addition, facilities for both formal and informal countryside and water based recreation fall within the counties' responsibilities in conjunction with the regional Water Boards, Countryside Commission and Sports Councils.

The district authorities are responsible for the initiation, planning, design, provision and management of local and regional schemes. In metropolitan districts the contiguity of the recreation and education departments is advantageous in this type of community education and recreation provision although in the non-metropolitan authorities disputes arise as a result of recreation and education being on two different tiers (Figure 5). The district councils

are the bodies primarily responsible for the whole of enviromental health, amenities and recreational pursuits and the provision of recreation and leisure facilities is considered by them to be of prime importance.

The essence of the concurrent county and district responsibilities in arts and recreation is, therefore, that each has a clearly defined role to play. Close cooperation and effective coordinating arrangements are required between authorities but there is no reason why they should not work in close partnership without an upper and lower tier dichotomy (Association of District Councils, 1974,2). In the metropolitan areas in particular, there is a firm intention at both first and second tier levels to achieve a coordinated pattern of provision. The counties are developing a broad approach to their area planning and taking a direct responsibility for these facilities which serve a wider than local function. The districts, on the other hand, are concentrating upon provision to meet the immediate needs of the local area population taking advantage in the process of their intimate knowledge of the significance and management problems of community facilities (Association of Metropolitan Authorities, 1974,2).

There is a significant degree of enthusiasm within local government for the development of recreational facilities for both the arts and sport. This can be witnessed in the close cooperation manifest between local authority representatives and the Regional Sports Councils and Regional Arts Associations and in the recent establishment of a standing committee on arts and

recreation by the Association of Metropolitan Authorities. A key factor in addition to these coordinated efforts in planning and provision is finance. The arts and recreation are a non-key sector in terms of public expenditure and are thus extremely vulnerable to economic stringency cuts. There is a strong case, therefore, having regard to its essential importance to the quality of life, " . . . for the transfer of all recreational capital expenditure to the key sector in order to reduce its present extreme vulnerability to all forms of public expenditure cuts" (Association of Metropolitan Authorities, 1974,2), although this step would deprive it of financial flexibility.

The prime consideration in the examination of local authority recreation planning and provision, in addition to resources, is the question of the scale of provision. The local nature of of recreation participation, examined in Chapter 4.1.1., determines to a significant extent that the lower district authority tier is in the most advantageous position to execute successful local recreation policy. It has been generally accepted as a basic premise of local authority provision that " . . . sound provision has been, and must continue to be, based upon local knowledge, local initiative, and local enthusiasm" (Association of Metropolitan Authorities, 1974, 2).

The salient example of this local provision by metropolitan and non-metropolitan districts is community school and college education within the context of dual provision. This concept will be reviewed more fully in Chapter 6.4., it is proposed at this point, therefore, to examine the manner in which the structure of local government is conducive to the dual provision of community education and recreation facilities.

Figure 6 delineates the council, committees, and sub-committees of councillors which govern the departments of professional officers outlined in Figure 7. Figures 8 and 9 expand upon Figure 7 detailing the various officers and their responsibilities employed within the leisure and education departments of a typical metropolitan district authority. It will be noted that both libraries and education have been included, in accordance with national policy, in this second tier along with leisure services, and that libraries, allotments, art galleries and museums have been included within the macro-term of leisure. The provision of schooling at primary, secondary and nursery levels lies within the brief of an assistant director of education. In a progressive authority a responsibility for community education could also fall within his terms of reference as in the case of Coventry. Recurrent education, including further education, W.E.A., and evening institute provision comes under the control of a second assistant director as does the provision for youth and community activities. The leisure services department embraces the full spectrum of the arts and recreation but it is the assistant director of recreation on whom falls the responsibility for community arts and recreation and any liaison with education.

In order that dual provision, or the cooperation between education and recreation departments in the provision of community used school recreation facilities, can be effected for the initiation of community recurrent education and recreation, it will be appreciated that considerable liaison and corporate planning is necessary between the aforementioned assistant directors.

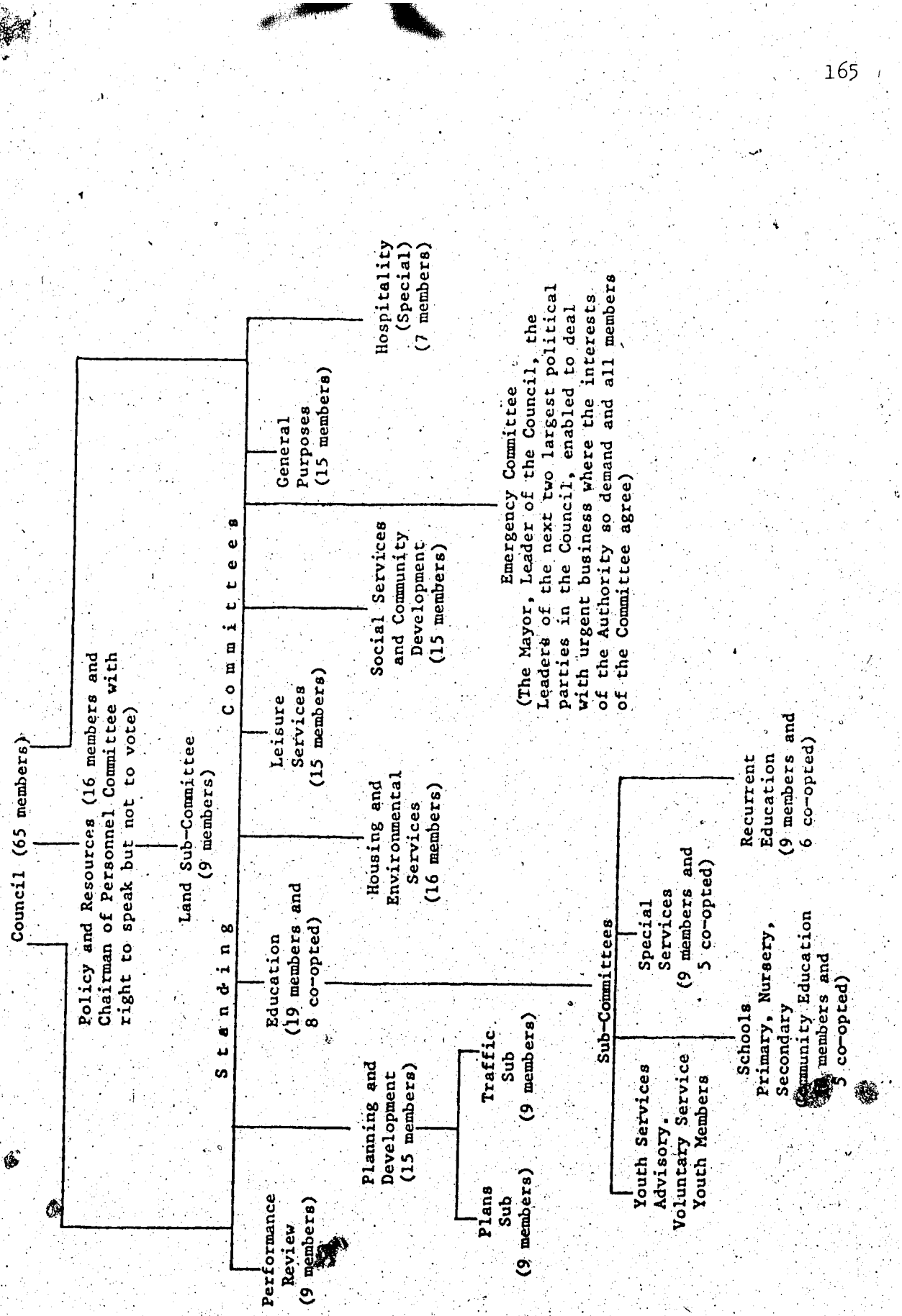


Figure 6

Metropolitan District Authority Committee Structure

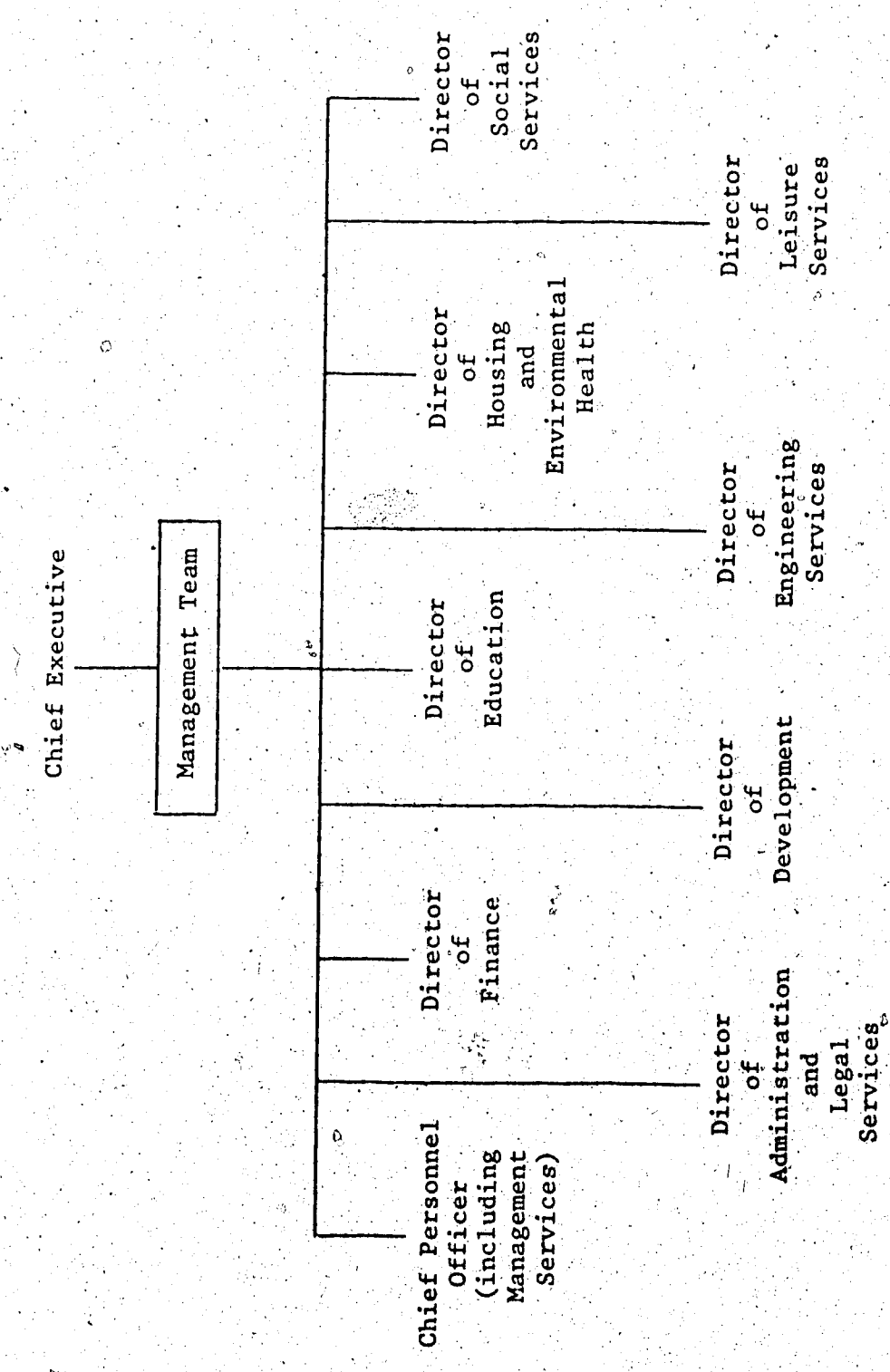


Figure 7.

Metropolitan District Authority Corporate Management Structure

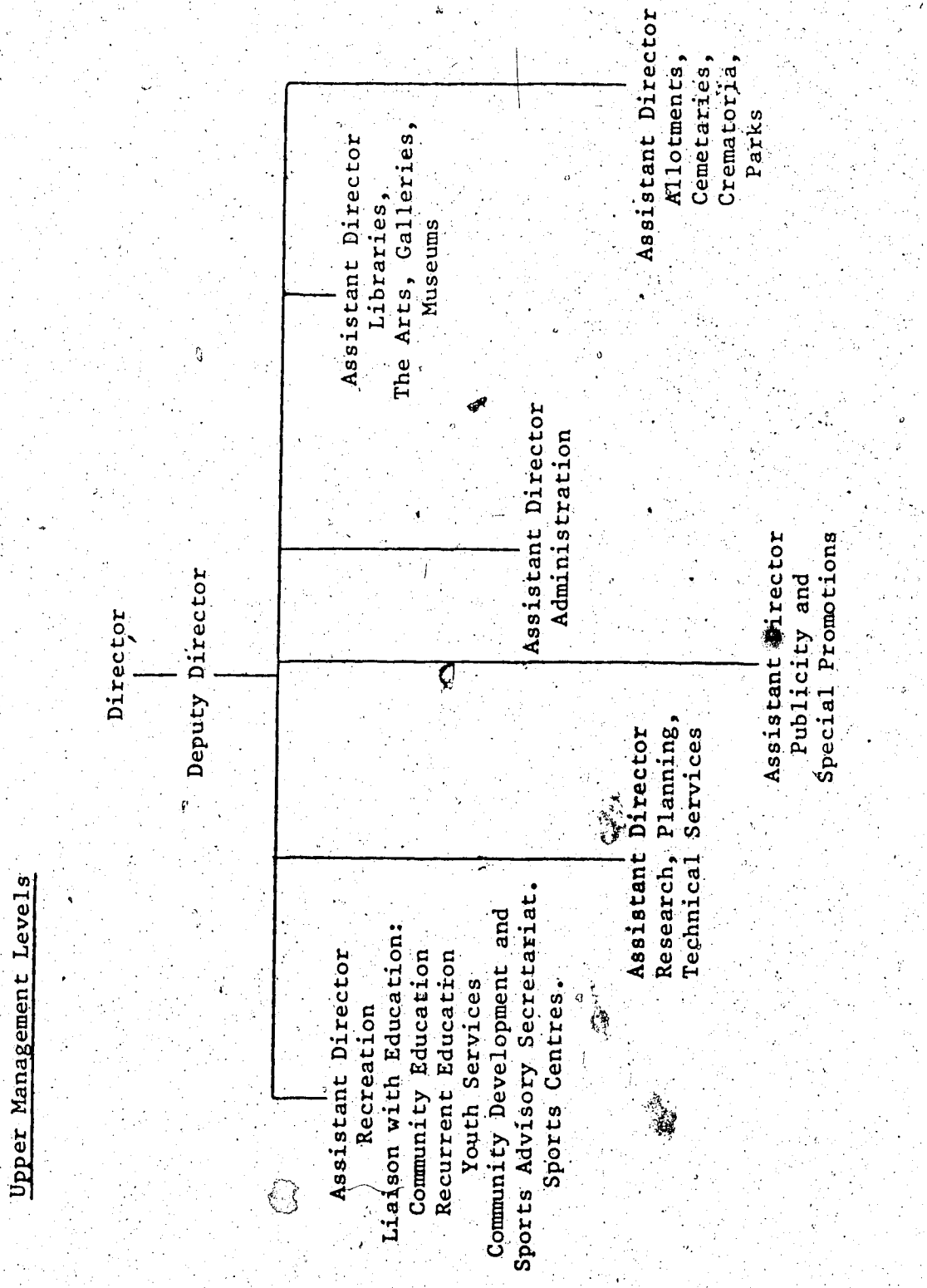


Figure 8.

Leisure Services Department Management Chart

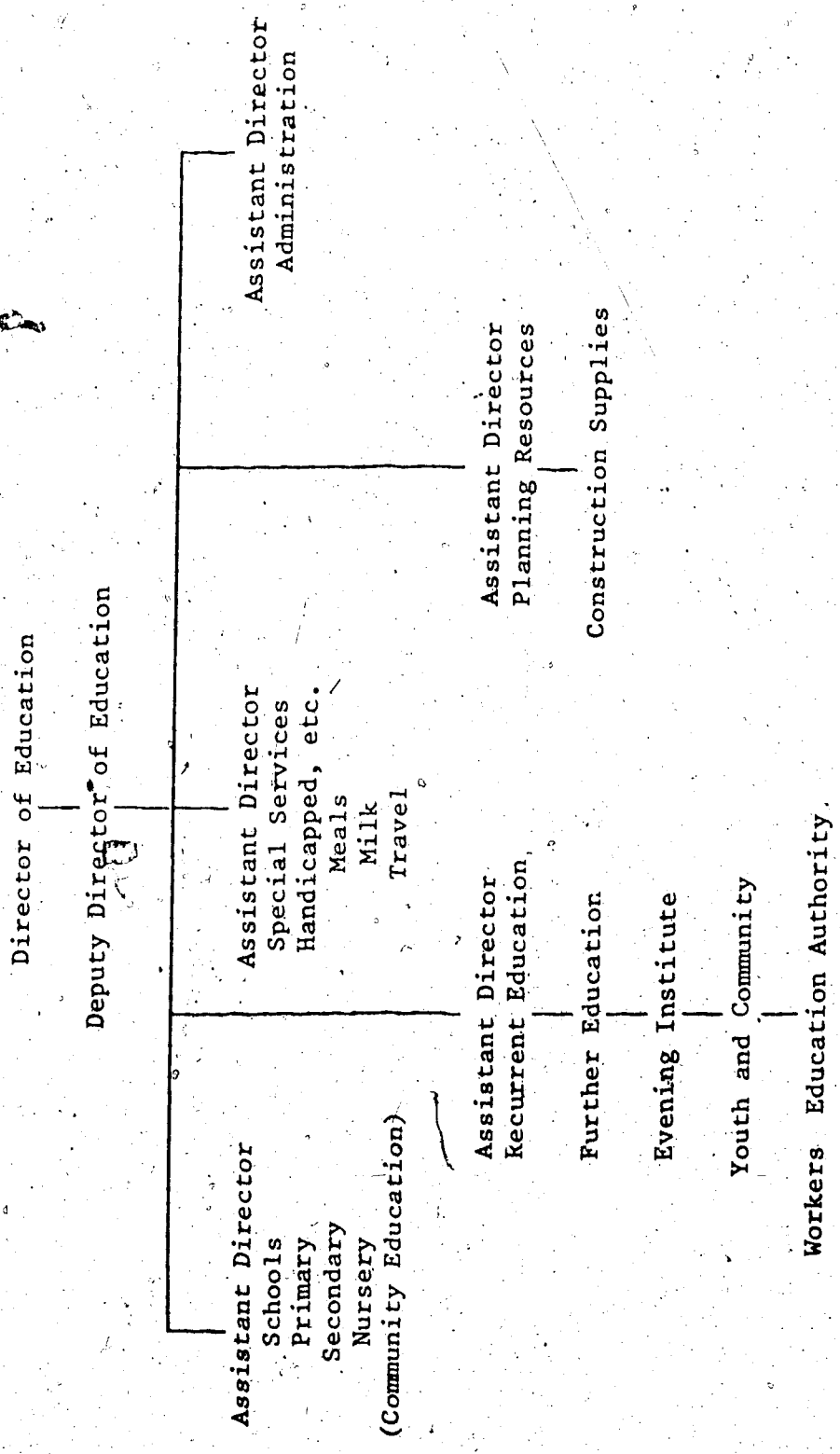


Figure 9.

Education Department Management Chart

"Joint planning requires radical re-thinking at local government expenditure. It means cutting across the traditional functions of separate departments; it involves co-operation between the different tiers of local government" (Munn, 1973, 223). At metropolitan district level their physical proximity facilitates this cooperation provided there is an overt recognition of the need for this type of provision. In the non-metropolitan authorities the placement of the education department, or local education authority as it is frequently referred to, at county level and recreation at district level makes dual provision cooperation more difficult. The prime obstacle, however, is not these spatial and organizational issues but the functional; or the consensus of informed professional opinion as to what constitutes community education and recreation provision. Pursuant to theoretical accord in this sphere, the logistical and contractual considerations of management can be satisfactorily resolved.

Corporate planning for dual provision in the metropolitan sector can be facilitated by the amalgamation of education and recreation into one department. Such an organisational innovation is being considered in a limited number of authorities including Leicestershire, Coventry, Walsall and Gwent. It is a radical step which has met with resistance within district authorities.

> . . . the totally new concept that the recreational authority and the educational authority should be the same, is completely unacceptable, as recreation is not primarily a means of instructing school children during the whole of

> the year. Whilst there is great scope for dual schemes, there is no evidence that they will be hindered under the new local government structure . . . the most effective organisation of dual facilities will be achieved in terms of management and community benefit through the district councils (Association of District Authorities, 1974, 2-3).

In order that the previously elucidated goals of community education and recreation might be achieved it would seem necessary to synthesize the at-present disparate functions of youth and community, education both recurrent and in schools, and recreation. All these functions are typified by local usage and are based in the main upon the school or college. Dual provision for the purpose of community use of the school's plant in extra-curricular time is but a token acknowledgement of the potential demand for school-community symbiosis.

There have been many difficulties attached to grafting additional uses onto school and other facilities that were not originally designed or staffed with them in mind. But despite the organisational, conceptual, logistical and managerial dissonance manifest in dual provision cooperation between education and recreation departments, there is a growing consensus of opinion as to the socially desirable aspects of the concept.

> It would be very difficult to argue against the idea that school and community should be regarded as complementary, not competing, and that management of publicly provided facilities should be tailor-made for this purpose . . . . All the arguments - financial, sociological, ecological, managerial - support the concepts of dual use and dual provision and local authorities in the metropolitan areas may be expected to investigate all possible opportunities when considering, as corporate units, the allocation of resources (The Association of Metropolitan Authorities, 1974, 6).

The fact that education departments are currently beset by economic stringency which increases the difficulty of dual provision facility financing, makes fulfilment of these sentiments less practicable. But the crux of the problem is the paucity of knowledge as to what constitutes community education and recreation in both education and recreation departments. When such a consensus is achieved and becomes manifest in organisational changes, community education personnel must be included within departments and the management of community schools and colleges such that organisation-environment interface and school-community symbiosis is achieved.

In concluding this section on recreation in local government it is pertinent to briefly review the overall opportunities and limitations for recreation provided by local authorities. It was indicated earlier that there was no coordinated overall statutory obligation on local authorities to provide the full range of recreational facilities. Certain acts do indicate duties incidental to other major educational or planning issues in addition to the acts referred to earlier which have recently been brought to bear. Circular 121/72 makes it clear in Annex A (M.H.L.G., 1972) that all county and district councils have functional responsibilities related to certain aspects of sport and recreation, whilst as early as 1944 section 41 of the 1944 Education Act (D.E.S., 1944) placed a duty on local education authorities to secure provision for adequate recreational facilities for school children. Earlier still in 1937 the Physical Training and Recreation Act (H.M.S.O.,1937) enabled local authorities to provide facilities for sport and

recreation. Later acts have proved more coercive. Both the 1968 Countryside Act (D.O.E., 1968) and the Water Act of 1973 section 20 (D.O.E., 1973) delineate duties regarding the catering for recreation. It is these central government imposed duties which compose the obligations on local government in England and Wales for the provision of recreation facilities.

Closely related to these duties is a national structure plan for regional economic planning strategy. This entails local authorities within the constituent regions of England and Wales forwarding for Secretary of State approval a policy document containing specific proposals and policies related to the provision and disposition of sport and recreational facilities with respect to other facets of the socio-economic infrastructure (Collins, 1975, 1-2). The first tier county authorities are involved in this statutory structure plan particularly in respect of informal countryside recreation. Country parks, water parks, linear parks, and other schemes for specialised activities such as canal and industrial wasteland reclamation from the land resource organisation segment of the national structure plan strategy. The Countryside Commission grant aids such developments but the public sector must undertake the planning and management of countryside recreation.

The strategic planning for capital intensive urban and indoor recreational facility provision constitutes the most exacting responsibility of the metropolitan authorities. Collins (1975,4) identifies three specific problems in urban provision:

(a) Specific strategies to counteract social inequality.

(b) Economies of scale and locational effectiveness.

(c) Allocation of capital in expensive land resources and building in intense competition with other urban demands.

In urban areas there are opportunities for public partnership with private developers for multi-purpose user-oriented buildings within the community education and recreation sector. Many local authorities are taking advantage of such liaisons and also asserting the concept of a total integration of the wide range of urban activities which could contribute to this sector. This private-public partnership and activities integration can contribute to the obviation of the three foregoing problems. While there are obvious advantages in establishing integrated leisure departments it is not obvious what activities can be advantageously included. The range extends from library services, community development, allotments, crematoria and cemetaries through arts gallaries, museums, cultural education, recurrent education and recreation to control and management of country parks and camp sites. Collins believes that although corporate management is helping to systematise the administration of these numerous facets, at the strategic first tier level, it is not viable or desirable to embrace them in one macro leisure committee. They will be better served by " . . . many professional skills in education, architects and land agents, planning and transportation departments", however, Collins procedes by opining that where metropolitan districts are concerned at the second tier, "there is a more direct involvement with the planning, design,

provision and management of recreational facilities. It could well prove to be an advantage under these circumstances for the Leisure and Recreation Committee to be served by a department . . ." (Collins, 1975,5).

It is necessary for there to be a coherent and balanced programme of community education and recreation at the local grass roots community level serviced by district recreation and education departments and reinforced by community council and authority committee channels of public participation. Integration of all departments concerned with community recurrent education and recreation is essential if the goals of the community school and college are to be achieved.

6.2.3. Recurrent Education and Local Government. The structure and function of local authority education provision for recurrent education has been outlined in the preceding section and its functions within community education and recreation in Chapter 3.2.3. It remains in this section, therefore, to discuss the terms of reference and functions of adult and further education, evening institute and the W.E.A., provision.

Recurrent education is an omnibus term referring to all post-secondary education both vocational and non-vocational. It has been the custom to employ the term further education when referring to this sector of education but this term now applies only to all vocational education which usually takes place in institutes and colleges of commerce, technology and further education. Adult education was the term at one time used in the restricted sense of non-vocational liberal studies. It has now superceded further education in some areas as

a macro-term but generally it is established as referring to non-vocational evening institute courses. These categories of education are offered by the education departments of local authorities. A further category of recurrent education is offered extra-murally by the universities, the W.E.A., or Workers Educational Association, which has been active in offering non-vocational courses long before local education authorities became seriously involved.

The range of local authority educational provision is statutory in respect not only of primary and secondary education but also of post-secondary vocational and non-vocational recurrent education. This statutory provision is prescribed in the 1944 Education Act:

> . . . it shall be the duty of every local authority to secure the provision for their area of adequate facilities for further education, that is to say: (a) full-time and part-time education for persons over compulsory school age; and (b) leisure-time occupation, in such organised cultural training and recreational activities as are suited to their requirements, for any persons over compulsory school age as are able and willing to profit by the facilities provided for that purpose (Kelly, 1971,23).

The aim of this provision, according to sections, 41, 42 and 53 of the 1944 Act is to promote the spiritual, moral, mental, and physical development of the individual and the community. Securing these facilities through cooperation with voluntary bodies and universities the local authorities were also enabling people to " . . . express themselves more immediately than through the representative democracy of local government" (N.I.A.E., 1970,11). Central government grant aids local education authorities for 50 per cent of their teaching costs and the W.E.A., and other

voluntary bodies known collectively as "responsible bodies" for 75 per cent of their costs.

The current situation is that the majority of universities have an extra-mural education department which offers mostly part-time courses of a half to three years duration. The most extensive provision of this type is that made by Birkbeck College in London University which is almost entirely devoted to this work.

The Workers Educational Association which started with Cambridge University offering courses to the working classes who were unable to obtain access to post-school education, has now expanded to all universities and certain trade union and cooperative organisations. It is basically oriented towards providing education for the underprivileged who are still predominantly found amongst manual and industrial workers. In Liverpool the W.E.A. has promoted recurrent education at a very basic level by involving the inhabitants of poor areas in community activities relating to housing and the provision of recreation amenities (Kelly, 1971,28).

The work of local education authorities has dramatically increased in the last twenty five years. Their contribution is made through such institutions as the school, colleges of further education, evening institutes, village community colleges, literary institutes and even residential colleges. Courses offered in the colleges of further education and residential colleges are essentially vocationally biased in that they work towards some form of external award. Those offered in evening institutes, schools and village colleges are extrinsically,

at least, non-vocational. Their programmes include a range of activities from liberal studies to purely physical recreation. Perhaps the most radical of these programmes are those offered in Morris' Cambridgeshire village community colleges where the emphasis is upon community activities and community management of the programme. The essential nature, however, of local authority provision is one of teacher or tutor dominated classes based upon centralised institutes as opposed to community managed activities based in decentralized community centres such as the school or college.

Despite the fact that numbers of participants in recurrent education appear to be increasing it still retains what Kelly (1971,27) chooses to call a "middle-class" image. The process of imposing external tutors within a formal structure, albeit for the purpose of non-vocational and even physical recreation courses, tends to inhibit large sections of the population. The tendency to incorporate recurrent education services within the community education and recreation programmes under enlightened management in a limited number of instances could perhaps stimulate greater participation among apathetic sections of the community. Recognition of this synthesis between recreation and education in the community school or college complex in a limited number of institutions is matched by a similar departmental synthesis in certain metropolitan districts. In order that the need for community managed recurrent education and recreation provision both formal and informal, vocational and non-vocational, serviced by community school or college

resources may be fulfilled, certain innovations would seem to be necessary, subsequent to a full acceptance of a school-community and education-recreation synthesis.

Firstly, the amalgamation at second tier metropolitan district level of the education and leisure services departments and the appointment of a professional community education and recreation officer to coordinate activities based upon the school or college plant and its environs.

Secondly, the synthesis of all recurrent education courses offered by further and adult education, evening institute or the W.E.A., under the community education and recreation officer. This synthesis implies the removal of age and vocational status differentiations and a total articulation with courses offered within recreation.

Thirdly, a decentralisation of management and tutoring of these courses to primary and secondary schools thus enabling the development of community managed programmes.

> In planning for leisure it cannot be emphasised too strongly that more can be achieved if there is effective collaboration between the various bodies and organisations concerned, both public and private. In particular, co-operation between county and district authorities would do much to widen the opportunities for leisure especially in relation to the under use of publicly provided buildings, . . . In the culture and arts fields many advantages can be gained by co-operation between the district councils, the evening institutes, the libraries and local societies (Department of the Environment, 1973,1).

The initiation of these innovations would undoubtedly facilitate the generation of greater community participation, the alleviation of community malaise, social action and thus

community development, and the creation of a true community school.

6.3. RECREATION HIERARCHY OF PROVISION

Ideally, a plan for arts and recreation should be available for a region as a whole. In this way the needs of the population would be met more adequately, avoiding gaps and overlapping. Specialised facilities above community level need particular attention with regard to planning for the catchment area of potential users which may extend over several towns and villages. At community level the need is for inspired planning which will enable the full range of activities in both the arts and sport to be readily accessible both managerially and physically to all individuals in the community.

> The future is certain to see a much more carefully thought out and systematically planned tier system of provision, ranging from the children's adventure playground at the micro-end of the scale to the national sporting or artistic centre at the macro-end. . . . we already have something like it in urban recreation, in as much as recreational provision tends naturally sans le savoir to fall into a tier system. . . . the emphasis here is on "more carefully sought out and systematically planned" (Rees, 1972,517).

The principle of "laissez aller, laissez faire" has dominated the planning and provision of recreation facilities in England and Wales, until relatively recently. It still prevails to and overwhelming extent in the lower community strata of the facility hierarchy due primarily to the relative neglect to which this sector has been subjected particularly with regard to the recognition of its potential contribution to grass-roots recreation and community solidarity.

> . . . more use is likely to be made of education (and especially school) facilities for the purpose of community-including sporting-recreation. If it is not, then we will continue to perpetuate an almost unexampled waste of capital resources - a waste which is certainly not paralleled in Europe or the United States, for instance, nor in the world of finance (Rees, 1972, 517).

The need for a leisure policy is overwhelming particularly in an urban environment which evidences social problems and a dearth of facilities. A leisure policy " . . . aimed at the creation of a living environment answering the demands of leisure utilisation" (Lederman, 1971, 62) is required to systematise the haphazard and sparse facilities available in and around urban residential neighbourhoods.

Although the nature of recreational land use is changing, much of the 19th century pattern of recreation remains, but varied provision has been made for new uses," . . . often without any really clear appreciation of the facilities which ought to be provided, where they should be located and at what cost" (Seeley, 1972, 11). The problem of assessing demand in order that an effective hierarchy might be provided is made extremely hazardous by rapidly changing economic and social conditions coupled with recreation fashions. Pursuant to an effective mechanism for assessing latent demand and the effectiveness of planning machinery in gaining its objectives in the recreational use of land, an urban recreation facility hierarchy aims to produce a better distribution of activity and land use related to prevailing socio-economic needs. The practical application of such a programme would embrace such features as integrated open-space systems, renovated town parks, an increase in

neighbourhood parks, imaginatively planned children's playgrounds, adventure playgrounds and "kick-about" areas, increased utilisation of water resources, increased provision of allotments, and an increased multiple use of educational, military and industrial larger recreation facilities.

In urban areas with their infinite range of agencies competing for finite resources in the form of land and facilities the need for flexibility, adaptability and cooperation is superordinate amongst the determinants of effective recreation planning.

> The crux of recreational planning in an urban environment is land use allocation and re-allocation in the face of fierce competition from a variety of uses. . . . Hence there is considerable merit in aiming at maximum flexibility of use when planning recreation facilities for the future (Seeley, 1972,12).

In practice, however, the problems arising from competing demands frequently prevent an adequate level of supply from being established. Golf courses demand large tracts of land sited adjacent to high density urban areas while noisy children's playgrounds must be situated in residential areas which also require quiet surroundings, and the location of parks tends to be determined by the suitability of terrain and availability of cheap land rather than nearness to potential users' homes. These examples of restraints impinging upon a hypothetical hierarchy of urban facilities highlight a number of weaknesses in the current approach to recreation provision:

(a) No real assessment of needs is made and certain standards of provision are rigidly applied.

(b) Much open space allocation seems to be prompted by motives of conveniences rather than based upon a positively determined strategy.

(c) Much open space is insecure and vulnerable to property development in contravention of communities' needs.

(d) There is a dearth of suitable land close to urban areas.

(e) Existing facilities are unimaginatively managed and consequently underused.

(f) Suitable facilities are not dually used, military, educational and industrial complexes being examples.

(g) Certain facilities such as athletic stadia and golf courses which are essentially mono-provision with high initial capital costs, are unsuitable for multiple use.

Numerous attempts have been made to counteract this uncoordinated development of recreation facilities in both the rural and urban sectors. In the former sector the "Outdoor Recreation for America" report (1962) outlined a six strata hierarchy of countryside facilities which Dower (1965) and Patmore (1972) adapted to British society's requirements. Theoretical constructs within the urban sector are numerous although only a relatively small percentage are based upon rigorous empirical research. The most notable amongst these are Perrin's (1971)

pioneering research into the design and function of sports centres, Seely's (1972) examination of open-space recreation in urban Nottingham and the Department of the Environment's recommendations on the design of multi-purpose sports halls (1973(b)). But the sports council's publications are at the present time the most rigorously researched, documented and validated recommendations available concerning the dimensions, location, and function of each stratum in the urban recreation facility hierarchy. The North West Sports Council's Bulletins 1 and 2 on sports halls (1972 and 1974) constitute major contributions to the field of recreation planning whilst the Central Sports Council have produced three publications (1973, 1975(a) and 1975(b)) which delineate in depth all the relevant logistics required to plan a complete hierarchy of sporting facilities. In the private sector, the Loughborough Recreation Planning Consultants, in the process of developing a strategy for recreation provision in Craigavon (1973), constructed a comprehensive three level hierarchal provision of recreational opportunity based upon the neighbourhood, sector, and city urban units.

It is proposed at this point to outline an urban recreation provision hierarchy which synthesizes the recommendations embodied in the aforementioned reports, research conducted into the community's concept of its own spatial dimensions, combined with the ideal organisational configurations of community schools and colleges. Figure 10 portrays the recommended hierarchy. It is important to note that although each stratum is definitive in its dimensions and functions these are not to be superimposed upon widely differing communities irrespective of their individual

needs, socio-demographic characteristics and socio-economic status. The flexibility incorporated into a recreation planning strategy enables it to adapt to these local determinants and restraints. Such adaptability is partially facilitated by the regional structure plan referred to earlier whereby local authorities at first tier level liaise under the aegis of the Department of the Environment and the Ministry of Housing and Local Government to form politically, geographically, demographically and economically determined regional planning boards similar in dimension to the existing regional economic planning or water boards.

The strata of the urban facility hierarchy embrace both indoor and outdoor and inexpensive and capital intensive facilities but they are not in any manner mutually exclusive in function and location. The ramifications of this are that in any one urban unit, be it a neighbourhood, an estate or a total township, the existence of higher strata facilities in any one urban unit obviates the necessity for duplication through the adjacent provision of lower strata. This is exemplified most notably in the community school and college complexes which incorporate many lower strata facilities.

6.3.1. A Hierarchy of Urban Recreation Provision. The first stratum on the urban hierarchy is the playground. Research conducted by the Department of the Environment "Children at Play" (1973 (a), 16-20) indicates that their location in residential areas should be determined with the objective of ensuring that the majority of the children reside within a 400 yards catchment radius of the playground. Standards of provision indicate a half

acre per 1000 population resulting in a mean neighbourhood size of two acres. These playgrounds can be incorporated into neighbourhood or town parks or they can be advantageously provided near neighbourhood shopping centres. It is suggested by Seeley (1972,8) that playgrounds should comprise a full range of adventure playground apparatus, a kick-about area and a traditional orthodox equipment area which Hall (1973) deduces to be the most popular attraction in play areas. The importance of this first stratum of provision cannot be overestimated as the frequency of provision of these playgrounds in urban estates is extremely low (Observer, 1973). "It is vitally important to provide play spaces and sitting places in the landscaped areas around high density residential developments" (Seeley, 1972,8).

The second and third strata are composite sites in that they incorporate within their facilities a whole range of activities each with differing standards of provision. The primary community school at the second stratum and the comprehensive community college at the third stratum are currently being planned to include within their plants these diverse facilities. It is proposed, therefore, to review these facilities in conjunction with the examination of the two strata of community recreational provision.

The district recreation centre of the fourth strata is designed to cater for 200 to 300,000 population. It is not considered a component of community education and recreation provision as are the two preceding strata and consequently it assumes a more specialized nature. Ideally it is centrally located in the town or city with accommodation for spectators and the full spectrum

Stratum 1.	Playground 2 acres for 4,000 Neighbourhood Catchment Population.	Community Provision. Includes a wide range of ancillary facilities.
Stratum 2.	Primary Community School. 3-5,000 Catchment Population.	
Stratum 3.	Comprehensive Community College. 15-30,000 Catchment Population.	
Stratum 4.	District Recreation Centre. 200-300,000 Catchment Population.	
Stratum 5.	Sub-Regional Recreation Centre. 2·5 million Catchment Population.	
Stratum 6.	Regional and National Recreation Centres. 11 Regions of England and Wales. Northern Region. North West Region. Yorkshire and Humberside Region. East Midlands Region. West Midlands Region. Eastern Region. Southern Region. Greater London and South East Region. South West Region. Wales North. Wales South.	

Figure 10.

Hierarchy of Urban Recreation Provision

of social, sporting, arts and cultural activities. The essence of district centres and the two higher strata is that they offer an increasing sophistication in the type of activities catered for and the level at which, particularly in the arts and sport, participation occurs (North West Sports Council, 1972). Design, both functional and aesthetic, is of prime importance in order that these centres may attract a clientele whose motivation for patronage can be either to participate actively or socialize passively. These three strata lend themselves ideally to public-private enterprise cooperation in provision and management for it is the private sector which possesses the expertise necessary to make commercialised recreation a viable proposition. Specialist provision (Sports Council, 1973 and North West Sports Council, 1974) which is catered for in strata five and six can pose problems of compatability between the arts, sport and social provision as well as between specific activities within these fields. For this reason it is considered expedient to physically separate specialist facilities particularly at national or regional level.

It is important to re-emphasize the point that in any one particular urban unit the provision of a high strata facility obviates the necessity for duplication of provision through the provision of lower strata facilities in the immediate vicinity. For instance, a town centre located district complex could include, in addition to its normal facilities, a neighbourhood park, shopping complex , adventure playground and a community college. Examples of such centres which fulfil community and "larger-than-local" functions may be found in Sutton-in-Ashfield and at the

Abraham Moss Centre in Manchester (Poster, 1971, 108-9).

6.3.2. The Community School. The second strata of urban provision constitutes the first of the two tiers of community education and recreation, the second tier being the comprehensive community college. The primary school with its 3 to 5,000 population catchment area forms a natural community nexus and neighbourhood meeting place. Centred within an 80 to 100 acre catchment area and located in residential estates it can fulfil the role of the traditional village community hall, a venue for casual social intercourse.

Sociological investigations into awareness of neighbourhood have indicated that in physical and social terms a neighbourhood concept should be based upon an individual's spatial perceptions as well as political and demographic statistics. Thus the most appropriate formula for establishing the frequency of location of community recreational facilities is the community inhabitant's norm of spatial dimensions (Dixey, 1974, 11). Recent research into this field carried out by Lee (1968) suggests that the size of neighbourhood units and/or housing estates could be 80-100 acres which might contain 3 to 5,000 population. This would be sufficient to support a good range of shops and social amenities. Dixey (1974,11-12) concludes that if recreational facilities are to be of a quality and distribution that will satisfy the needs of all age groups a certain minimum level of housing density is required. Thus if the primary community school is designed to serve a population of 3,500 persons with a 35 people per acre Housing Manual density, the catchment area required will be 100 acres.

This entails the distribution of the centres at approximately one mile intervals with five or six of them feeding the community college.

Within these limited neighbourhood dimensions the community school provides a better centripetal focal point with easier access than the community college. The second tier comprehensive community college can often, through the dimensions of its catchment area, preclude the elderly, young, car-less or the poor. In addition, the catchment area of the community school tends to be circular with equidistant access whereas the community college is often situated within a wedge-shaped catchment area reaching into the town centre which possesses good linear but poor transverse communication patterns. The primary community school can thus be said to be the natural focal point of a concentric neighbourhood community (Fabian, 1973-4).

The modern urban community is particularly lacking in social terms when compared with the closely knit structure of long established communities such as mining or rural areas where a genuine concern for the welfare and condition of the inhabitants exists. It is not unrealistic to deduce that vandalism and juvenile crime are rampant in modern urban areas because of the lack of identity, loneliness and the feeling that nobody cares. The absence of common aspirations and reciprocity coupled with a lack of feelings of responsibility to immediate neighbours are other factors affecting the situation. Every neighbourhood should be provided with a community focus linked to a larger cultural and recreational infrastructure. The lack of community facilities on high density housing estates, especially in London,

has created crisis situations in many cases (Shelter Report, 1973, 78-9). The obvious need is for local indoor recreation facilities to stimulate the potential community spirit and increase the range of activities that modern estates inhibit.

> The local centre nevertheless should do more than merely act as a palliative for social problems. Through such centres members of local communities will have the opportunity of participating, with their families, in a variety of enjoyable activities. They will have a better chance of meeting their neighbours and of making friends, of taking part in social events, of helping others and generally of living richer and more interesting lives. The well conceived small neighbourhood complex designed to accommodate the developing needs of a community can undoubtedly foster the growth of an environment more sympathetic to civilised conditions and values (Dixey, 1974, 10).

The provision of facilities within the community school can be determined by cooperation between contiguous communities so that a balance between the neighbourhood and the larger conurbation, of which it forms a part, may be achieved. In addition to the provision of the normal educational facilities a series of ancillary or adapted facilities can advantageously be incorporated within the school plant (Figure 11). The National Playing Fields Association and the Ministry of Housing and Local Government recommend (Seeley, 1972, 5-8) a series of norms for playing fields, tennis courts, leisure gardens, allotments, swimming pools, and bowling greens which, together with the Greater London Council's guidelines on neighbourhood parks (1974), indicate the range of potential recreational facilities which could be provided within the community school complex. The standards of provision and catchment area norms of many activities fall within the sphere of the community school's influence. The neighbourhood park, for instance, which ideally should be within one mile of every

Needs of Each Age Group

Group	Indoor activities	Outdoor activities
a. Under five's	Pre-school play, painting, sand and water play.	Creative play; a sand and water arrangement, climbing, contact with animals, hard surfaced area for wheeled toys, small gardens.
b. School children	Table tennis, painting, handicrafts, cooking, reading, indoor sports, photography, religious services, swimming, dancing, discotheque.	Adventure area, ball games, involvement with animals, outside sports, roller skating, swimming, athletics training.
c. Teenagers	Refreshments, social activities, indoor sports, discotheque, reading, photography, girls' room, workshops, repairs (motor cycle and go-kart repairs), religious services, swimming.	Ball games, roller skating, kart racing, swimming, outdoor sports, athletics training.
d. Early family e. Housewives	Refreshments, indoor sports, (badminton, squash, volleyball), indoor games (snooker, billiards, table tennis, darts, bingo), do-it-yourself, pre-school play, concerts, music, drama, dancing, receptions, dinners, exhibitions, lectures, health clinics, reading, religious services (interdenominational), swimming.	Ball games, outdoor sports, roller skating, swimming, model aircraft, model boats, model railways, allotment gardening, athletics training.
f. Late family	As previous group, but perhaps some of the less strenuous sports discontinued; swimming.	Bowls, allotment gardening, walking.
g. Ex family (retired)	Activities becoming more restricted; refreshments, crafts, indoor games, reading, music, bridge, bingo, pottery.	Bowls, allotment gardening, walking.

(Adapted from Dixey, 1974, 23).

Figure 11.1 User Needs and Provision of Facilities in a Community School

User Needs and Provision of Facilities in a Community School

Figure 11.2

Facilities for Each Age Group

Group	Indoor provision	Outdoor provision
a. Young mothers with children under five	Coffee lounge, main activity room, small activity room, canteen/kitchen, toilets, store.	Hard surfaced area for wheeled toys, climbing frames, sand and water arrangements, pets corner.
b. Schoolchildren	Main activity room, small activity room, canteen/kitchen, toilets, store, games hall, changing rooms, workshops, library, learner pool, multi-purpose hall, coffee lounge, pastoral centre.	Adventure area, floodlit ball games area (hard porous or all weather surfaced), animal compound, swimming pool, football, hockey, cricket pitches; tennis, badminton, netball, basketball, volleyball courts; athletics training area.
c. Teenagers	Main activity room, small activity room, canteen/kitchen, record room, girls' room, dark room, toilets, store, squash courts, games hall, changing rooms, workshops, library, swimming pool, multi-purpose hall, coffee lounge, pastoral centre.	Adventure area, floodlit ball games area (hard porous or all weather surfaced), animal compound, swimming pool, football, hockey, cricket pitches; tennis, badminton, netball, basketball, volleyball courts; athletics training area.
d. Early family e. Housewives	Games hall, canteen/kitchen, coffe lounge, changing rooms, squas courts, multi-purpose hall, bar, committee room, library, workshops, swimming pool, pastoral centre.	Floodlit ball games area (hard porous or all weather surfaced), animal compound, football; hockey, cricket pitches; tennis, badminton, netball, basketball, volleyball courts; swimming pool; outdoor seating, allotments (leisure garden).
f. Late family	As previous group.	As previous group.
g. Ex family (retired)	As previous group.	As previous group.

(Adapted from Dixey, 1974, 23)

individual could, within its 50 acre area, contain both the school plant and such outdoor facilities as allotments, playing fields, an adventure playground and a bowling green. Inside the school it is essential that the library, workshops, household economics, gymnasium and social services are designed and managed to include the community.

The concept of the primary community school has not been universally accepted in England and Wales to the degree that the dual provision second tier comprehensive community college has. Some existing and proposed primary school projects include:

(a) Easton, Bristol. Clifton Race. School and workshop centre.

(b) Norley, Cheshire. C.P.S. Community Centre. School, village meeting room, village hall, learner swimming pool.

(c) Tattenhall, Cheshire. Park Primary School. School, branch library, village room.

(d) Ilkeston, Derbyshire. Chaucer Infant and Nursery School. School and family centre.

(e) Eindhoven, Holland. Karregat Centre. School, supermarket, library, doctor's group practice, games hall, workshops, cafe/bar.

Plans are also well underway for similar centres in Coventry and Walsall where squash courts, youth rooms, music and theatre facilities and community lounges and offices are included.

The community school shares with the community college a common educational and recreational rationale. It differs only

in its logistical function. The two tiers of community education and recreation are complementary in type and dimension of facility included, and they are not intended in any way to be competitive or duplicatory. Although both share common resource centres, pump-primer and spin-off functions the primary school is essentially local and informal in nature whereas the college, in addition to fulfilling these immediate neighbourhood needs, provides a wider and more specialised service.

6.3.3. The Community College. The third strata of urban provision, being also the second tier of community education and recreation, is the classical and widely implemented dual provision centre. It is based upon the secondary comprehensive school. The complete dual provision scheme is to be examined in Chapter 6.4. and only the standards of provision will be succinctly reviewed in this section.

The catchment area of the community college ranges from 15 to 30,000 population which embraces approximately five or six neighbourhood units and their complementary community schools. It also coincides with Stewart's (1973,651) recommended service area of 20,000 population for the community council. This fortuitous duplication of areas of responsibility and coincidence of function enables the college to take a more active role in community development. The local community centripetal node of casual informal recreation and education function which the college shares with the community school is augmented by the college's wider centrifugal functions in terms of a formative and

instrumental role in innervating social change and development and in servicing a wide range of community facilities, formal and informal organisations and individuals via its peripatetic leaders and on-plant specialised resources.

The ideal location for the community college plant is the intermediate neighbourhood 50 acre park similar to that in which it was recommended the community school should be sited. In addition to the ancillary facilities which the community school incorporates, athletic stadia, short-course golf courses, aquatic activities and the full spectrum of commercial amenities including shops, ice-rinks, public houses and clubs etc., may be included. Within the educational plant, it is essential that provision is made for the social services, library, senior citizens, handicapped and complete community use of all educational and recreational facilities.

A review of the Shadsworth, Countesthorpe, Sidney Stringer and Netherley centres together with an organisational analysis of the Alumwell centre are include in Part 2. Suffice it to state at this juncture that the dual provision comprehensive community college is the major component in the hierarchy of urban recreation provision and it constitutes in addition the only substantial attempt at providing community education and recreation in England and Wales.

> In spatial terms it must be concluded overall that comprehensive joint use is primarily feasible for new development, and there are sound reasons why this approach should be applied in such areas. New towns in particular, but often new suburban development as well, are characterised by a weak social fabric. Cohesion on the more traditional bases of locality and kinship is

> lacking, and the individual's ability to form interest-based associations assumes increasing importance. The 'community building' potential of joint use could be directed profitably at this situation. Further, areas of new development lack the diversity of facilities characteristic of many established city areas, and joint provision may be used to achieve the desired variety. It is moreover in this context - where there are few established institutions and few existing facilities - that a planned approach to co-ordinated and varied community facility provision may be easily implemented (Strelitz, 1972, 123).

6.4. DUAL PROVISION OF COMMUNITY EDUCATION AND RECREATION FACILITIES

6.4.1. The Concept of Dual Provision. Dual provision is the prevailing system by which community education and recreation is implemented in England and Wales. Apart from the educational advantages of recurrent education and community-school symbiosis there are social and economic advantages in the joint planning for multiple use of community facilities. The distinction between economic and social is in terms of those considerations which are primarily resource-based and which can be costed in terms of land and finance, as compared with considerations of individual experience and social interaction. But, as the ultimate value of economic savings is social, the dichotomy between economic and social advantages is not distinct. However, three substantial social advantages potential to the dual provision of urban community facilities may be identified and additionally considered as objectives: the ability to make more facilities available for community use; the enhanced probability of causing social interaction between individuals previously precluded from such contact; and the possibility of widening and extending people's range of experience.

One of the major goals of planning is " . . . the fostering of diversity, variety, and a large range of choice in the pursuits of individuals" (Strelitz, 1972,14). This goal is dependent upon the provision of an optimum range of provision which is one of the benefits derived from dual provision and use. It is thus the social corollary of the first of the three aforementioned objectives. This objective has been the most prominent one in the formulation of dual schemes in England and Wales and notions of equity have motivated the adoption of this objective in areas other than education.

> . . . against this background of need is it right for so many Companies in this country to provide good, but in modern times, relatively limited sports facilities for exclusive minorities and then to have to subsidise these facilities even though they are not used to capacity? Is it right to perpetuate socially divisive arrangements under which Companies provide separate sports facilities which often have little relationship to the communities around them and which are sometimes not even realistically related to the number of people employed (North West Sports Council, 1969,38).

Implicit in this objective of making more facilities available is the fact that in addition to more users having access to facilities there is also a greater variety of facilities available. The resultant centralisation of facilities is economically advantageous but it is contrary to the dispersal of facilities which Ball (1974) feels is vital to the promotion of access. The recreation planner engaged in dual provision must thus play the role of coordinator and initiate concepts for the use of facilities upon which policies might be based. It is inadequate simply to respond to agencies which conceive dual provision in isolation from wider social interests.

The second objective of initiating social interaction is of substantial value. Jacobs (1962, 56), commenting on incidental contact in the city street, says that although it appears ostensibly trivial or fortuitous, it cultivates a web of public respect and trust which constitutes an important resource in terms of personal and community need. It is debatable whether casual contact occurring within dual provisions centres can stimulate relationships between essentially disparate social groups but it does help foster in the individual an awareness of other people's life-styles. In more specific terms casual social intercourse goes some way towards diluting the exclusiveness of socio-economic statuses that tend to stereotype and thus segregate social groups. This might involve students, old age pensioners and steel-workers engaging in a similar recreative activity. It is sufficiently worthwhile contribution, however, if the situation generates the opportunity for indivudals to perceive one another on new bases, where new facets that are inconsistent with limited stereotypes may be revealed and additional scales of reference by which individuals are evaluated are evolved.

> It is no use expecting people to refrain from grading each other against some scale of reference - but in a healthy society there will be more than one scale, and good workmanship or success at cricket will redeem some damaging disqualification such as birth outside Britain (Mason, 1966, 11).

Social interaction may also be increased by the facilities' ability to generate intense activity. This arises when a variety of users visit a centre simultaneously and indulge in the type of social behaviour peculiar to the traditional street flanked by a variety of users referred to by

Sennett as "points of multiple contact" (1971, 57). This type of multiple contact only springs from the existence in a centre of a variety of specific functions such as a health clinic, social services, educational facilities, a creche, physical recreation facilities and commercial and social amenities. In addition to generating intense activity these multi-function centres serve the function of attracting people who merely wish to mix informally and gain reinforcement from being in a socially intense atmosphere. Planning for this effect by the application of joint and multi-use techniques can work as the successful De Meerpahl project in Dronten verifies (Burke, 1968, 440-42).

Shared communal activities can therefore promote social interaction through stimulating casual social contact and intense activity. Similarly, the educational and recreational benefits of self-fulfilment through recurrent education emanating from conflicting and overlapping but nevertheless cohesive communal or mutual-interest groups are derived from the servicing of jointly planned centres.

The third objective of dual provision centres, that of diversifying people's interests, coincides with the aim of making recreation a creative experience. It is the aim of planners " . . . to provide opportunity and choice so that in the process of 'improvement' a variety of environmental settings are provided for the development of human creativity and for full participation in community life" (Cherry, 1970,123). The need of man to stimulate his imagination and develop creativity through cross-fertilization was well documented in Chapter 2.2. Against

this background, any contribution which the dual use of urban community facilities can make to the stimulation of individual iniative is surely significant.

The economic advantages of collaborative social and recreational planning are both well known and widely accepted. A good example, outside the sphere of education, comes from the Manchester Rugby Club and the Cheadle Hulme Cricket, Rugby and Badminton Club which amalgamated in the 1960's to ensure financial viability (North West Sports Council, 1969). Collaboration in planning, capital replacement and operational costs in effecting recreational provision is manifestly economically desirable.

One of the prime economic justifications for joint planning is the scarcity of land. The planners of the Quincy School Complex in Boston Massachusetts summed up this aspect in the following terms:

> The problem of land use is perhaps too obvious to mention, and yet the scarcity of this two-dimensional commodity in high density urban areas has been a major determinant in the nature of the Project. Sites of any shape or size are now rare enough to require more than one use in order to achieve some measure of efficiency. In addition, these spaces can no longer be considered two-dimensional. Uses and ownership must be considered in terms of levels as well as geographic location, posing legal and economic questions of control, of fiscal responsibility, of maintenance (Quincy School Community Council et al., 1969, 6).

Critical in this connection is the concept of common costs which applies to the cost of those items in a joint scheme which serve both, or all, of the components of the project. Thus common costs can be for items like shared access linkages, site acquisition, and the physical facilities themselves where neither agency can afford a separate facility. Common costs need

not refer only to the capital costs of facility provision but also to the operational and running costs of their use, an arrangement which causes much conflict in the dual provision community school and college complexes as will be shown in the ensuing section. The merit of the economies entailed by common cost savings lies in their ability to make resources stretch further. If facilities are provided at a lesser cost the resources thus saved are released for other forms of consumption, either on the provision of extra facilities or on a higher quality of provision.

The saving entailed in dual provision can, therefore, be seen to lead directly to social benefits. The resources mainly involved are land and finance and especially in the urban context where there are a large number of demands and an inelastic supply of land in the short term, a higher rate of return on investments of either of these resources is highly desirable. There is some indication that the greater productive potential of these resources results in more funds being directed to community facility provision. "With resource allocation as between different uses being fixed only in the short term, it is possible that through resource savings via techniques of joint provision and use, community facility provision will expand greatly" (Strelitz, 1972,40).

The benefits which accrue from a dual provision scheme are greater than the sum of these economic and social advantages. The intangible nature of these mainly social spin-off benefits means that they are not amenable to costing. Nevertheless, the

manifest economic advantages of dual provision are sufficient to motivate participating agencies.

6.4.2. Origins and Development of Dual Provision. Although examples of the use of school facilities by the public can be traced back to the 1930's, their more widespread provision is recent. Dual provision projects as we know them today have grown out of the development of secondary education in the 1960's when the construction of larger schools requiring extensive facilities for physical education and recreation in general presented an opportunity for buildings and playing fields to be purpose designed for shared use with the community. The high cost of school facilities and the fact that many local authorities were considering providing similar facilities for the public indicated that large scale duplication of facilities could take place at considerable cost unless effective action was taken along these lines.

Britain has a tradition of non-governmental interference in sport. Until 1965, when the first Sports Council was appointed, the only means by which parliament exerted any influence was through the Department of Education and Science, henceforth referred to as the D.E.S. Thus only school physical education merited any direct attention. Physical recreation was able to receive assistance via the grants-in-aid and subsidies distributed to voluntary bodies such as the National Playing Fields Association and the Central Council for Physical Recreation, N.P.F.A. and C.C.P.R. respectively. Since the Sports Council, by virtue of its Royal Charter, was granted executive function in 1972, it has been able to distribute grants to sports governing bodies without reference to central government. The latter does liaise with the Sports Council through the D.E.S.,

the Ministry of Housing and Local Government and the Department of the Environment, henceforth referred to respectively as the M.H.L.G., and the D.O.E.

It was the D.E.S. and the M.H.L.G. who, acting in an advisory capacity, first faced the duplication of facilities issue as early as 1964 by publishing Circular No. 49/64 "Provision of Facilities for Sport". Its essence was the need for the dual provision and use of recreation facilities and it recommended that local authorities, in determining the necessary further provision for sport and recreation in their areas, consult with other contiguous authorities because facilities in one area may serve neighbouring areas possessing authorities with power to provide them.

> . . . in boroughs and urban and rural districts, the local authority for the area and the county council have powers, and in rural districts there are also the parish councils. There should be consultations with voluntary organisations, any industrial or commercial organisations which provide sports facilities for their employees, and the local representatives of the Central Council for Physical Recreation and the National Playing Fields Association (Circular No.49/64, M.H.L.G., 1964, 2).

The circular went on to stress that especially where major facilities such as swimming baths, sports halls and recreation centres were planned collaboration was necessary. Due to the fact that the influence of this circular is so substantial the relevant recommendations with respect to collaboration in planning will be outlined here in some detail:

> In assessing local needs and the resources to match them it is appropriate to consider how far facilities for sport and physical education, already provided, or in the course of provision, at schools and other

> educational establishments can be shared with other users, or can be economically expanded to meet the needs. The provision of playing fields is normally related closely to the needs of the establishments themselves, but with good construction and maintenance some additional use even of grass pitches may be possible without undue wear; and hard-paved or porous areas and indoor facilities can often support use beyond the needs of the establishments themselves. Where facilities are made available for outside use, the need for supervision must be borne in mind . . .
>
> In planning new, or replanning existing sports provision for educational establishments, the needs of the community generally, as well as of pupils and students for both outdoor and indoor facilities should be borne in mind. Better value for money, and a wider range, may sometimes be obtained if combined provision can be made in an integrated scheme. Consultation and co-operation between the local education authority or other body responsible for the facilities, any other local authority concerned and, in appropriate cases, voluntary organisations will clearly be essential. The Departments will ensure that no unnecessary administrative difficulties are put in the way of a combined scheme (Circular No. 49/64 M.H.L.G., 1964, 2-3).

Further motivation for the dual provision and use of education facilities in particular by the community was provided in 1965 by the setting up of a working party whose brief was to look into provision for sport in Britain. The committee reported in 1968 (Sports Council, 1968) with the theme that the central problem was not the simple logistics of adequate facilities provision but the necessity ". . . to understand the reasons which attract men and women to sport and physical recreation, and in particular those which lead them to continue their participation beyond the stage of initial interest", and it was concluded most significantly, that:

> Sport and physical recreation are essentially social activities; it is the friendship and companionship found in them which is their main attraction for many people. Provision for sport and physical recreation is thus a vital part of community life (Sports Council, 1968, 13-14).

With this philosophy in mind and also cognizant of the community school's role within the community, it was decided to focus the greatest attention not upon private or commercial facilities, but upon category two of public provision, the sports grounds, gymnasia, halls and swimming pools of educational establishments. Pressure was put upon the local authorities to implement the recommendations in Circular No. 4a/64, one result of which was that in 1966 regional sports councils included on their development committees local authority representatives as well as voluntary body members. The M.H.L.G. and the D.E.S. subsequently published another circular numbered 31/66 drawing attention to the benefits and savings that could be achieved by dual provision and the need for consultation with regional sports councils. "Public Expenditure - Miscellaneous Schemes" pointed out that whilst it was unlikely that loan sanction would be given to all sports and recreation projects local authorities might wish to carry out, priority would be given to those schemes appearing to meet the greatest need, and those most efficiently and economically designed. More specifically it suggested that in this field of expenditure there might be special scope for joint schemes which incorporated both tiers of local government.

Another circular number 42/66 from the M.H.L.G. followed shortly after re-emphasizing the cuts in expenditure and the need to achieve economy in provision through dual provision. Yet again in 1970 the D.E.S. Circular No. 2/70 sent to local education authorities reminded them specifically that better value for money could be obtained if educational resources were combined with other resources to provide for sport and the general public,

and that the M.H.L.G. gave special priority to local authority dual provision schemes. This was in reality a directive to local education authorities to cooperate in the provision of facilities for educational establishments and the community. The Secretary of State specifically requested that all local education authorities were to:

> . . . review their arrangements for consultation and co-operation with other local authorities or with other departments within the same authority, and also with the bodies concerned with community facilities. This will ensure that every possible opportunity for dual provision is fully exploited (D.E.S., 1970,1).

It went on to urge wider application of this principle, particularly when there is a restriction of public expenditure on local authority services. It argued that those concerned should reach agreement and a statement of the general principles for coordination which should govern the commitment of resources to dual provision schemes, thereby providing a basis for precise definition and implementation as the opportunity presents itself. The initiative was seen to come from the education departments for such liaisons. Finally it suggested regional sports councils were well placed to offer expert guidance emphasizing at the same time that dual provision schemes did not only involve sports facilities but the whole recreation spectrum.

The gathering momentum attracted the attention of the N.P.F.A. and in 1971 they published a report entitled "Joint Provision and Multiple Use", terms which are synonymous with dual provision and dual use. The emphasis in this report is upon the community benefits of communal use of community facilities. It argues that dual provision is a community necessity even in

large conurbations where free-standing sports and recreation centres may already exist. Significantly they point out the dangers inherent in pouring all available resources into large multi-purpose prestige centres, so heavily criticized by Ball (1974), as they may be able to cater for only " . . . a relatively small proportion of the community owing either to their concentrated location in a large area or from sheer lack of space during peak requirement periods" (1971,2). To reinforce their case for dual provision and use the report lists several points: from the economic perspective it is wrong to underuse public buildings such as schools provided at public expense; it is wrong to deny the public maximum use of educational facilities; dual use and provision is often the only way to meet the tremendous latent demand for physical recreation; schools, colleges, teachers and administrators must assume their responsibilities to the community through the medium of dual provision and use; dual provision ensures a far higher quality of facilities than would otherwise be possible; the scheme can bridge the gap from school to adult club membership in addition to the more traditional generation gap; and the scheme embraces all ages of the community from nursery age to retired people (1971, 3).

The two greatest obstacles are the reticence of bureaucratic agencies to cooperate with each other and the reactionary attitudes of certain educationists. However, as the report indicates, there should be " . . . a determination not to allow prejudice and entrenched positions either to prevent such schemes coming about or . . . to hinder their full development" (N.P.F.A., 1971, 4).

The dual provision and use of physical recreation facilities has proved to be the most significant vehicle for the propagation of the community school concept in England and Wales.

> A good joint provision scheme, which virtually provides a community school, offers invaluable opportunities to revitalise a dying community or help develop community facilities which might otherwise be beyond the reach of local resources (N.P.F.A., 1971, 3).

Dual provision and use offers an opportunity for teachers, educational administrators and their committees to accept the kind of responsibility for the whole community spelt out in the 1944 Education Act, but rarely fulfilled. The main instrument whereby adoption of the D.E.S., M.H.L.G., and D.O.E. recommendations has been urged is the Sports Council. The influence of the dual provision and use policies of the ministries as expressed through the circular and by the Sports Council, and the extended policy of the Sports Council itself, has been very considerable. To date there are over thirty publications by the regional sports councils on aspects of the dual provision scheme. Most regional sports councils have set up special working parties, usually in collaboration with representatives of local authorities in their regions, to consider the possibilities of facilities sharing. In general, the publications produced take three forms. There have been a large number of surveys of the existing patterns whereby facilities are used, and of the possibilities of dual use of sports facilities, mostly in schools, but in some cases of those provided in universities and by industry. These have generated recommendations as to the need for more dual provision and use and suggestions of ways in which schemes

may be initiated and of ways in which the difficulties implicit in them may be overcome. Attitudes of those commanding facilities have been sought out. Several regional sports councils have set up conferences where both existing and proposed dual provision schemes have been discussed. More recently, several guide lines concerning the execution, implementation and management of dual use schemes have been published by regional sports councils in whose areas dual use projects have been launched. These cover aspects like the need to clarify respective financial obligations, spheres of responsibility for the management of projects, and user rights for the various participating parties, points of access and siting, points of design for storage, security, social amenities, car parking and management and staff requirements. A separate bibliography including all regional sports council and other participating agencies' reports concerning the implementation and management of dual provision and use school facilities is included as a separate section within the dissertation's full bibliography.

In response to these overt governmental and agency pressures many district and county authorities have built schools with recreational facilities including swimming pools, sports halls, squash courts, social areas with bars and cafetaria, theatres, music rooms and workshops. These facilities are usually grouped together in a separate block or attached to the school buildings with enclosed links. They either have separate blocks with discrete entrance and control points operated by a manager independent of the school who reports to the local authority or an

integrated plant and management structure under the aegis of the education department. The latter arrangement is one that more nearly approaches the ideal community college structure. The former tends to generate conflict between education and recreation departments in different tiers of local government. Nottinghamshire, Gwent and Leicestershire are amongst the leading authorities in the employment of dual provision schemes, but perhaps the most ambitious are the Abraham Moss Centre in Cheetham Crumpsall Manchester and the Sutton-in-Ashfield complex in Nottinghamshire. The Abraham Moss Centre complex includes the comprehensive community college, a district recreation centre, a college of further education and business studies, library, a club for the elderly and handicapped, youth provision, a luncheon and social club, and craft, shopping and commercial facilities. It is not intended as a prototype for similar areas although much will be learnt from the future functioning of this recently completed project. Sutton-in-Ashfield is an extension of the Abraham Moss idea with a greater range of sporting facilities and a more fully physically integrated further and school education plant.

There is undoubtedly scope for further expansion but as comprehensive school building programmes are reducing due to a declining school population and economic stringency the case for investigating the need for dual provision at the primary school level assumes increasing importance. It is not intended to pursue this tier of community education and recreation further except to identify the following extract from a report by the Cambridgeshire and Isle of Ely Education Committee which illustrates the special interest of a limited number of authorities in this sphere.

> The development of the Village Colleges and the size and character of secondary school buildings have understandably encouraged many to under-estimate the wider community role of certain primary schools. It is important, too, to remember that Village Colleges promote activities in the 'satellite' villages. It was never intended that the Village Colleges should drain the surrounding villages of community activities. There are notable examples of primary schools in the County which are not only exponents of the principle of dual use but are also, in their own way complementing the role of the Village Colleges. The Sub-Committee may well conclude that this type of development should be encouraged generally and particularly in certain cases. Measures to be taken might include their formal designation as 'Community Schools'; the establishment of community associations which would use, at charges comparable to those affiliated associations in village colleges, the school buildings as their centres; the development of a programme of further education; the establishment, where appropriate, of other community services; the inclusion of representatives of the community associations on the managing bodies; the appointment of 'community tutors' on the staffs of the primary schools who would play a role analogous to that of the adult and youth tutors in the village colleges, and the provision, by adaptation of extensions (when the latter are being built) of 'community rooms' as envisaged by the Plowden Report. Other changes that might be appropriate include additional cleaning staff and the provision in school foyers of general information boards setting out community activities. It would be particularly necessary for developments of this nature to be planned in very close association with the Governing Bodies of the Village Colleges and, in many instances, it may be appropriate for the Village College and the 'community Primary School' to be formally linked in some way, for example, by special representation on the Governing and Managing Bodies and by a small number of joint appointments of teachers (1970,2).

6.4.3. The Implementation of a Dual Provision Scheme. In order that the conflict and dissonance manifest in two basic parameters of a dual provision community college complex might be more fully appreciated a concise description of the procedures involved in a scheme's implementation is being included.

The overall terms of reference within which local government operates in such schemes has been discussed in Chapters 6.2.2. and 6.2.3. and it was pointed out that liaison between education and

recreation departments was easier within metropolitan districts, where they are within the same second tier, than within non-metropolitan authorities where education is located in the first tier county authority and recreation in the second tier district authority. The procedures described here refer to the latter situation which prevailed during the majority of dual provision schemes before local government reorganisation in 1974 and which persists still in non-metropolitan authorities.

Several works have recently been published outlining in great detail all aspects which have to be considered in the planning, designing, financing, managing and administering of a dual provision scheme. "Recreation for All : Management and Finance" produced in 1973 by the Institute of Municipal Treasurers and Accountants, and "The Management of Joint Provision Schemes" published by The West Midlands Sports Council in 1971, constitute two of the most informed and detailed texts yet produced as both agencies have been actively involved in launching and running schemes in the Midlands since the inception of the concept in the 1960's. The following section abstracts information on the main aspects of implementation included in these and other texts. Two aspects of implementation will be examined: the technical; and the financial and managerial. The technical aspects of implementation include: the siting and location requirements; the durability of physical facilities; security requirements; and the need for adaptability and structural flexibility.

The location of community facilities continues to demand careful consideration. The reasons for this are several.

Community recreation facilities with educational and recreational services are very demanding of space and their siting has a considerable impact on the social environment. Other facets of community education and recreation such as sports and arts facilities are heavy in capital cost and thus require to be easily accessible to users in order to justify the capital outlay. Social and other services included in a complex although not demanding extensive space require to be located effectively in order to facilitate coordination between departments and use by the immediate population. The basic problem in the provision of community facilities is to improve the accessibility and quality of provision which resolves itself into a choice between greater quantity with uniformity or less quantity with greater variety and spontaneity (Lee, 1971, 254). This dichotomy is synonymous with the centralisation versus dispersal issue identified by Ball (1974) and discussed in Chapters 4.2.2., 5.2. and 6.3. in connected with the function of community schools and colleges. Cut-off points along this continuum must be identified in order to determine the location and catchment areas of centres (Molyneux, 1968, 154). The logistics of both tiers of community education and recreation have been precisely delineated as have the statistical characteristics of the local nature of participation in Chapter 4.1.1. The location of both the community school and college centres on the spatial and functional hierarchy of urban recreation provision which is essential to the effective planning of facilities, has thus been effected. But of equal importance is the juxtapositioning of ancillary facilities and the

fact that the only facilities that can be included in a community complex are those which share a single functional domain and which do not duplicate dispersed nuclei of community recreation.

The function of community education and recreation centres, having been determined as one of a resource centre and pump-primer embracing ancillary facilities which share a similar functional domain but which only service other spontaneous community nuclei of recreation, is primarily influenced by those formulating policy for the respective ancillary services. Fortuitously, " . . . current thinking would suggest that the pattern of education provision is not only very well suited to the pattern of recreation provision, but also to the provision of other community services" (Strelitz, 1972, 97).

In order to site a centre to the optimum advantage of the users such factors as the needs and socio-cultural characteristics of the potential users, accessibility via public transport, adjacent facilities' competing catchment areas, financial constraints, socio-demographic features of the catchment area, and anticipated future developments, have to be considered pursuant to the derivation of a centre philosophy and objectives and in addition to the locational considerations of centralisation and dispersion (Appendix 1).

In attempting to further define the community college and school cut-off points on a spatial and functional continuum it is important to note that the apparent sacrifice of the convenience factor and the duplication of spontaneous informal dispersed nuclei of community activities, resulting from a more

complex and centralised form of provision, can be counteracted if only a select range of facilities are juxta-positioned in a strategic community node location thereby reducing extra travel and duplication. Facilities servicing a variety of different uses and users, whose catchment areas while being coincidental are not necessarily coterminous, make stringent demands on centrally located sites. It may be deduced, therefore, that both the central siting and the juxta-positioning of a limited range of ancillary facilities is to the benefit of potential users' access, and furthermore it is not necessarily detrimental to the servicing function of community education and recreation centres if managed correctly. The inclusion of commercial uses like shopping and amusement amenities does not detract from the viability of local government provision either. Burke, on commenting on the De Meerpahl centre in Dronten Holland, makes the point that, far from commercial values depreciating, the Meerpahl is " . . . doing town centre trade a power of good" (1968, 442). Centrally locating a centre is relatively simple in new towns where land is low in price and readily accessible. In dense urban areas which are being redeveloped it is advisable to integrate the centre with existing parks of the neighbourhood type and the open spaces system as a whole.

It is realised that it may not always be possible to centrally locate a centre within a community. They may nevertheless serve a modified function depending upon the needs of their catchment area and also cater for a specialised activity which will articulate with the regional planning of the urban facility hierarchy.

The durability and security component requirements of the technical aspects of implementation merit little attention in the context of this dissertation except to point out that intensive community use of facilities may cause undue deterioration in their condition. The relative merits of synthetic, hard porous surfaces in place of grass and the merits of low maintenance wall surfaces are issues which command attention. Security requirements can often inhibit the use by the community of school facilities as agencies are reluctant to permit extended use when faced with vandalism. One way to relax this constraint is to pursuade agencies that the security threshold lies further in than the boundary at which they perceive it. The community may, in other words, utilize the complex simultaneously with the school children if effective control mechanisms are implemented within the complex. It is important to note that vandalism appears to occur in inverse proportion to the degree of community participation in centre management (Wealthy, 1974, 2 - 5).

The relative merits of flexibility and of purpose-built constructions are being continuously evaluated and the technical means of flexibility continually evolved. Structural flexibility is widely encouraged as a sound strategy, despite the high standards required by special sports, as it has a value as a hedge against future uncertainty.

> Thus the aim would be to minimise the possible foreclosure of future courses of action, by forestalling, whenever possible, the onset of irreversible processes and by avoiding the adoption of single-purpose solutions (O'Riordan, 1971, 112).

For functions like recreation, tastes and fashions change and precise demands are hard to predict. Flexibility of structure is one way of overcoming this demand uncertainty. Other types of ancillary community provision such as the social services are subject to changes in the style of service delivery as are educational teaching methods. There is a danger, particularly in dense inner urban areas where complexes are inclined to greater structural complexity, for facilities to be committed to a single physical structure. Design features incorporating mechanisms permitting multi-use must therefore be included in these centres.

> Recreation facilities must also aim to be flexible and multi-purpose in their use. Sports halls designed to serve a number of activities will stand a better chance of accommodating the changes in taste and in popularity of different activities which occur and which should be expected (Molyneux, 1968, 154).

The financial and managerial aspect of implementing a dual provision community education and recreation scheme pervades a plethora of legal and monetary considerations. The main areas to be discussed, therefore, are those which infringe upon the effectiveness with which the centres' systems attain the objectives and thus fulfil the philosophy of the centre, these areas are: the cost apportionment for capital and running costs; management structure and the joint management committee; the functions of the manager.

The formula adopted when a non-metropolitan county council education department or L.E.A. liaises with a district council's recreation department in the provision of communal facilities within a dual provision comprehensive school is encapsulated

within a draft agreement between the two councils. An example of such an agreement is included in Appendix 2. The basic tenet embodied within such draft agreements is that county L.E.A.'s will make available to the community school facilities and finance their running costs on the condition that the district council finances facilities which will make the centre suitable for community use. Both the school and the community are thus deemed to derive benefit. There are various forms of dual provision (Appendix 3) although all are aimed at providing an upgraded and more varied facility. The salient point to note, however, is that these formulae for cooperation do not stipulate or facilitate any form of school-community symbiosis in terms of the management or the physical plants' facilities. Due to differentiation of function within local government the dual provision scheme agreement is the only mechanism by which the community can gain access into schools. The integration of departments, recommended in Chapter 6.2.2., especially in metropolitan districts would obviate the need for much of a dual provision agreement.

The cost apportionment for capital and running costs is most commonly ascertained by the application of the principle of prorated participant costs, whereby the contributions of the participating agencies are fixed in accordance with the anticipated availability of the shared facilities to each. Usage has usually been equated at 40% to the school and L.E.A., and 60% to the community or district council. Further details of the cost apportionment on this prorated basis are included in Appendix 5 sections 8.10 and 8.17. Adoption of prorated cost apportionment

usually results in the district council making a larger contribution, this will allow in addition to extension of the facility, for an improved or more varied facility. At the present time a precise apportionment of both capital and operational costs on the prorated basis of respective availability of facilities may have to be modified. The D.E.S. adheres to the principle that the cost limit for a school must be determined by normal considerations of school building policy. Thus, as there are restrictions on the extent to which the school facilities may service the community, any community facilities are attributable to district council resources. If these prove inadequate any exess, over and above the 60% allowance, deemed desirable must be met by other sources such as voluntary bodies. The demarcation between school and community facility usage is a source of conflict as will become evident in the ensuing section.

The management problem inherent in dual provision schemes is essentially the result of functional and political differentiation within local government as well as a dearth of consensus on the organisational configuration of community education and recreation. It is a direct legacy of the differentiation between education, recreation, social services and other interested agencies in local government. If education commanded authority over both the financial and managerial aspects of community education and recreation as a servicing agent coordinating contributions from other departments as is practicable at metropolitan district level, then there would be a significant reduction in the conflict which emanates from management systems in dual provision

schemes. However, solutions to departmental differentiation must provide for coordination of participant agents' diverse interests towards a common end, without stifling their independence. The Joint Management Committee, or J.M.C., is the solution recommended (Appendix 4).

The precise composition of the J.M.C. varies with the scheme but it generally reflects the respective contributions of participants to the dual scheme. In addition to the school's governors, county and district councillors, school personnel and education and recreational specialists, a J.M.C. may also include community users. The extent to which they are instrumental in policy making and executive decision-making processes is a moot but critical point.

The existence of a J.M.C. in a dual provision scheme is vital in resolving the conflict arising from the diverging interests of participating agencies. It need not have authority over participants [redacted]hey run their private facilities or conduct their operati[redacted]can have ultimate authority for those aspects which r[redacted]all parties in a dual scheme. It may assist in the coordinati[redacted]tween these parties for the formulation of user policy and a[redacted]istration of joint financial responsibilities. The J.M.C. is resp[redacted]ible for the employment of recreational facility staff an[redacted]n so doing is capable of counteracting the inherent ambiguity of staff with respect to which agency they are answerable. It purports, therefore, to synthesize the educational and recreational components by ensuring a continuity of service to both the school and the community. The Quincy

School Community Council puts the point strongly that the very existence of a unified overall body will make it more likely that personnel employed by either teaching, medical, social or recreational agencies will collaborate (1969,49).

The manager of the community recreation component of a dual provision scheme is employed by, and is answerable to, the district council which employs him. His terms of reference are outlined in Appendix 4 section C but it is essential to appreciate the limits of his jurisdiction and conversely his potential for synthesizing the school with the community. The manager is responsible to the J.M.C. whose policy he executes. Due to local government structure, he is not part of the school unit and in effect only administers the community section of the total plant in extra-curricular hours. His official powers for promoting school-community interests are severely limited by the political expediency of the J.M.C. In addition to his authority over the logistical functioning of the centre and its ancillary personnel the manager possesses the potential for liaising with the school management and appropriate personnel in an effort at overcoming the false dichotomy between school and community use. Despite these concessions to community education and recreation as conceived in this dissertation, the manager remains a discrete entity as an employee of a second tier district authority recreation department as opposed to school staff who are employees of a first tier county authority L.E.A. Even in metropolitan authorities where both departments are in the second tier, recreation management and school staff are effectively separated by their respective departments.

The dual provision scheme, whilst promoting the initial hesitant steps towards an integrated community education and recreation system, has generated dissonance within the sector and a resultant absence of any coherent policy. This is a legacy of intra-local government differentiation and the dearth of a community education and recreation rationale.

6.4.4. Dissonance Within Community College Dual Provision Schemes.

Areas of dissonance within the management and planning of community education and recreation with particular reference to the community college have already been indicated. Dissonance can be considered to occur within two broad, inter-related and by no means mutually exclusive parameters: sector rationale and local government structure; and centre management and organisation - environment interface.

Although arrangements for facilities sharing can themselves constitute instruments of social change, a cultural predisposition to the types of change implied by any particular set of such arrangements, must be viewed as essential for any successful implementation. In fact, enforced sharing, where not all parties are amenable to dual provision, can actually provoke an expression of hostility between participating parties where this might have otherwise remained latent. The weight of cultural constraint can be considerable. The experience of those agencies who have been engaged in these schemes indicates that attitudinal factors are very significant. Sympathy for the concept by participating agencies is insufficient, a positive inclination to the means of sharing is essential. Consequently the need for active support of the principles involved, goodwill, cooperation, patience, open-mindedness, etc. is stressed (C.C.P.R., 1968,69).

Although many problems and sources of conflict arise from institutional and technical sources, some are manifestations of, and rationalisations for, lack of interest in effecting dual provision. These attitudes, in conjunction with a positive value placed on the tradition of schools being provided exclusively for school use and the belief that simultaneous use of space by both adult and school groups is incompatible, are all examples of cultural constraints. Where such attitudes obtain, the implementation of dual provision will evidence dissonance either in the local government departmental agency or in the school's management agency.

Where there are such instances of agency insularity, the reasons range from fears of ambivalence of symbolic meaning, lack of clarity, organisational disfunction, through to feelings that certain functions are only operable in physical isolation, an unwillingness to accept change or resistance to innovation. These cultural constraints have their source in the major participating agencies of education, recreation, local government administration, elected councillors and to a certain extent in the organisation's community environment of user clients. A radical structural elaboration within local governments is not sufficient to promote the community education and recreation concept in the inhibiting presence of each participating agency's cultural constraints.

Difficulties which arise in effecting collaboration between executive agencies whilst being cultural in nature are more specifically institutional in that they pertain to executive agency norms as opposed to those of society at large. Institutional constraints affecting executive agency collaboration commonly take three major forms: inter-agency information flow, executive

agencies' structure; and executive agency priorities (Follett, 1971, 148 - 154).

An essential prerequisite for any agency potentially participant in a dual provision scheme is knowledge of other participating agencies' characteristics. This normally takes the form of knowledge of other agencies' facilities, their intentions and basic concepts, and confirmation of the fact that other angencies can provide facilities at a lower cost than that at which a given agency could provide on a separate basis. These information requirements can be met at local government level by inter-departmental corporate management. Amos suggests that planners can play an important note in effecting information flow within local government corporate management at county level by introducing monitoring techniques which they already employ (1971,306). Techniques recommended by the West Midlands Sports Council (1971, 39-42) to facilitate inter-agency information flow have not always been adopted, they include: county and district authorities overtly declaring their interest in dual provision schemes; all school building projects being conceived of as potential schemes; all lower tier local government, including community association, informing higher tiers of tentative development proposals; all informal and voluntary agencies considering dual provision liaising with local government; and finally, full and open discussions preceding any provision.

The structures of participating executive agencies also give rise to dissonance. O'Riordan, in discussing the attitudes of agency personnel, refers to a characteristic desire of most

organisations survive and grow, " . . . for growth adds prestige, power, and income to its members, and survival means economic and psychological security" (1971, 105). The influence of vested interests in terms of an agency's continued survival as identifiable in its tangible output, is very relevant. Agencies are reluctant to collaborate in dual provision schemes if their role is not as readily apparent as it would be if facilities were provided on a separate basis. This convergent thinking is reinforced by the bureaucratic insulation of personnel who identify strongly with the goals and strategies of their agency and who are reluctant to accept innovation (O'Riordan, 1971, 105). These characteristics of agency structure can be expected to militate against the execution of dual provision schemes and especially against community education and recreation despite reorganisation of local government, a reduction in departments, and the introduction of corporate management.

A third form of institutional constraint arises from the differing priorities of executive agencies. Solesbury (1968, 2) stresses the significance of this issue when pointing out that local authority priorities for action which are imposed by central government militate against coordinated local authority proposals which often are not in accord with national priorities or resources. The salient component of priorities is that of finance which has a strong bearing on the educational component of dual provision. The key-sector allocation of capital to education is not linked to the non-key sector allocation to recreation and this dissonance is exacerbated by education's two year notice of commencement of

construction which is hardly long enough to allow effective inter-agency consultation or complex scheme planning. Another aspect of this constraint is that the more functional components there are to be included in a complex, the greater the number of agencies likely to be involved and the more varying the range of impinging priorities.

Apart from further local authority departmental amalgamations, the one apparent solution to institutional constraints is earlier and wider inter-agency consultations.

6.4.4.1. Local Government Parameter of Dissonance. In illustrating this cultural and institutional dissonance more specifically, the community education and recreation sector's rationale as reflected in local government structure will be examined. This parameter of dissonance includes the manner in which local government departments cooperate both in an inter-tier and unitary authority context in the effectuation of dual provision community college schemes, and the way in which this cooperation indicates the stage of derivation of a general approach to community education and recreation amongst the participating executive agencies.

As social organisations become more specialised and differentiated so the range of agencies proliferates to service the differing functions. These aspects of social organisation evolution towards increasing complexity are identified by Durkheim in the "Division of Labour in Society" (1960). As the range of recreation activities has increased, the diversity of user groups who participate has widened accordingly as has the specialisation of facilities and the corresponding increase in different servicing

agencies within local government. The functional domains within executive agencies has also increased. Figures 5,6 and 8 illustrate this differentiation of agencies and their component functional domains which service community education and recreation. The education agency includes pre-school, nursery, primary, secondary, higher, adult and further education, as well as youth services and employment domains, each differentiated by means of age, interest, perceived ability, social class, and catered for in a range of separate facilities. In addition, some domains inter-relate with other agencies such as social services and recreation. Molyneux (1968, 149-156) emphasizes that a profile of the recreation agency shows an equally differentiated range of functions. In addition to catering for the whole spectrum of district urban activities the range of ancillary agencies which liaise with recreation includes the private leisure industry sector, voluntary bodies, industrial and commercial concerns, libraries, allotments, social services, education, the national and country parks and open spaces, and highways. The extent of differentiation becomes further apparent when urban recreation provision is catered for by the traditional baths, parks or cemetaries departments. The extent of differentiation, the number of agencies and their functional domains, and their associated personnel, have significant implications for community education and recreation's service delivery.

> . . . urban recreation has had to operate through a proliferation of departments, through agencies which carry such tell-tale names as 'evening institutes' and 'further education' . . . (Molyneux, 1968, 154).

The critical point to appreciate, however, is that when considering the planning and management of recreation within the community situation the terms of reference and relationships of the relevant executive agencies are coterminous. But although the specific characteristics of the recreational service required maybe similar, the functional domains and priorities of executive agency departments are differentiated. It is characteristic of this recreative problem not to be cognizant of the fact that although individuals fulfil various segmentalised roles in society in the work, education and recreation spheres, these need not be played out in their normal ascribed context.

The results of these differentiated departmental executive agencies, functional domains and resources are sources of dissatisfaction in the community and inhibition of the development of an integrated community education and recreation rationale. These may be enumerated as follows: uneconomic provision; socially devisive facilities; and separation of executive agencies' functional domains with its attendant detrimental effect upon the solution of multi-dimensional problems such as social malaise.

With the responsibility for provision of community college facilities fragmented between numerous agencies in both tiers of local government and in central government, the resultant pattern of provision is frequently uneconomic. This can take the form of overprovision and duplication of a certain facility which several agencies have the power and finance to provide, sports halls are but one example. Conversely, agencies acting in isolation cannot raise sufficient capital to provide a

necessary facility resulting in under-provision.

> . . . there is lack of cooperation between developers, fragmentation of local authority responsibility, and a virtual absence, until recently, of comprehensive regional or sub-regional provision on a properly planned basis. There is accordingly both duplication of efforts and an inadequacy of provision (Cherry, 1971, 107-8).

In the context of over-provision the West Midlands Sports Council have remarked: "We think the overlapping in provision between an education authority and a district authority is expensive; this cannot be afforded" (1967, 26). It is thus wasteful to provide separate facilities for different social groups of the community purely on account of their roles determining which agency and functional domain services their needs. The House of Lords Select Committee "Second Report on Sport and Leisure" (1974) recommended an amalgamation between the education and recreation authority at first tier level in non-metropolitan authorities and at district level in metropolitan authorities, as a means of countering this departmental differentiation and consequent uneconomic provision. The reaction of the Association of District Councils exemplifies the bureaucratic insularity and executive agency structural vested interest as well as a dearth of consensus concerning the concept's rationale.

> . . . the totally new concept that the recreational authority and the education authority should be the same, is completely unacceptable, as recreation is not primarily a means of instructing school children during the whole of the year (1974, 2).

This attitude is completely untenable in terms of enlightened recurrent education thinking and also when it is considered that both education and recreation authorities are at local grass roots second tier level in metropolitan authorities and are thus in a

position to liaise in the fulfilment of local needs. The lack of unanimity on policy and priorities in respect of community education and recreation in local government is reflected in a failure of both education and recreation to recognise the fact that the aims of the school may be seen to merge with the leisure needs of contemporary society. The education agency reflects similar views to those expressed above by district council recreation departments when presented with a situation where their structural autonomy is impinged upon and their specific educational objectives of role allocation challenged.

> Anything which appears to interfere with or slow down the attainment of these narrower objectives is seen as either irrelevant or positively anti-educational. Schools are for learning, they say; Recreation Centres and Youth Clubs are strictly for non-working hours - for those who can spare the time. Thus, school is the juvenile equivalent of the factory or the office and the sooner children learn to recognise the difference, the better, . . . the juxtaposition of school and recreational facilities is a distraction and a nuisance to be avoided like the plague (Edmondson and Baldwin, 1975, 107).

Thus it transpires that the socially devisive source of dissatisfaction manifests itself. The pattern of executive agency attitudes is socially separationist and it in turn imposes limitations on the individual's range of experience. The essential point which must be made here is that in the absence of a statutory requirement to differentiate school and community in recreation as well as education it is inappropriate and unnecessary to resist dual provision and only accede to the concept on financial grounds.

> Too often, . . . dual use is seen as an economy measure by the Education Committee and the District Council, or by two committees of the same council, each hoping to save money at the other's expense. Talk of maximising the use of

> resources may be a good political point to persuade those who can only be got at by an appeal to the purse-strings (Edmondson and Baldwin, 1975, 112).

The adoption of dual provision as an economy measure is based on the fallacious belief that both capital and running costs will be lower. This disregards the supply-demand equation which indicates a significant increase in demand and usage as a result of the new facilities provision.

Departmentalism and institutional constraints in the form of inter-agency flow and organisation structure result in dual provision schemes becoming a battleground for power and prestige instead of a field for cooperation. Committee members and professional officers responsible for recreation services often suggest that education as an institution has failed in counteracting vandalism and other short-comings of the adolescent counter-culture. Executive agency differentiation is further reinforced by the fact that Education receives 55-60% of the rates, a proportion far in excess of any other authority department. The recurrent education functional domain of education is also heavily criticised by recreation departments on the grounds that it only services a select fringe of the community. Education is considered in general to be too narrow in its approach and stringent in the application of its rules and regulations which govern the social groups eligible to be serviced by its various domains. The education agency, on the other hand, fears a take over of facilities by recreation and leisure departments. Educationists fear a dilution of standards as a result of sharing; that the essential needs of children may be subordinated to the recreational needs of adults. Despite the implementation of

dual provision schemes, the education agency believe that priority must be given to children in full-time education. The fear is that resources allocated to education will be quickly worn out and destroyed by community use. These recreation and education agency attitudes are typical of organisations anxious to retain their identity and fearful of losing power and status as a result of innovations. Although dual provision schemes can be effected, if only for financial reasons, the development of community education and recreation will be arrested until such time as a coherent rationale is developed for the sector.

> If a multi-use Centre is to be the subject of a tug-of-war between two committees it cannot prosper. It is not sufficient to have a Constitution and a Management Committee which simply safeguard the interests of two different departments of local government. It is essential to have a Committee of individuals who are committed to the principle of multi-use and are determined to make it work, by giving it the necessary backing and resources (Edmondson and Baldwin, 1975,113).

The differentiated pattern of provision and the resultant separation of functional domains also militates against the solution of multi-dimensional problems. The opportunities for grasping and mechanisms for tackling these issues are hindered by a functional fragmentation of services which is not resolved solely by corporate planning (Stewart, 1969, 31). The prevalence of such multi-dimensional problems as urban malaise and paucity of community facilities will not be reduced under the influence of this ineffective service delivery. The need is for a strengthening of the interface between functionally differentiated services. The Maud Report (1967) was cognizant of the need to re-group local government departments, particularly at the more grass roots second tier level, on a more coherent basis. Despite the 1974 local

government reorganisation it is not possible to overcome structural delimitations, identify objectives and evaluate alternative programmes for their effectuation. A multi-purpose organisation, programmes of action and departmental cooperation by agencies that conventionally have discretely defined roles, is necessary to promote the community education and recreation concept beyond the stage of dual provision.

Paramount, in the sense that it pre-determines all other forms of cooperation, amongst departmental priorities is finance. Of all the factors relating to executive agency cooperation for growth and development, finance is by far the most important. Integrated provision needs a unified system of financing and budgetary control as it will allow for a common-sense approach to providing for educational and recreational needs from whatever domain they might come. "Financial integration is indeed an important aspect of the wider concept and will help achieve integration to the fullest extent" (Edmondson and Baldwin, 1975, 110). This concept applies not only within the community college system, where financing for activities may come from education, recreation, youth and social services, as well as domains within these agencies such as libraries, parks, further education, youth, and community development, but also within the local authority as well.

Capital expenditure on recreation is a non-key-sector item of local government expenditure, whereas education is a key-sector item. This means in effect that education has less flexibility in the amount that it can allocate although greater security. Recreation, although less secure in that it is more subject to

financial stringencies, has greater flexibility and thus responsiveness to local wishes. This fact enhances dissonance between the two departments in so far as recreation possesses the financial power to rea[illegible]local needs whereas education is unable to be so flexi[illegible]ally whilst at the same time possessing the essenti[illegible]ots contacts through school plant users which rec[illegible]tion [illegible] have access to. Building cost yardsticks impos[illegible]y ce[illegible]l government on housing and education create artificial [illegible]rri[illegible] to the integrated recreational provision of lands[illegible] play provision, communal facilities, and housing developments[illegible]he playing fields' and educational buildings' rigid spa[illegible]and cost allowance militate equally strongly against the dual prov[illegible]on schemes. The need is for the education - recreation fiscal allo[illegible]ce to become flexible enough to meet the community education[illegible]nd recreation grass roots needs, as opposed to being oriented towards larger projects which do not contribute towards commun[illegible] development, whilst retaining key-sector security.

> In national economic planning terms, there may also be scope for the diversion of substantially greater funds away from prestige projects, benefitting very limited sectors of the population, towards community facilities at the local level (Association of Metropolitan Authorities, 1974, 3).

The financial situation is even more exacerbated by the fact that purpose-built recreation facilities such as swimming baths and sports halls are labour intensive and consequently find it hard to meet running costs. These revenue implications of capital expenditure mean that recreation departments as well as education departments whilst working within the basic financial limitations of national and local resource allocation are being additionally

loaded with running subsidisation. The basic financial limitations with which local authorities have to contend mean that unless extra allowances or a more flexible, coordinated and integrated loan sanction and Government grants priorities policy is forthcoming from central government, the provision of facilities will be impeded both in the educational and recreational sector. These sources of financial dissatisfaction together with the executive agency constraints combine to form a considerable source of dissonance in the pursuit of an integrated community education and recreation provision policy (Appendix 6). The counter-productive influence of these two aspects of dissonance is well illustrated in the Association of District Councils' views on an education-recreation synthesis.

> . . . the Association do not accept that it would be desirable to draw education and recreation together . . . Education takes up so much of the county councils' budget and the education service has so many problems of its own that unless district councils are involved on an equal basis it is almost inevitable that educational considerations will be allowed to outweigh wider community considerations (1974,6).

6.4.4.2. Community College Parameter of Dissonance. The second parameter of dissonance in the planning and management of community education and recreation provision is the management system in dual provision community college schemes and its interface and integration with its catchment area users (Figure 12).

The conflict inherent in the differentiated structure of local government control over dual provision schemes is compounded by similar dissonance within the dual provision centre. An in-depth organisational analysis of a dual provision scheme will be effected in Part 2 of the dissertation preceded by the

formulation of a recreation management organisational analysis model. At this point, therefore, it will suffice simply to refer to the major components of a centre's organisation in which conflict has been shown to occur.

Intra-organisational conflict may be due to a variety of causes located mainly in inter-group and inter-personal behaviour. Aggressiveness, rationalising, vacillation and ambivalence are all evidence of inter-personal behaviour conflict attributable to lack of consensus over the organisation's goals or a lack of effective channels of communication (Argyris, 1957, 29). The communications net or patterns of communication is not always synonymous with the organisation chart and management tree. The former is more likely to coincide with the informal rather than the formal structure of the organisation (Leavitt, 1964, 382). This disparity between the two structures evident in the communication net together with other manifestations of inter-group and inter-personal conflict are as likely to occur in a community college organisation as in a commercial concern. The planners of dual provision schemes are aware of such potential sources of conflict within centres. Accordingly, the advisability of setting goals or objectives is thus highly recommended for "It is a fundamental precept of management to establish objectives first, and then to consider the means whereby those objectives can be achieved" (West Midlands Sports Council, 1971, 15). The fact that many of these schemes are seen, however, as an opportunity to provide for a wide range of sporting, cultural and social activities, increases the likelihood that they may develop instances of organisational conflict particularly in the sphere of goal conflict.

Cooperation and coordination between the executive agencies providing the centre is stressed in many reports. Indeed, the West Midlands Sports Council suggests that a joint scheme should not be attempted unless " . . . there is a willingness to work a management structure to satisfy all partners and users" (1971, 12). That a large measure of agreement is both necessary and desirable is noted by Jones who draws attention to the reasons for cooperation, "Good will between partners and a determination to succeed are fundamental requirements" (1973, 7). The crucial area has been even more precisely identified as a confrontation between the two sides of executive agencies involved in provision represented by two personnel leading each agency in the centre's management, " . . . the secret seems to be the relationship between the Headmaster and the Director" (East Midlands Sports Council, 1971 (a), 17).

The difficulties inherent in the management and administration of dual-provision schemes are widely appreciated and while it is apparent that many authorities prefer to avoid conflict (N.P.F.A., 1971, 15) others consider that schemes which generate conflict develop in the long term a more viable management system. This could be due to the resolution of the issues on what Sherif (1964, 410) terms a "superordinate or over-riding objective" basis whereby both agencies are forced to cooperate to achieve a goal which they both desire.

Methods of achieving and maintaining this essential liaison and the problems attendant upon cooperation are alluded to in the East Midlands Report (1971 (a), 12) to the effect that interpersonal relationships across the school-public divide are

instrumental in the amelioration of dissonance. A critical issue, equal in importance to the Headmaster - Director-Manager relationship, is the structure and function of the Joint Management Committee, or J.M.C. This body should provide the context within which flexible negotiations and agreements may be effected and in which the Manager together with other executive officers of the centre's management might be granted considerable leeway in the interpretation of management policy in order to effect integration.

Confusion over objectives, personal and group behavioural problems of conflict, and absence of a viable rationale are inherent in the organisation of dual provision community college centres despite the fact that "There is evidence that larger schemes which include social and cultural aspects of recreation may be seen as the forerunners and perhaps initiators of 'open' schools" (Ashe,1973,18).

The areas in which conflict has been identified are: the philosophy and objectives of the centre; the J.M.C.; the status-role-function of the Manager or Director of Community Activities; management structure communication net; and the organisation's integration and interface with its environment.

The philosophy and objectives of the centre as conceived initially by the local authority planners, and secondly by the centre management personnel are a constant source of friction. It was earlier indicated that a prime motivation for implementing dual provision was the cost saving factor. Although certain progressive individuals within the education agency have expressed a desire for an education centred community the basic rationale for such centres is oriented towards economic and facility provision

objectives. The "marriage of convenience on economic grounds", as Edmondson and Baldwin term it (1975, 107), has failed to adequately define the specific functions of such centres with the result that the two sides of the alliance have differing interpretations of their role in the community. The local nature of participation and the function of the community college have been fully enunciated in Chapters 4.1.1., 5.2. and 6.3.3. but a comparable appreciation of these specific functions is not apparent in proposals for dual provision schemes. This can be witnessed, particularly in respect of running costs, in two reports produced by a district council which is attempting to resist the county council's proposals for two dual provision schemes (Appendix 6). Recommendations for the resolution of this district-county authority dispute are included in Appendix 7. The most serious omission in a centre's terms of reference is the size and characteristics of its catchment area and its specific educational and recreational function within this environment.

The community recreation facilities service a catchment area which is in excess of the 15-30,000 population ascribed to a community college. This is due in part to recreation departments' failure to appreciate the necessity for a regional hierarchy, the larger-than-local appeal of the facilities themselves, but most importantly to the inability of recreation departments to establish grass roots contacts and thus appreciate the needs of the centre's immediate community. The education agency's more specific service to its catchment area is thus at variance with the pattern of usage associated with the recreation agency's provision. Similarly, the youth, community development and recurrent education

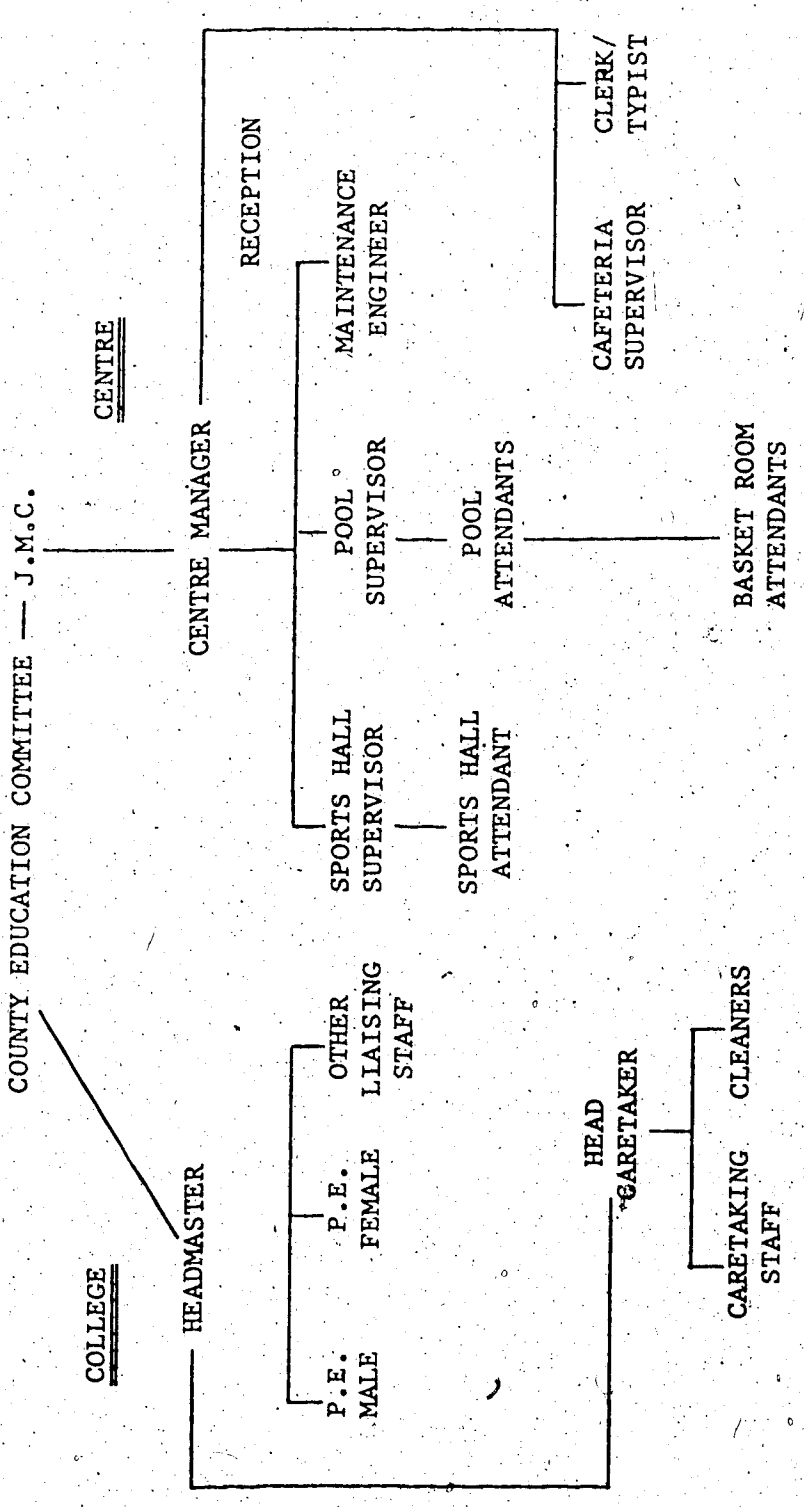


Figure 12.

Management Structure of a Typical Dual Provision Community College

domains of education and social services tend to conflict with the supra-community recreation objectives. This dissonance of environment-service function becomes evident when the configuration of certain recent developments in dual provision schemes is considered. It will be recalled that the community college's function was that of a resource centre and pump primer to its 15-30,000 population. Although serving as a centripetal node to its immediate 3-5,000 population neighbourhood it seeks to centrifugally stimulate ancillary focii of activity throughout its environment acting as a resource nexus. Complexes such as the Abraham Moss Centre in Manchester, centralise a range of facilities with differing potential catchment areas and functions. The ability of such centres, particularly through their sporting facilities, to generate community self-management is limited. The essential criterion of community education and recreation is thus confounded by the recreation agency provision.

> The largeness isolates the users from one another, and that does not bode well for a prospective "centre of corporate life". It bodes even less well for the growing opinion among practitioners of community education that these centres offer scope not only as "living educational and social centres", but as bases for community development," "enlarging the social conscience" . . . and as places which are under the management and control of the community . . . The theory was, the more you provide, the more people will come. What was forgotten, and still is, is that the more you provide for people, the less they can provide for themselves (Ball, 1974, 2).

Thus, the situation with regard to objectives as envisaged by the two major participating executive agency planners, is one of disparity. Although the juxta-positioning of a range of ancillary facilities with spatially and functionally coincidental domains can be advantageous to users in respect of access in

particular, the absence of a coherent policy for community participation coupled with incompatability in service function between education and recreation leads to a counter-productive dissonance in objectives.

The centre management personnel's conception of the objectives is consistent with the agency which employs them. Ashe's (1973) and Vernon's (1973) studies provide abundant empirical evidence to support the contention that the dichotomy apparent in local government cooperation persists in the college's management structure. Personnel attached to the recreation department sector of a complex, such as recreation leaders and in particular the manager, feel that the community should gain more access to facilities during school time, while their counterparts in the college complain of being unable to have exclusive access to facilities for team practices (Ashe, 1973, 23-4). The Headmaster of dual provision complexes is answerable to the education department and whilst coordinating the complex as a whole, he does not exercise jurisdiction over the recreation facilities' management and planning. Thus, the fact that Headmasters of such dual provision schemes consider " . . . . the centre to provide a focal and unifying point for the community" (Ashe, 1973, 23) is not of great significance. Of much greater significance was Vernon's (1973, 30) and Ashe's (1973, 29) findings that the J.M.C. were uncertain particularly of the school's or college's function in the scheme. "The school 'side' felt that they could not comment, that they were not clear as to its purpose anyway" (Ashe, 1973,29).

The management of these centres as represented by the J.M.C. is also a source of conflict when its function should be one of integration. It frequently becomes an arena for party politics and dogma and a focus for the recreation-education confrontation. The local councillors, who dominate these committees not only numerically but tactically, formulate policy for the manager to execute. With the absence of unification of departments in local government, the differentiation of agencies projects into community college management. The result being that both users, who are minimally represented on a J.M.C., and college management personnel fail to play a significant role in the formulation of a unitary policy.

> Without having from the onset a Management Committee totally committed to the concept, the tendency has been to deal with the more accessible party thus creating a situation which might conceivably cause division. Unified management at committee level governing all aspects of budgetry control, staffing and operational policy is vital if we are to succeed (Edmondson and Baldwin, 1975, 108).

The fiscal aspect of management represents, as it does at local authority level, the differentiation of executive agencies. Funding commonly emanates from a diversity of domains. School funds, further education funds, youth service funds and recreation committee funds all contribute to the financing of community education and recreation under the control of the J.M.C. The result of this discrete agency funding is overprovision in some areas and under provision in others. The need for the J.M.C. to exert a symbiotic influence on dual provision schemes by obviating instead of projecting local authority differentiation is critical.

> The Management Committee is therefore the dominant factor in deciding which way the Centre will develop and must be selected with great care before it comes into being. It must depart, to some degree, from entrenched positions both in the Educational and Recreational fields (Edmondson and Baldwin, 1975, 108).

The manager's role within a community college which is dually provided is to effect the policy of the J.M.C. He is answerable to, and employed by, the recreation department. The function thus tends to become one of representing the community's interests as opposed to the college's, instead of seeking to fulfil community development needs through an integrated policy. His counterpart in the school or college component is the Headmaster and it is their inter-personal relationship which can facilitate school-community synthesis. Managers frequently feel that J.M.C.'s are out of touch with policy requirements, a feeling endorsed by Ashe's findings which elicited the opinion from J.M.C. members that " . . . a sense of not really knowing where they were going and with what aim was the main problem facing the centre (1973,30).

Managers are instrumental in effecting a closer school-community link by seeking to integrate the community into normal college hours instead of confining them to extra-curricular sessions. Dual provision agreements (Appendix 6), however, preclude such inter-penetration. Recreation and in particular education departments tend to reinforce this mutual exclusiveness. The manager therefore tends to be left with the responsibility of promoting community interests, a task which is not viable due to the recreation department's lack of grass roots contact and its tendency to provide facilities and management, in competition with school requirements. The provision of recurrent education

courses by the education department's functional domains within the college's context duplicates and further reinforces the schismatisation of community education and recreation provision. The manager is thus the focus of a high degree of dissonance. His relationship with the J.M.C., the college's Headmaster and cooperating staff, and users is one that is not conducive to a harmonious development of community education and recreation.

> Communication between the groups had decreased and they did not appear to want to meet each other face to face, other than at formal Trust (J.M.C.) meetings. This became evident from the fact that although the Headmaster of the school and the Manager of the Centre had their offices in the same building, with an efficient internal telephone system, all their communication was done by letter or notes (Vernon, 1973, 29).

The management structures communication net is commonly at variance with the established formal structure and institutionalised channels of communication and command. Both the teacher's and recreationist's professional organisations are guilty of over-emphasizing their member's terms of reference and lines of demarcation. In a laudable desire to improve professional standards personnel from both sides discourage inter-penetration of their professional spheres. This attitude inhibits cooperation not only between the two agencies but also with the community whose potential contribution to teaching and coaching is ignored. This professional isolationist policy is evident in the manner with which teachers in particular react to suggestions that they should contribute to community activity instruction. Problems of salary and flexible terms of reference tend to militate against personnel of both agencies cooperating under the J.M.C. by reciprocal servicing of all facets of the centre. Despite the

configuration of the formal structure which anticipates the servicing of community needs by all personnel under the aegis of the J.M.C., traditional professional practices give rise to a communication net which adheres to the structures of the two discrete agencies. "There must be some softening of these professional attitudes if we are to develop fully the idea of two-way community participation" (Edmondson and Baldwin 1975, 112).

The Headmaster in Ashe's investigations was concerned that the centre was subject to a maze of committees whose aims were different and whose nature and degree of responsibility differed to such a degree that the authority he was supposed to exert over them was effectively divested to participating agency domains whose interests were not coincidental with school-community harmony(1973, 30). The Headmaster's admitted remoteness from the situation and the J.M.C.'s ineffectiveness in formulating a unifying policy is reflected not only in the discrete professional organisations communication nets but in the lower tiers of management in both agencies. Vernon's study in particular elicited numerous instances of the school staff's reluctance to acknowledge the authority of recreation department personnel or the authority of the J.M.C. while in fact operating in their domain (1973, 29). The caretaker, in Ashe's considered opinion, represented the views of many personnel when vehemently expressing his views about his position in the centre. "He often felt that he was in the middle of the disagreement between the 'sides', and it appeared to him that he had more than one boss" (1973, 30). The Centre Manager's views

perhaps serve best in exemplifying the conflict engendered in dual provision community college organisations by the dearth of a cohesive rationale, " . . . liaison problems should be seen against a background of confusion, rumour and chaos . . ." (Ashe, 1973,31).

The quality of the community college organisation's integration and interface with its environment or catchment area users is an accurate indicator of the degree to which community education and recreation has effectively developed. The degree to which the community participates in formulating policy, making executive decisions, and cooperating in teaching, coaching or instructing, determines the extent to which the centre can be termed one of community education and recreation. The paucity of this type of participation is evident not only in these spheres but also in the absence in most centres of a community council. This body, as was elucidated in Chapter 6.2., is the mechanism through which users may effectuate community development utilizing the community college as a resource centre. The nature of community-college interface may thus, in a majority of instances, be classified as one in which the college's recreation department in particular provides facilities and personnel for the use of but not management by the community. The extent of user input into the majority of centres programming policy is therefore negligible as is the extent to which the centres facilitate community development through grass roots community councils (Ball and Ball, 1973, 142-158).

Centre personnel of both agencies evidence disquiet concerning the intrusion into their professional domains of other agencies. The physical education department in particular is the location for a large proportion of conflict as it is this department

which is called upon most, in addition to other practical subjects, to integrate with the public. "It was inevitable that conflict would arise, because the Physical Education Department and the Manager had differing objectives for community use of the Centre" (Vernon, 1973, 30). Yet another example may be cited at a centre in Wales where the Physical Education Organiser " . . . saw the Joint Management Committee at Rhyl as being disadvantageous to P.E., and that the 'school' side had less control because the 'wide boys' of Rhyl had taken over, and that P.E. in the school would suffer" (Ashe, 1973, 34). The opinion of the community as a disruptive influence pervades much educational thinking and the increased work load, in terms of organisation and administration, incurred as a result of community service responsibilities, engenders much rancour amongst teachers.

It would be idle to pretend that the requirements of pupils and teachers neatly coincide at all points with the needs and wishes of other sections of the community. The necessity is to resolve both sets of needs to the optimum advantage of both, although this strategy has problems.

> This kind of compromise, if repeated at too many points, can quickly give rise to a feeling on the part of teachers that the school is playing second fiddle to the adult community, whilst the community staff feel that the demands of the school are restricting the full development of a comprehensive day-time programme (Edmondson and Baldwin, 1975, 109).

The pervasiveness of this proprietorial "Goldilocks syndrome" whereby agencies jealously guard their private possessions requires considerable diplomacy of the management. The reciprocal involvement of college and community is the most important factor in ensuring the successful implementation of concepts embodied

in a community college centre. This is achieved through the medium of the Manager's programme which seeks to elicit and fulfil the needs of the users in accordance with the organisation's constraints and the social characteristics of the users. The balancing of instructional, spectator, casual and club groups is one which requires an intimate knowledge in both the community college and centres as well as the catchment area. It is all too easy for a school to become an introspective institution, possibly highly successful in terms of limited objectives, but in many aspects insulated and isolated from the wider community. Even the most successful students in the eyes of the college or school, find upon leaving that they know little about their community or society, at large. The need to interact with and employ the adult community in real situations of social learning is vital in community education and recreation. Staff of both agencies tend to think more of maintaining their own particular system than of the needs of the individual. For that reason " . . . many teachers-and indeed parents - would prefer to limit the area of possible conflict by keeping the children out of the way of adults. A community school on the other hand, deliberately encourages closer contact between children and adults (Edmondson and Baldwin, 1975, 111). The fulfilment of all community needs is a corporate responsibility which should be shared by all members of the community including the agencies which operate within it.

To summarise this review of dissonance, it has been noted that the management structure necessary to implement this community-college interface and integration exists in only a token form.

The status-role of each constituent management personnel and committee is inadequate to effectuate the synthesis of the disparate executive agencies which liaise to provide dual provision schemes. The schismatisation which exists at departmental level in local government is but a microcosm of that evident in the community college's organisation and its interface with the environment. The areas of dissonance identified in the local government and community college parameters serve to exemplify the constraints inhibiting the further development of community education and recreation as envisaged in this dissertation.

In concluding Part 1 of the dissertation it may be stated that the foregoing evidence indicates the presence of a significant degree of dissonance within the planning and management of urban community education and recreation as implemented in the dual provision scheme in England and Wales. It has also been clearly demonstrated that there exists an identifiable dearth of systematic documentation and empirical research on the planning, management and use of community schools and colleges. The situation at the present time in one of uncoordinated development with a considerable input of resources in conjunction with vaguely formulated concepts, planning and management objectives, strategies and logistics, compounded by a general absence of systematisation and rationalisation within the urban community education and recreation sector. The need for the preceding investigation, critical and taxonomical review, and subsequent rationalisation and systematisation within the sector, is thus manifest. The development of a generic approach to the planning and management of urban community education and

recreation within the community school and college has been accomplished in Part 1 by means of an extensive examination of community colleges in England and Wales, much of the data for which was gathered in the process of effecting the organisational analysis social survey, and an identification of the relationships existing between work, leisure, recurrent education, community education and recreation resources planning and provision and community social solidarity.

An exemplification and authentication of this theoretical model is promoted in Part 2 by an organisational analysis social survey of a community education and recreation organisation.

6.5. ORGANISATION OF THE STUDY

Part 2 of the dissertation complements the theoretical appraisal and systematisation of community education and recreation of Part 1 in that it succinctly exemplifies the dissonance and authenticates the configuration of the recommended generic approach by means of an organisational analysis social survey and the retrieval of empirical data through case study and questionnaire survey techniques.

Chapters 7 and 8 are concerned respectively with the formulation of a recreation research model and a recreation management organisational analysis model both of which are prerequisites to the mode of enquiry and selection of research tools necessary to effect the Alumwell Centre organisational analysis and the review of four community colleges. The former model incorporates proven heuristic devices and contemporary approaches in recreation research methodology in identifying the components requiring analysis.

The recreation management organisational analysis model adapts two proven management models to the context of the community college and the components of the recreation research model.

Chapter 9 outlines the research tools employed in the case study and questionnaire survey while the results of these surveys are described and discussed in Chapter 10.

Chapter 11 concludes the dissertation with the succinct delineation of a generic approach to the planning and management of community education and recreation with specific reference to the dual provision comprehensive community college.

PART 2

SOCIAL RESEARCH IN THE COMMUNITY EDUCATION AND RECREATION SECTOR

Chapter 7

RECREATION RESEARCH

The organisational analysis social survey of the Alumwell Centre and the review of four other community colleges will be promoted by the formulation of a recreation research model and a recreation management organisational analysis model. These will in turn facilitate respectively, the quantitative questionnaire survey and the qualitative case study components of the social survey. The organisational analysis thus effected will elicit data which both exemplifies the dissonance discussed in Chapter 6.4.4. and authenticates the recommended configuration of the theoretical model of community education and recreation derived in Part 1.

The recreation management organisational analysis model to be expounded in Chapter 8.3. will facilitate by means of a case study retrieval and systematisation of data from both the local government and community college organisation parameters of dissonance in the Alumwell Centre and the four other community colleges surveyed.

The recreation research model, is a conceptual and heuristic device identifying and inter-relating all components of the recreation system causal chain. It has been developed to enable the gathering of data by means of a questionnaire survey on the Alumwell Centre facilities' use and user characteristics which assists in assessing the degree of integration and interface of the organisation with its user clients environment and in the formulation

of the college's resource service strategy.

7.1. RECREATION RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Mention was made in Chapter 1.2. and 4.1.1. of the rationale underlying the research methodology employed. The point was stressed that the research rationale recognises the instrumental utilitarian function of recreation research within an applied quantitative but flexible problems approach, together with the qualitative and interpretive framework of the case study. The utilisation of descriptive analysis and quantitative data in conjunction with the qualitative interpretation of recreation's function within the social matrix is considered to explicate more accurately the true significance of the community college and its constituent community groups as a milieu for recreation.

Research on recreation has been less prominently influenced by sociological thinking than the frequent references made to sociological variables and statistical data might suggest. The majority of large-scale surveys and investigations into recreation have in fact been mainly facility oriented and predominantly concerned with predicting demand; the British Travel Association (1967), Sillitoe (1969), North West Sports Council (1972) and Birch (1971) are examples of such surveys. Researchers have attempted to identify socio-demographic variables associated with participation in specific activities. From this type of study has emerged a series of factors such as age, sex, and marital status which are linked with social class, education and car-ownership as predictors of future recreation trends. Whilst the

validity of this type of data is not questioned certain researchers in the field are beginning to openly question the presuppositions of these surveys.

Both Phillips (1972) and Roberts (1974) are sceptical of check lists of activities which purport to adequately described how people spend their leisure time. Roberts in particular feels that the holistic quality of individuals' life-styles is neglected in this approach (1974, 6). People, he feels, do not engage in ad hoc miscellaneous activities, they engage in wider systems of inter-dependent recreation elements related to the total life-style of the individual. Thus he advocates an approach employed by McQuail (1969) in his research into the mass media whereby instead of solely concentrating upon the use of facilities, efforts are made at identifying the underlying processes linking predictor variables to the systems of recreation behaviour individuals develop. This research orientation sheds more light on the recreation problems created in the community.

> 'Leisure systems' draws attention to an intermediate level of analysis between specific activities on the one hand, and total life-styles on the other, . . . we somehow need to treat leisure as a whole if we are to explain both how leisure relates to the rest of life, and how more specific leisure interests and activities are developed and maintained. The leisure system concept is an attempt to approach the holistic properties that authentic leisure possesses and that tend to be by-passed in facility-oriented research (Roberts, 1974, 6).

If this research strategy is adopted, recreation is to be seen as a function of a social matrix which embraces the total network of social relationships in which the individual is involved. These relationships are located within groups based on the family, work, school, peers or neighbourhood. Research conducted into recreation

systems should complement, therefore, the quantitative survey of facility usage and subsequent computation of inter-relationships between variables, with a qualitative interpretation of the recreation system's function in the social matrix of home, school, work and neighbourhood.

In evolving a methodological approach to this intermediate level of analysis it is necessary to scrutinize a little more closely the characteristics of quantitative surveys as it is on the assumption that there exists in the population a distribution of demand for recreation that can be described within probability limits by reference to the socio-demographic characteristics of that population that much recreational planning is based.

Justification for the quantitative survey method is based on an implicit but far reaching assumption that:

> . . . the present observed use of recreational facilities represents a measure of need. This need is something greater than present use, it includes numbers of people unable to participate for various reasons. But in all events it is something measurable and real (Ventris, 1975, 119).

The proponents of the quantitative approach feel that the employment of aggregate statistics to explain individual behaviour obviates any accusation of determinism. Additionally, it is claimed that socio-cultural factors do not impinge upon recreational patterns sufficiently to affect the precision of this type of facility use prediction, nor is individual freedom curtailed by the use of these statistical predictors as they are tied to occupations, age, sex and car ownership characteristics. Quantitative category analysis is based upon the assumption that the relationship between personal characteristics and recreational patterns is constant.

This, according to Ventris (1975, 116), is fallacious, a perusal of surveys conducted by the North West Sports Council (1972) and other bodies evidences inconsistencies across space and time. The critical factor which is frequently missed is that simple interpretations of survey results often overlook the fact that although there may be some agreement about the popularity ranking of activities, differences in statistical interpretation are due to the quality, location and mode of community provision not to census characteristics of any population (Bishop, 1970, 160-170).

The effect of this research orientation is that recreation research tends to be insulated from other relevant fields of study which impinge upon recreation systems and their associated social matrices and which are capable of further illuminating the recreation needs of the community.

> In the blinkers of specialisation the links with other aspects of life may be ignored. At the present time the studies of family life or community which pay some attention to recreation have no immediate applicability in the present recreational planning framework. Because the methods now in use have such a strong quantitative emphasis, the subtle insights of the case study and the explanatory framework of sociological theories have no part to play: recreational planning methods remain doggedly empirical (Ventris, 1975, 119).

It is at the point of considering the nature of demand and needs that recreational planning most necessitates theory. The application of theories from fields outside recreation can show the dangers of applying survey results without sufficient informed investigation into antecedent variables. Activity inventories and recreation needs and demands are consequencies of processes taking place in the social matrix of the family, school, or work group.

Resources which are currently being planned, therefore, for the purely recreation sector could well be more effectively provided earlier in the recreation system sequence, at community school level for instance, thus changing the pattern of recreation demand. The corollary of this proposition is that research should apply the theories of such areas as education and community development to the social matrix which determines the configuration of recreation systems in the form of more in depth case studies.

> The implications for research and practice are that while surveys of recreational behaviour and of the use of particular facilities are very useful, they should be supplemented by more in depth studies of how provision is related to demand (Ventris, 1975, 119).

The limitations of the exclusively quantitative survey approach to analysing recreation system patterns, their social determinants and specific demand characteristics, are reviewed by Leonard (1974) in his comparative analysis of nine alternative methods of data retrieval on rural facilities usage. His findings were that traditional questionnaire and other survey techniques using area sampling methods were unsatisfactory and often misleading. Of far greater value were the observation surveys which, although only infrequently employed, proved to be more accurate than postal, self-completed or two-part questionnaires. Although the trend in recreation research has been to favour questionnaire surveys, Burton and Noad (1968, 15) advocate the use of in depth interviews and participant observation, a view with which Leonard and Ventris concur.

" . . . there therefore seems to be a strong case for using mixed methods of gathering data where each is appropriate to a particular type of information" (Leonard, 1974, 35).

The implications for the research methodology employed in this dissertation are that the application of educational, sociological, planning and community development theories in the derivation of a general approach to community education and recreation should be accompanied by empirical research into recreation's inter-relationship with the social matrix of the community school and its component community groups employing quantitative survey techniques complemented by the more qualitative explanatory observational techniques of the in depth case study. In order to demonstrate more concisely the inter-relationship between qualitative and quantitative survey methods and recreation systems and their associated social matrices, a conceptual model is required.

7.2. RECREATION RESEARCH MODEL

In ascertaining the characteristics and dimensions of a recreation system's needs and demands it is necessary to be conversant with their inter-relationships with antecedent social processes and personal constraints in addition to exogenous environmental constraints. This necessitates the construction of a macro recreation research model which will not only identify the recreation system causal chain but also enable the construction of a quantitative survey strategy designed to ascertain the characteristics of a community education and recreation centre's use and user clients and thus the nature of organisation-environment intergration and interface. The questionnaire survey subsequently developed will

complement the qualitative case study facilitated by the recreation management organisational analysis model.

Several attempts have been made to evolve a recreation or leisure model which not only incorporates the entire recreation system causal chain from individual needs, through community requirements to centre usage and capacity, but which is also susceptible to empirical investigation. Levy (1974) developed an applied intersystem congruence model of play, recreation and leisure which enabled individuals' motivations for recreation participation to be systematically researched and empirically vallidated. Maw (1969 and 1972) and the Built Environment Research Group of Central London Polytechnic have pioneered research into recreation participation in Britain with their empirically verified leisure model. Whereas both these models make substantial contributions to a macro view of a recreation system they tend to lay stress upon, in the case of Levy, individual and small group interaction and a psychological reductionist approach, and in Maw's model, upon the deterministic influence of facility provision, location and usage logistics. Relatively little influence is attributed to the community and its constituent groups matrix.

The formulation of the recreation research model is based upon the pioneering works of Burton (1968 and 1969), Maw (1969 and 1972), Frost (1971) and Law (1970). This conceptual model identifies the components of the total recreation system causal chain and elicits the configuration of its inter-relationship with facilities such as the community college and the matrix of constituent social groups. It is a gestalt heuristic model which promotes the use of the social survey and case study in

identifying the role of the community college in determming the pattern of the community recreation system. By so doing, and also by delineating the characteristics of the entire recreation system pattern, the model enables the cognizant community college, itself a component of the system, to so structure its organisation that it more effectively meets the needs of the community. The recreation research model will thus be utilized to determine the scope of the use and user survey to be performed on the Alumwell Centre. The results will indicate the degree to which the centre is fulfilling the needs of its community and integrating with its environment and thereby the manner in which its organisation must elaborate to fulfil its stated goals.

In addition to enabling a community college to appreciate its role in the community recreation system the model may be employed for other purposes:

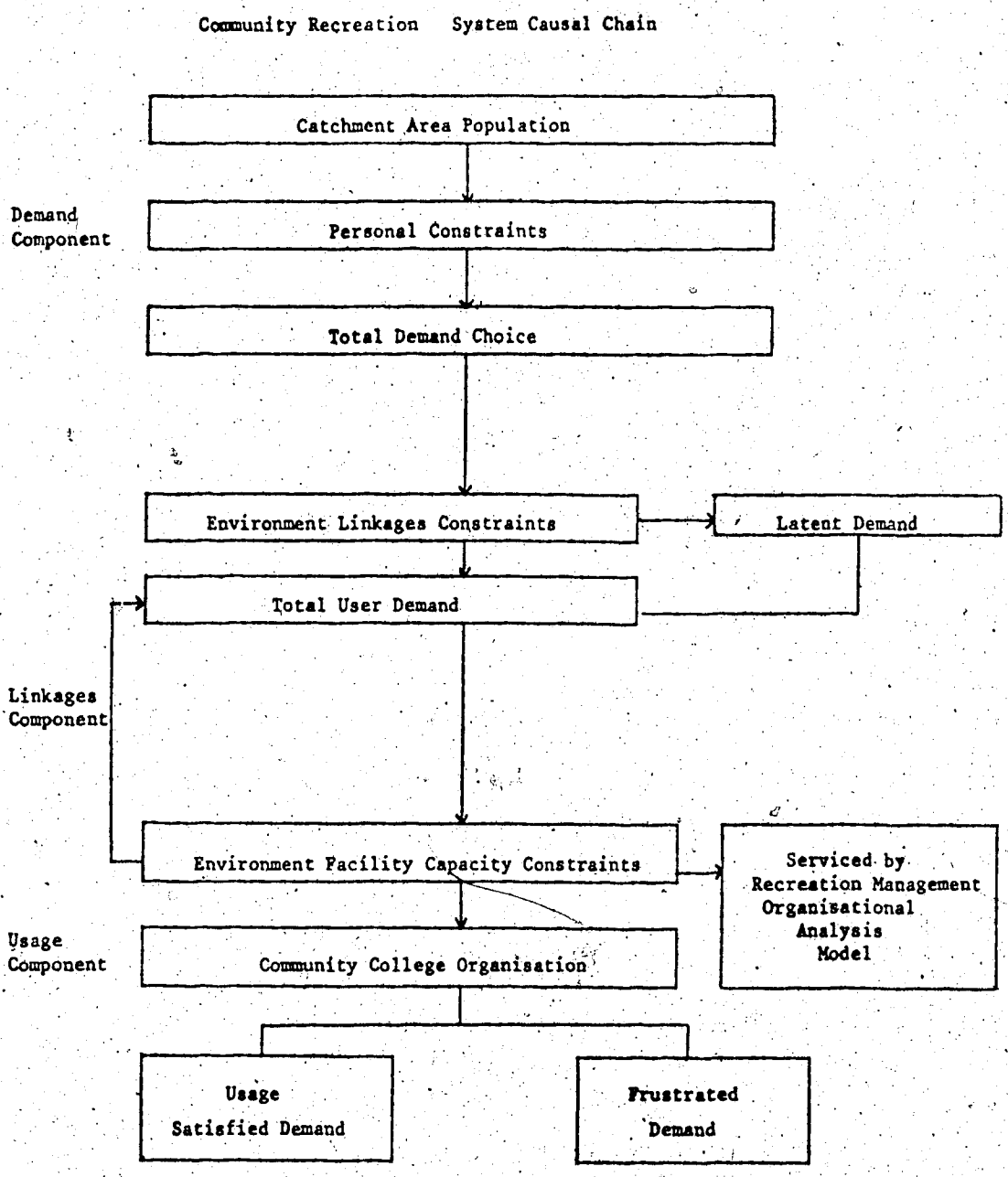
(a) As a tool to aid the decision making process in recreation planning.

(b) In producing a supply-demand balance.

(c) In predicting the effectiveness of alternative types of facility.

(d) In monitoring the use of facilities.

The gestalt model basically attempts to reveal the overall structure of any recreation system so that demand may be catered for on a more rational basis. In the exposition of the model which follows the gestalt model will be outlined initially, while the specific variables of community education and recreation demand, its constraints, and the manner in which it is elicited will be dealt with latterly.



Based upon the models of Burton (1968 and 1969), Maw (1969 and 1972), Frost (1971) and Law (1970).

Figure 13

Recreation Research Model

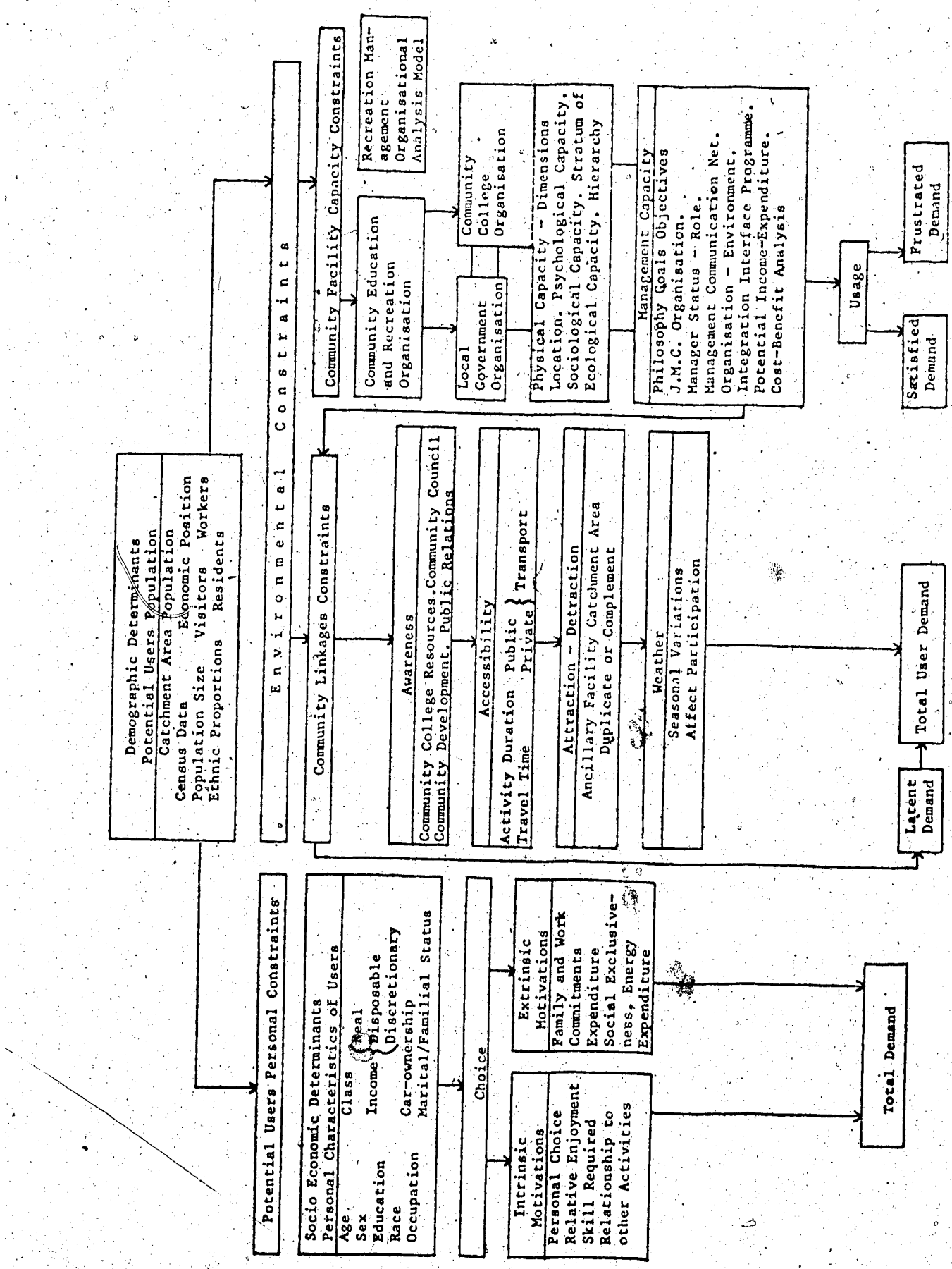


Figure 14
Community Education and Recreation System Demand Constraints

Figure 13 illustrates the basic network of the gestalt model which is made up of three key components: demand; linkages; and usage.

Recreation demand is subject to conditions which tend to constrain it within the bounds of practical reality. These constraints are of two types; personal, and environmental. Personal constraints, emanating from individuals' socio-economic positions, to be discussed in relation to the community education and recreation demand constraints, impinge upon and limit idealistic recreational needs. Similarly, both facility and linkages constraints emanating from the social environment, and thus largely out of the control of the individual, combine to limit recreational demand. These two types of constraints influence demand by producing either personal deferred demand where personal constraints prevent first preference activity taking place, or facility and linkages deferred demand where environmental constraints prevent satisfaction. Theoretically it may be claimed that if all constraints existing upon an individual at the point of decision making on the use of a unit of leisure time were known, it would be possible to predict accurately recreation usage. In reality, knowledge of dimensions of all constraints is impossible, thus only the most important ones are isolated.

Demand for recreation is manifest as the need to pursue an activity whether or not this is expressed in the actual use of the facility. This is termed "choice" or "total demand" and it is modified by the impact of personal constraints. It is idealistic in so far as it is the total time that people would

choose to spend on a particular activity if the requisite facility were immediately available, which in many cases it is not.

When this total demand is modified by the environment linkages constraints it becomes "total user demand". This latter and more realistic form of demand is modified still further by the environment facility capacity constraints which, in the case of the community college, embrace the whole organisation's, service potential. This component is serviced by the recreation management organisational analysis model.

The resolution of the environment facility capacity constraints and total user demand will indicate both the "usage" or "satisfied demand" in addition to the "frustrated demand". The community college is then in a position to modify its programme and management accordingly. The gestalt model thus provides an overview of a recreation system's basic structure from the individual level to the recreation facility level. When the gestalt model is applied to the community education and recreation system the entire range of personal and environmental constraints and their constituent variables impinging upon the causal chain immediately becomes apparent (Figure 14).

The application of the recreation research model to the community education and recreation system and its attendant social matrix engenders a comprehensive appraisal of personal and environmental constraints. The process of delineating these impinging variables is necessary if the community college is to be cognizant of its role in determining the pattern of this community causal chain.

The whole system is dependent upon the socio-demographic characteristics of the catchment area. Census data discloses the size, ethnic proportions, economic position and certain personal characteristics of the visitor, worker and resident sectors of the community population. This data reveals the maximum potential market of users which a community college will have to service. The ultimate total user demand and eventual usage shortfall and satisfied demand is dependent upon the personal and environmental constraints which affect this catchment area population of potential users.

The personal constraints which impinge upon potential users consist of their personal charteristics and the socio-economic determinants of their life-styles. The relevant variables are illustrated in Figure 14, and it is these which modify the choice of activity which individuals wish to partake in. Choice is also subject initially to the intrinsic motivations which orientate a person towards a particular activity, while the extrinsic constraints and motivations of the activity's social milieu modify still further the ultimate choice. The resolution of this matrix of modifying factors results in a total demand as yet unmodified by environment constraints.

Community linkages constraints consist of four factors: awareness; accessibility; attraction-detraction; and weather, which combined with community facility capacity constraints conspire to inhibit the total demand to a more realistic total user demand and ultimate usage. Weather affects participation in so far as seasonal variations determine the volume of usage for particular age groups and activities. The attraction-detraction factor refers

to the function and location of the community college centre. Its relative position and function with regard to neighbouring ancillary facilities will determine its duplicatory or complementary role. Similarly the capacity and range of facilities and their appropriateness with regard to local needs will also contribute to this factor. Accessibility is likewise dependent upon location and the contiguity of the local potential users population and its transport communication network. The duration of the activity, travel time and characteristics of local transportation will determine the service potential of a centre and its ability to fulfil its stated goals. The community development function of a community college effected through a community council and peripatetic recreation leaders is instrumental in stimulating community awareness of the resources available. Public relations play a significant role in stimulating community awareness and participation but they are relatively unimportant when compared to the centrifugal service function of the centre.

The community facility capacity facet of environmental constraints is represented by the total community education and recreation organisation including the two parameters of local government and community college organisation. The recreation management organisational analysis model to be expounded in Chapter 8.3. will develop this component of the community education and recreation system in depth, but it is important to note the various dimensions of capacity constraint which militate against the satisfaction of total user demand. The physical dimensions of a centre will limit the number of users able to actively participate as will the ecological capacity of outdoor areas and the

psychological limitations of activities' compatability. The physical decor, aesthetic design, ambient social climate, and type and range of facilities and the degree to which they are susceptible to social exclusiveness determine the type of person who will use the facilities and thus the sociological capacity of the facility and the degree to which the community's needs are fulfilled.

The community's potential demand for recreational and educational activities is therefore constrained and modified to the extent that, depending upon the degree of efficiency of the community college organisation's capacity input, there will in all probability be a frustrated demand and certainly a latent demand. The latter can be counteracted by increasing the efficiency of the college's management capacity which is oriented towards optimising the awareness, accessibility and attraction factors and thus the total user demand. It is within the management capacity component that the five areas of dissonance were identified in Chapter 6.4.4.2. Optimisation of these areas' input together with a positive cost-benefit strategy will enable the community college and its associated matrix of social groups to determine the community education and recreation system's configuration to the advantage of community needs and development.

In order to elicit the data necessary to implement the heuristic recreation model, quantitative survey methods have to be applied. Data on the catchment area's demographic determinants can be retrieved from census statistics which, when appropriately treated, can reveal the maximum market of potential users. The personal characteristics and socio-economic determinants personal constraints of a community college's users can be elicited together with the

community linkages constraints by a user questionnaire survey administered to the total user population over a certain period. The same questionnaire can be utilized to gather information on the characteristics of the users' centre visitation and the activities followed. This information is one indicator of the degree of organisation-environment interface and integration achieved through the community college's programme and management capacity.

The questionnaire survey is only appropriate to actual users of a centre, it does not, however, elicit data from the total potential users population. In order to ascertain definitively the total user demand it is ideally necessary to administer a sample home interviews survey over a large population, a process outside the scope of this dissertation. The retrieval of census data, however, obviates a greater part of the need to perform such a survey. The implementation of a questionnaire survey and census data retrieval, together with the case study of the community facility capacity constraints, will enable the characteristics of the social matrix and its component community college's instrumental role in determining the pattern of the community education and recreation system to be determined. The implementation of the case study is promoted by the recreation management organisational analysis model.

Chapter 8

ORGANISATIONAL ANALYSIS OF COMMUNITY EDUCATION AND RECREATION

The purpose of formulating a recreation management organisational analysis model is to enable a case study to be performed on the Alumwell Centre or any community college it is deemed desirable to research. The heuristic model will identify the main components of the community education and recreation organisation and its component local government and community college parameters facilitating retrieval of data on the management capacity component of the community facility capacity restraints. The intention is not to develop a definitive heuristic device but to enable the systematic gathering of empirical data which will exemplify the previously elucidated notions and theoretical model concerning the planning and management of community education and recreation.

8.1. APPROACHES TO ORGANISATIONAL ANALYSIS

Group processes and interpersonal relations do not proceed in a social structural vacuum. Within the context of society it is the various forms of social interaction, reciprocity and cognitive behaviour that provide the cohesion necessary to create the institutional framework of social structure and organization.

Social organization is a dynamic entity consisting of social actors merged into ordered social relationships. The organization is in a constant state of flux due to the individual's decisions during interaction. Social structure is a frozen cross-

section of social organization. This static conceptualization of the social processes facilitates, by means of empirical verification, the delineation of the social order and the configuration of its component parts (Firth, 1970, 40).

The concept of social organization can be said to have engendered two major schools of thought. The structural-fuctionalists have utilized the two analogies of the organism's homeostasis and the machine's equilibrium to represent society's organization. This concept is based upon " . . . an assumption of non-problematic structural maintenance and stability founded on normative consensus, legitimate authority, common values, internalization of roles via socialization" (Buckley, 1967, 127). The failure by such men as Sorokin (1928), Spencer (1897) and Parsons (1951) to adequately embrace patterned strain and deviance within the social system, and the preoccupation with dominant legitimized institutionalized structure, has prompted an alternative school of thought.

The open system model first conceived of by Small (1905) focuses upon an elaborating and thus temporary social structure which accommodates varying degrees of interaction, association and disassociation. Homans (1950, 1961) attempted to bridge the gap between individual social behaviour and the institutional structure. His micro-macro synthesis incorporates the vital morphogenetic property whereby a system elaborates its structure in response to certain processes. Turner's (1962) role playing and exchange theory with its negotiating and bargaining further enhances the properties of the open system model so that it can accommodate the dichotomies of: sociological vs. psychological; structural vs

process model; consensus and conformity vs. conflict and deviance; and persistence vs. change.

As a basis for the study's theoretical orientation preceding organizational analysis, it is concluded that:

(a) The socio-cultural system and its component organizations is a dynamic adaptive entity and its norms, values, roles and institutional structure only specify the operation of a small part of its system.

(b) The analysis of any modern system must focus upon variety within the system. Allocation must be made for conflict, unplanned innovation, deviance, social and cultural differentiation and normative variations.

(c) Tension is an integral part of any system and it initiates social progress and elaboration.

(d) A system's selection process resolves, during interaction and exchange, dysfunctional behaviour and expectations into the "real" institutional order from which emerges a relatively stable socio-cultural order.

(e) Facilitating this resolution during bargaining and negotiation are the formal and the informal social orders. The former consists of congruencies in the role matrices (Merton, 1957) that provide the basis for " . . . a legitimate order and its normative system of authority and control" (Buckley, 1967, 160). The latter consists of a role matrix

that does not possess congruencies but due to a coercively sanctioned non-legitimized institutional power it stabilizes the organization.

Three main approaches to organizational analysis may be identified. The first approach, generally known as the "classical theory of scientific management", can be attributed to Taylor (1911). This technical stage corresponds to the structural-functionalist's mechanical model. Its central theme concerns units of work, division of labour, specialization, efficiency and economic rewards. It focuses, however, exclusively on the formal and official structure whilst ignoring the informal order and group pressures.

The second approach, instigated by Lewin (1952) and Mayo (Bendix and Fisher, 1961), highlights the human aspects of group dynamics concentrating on the informal structures. The Hawthorne studies (Roethlisberger and Dickson, 1939) exemplify this "human relations" approach and its concern for the worker's social, as opposed to his physical, capacity.

Both approaches are based albeit from antithetical viewpoints, upon the contentious premise of organizational harmony. Whereas the former assumes that efficient organization provides an optimum level of organizational rationality, the latter believes in achieving this objective through inter-rank communication, worker participation in decision making, and democratic leadership.

The third approach has been termed both the "structuralist" (Etzioni, 1964) and the "conceptual natural system" (Hoyle, 1965). It endeavours to provide " . . . an encompassing theory, unifying concepts in an effort to relate pertinent data comprehensively

to organizational design, function and adaptability" (Hoyle,1965,97). This approach to organizational analysis recognizes the existence of internal conflict, deviance and irrationality as well as the influence of exogenous factors. It is thus in complete accord with the modern open systems theory, previously discussed, to which this study subscribes.

The structuralist rationale has been evolved through a comparative examination of such organizations as schools, hospitals, armies and prisons, unlike the other two approaches which concentrated upon business organizations. Resulting from this more encompassing frame of reference has been its ability to embrace the dichotomies of: organizational vs. personal needs; rationality vs. non-rationality; discipline vs. autonomy; formal vs. informal relations; management vs. workers; and ranks vs. divisions.

Weber (1947), in his attempt to delineate the rational structure of a bureaucratic organization, outlines the main concerns of the natural systems model:

(a) Both formal and informal elements of the organization and their articulation.

(b) The scope of informal groups and the relations between such groups inside and outside the organization.

(c) Both lower and higher ranks.

(d) The interaction between the organization and its environment.

(e) Both work and non-work organizations (Etzioni, 1964, 49).

It is considered that the structuralist natural systems approach to organizational analysis is the most appropriate to the rationale of the dissertation, methods of enquiry and analysis have therefore been based upon the principles incorporated in this approach.

8.2. CLASSIFICATION OF THE COMMUNITY COLLEGE FORMAL SERVICE ORGANISATION

The classification of formal organisations is undertaken in order to increase the understanding of them in preparation for empirical investigation.

Four categories of persons within formal organisations are identified by Blau and Scott (1970, 42): the member staff participants; the managers of the organisation; the clients or users of the organisation and its immediate environment; and society at large in which the organisation operates. They further suggest a typology of organisations based upon the criterion of prime beneficiary or "cui bono"; who benefits. This criterion indicates which of these four categories or organisational personnel benefits most from the operations of the organisation.

Four types of organisations result from the application of this cui bono criterion: the mutual-benefits association; business concerns; commonweal organisations; and service organisations. In the last of these four types, the service organisations, the client group is the prime beneficiary and it is the conflict between the professional service to this client group and the administrative procedures which Blau and Scott (1970, 43) consider to be the main source of conflict and dissonance. A service organisation can be defined as:

> . . . one whose prime beneficiary is the part of the public in direct contact with the organisation, with whom and on whom its members work; in short, an organization whose basic function is to serve clients. . . . The crucial problems of these organisations center around providing professional services. The welfare of their clients is presumed to be the chief concern of service organizations (Blau and Scott, 1970, 51).

Included in this category are hospitals, social-services agencies, the police and fire services, and schools. The community college can thus be classified as a service organisation. In such organisations, however, the user clients are not aware of what will best serve their interests. Thus the professionals who manage the organisation are expected to be governed not by their own self-interests as in business concerns but by their clients' interests. Service organisations thus institutionalise the professional's ethical standards in order to promote to the optimum the service to user clients (Parsons, 1954, 34-49). Incumbent upon the professional recreation manager or leader is the responsibility of differentiating between the clients' demands and needs. The users are not always cognizant of what will best serve their own interests, the recreationists, therefore, must modify these demands by applying professional expertise, thereby optimising the fulfilment of needs and the service function of the organisation. This professional process is one which requires a great deal of circumspection on the part of the leader and manager particularly in the context of community development as was emphasized in Chapter 3.2.2.

8.2.1. Conflict Within the Formal Service Organisation. Conflict and dissonance between the formal service organisation's administrative procedures and professional service to clients takes three main forms:

subjugation of clients' needs; subservience to client's demands; and professional-client inter-personal conflict. In the community education and recreation system the local government and community college parameters of dissonance evidence these three forms of conflict in the five main areas identified in Chapter 6.4.4.2., and specifically within the management capacity component of community facility constraints.

Subjugation of client's needs to a preoccupation with administrative procedures is manifested in a rigid adherence to and enforcement of regulations and considerations at the expense of the users' welfare. This form of conflict may be considered to be the most serious disfunction in a service organisation.

It is similarly a great disservice to the clients if their demands are acceded to irrespective of their latent needs and those of the community as a whole. The clientele must, by the very definition of community education, recreation and development, participate in the management of an organisation and be instrumental in formulating policy. However, the professionals must not surrender completely their power to also help determine the nature of the service rendered. An illustration of the disfunction resulting from a service organisation's subservience to clients' is afforded by Clark's (1958) study of Los Angeles adult education programmes: The clients in this open door college were given control over selection of instructors and the curriculum content and in effect " . . . a position of dominance over professionals in influence on program content" (Clark, 1958, 86). The result was a greatly reduced efficiency of service. Blau and Scott (1970, 53) consider that this type of

organisational elaboration does not serve the best educational interests of students, although on the evidence of empirical studies it would appear, they point out, that failure to serve the welfare of clients is more prevalent in service organisations than becoming subservient to them.

Conflict between the professional and the client is often the result of dissonance between the professionals managing the organisation. Conflict between the education and recreation component of a community education and recreation system resulting in an inadequate community service often effects an overt user versus management confrontation. The fact that two disparate liaising executive agencies fail to concur on a basic rationale for community development is not conducive to inspiring confidence in the user clients particularly when the resulting service programme fails to articulate with the characteristics and needs of the catchment area. Resolution of intra-professional management hierarchy conflict is conducive to greater client-professional harmony provided the clients are aware of the reasons for the professionals' conflicts and are incorporated into the amelioration process through the medium, in the case of the community college, of user participation in programme and policy formulation. Caudill's research into a hospital treatment programme tends to confirm the benefits of overt client-professional group discussions on professionals' programme formulation conflicts (1958, 87-127).

The recreation management organisational analysis model will enable the elicitation of these three forms of dissonance peculiar to the community college formal service organisation by means of an in depth case study.

8.3. RECREATION MANAGEMENT ORGANISATIONAL ANALYSIS MODEL

The application of the foregoing analytical approaches to education or recreational service organisations has not, until comparatively recently, been very extensive. There have, however, been some notable studies utilising both the consensus and the conflict models of the social system.

8.3.1. Organisational Analysis of Educational Organisations.

The concept of the school as a social system with a persisting structural configuration has been used by Parsons (1959) in his study of a school class, and also by Turner (1969) and Jensen (1954). All three employed the teleological closed system model and although a certain recognition was accorded to the unofficial power structure, it was considered deviant and dysfunctional.

Waller's (1965) study on the other hand executed a classic analysis of teacher-pupil conflict. A similar standpoint was adopted by Webb (1962) when investigating the conflict between the school's formal authority system and its community's deviant group. Getzels and Guba (1955) also considered the school to be an open system and described the conflicts experienced by teachers due to the clash between their school and community roles. The question of conflict has received increased attention during the last decade. Wilson (1962) outlined six possible sources of conflict within the school, whilst Clark (1960) documented the elaboration of an educational organization's goals due to exogenous and endogenous forces. Perhaps the most celebrated contemporary study is that by Coleman (1962) on the adolescent sub-culture and its value conflicts within the school.

It is significant to note at this point that Shipman (1968, 97) considers both the consensus and the conflict models necessary in obtaining a balanced picture. He points out that whilst the former stresses the formal structure of an integrated school system with a consensus over values and norms, the latter exposes the contradictory norms and resulting role conflicts and strains. Thus in order to obtain a realistic and integrated impression of a school's organization the structuralist natural systems synthesis is required.

8.3.2. Organisational Dimensions and Units of Analysis.

Organisational analysis within a school's social system can be executed, according to Floud (1962), at any one of three discrete levels on a micro to macro sociological continuum. At the macro level is the study of education's inter-relationship with other institutions whilst at the micro level, analysis focuses upon the student, class and teacher situation and the microprocesses of dyadic interpersonal relations and group processes. The study of the school as an organization lies at the intermediate level. Unfortunately, this level has been neglected to the extent that very few studies " . . . have generated a theory or empirical framework by which the school can be understood and explored as a coherent and distinct organization in its own right" (Lambert et al., 1970, 12). Although the organization of the community college social system is to a large extent structurally conditioned by the general social system, it is still a dynamic organization and a discrete entity. The case study is concerned with the community college as a discrete formal service organisation.

Hoyle considers that one of the most significant approaches to organisational study is the drawing of conclusions and generalisations

which pertain to a range of similar organisations (1965, 105), but there are inherent problems in this approach:

> A fundamental dilemma is posed for the study of organisations by the double requirement of examining the interdependence between the elements in a social structure on the one hand, and of observing many independent cases to substantiate generalisations on the other (Blau and Scott, 1970, 11-12).

The first of these problems, that of examining the interdependence of an organisation's structural elements, can be obviated by the use of a case study analytical model of the type devised for the school's organisation by Lambert et al. which offers:

> . . . objectivity of approach, not only in the sense of value free indices and techniques, but also in the sense of a coherent body of concepts and perspectives, which, tested and developed by subsequent research, accumulates into a valid theory of this kind of organization . . . the organizational approach enables comparison to be made objectively between schools, either in terms of their individual elements or their performance as operating wholes (1970,13-14).

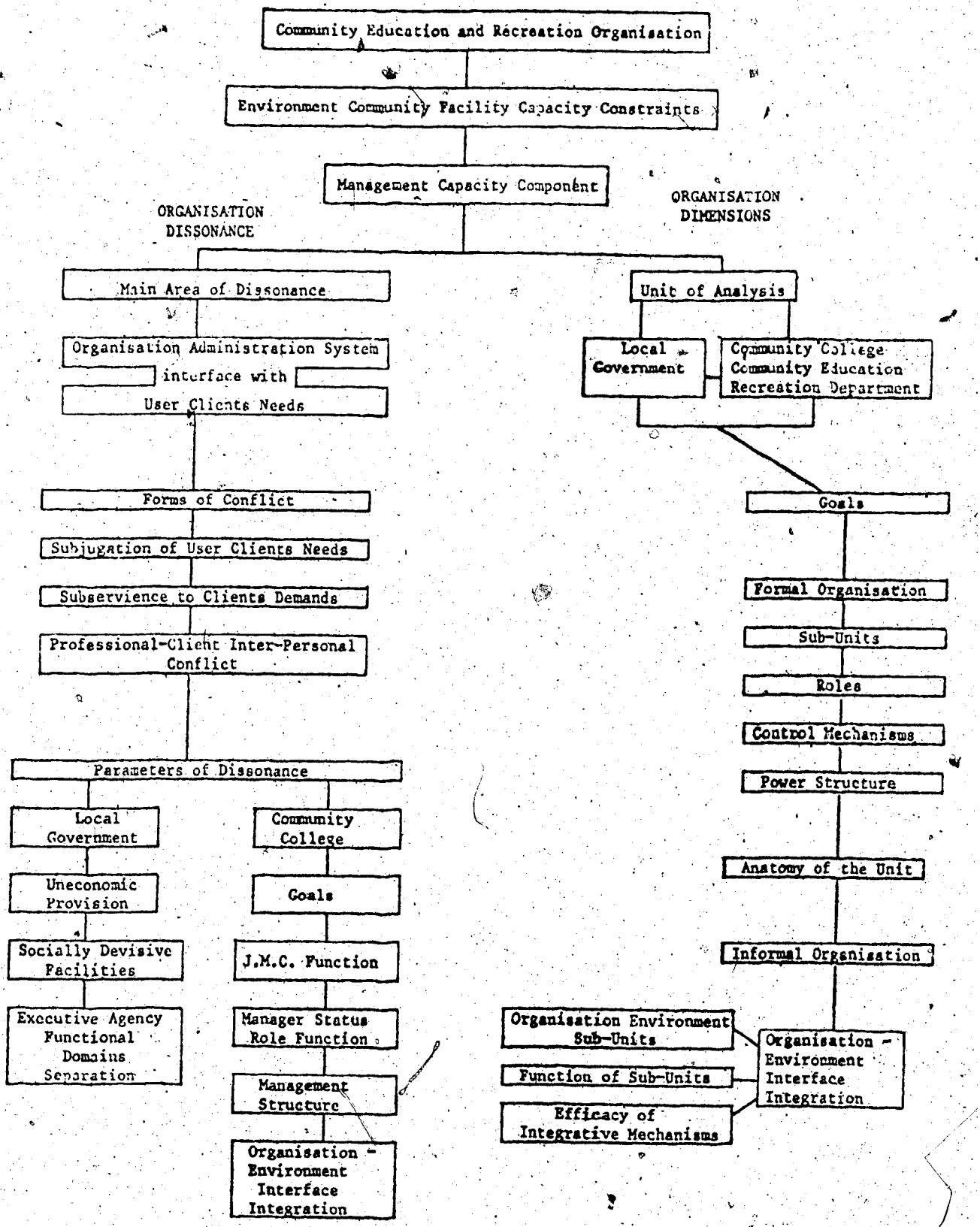
As regards the second problem of applying such a model over many independent organisations to substantiate generalisations, the impracticability of such a strategy within the terms of reference of this dissertation can be largely obviated by a less intensive subjective application of the model to four other community colleges and the reviewing and assaying of empirical data retrieved in the course of other research projects.

Recently, models have been devised for measuring and profiling the many structural characteristics of organisations. Rice elaborates a conceptual framework which " . . . relates individuals, groups, and institutions to each other in one coherent system" (1963, 10). Its basic concept is that of a series of discrete strata environments composing an organisation. Each of these operating systems possesses

an input-output procedure which at the boundary of the system effects the service organisation's interface and integration with its users. This model, therefore, embraces the concept of cybernetic feed back which in the case of the community college manifests itself in the inter-penetration of college and community in the context of community and curriculum development, and also in the users' participation in decision making and policy formulating processes.

Other models which are capable of practical implementation have been expounded by Simon (1960), Cyert and March (1963), Pugh (1971) and Lawrence and Lorsch (1967). Lambert et al. (1970) have also developed an empirically verified model which it is proposed to adapt to the needs of this dissertation. The practical analytical approach of this model avoids the elegant but impractical simplicity of classical theory with its emphasis on hierarchy of authority as the predominant integrating principle.

The basic unit of analysis is the organization, defined by Etzioni as " . . . social units that pursue specific goals which they are structured to serve" (1964, 4). These goals may be specific as in the case of business organizations or diffuse as in the case of educational organizations. An organization has several dimensions to its structure. The formal organization consists of officially instituted patterns of authority, power, communication, rules and procedures. This configuration can be described as " . . . the pattern of division of tasks and power among the organizational positions, and the rules expected to guide the behaviour of the participants, as defined by management" (Etzioni, 1964, 31). Concomitant with the formal organization is the informal structure of norms and relations,



Based upon the models of Lambert et al. (1970) and Lawrence and Lorsch (1967).

Figure 15
Recreation Management Organisational Analysis Model

not legitimized by the organization but exerting considerable influence within the system. In order to attain their goals community colleges are formally structured into a number of sub-units, one of which is the community education and recreation department (Lambert et al., 1970, 73). These sub-units are systems in their own right and susceptible to organizational analysis. It is also necessary to relate these sub-units to the goals they serve in order to assess their function for the organization of the college as a whole.

The adapted case study analytical model of Lambert et al. will be utilized for focusing investigation upon the dimensions of the community education and recreation department sub-unit. It will be noted that only the goals and formal organisation of the college will be outlined whereas the community education and recreation department and local government will receive exhaustive analysis of their dimensions. In addition, although this department is but a sub-unit of the overall community college, it is, in conjunction with the local government parameter, the main unit of analysis and will be referred to henceforth as a unit with constituent sub-units.

Figure 15 illustrates the dimensions of the recreation management organisational model which will be investigated in the case study. Initially, the goals and formal organisation of the entire local government and Alumwell Centre community college organisation will be examined. Subsequently, the goals, formal organisation, unit autonomy, informal organisation environment interface and integration of the community education and recreation unit will likewise be examined. It is evident from the model that the community college's five main areas of dissonance coincide with these dimensions thereby

facilitating a ready exemplification of intra-organisation dissonance.

When a company is formed under the Companies Acts of 1948 and 1907, the Memorandum document contains five clauses one of which pertains to "The Objects of the Company". Hartley (1970) considers it a vital clause as the objectives and goals of the organisation should be clear to all its members and be agreed to by them. Knowing the goals of an organisation gives personnel the opportunity to be aware of their status in it, the role they are expected to play, and for whom they are responsible. According to Leyton, "Nothing is more calculated to damage morale. . . than a vague conception of accountability or authority" (1968, 157). Indeed, among the criteria for an effective organisation are the assumptions that all organisations have goals and objectives, and that all members have knowledge of their goals. The goals of sub-units and of individuals may be derived from the total objective of the organisation, and it is much more likely that members will contribute to that total objective if they are cast in the role of participants sharing in the group goal. The role of the manager is thus to ensure that all personnel are motivated to reaching their personal and group organisation goals. The following aspects of goals can be examined:

(a) External influences bearing upon the goals: historical; functions for society at large; impinging organisations.

(b) Content of goals: instrumental; expressive; and organisational.

(c) Types of goals: stated; real; achieved; proposed; and perceived.

(d) Goal conflicts.

The goals of the overall community college, the department of community education and recreation, and the local government executive agencies and functional domains will be examined.

The formal organisation, whilst also embracing the community college and local government, focuses upon the community education and recreation department. It includes the dimensions of sub-units, roles, control mechanisms, and power structure. The goals of the organisation are prosecuted through its sub-units which consist of such sub-systems as the recreation department in the case of local government, and the community council in the case of the community college community education and recreation department. The following aspects of sub-units can be examined:

(a) Type of sub-unit.

(b) Relationship to goals of the organisation.

(c) Autonomy of sub-units within the general context of the organisation's federal or centralised structure.

(d) Inter-sub-unit conflict.

(e) Perceived characteristics of the sub-units.

(f) Inter-sub-unit communication, horizontal and vertical.

Roles are tasks formally created to effectuate the realisation of the organisation's goals. The following aspects of roles can be examined:

(a) Role distribution in the organisation, parallel, mixed and integrated.

(d) Goal conflicts.

The goals of the overall community college, the department of community education and recreation, and the local government executive agencies and functional domains will be examined.

The formal organisation, whilst also embracing the community college and local government, focuses upon the community education and recreation department. It includes the dimensions of sub-units, roles, control mechanisms, and power structure. The goals of the organisation are prosecuted through its sub-units which consist of such sub-systems as the recreation department in the case of local government, and the community council in the case of the community college community education and recreation department. The following aspects of sub-units can be examined:

(a) Type of sub-unit.

(b) Relationship to goals of the organisation.

(c) Autonomy of sub-units within the general context of the organisation's federal or centralised structure.

(d) Inter-sub-unit conflict.

(e) Perceived characteristics of the sub-units.

(f) Inter-sub-unit communication, horizontal and vertical.

Roles are tasks formally created to effectuate the realisation of the organisation's goals. The following aspects of roles can be examined:

(a) Role distribution in the organisation, parallel, mixed and integrated.

(d) Authority system.

(e) Culture.

(f) Delineated territories.

(g) Staff personnel.

(h) Physical plant.

(i) Decision-making and policy-formulating mechanisms.

The informal organisation communication net in the community education and recreation department:

(a) Informal order of communication, control, patterns of association, status, leadership and norms.

(b) Conformity, ritualism, retreatism and rebellion modes of adaption (Merton, 1957) to coercive, utilitarian or normative control by e'lite.

The organisation-environment interface and integration as manifest in user participation in decision-making and policy-formulation mechanisms, inter-penetration by college and community in community and curriculum development, and community use of the college's plant in intra-curricular and extra-curricular programmes, can be evaluated by means of the Lawrence-Lorsch model (1967). Three stages are identified in this approach to monitoring the relationship between the professionals and their user clients:

(a) Organisation-environment sub-units; delineation of committees, departments and individuals of both sides involved in interface.

(b) Function of sub-units; the matching and description of the sub-units' functions.

(c) Efficacy of integration mechanism; evaluation of the efficiency and appropriateness of the matched sub-units.

The efficacy of the organisation-environment integration will determine the effectiveness of the organisation in achieving its instrumental, expressive and organisational goals and thus the effectiveness of ancillary facilities in achieving their integrative function. This dimension's characteristics will be extracted from the data retrieved by means of the survey questionnaire as well as the case study. Systematisation of data for this critically important dimension will depend upon its elicitation via the recreation research model and the recreation management organisational analysis model and their respective questionnaire and case study survey methods.

The recreation research model and the recreation management organisational analysis model will thus promote the use of a questionnaire survey and a case study respectively in effecting an organisational analysis of the Alumwell Centre community college. The questionnaire survey will delineate the characteristics of community usage of the centre and the overall recreation system causal chain while the case study enables an appraisal to be made of the community education and recreation organisation. The questionnaire survey additionally indicates the degree of organisation-environment integration supplementing data retrieved on this dimension in the case study. An examination of the local government and community college goals and formal organisation dimensions will also be facilitated by the case study as will the systematisation of data on all dimensions of the community education and recreation department

of the community college.

The results of this organisational analysis social survey together with a more subjective and less rigorous examination of four other community colleges will exemplify dissonance inherent in the present organisation of community education and recreation and indicate methods by which a more rational model might more effectively meet the needs of the community.

Chapter 9

METHOD OF ENQUIRY

The rationale underlying the method of enquiry has been fully explained in Chapters 1, 7 and 8. It remains, therefore, to examine the techniques of descriptive social research employed to gather data in the organisational analysis. The objective of the social survey is to construct and describe the social reality of the Alumwell Centre's organisation. It is not the intention to specify and seek to replicate hypotheses relating to the organisation and its effectiveness in generating community development. The data gathered via the questionnaire and case study, the subsequent information extracted and the conclusions drawn will exemplify the theoretical model expounded previously in the dissertation. This line of reasoning is consistent with the rationale adopted by Cicourel and Kitsuse (1963) in their analysis of the role of the school councillors, and also by Gans (1962) in his study of an Italian immigrant community in the United States. The participant observation techniques employed by these researchers in their field work fall into the category of what Merton terms "post factum sociological interpretation":

> Post factum explanations remain at the level of plausibility (low evidential value) rather than leading to "compelling evidence" (a high degree of confirmation). Plausibility . . . is found when an interpretation is consistent with one set of data. . . . It also implies that alternative interpretations equally consistent with these data have not been systematically explored, and that inferences drawn from the interpretation have not been tested by new observations (1957(a), 93-94).

The research does not therefore provide compelling evidence for a series of hypotheses. It is more an attempt to describe and explain in a sociologically systematic manner the behaviour of individuals in an organisation and report on generalisations justified by the data. The validity of the findings, in respect of the case study, rests ultimately on the judgements influencing theoretical and personal biases in deciding what to study and how to analyse the results. The methods used are thus what Gans (1962) terms a "reconnaissance" guided by sociological canons and empirically verified models but not attempting to offer documentation for all the findings. Despite these limitations, the participant observation method is one that finds favour with many scholars.

> Participant observation is the only method I know that enables the researcher to get close to the realities of social life. Its deficiencies in producing quantitative data are more than made up for by its ability to minimize the distance between the researcher and his subject of study (Gans, 1962,350).

It is significant to note at this point the recommendations of Selltiz et al. (1959, 60-65) regarding the researcher's participant observation techniques in the case study. The "insight-stimulating" case study necessitates an attitude of alert perceptivity rather than one of testing preconceived ideas. The researcher must be willing to modify and elaborate his criteria and data continuously. This approach also necessitates an intensity of investigation such that both the organization's unique features, as well as those which it shares in common with other organizations, are obtained. Finally, the researcher must be able to draw together all the diverse information into an integrated interpretation. This implies a post-factum study, however, " . . . even if the case material is merely the stimulus for the explicit statement of a previously unformulated hypothesis,

it may serve a worthwhile function" Selltiz et al.,(1959, 61). In seeking relevant information it is necessary to approach the most appropriate types of people. Selltiz et al. considered the following individuals to be very rewarding interviewees: strangers or newcomers; marginal individuals; those in transition; deviants and isolates; pure types with considerable reliable information; well socialized or misfit persons; people from different hierarchical positions; and the researcher's own views dependent upon experience. It is pertinant to note that " . . . explanatory studies merely lead to insights on hypotheses; they do not test or demonstrate them" (Sellitiz et al., 1959, 64). Rosenberg (1968) provides some cogent arguments to support this strategy pointing out that the "block-booking" phenomenon of clusters of variables can be controlled in the experimental method by random selection and matching of experiences, but that this is not practicable in survey research. The strict adherence to some defined variables tends to impoverish survey research as it precludes the processes of evidence assaying and elaboration.

The component dimensions of the two recreation models elucidated earlier act, in accordance with the aforementioned strategy, as guide lines for the elicitation, codification and systematisation of data. The two components of the Alumwell Centre organisational analysis social survey are complementary. The qualitative case study effected through participant observation techniques and the quantitative questionnaire survey combine to provide a comprehensive appraisal of the community education and recreation organisation. It is important to emphasize, however, the delimitations of the survey with respect to the dissertation. The two recreation models

facilitate an exhaustive analysis of recreation systems and organisations via case study techniques and questionnaire surveys and their elucidation is an integral part of the rationalisation of community education and recreation as stated in Chapter 1.6. The application of all dimensions of both models would result, however, in the gathering of data superfluous to the needs of the dissertation. Thus, although the case study and questionnaire survey of the Alumwell Centre were expedited in full for the purposes of a research consultancy, only information relevant to the generic model's authentication and dissonance exemplification was subsequently extracted. In the ensuing section on data collection the complete range of categories and dimensions employed in the survey is explicated but Chapter 10 will only refer to information deemed pertinent to the dissertation's terms of reference.

A comprehensive report on the organisational analysis social survey has been prepared for the Walsall Borough Council and it is germane to re-emphasize that information gathered from the Alumwell Centre and four colleges surveys was utilized not only for the development of the theoretical model and the organisational analysis social survey but also for outside executive agencies.

9.1. COLLECTION OF DATA

The initial procedure involved in the organisational analysis of the Alumwell Centre was to obtain access to an established community education and recreation organisation. This was effected by means of permission granted to conduct research into the Alumwell Centre and its associated local government departments in the Metropolitan Borough of Walsall near Birmingham. The borough possessed a progressive

education department under the directorship of R.D. Nixon which had established an integrated education and recreation service for first and second tier community education and recreation.

During the period 1972 - 1975, social survey research was carried out in the Alumwell Centre organisation. With the cooperation of the Headmaster E.M. Hughes, the staff of the college, its constituent community education and recreation department, and the local government executive agencies' functional domains, a questionnaire survey of use and users' characteristics during one week in July 1974, and a case study over two years were carried out. The organisational analysis of the centre was only successfully effected due to the manner in which the researcher was internalised into the organisation and accepted as a functional member of it. Participant observation was therefore facilitated by total identification with the organisation and its personnel over an extended period.

Research into the broader aspects of community education and recreation in England and Wales was promoted by the researcher's position as a lecturer, planner and researcher in this sector of the educational system. Planning and management consultancies for local authorities on problems encountered in initiating dual provision schemes, cooperation with the Sports Council in planning schemes and research projects, and continual consultation with the country's foremost innovators in the field of education, enabled the researcher to gain access to all the necessary sources of relevant information. In addition, the help of research assistants in the reviewing of four progressive local authorities which had launched progressive community college projects was invaluable in obtaining

the optimum appraisal of available data. The centres at Netherley in Liverpool, Shadsworth in Blackburn, Sidney Stringer in Coventry, and Countesthorpe in Leicester provided supplementary data to that retrieved from the Alumwell Centre. The investigation at the four former centres was not as rigorous as that performed on the latter centre but documentary evidence, participant observation and interviews sufficed to provide adequate data.

No hinderances were encountered during the period of research due mainly to the researcher being an active participant not only in the Alumwell Centre organisation but in the community education and recreation organisation in England and Wales. This can be witnessed in the fact that both the Sports Council and the Walsall Borough Council department of education actively sponsored the research, the latter requesting a report which required an extended version of the survey reported in this dissertation. Sources from which data were retrieved are listed in Appendix 8.

9.1.1. Research Techniques - Case Study. The case study approach was used to examine the community education and recreation of the Alumwell Centre. By means of participant observation the management capacity component of the environment community facility capacity constraints were appraised. More specifically, the dimensions of the recreation management organisational analysis model were evaluated in the context of the local government and community college community education and recreation department unit of analysis.

The case study, it must be emphasized, is not a specific technique, it is an approach which views any social unit as a whole or " . . . a way of organizing social data so as to preserve the unitary character of the social object being studied" (Goode and

Hatt, 1952, 331). As noted earlier, most research has become characterised by cross tabulations between traits of individuals. But research into groups of organised individuals may be oriented towards a more holist approach.

> . . . they may also be approached through an organised framework emphasizing the characteristics of the group, or process, or social structure as a whole. The case study, attempting to organize data around the unit of growth, or group structure, . . . does force the researcher to think in these terms rather than fall back on trait analysis alone (Goode and Hatte, 1952, 339).

The case study techniques used during participant observation field work to elicit data on the characteristics of the reereation management organisational analysis model's dimensions were the following type:

9.1.1.1. Documentary Analysis. Access was gained to primary and secondary documents in all relevant institutions. Local government executive agency committee minutes, reports, publications and documents; college committees' minutes, records, reports and surveys; the college's community education and recreation department complete records of all personnel and users, financial records, and confidential management reports; Sports Council reports, surveys and planning committee recommendations; access to central and local government census information, housing and educational short and long term plans, and educational-recreational strategic plans at metropolitan county and district levels; library research facilities in academic and public institutions; and personal papers, reports and surveys of individuals instrumental in initiating innovative schemes in community education and recreation organisations in different areas of England and Wales.

9.1.1.2. Observation. Unstructured participant observation, while immersed in the organisation for continuous periods of two days over the total period of three years, enabled patterns of interaction, informal communication nets, value differentials, and goal conflicts in the intra-management and professional-user clients contexts, to be observed. Sociometry and interaction process analysis techniques were not employed. The strategy adopted was of the "quasi-participant observation" type used by Whyte (1943) in his study of "corner boys" in an Italian slum. This involves carrying out the dual roles of recognised researcher and member of the organisation, a procedure which is viable after the organisation accept the presence of the field worker as legitimate.

9.1.1.3. Interview. The personal depth interview was used to question significant personnel both in the Alumwell Centre organisation and in the community education and recreation sector in England and Wales. Standardisation was achieved through the qualitative coding of data into items of information, not through the use of a schedule. An interview guide of these items, which were based on the dimensions of the recreation management organisational analysis model, was used to formulate unstructured open ended questions. A check list of items covered in an interview was kept and the whole procedure taped. A subsequent content analysis and transcription of the information retrieved was made after each interview. In excess of twenty five interviews each lasting an average of one hour were made (Appendix 8).

9.1.2. Research Techniques - Questionnaire Survey. A questionnaire was distributed to users of the Alumwell Centre over the period of a week in July 1974. It was used to gather information on the community education and recreation system causal chain and more

specifically on the use and user personal and environmental constraints variables identified in the recreation research model.

The sampling procedure instituted was of a temporal nature, the total population of users of the centre over a seven day period being surveyed. A total of 1,683 respondents was retrieved.

The self-administered structural questionnaire consisted of a series of closed questions divided into three categories of use and user characteristics: Part 1. visitation characteristics; Part 2. catchment area characteristics; Part 3. users' personal characteristics. The specific personal demographic, socio-economic and linkages constraints variables included in the recreation research model are ordered into the following items of grouped variables:

PART 1	PART 2	PART 3
Day and duration of visit	Mode of travel	Car ownership
Purpose of visit	Origin of visit	Sex
Main activity distribution	Journey time	Marital status
Influence of centre	Destination of visit	Educational status
Ancillary activity	Home address	Age
Type of user group		Social class
Type of attendance		
Frequency of attendance		

The complete questionnaire is included in Appendix 9.

9.2. ORGANISATION AND PROCESSING OF DATA

Data which was retrieved through the case study techniques of documentary analysis, observation and interview are qualitatively coded into the management capacity component of the environment community facility capacity constraints and the five organisational

dimensions of the local government and community college community education and recreation department unit of analysis. In addition, data are codified into the local government and community college parameters of dissonance and their respective three sources of dissatisfaction and five areas of dissonance. This ordering and classifying of data is applied to data retrieved via case study techniques from both the Alumwell Centre and the four other community colleges reviewed. In the case of the latter, data from the colleges are simultaneously juxtaposed in these categories concurrently with the Alumwell Centre's case study results and prior to the questionnaire survey results.

The process of qualitatively coding data into the aforementioned predetermined items, dimensions, parameters and areas is expedited, in the case of documentary analysis, by means of content analysis. The documentary materials are organised by thematic analysis, in terms of the structure of the ideas and facts presented, into the relevant classes. Similarly, participant observation data are codified according to the itemised guide employed in the intensive interviews.

Data gathered by means of the questionnaire survey are organised into the environmental community linkages constraints and the users' personal constraints. More specifically, they are ordered into the three structured categories of use and user characteristics and their component items of grouped variables. In addition, information extracted from the classified data is utilised to explicate the organisation-environment interface and integration three stages of monitoring.

In order to effect the processing of data a computer programme was written incorporating the calculations required for an I.C.L. George III computor.

Grouped data on the nominal scales were subjected to frequency and proportion calculations in which each category comprising group is expressed as a percentage of the total population. In dichotomous yes/no questions significant bias was tested using the sampling error of proportion. It is to be noted that although chi-squared tests of association were carried out for the purposes of the research project report the results are not considered relevant to the purpose of the dissertation. They have not, therefore, been included.

Discrete, ordinal and interval scale data on seven variables were subjected to mean and standard deviation calculations. Data on these variables were also inter-correlated using the Pearson Product Moment method of correlation. Subsequently, a factor analysis was performed on these seven variables. The method used was the principle components analysis method of distribution. Factor extraction was employed using Kaiser's criterion and factor extraction ceased when eigen values fell below one. Factors were interpreted from the eigen vector loading in an effort to indentify the factors which constitute the variances between individual user clients.

The seven variables selected were: duration of visit; duration of main activity; frequency of attendance; journey time; car ownership; educational status; and age. They were selected in order to facilitate an assessment of the centre's function in relation to its catchment area.

Chapter 10

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The organisation, interpretation and discussion of results will be presented concurrently, with the case study report preceding that of the questionnaire.

10.1. CASE STUDY REPORT

The report is organised in accordance with the recreation management organisational analysis model dimensions which, because much of the data pertain to more than one dimension, are not consistently mutually exclusive. The Alumwell Centre and the four other colleges' data are presented concurrently, although data from the four colleges will only be included to reinforce the discussion on certain salient issues. Data from the local government and community college unit of analysis organisational parameters will also be discussed concurrently.

10.1.1. Background to the Organisation. The Alumwell Centre community college is situated in Walsall Metropolitan Borough a metropolitan district in the metropolitan county of the West Midlands which is centred upon the city of Birmingham. It was opened in 1971 pursuant to planning which commenced in 1968 under the guidance of R.D. Nixon the Director of Education for Walsall Borough. It was designed to replace three older schools and pioneer a new programme in community education and recreation which includes the imminent construction of an additional two community schools and two community colleges.

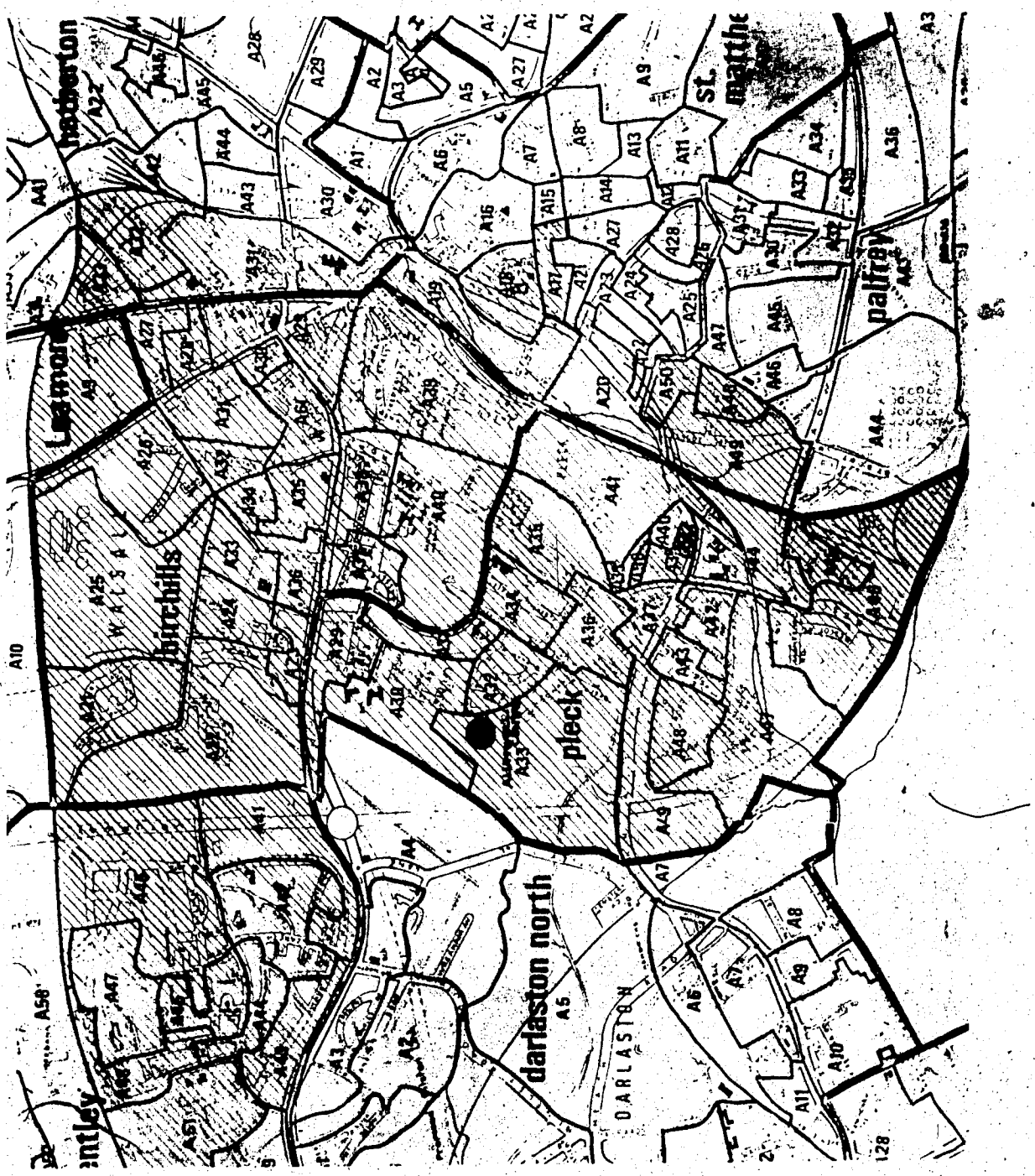


Figure 16

Official Local Education Authority Catchment Area

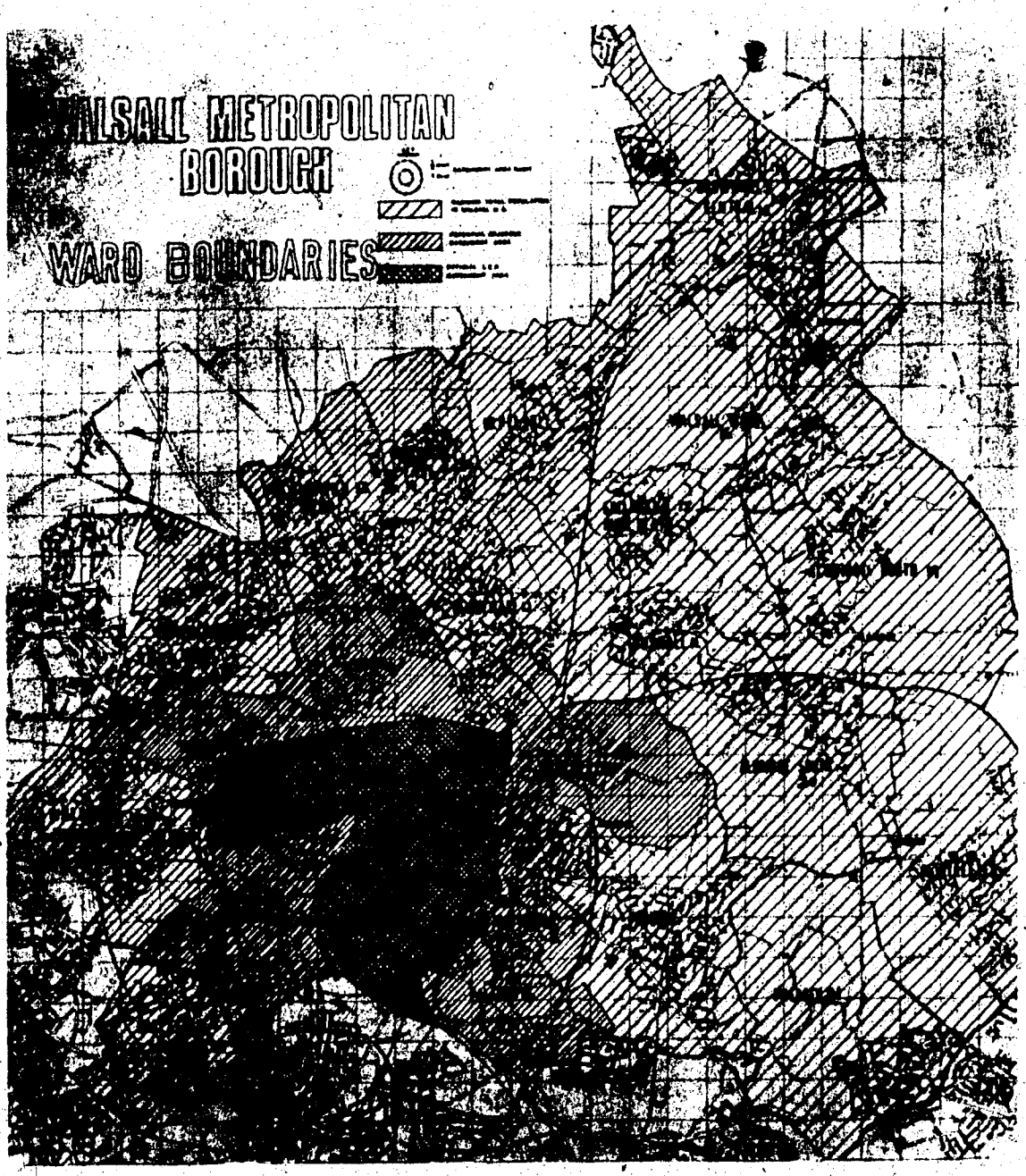


Figure 17

Potential Catchment Areas

The campus site of thirty acres adjoins infant and primary schools, is adjacent to the M6 motorway, and is slightly in excess of one mile from Walsall town centre. The college serves an official L.E.A. designated catchment area of 32,164 population, a potential adjacent catchment area population of 92,071, and a maximum total population of 183,000 which is the population of Walsall Metropolitan Borough (Figures 16 and 17 and Appendix 11.4).

The financing strategy for the capital funding of the college reflects the philosophy of education - recreation synthesis propounded by the local authority under the leadership of R.D. Nixon. The usual D.E.S. allocation for an 11 to 18, eight form entry building programme was insufficient to facilitate the dual provision concept of a community college. Other prevailing severe economies of financial circulation necessitated radical innovations in corporate planning and funding in order that the project might eventuate. The Director of Education's concept of education-recreation cooperation under the aegis of the former in order to promote community education and recreation was thus implemented. The contract figure of £650,000 was constituted as follows: £30,000 capital allocation from the Walsall Borough Council Planning Dept. to enhance the physical recreation resources; £28,000 grant from the Recreation and Amenities Dept.; and £18,000 from Adult Education, Youth and Social Services; the balance being provided by the normal D.E.S. funding for comprehensive schools. The contributions from such previously disparate departments and services as leisure, youth and adult education to an educationally promoted scheme represented a significant breakthrough in community education and recreation provision. Thus

five discrete functional domains and executive agencies cooperated under the servicing aegis of the education department: Recreation and Amenities Dept.; Planning Dept.; Youth Services; Social Services Dept.; and Further and Higher Education (Figure 18).

The physical plant includes a two storey block which contains class bases for the first four years of schooling, with the fifth and sixth form centre linked to a youth wing, and with adjacent specialist blocks for art and craft, science, drama, music and physical education. There is no formal assembly hall except perhaps the sports hall, if the occasion demands. Around the central sports hall are grouped music rooms, a large drama theatre, a gymnasium, squash courts, other specialist rooms, a 25 metre swimming pool and outdoor facilities. There is a gallery above the sports hall which quadruples as a school dining hall, small games area, lounge with cafeteria in the evenings, and a crush hall for the theatre. There is a well equipped bar adjacent to this gallery, and to the kitchen facilities. All facility resources are available for community use subject to the programming of the centre.

The financing of the running costs of the centre by the education department reflect the servicing function of this executive agency and the way in which it is able to harness other agencies and functional domains into making the centre a viable concern. The education department finances the heating, lighting and cleaning; the services of the Headmaster and all community education and recreation department management personnel; and the majority of the capital provision expenditure. There is thus no main drain of capital repayments on the finances of the centre. The centre G.M.C.

and management personnel are at liberty to employ necessary part-time staff and to re-invest any profits into activity expansion. The education department reserves the right to comment on the deployment of resources and profits as it is responsible for the financing of the majority of large and small college equipment. Youth services, adult education and leisure services also contribute to maintenance, running costs and capital expenditure.

The centre is therefore an example of the education executive agency liaising with other relevant agencies in the provision of educational and recreational resources for community-college concurrent use. It is vital to recognise the essential difference between the Walsall concept and the traditional dual provision scheme or education department innovation. The essential feature of Nixon's concept is that education promotes, liaises and services other interested and relevant agencies in the development of the community education and recreation organisation. It does not deprive the organisation of leisure and recreation department resources as the Sidney Stringer and Countesthorpe colleges tend to do, despite their progressive community development educational innovations. The coordinating function of the Walsall education department also does not inhibit the contribution of education as in the dual provision scheme's education versus recreation confrontation. The capacity of education for grass roots contact is therefore recruited in the fostering of community development through a coordinated scheme of recurrent education and recreation.

The Shadsworth Centre opened in 1974 and is situated in Blackburn a district authority in the non-metropolitan county of Lancashire. In 1970 the Labour Party set up a special committee to prepare documents on a joint policy for education and leisure. A segment of their plans is manifest in the centre which is a typical dual provision scheme whereby finance and management is a joint operation between recreation and education departments. The resources, which are totally integrated for community use, include: sports hall, swimming pool, cafeteria, bar, squash courts, television area, outdoor facilities, library and normal college educational resources.

The Sidney Stringer Community College is situated in the centre of Coventry. It was opened in 1972 and, as in the cases of the Alumwell and Shadsworth centres, it services the needs of its catchment area community as well as those of students between the ages of 11 and 18. It is unlike these centres, however, in that the conception and implementation of the innovation were sponsored by the education department without liaison with the leisure services or recreation departments. Its resources are as comprehensive as the preceding two centres with the exception of a swimming pool.

Countesthorpe College located in Leicestershire non-metropolitan county is one of a network of colleges and centres initiated by the radical "Leicestershire Education Plan" of the 1950's and 1960's. It is similar to Sidney Stringer in that it is entirely controlled by the education department and its facilities and management are purposely constructed to facilitate total community integration. It was opened in 1970.

Netherley Comprehensive Community School has been selected solely on account of its original approach to programming community education and recreation activities into the curriculum of the college. It is situated in Liverpool and although it possesses a radical approach to school-community synthesis it is neither a dual-provision scheme nor a purpose built educational innovation. Its merit lies not in its resources, which are sparse, but in the manner in which it involves the community in the development of a service in accordance with their needs.

In summarising the background of these five community colleges it may be stated that all of them are salient examples of the community education and recreation sector in England and Wales which aims to synthesize the school with the community. The Alumwell and Shadsworth centres have integrated the services of the education and recreation executive agencies and their functional domains within the context of modified dual provision schemes. Countesthorpe, Sidney Stringer and Netherley, on the other hand, while being equally progressive in their community development function have achieved this through inspired education department innovations not a recreation - education department liaison. Full details of the colleges' resources and management structures are included in Appendices, 12, 13 and 14. Details of the Netherley Comprehensive school (Appendix 15) refer solely to the community education and recreation programme, research in this college being confined to in-depth taped interviews.

10.1.2. Goals of the Community Education and Recreation Department. The philosophy of the local authority parameter may be said to be represented by the financial and operating strategy designated by the

Walsall Borough Council. The Education department acts as a servicing executive agency coordinating grant aid and funding from other liaising agencies while delineating the general guide lines for centre management, maintenance and running costs. There is no severe education versus recreation or leisure services departmental conflict. The servicing function of the education department enables the centre to be relatively free from financial constraints thus facilitating programme innovation and expansion. This programming flexibility permits the centre management to formulate policy in accordance with community needs. If the centre management fails to manifestly identify with the immediate community the education department reserves the right to intervene.

The education department's community development rationale is overtly expressed in an article by J. Ferguson, the assistant education officer with responsibility for community education, which indicates the function of the centre as envisaged by both local government and the community college.

> The nature of the community approach is to look beyond dual use towards a total view of community provision. . . . On the other hand the approach is not necessarily committed to making immediate 100% contact with every member of the neighbourhood. It is felt, and sincerely believed, that the community will flourish in terms of the number and nature of its constituent relationships of its own accord, given the right conditions and given the time to grow naturally. Careful attention is, therefore, paid to the structure and self governing organisation of the various activities to ensure that initiatives are properly developed. (Ferguson and Hughes, 1974, 2).

These stated goals are reinforced by the views of J.L.Cox, the headmaster at the inception of the project, which emphasize the promotion of community interaction through the availability of the college's resources that are designed to stimulate community action.

E.M. Hughes, who succeeded J.L. Cox as college headmaster, elaborates further upon the servicing function of the community education and recreation department within the college. He feels that the neighbourhood catchment area lacks the traditional social solidarity of a well established community. The dearth of a consanguine family network and the prevalence of conjugal families due to a relatively recent population influx of both commonwealth immigrants and redevelopment council house tenants engenders, in the opinion of Hughes, the need for an agent to stimulate community social solidarity. The college's function and stated goals are therefore to generate social interaction and thus social solidarity through participation, and also to promote community development by acting as a resource centre servicing a network of community ancillary self-help facilities.

The neighbourhood catchment area possessed, prior to the advent of the centre, several spontaneous nuclei of education and recreation. The numerous churches, factories' social facilities, working men's clubs, public houses, private clubs and the full spectrum of ancillary facilities continue to act as venues for community interaction. In accordance with the centre's stated goals, therefore, its function is to supplement and reinforce this existing recreation system by encouraging community participation and self-determination in resource allocation and programming.

The achieved goals of the community education and recreation department are, however, at variance with these stated goals due to the policy of D. Denton the Director of School and Community Activities. The real goals to which Denton, contrary to the policy

dictates of local government, the headmaster, and the G.M.C., has oriented the community education and recreation programme are synonymous with the achieved goals as perceived by D. Fabian the Deputy-Director with responsibility for youth, the users as evidenced in the questionnaire survey data, E. Alison the chairman of the G.M.C. and a local councillor, and several personnel in the organisation.

Research shows the real and achieved goals to be the duplication and supplanting of ancillary facilities' physical resources. The modification and usurpation of spontaneous nuclei of activity via the centripetal process of incorporating and institutionalising all activities within the aegis of the centre's management is contrary to the stated objectives of adapting to, reinforcing and supplementing the prevailing recreation system. The centralisation of resources as opposed to the augmentation of ancillary nuclei has tended, however, to attract only active and practical usage, it has not succeeded in generating the function of a social venue. Users tend to gravitate to their original ancillary venue for passive social recreation after utilising the centre's physical resources. The centrifugal resource servicing goal is also militated against by the dearth of programmed coaching and instructional courses and the absence of peripatetic recreation leaders on the management staff. The resultant reduced "pump-primer" and subsequent "spin-off" service to ancillary facilities seriously impedes the centrifugal servicing potential of the community education and recreation department.

Further evidence of dissonance may be found between the stated goals and the proposed goals of D. Fabian. His concept of community education and recreation is consistent with that delineated

in Chapter 1.4 and also with the main criterion of community development which emphasizes the instrumental role of the community in organising and programming their activities through a formative input into the decision-making and policy-formulating processes. This basic tenet which is explicit in the stated goals of the organisation is not adhered to in the pursuit of the real and achieved goals. The views of Blau and Scott (1970, 52) concerning the three main forms of conflict discussed in Chapter 8.2.1. pertain to these proposed goals of Fabian. Subservience to clients' demands irrespective of their needs as envisaged by the centre's management professionals is a disservice to the users. Fabian's proposals of complete devolution of power to the user clients is not in their best interests. Management personnel must retain the power to help determine the policy of the community education and recreation department as conceived in the stated goals. Similarly, Denton's real goals of centralisation are synonymous with subjugation of the user clients' real needs. In the Alumwell Centre this condition is not induced by a preoccupation with administrative procedures but by a desire on the part of the director to develop the college as a model of community life through his charismatic leadership rather than a nexus of a decentralised organisation. The resolution of these two antithetical forms of dissonance lies within the jurisdiction of the G.M.C. and its associated sub-units.

A review of the other four colleges reveals that Sidney Stringer and Countesthorpe have a well developed centrifugal servicing function. Data concerning their goals, elicited from documents and codified transcribed taped interviews, are

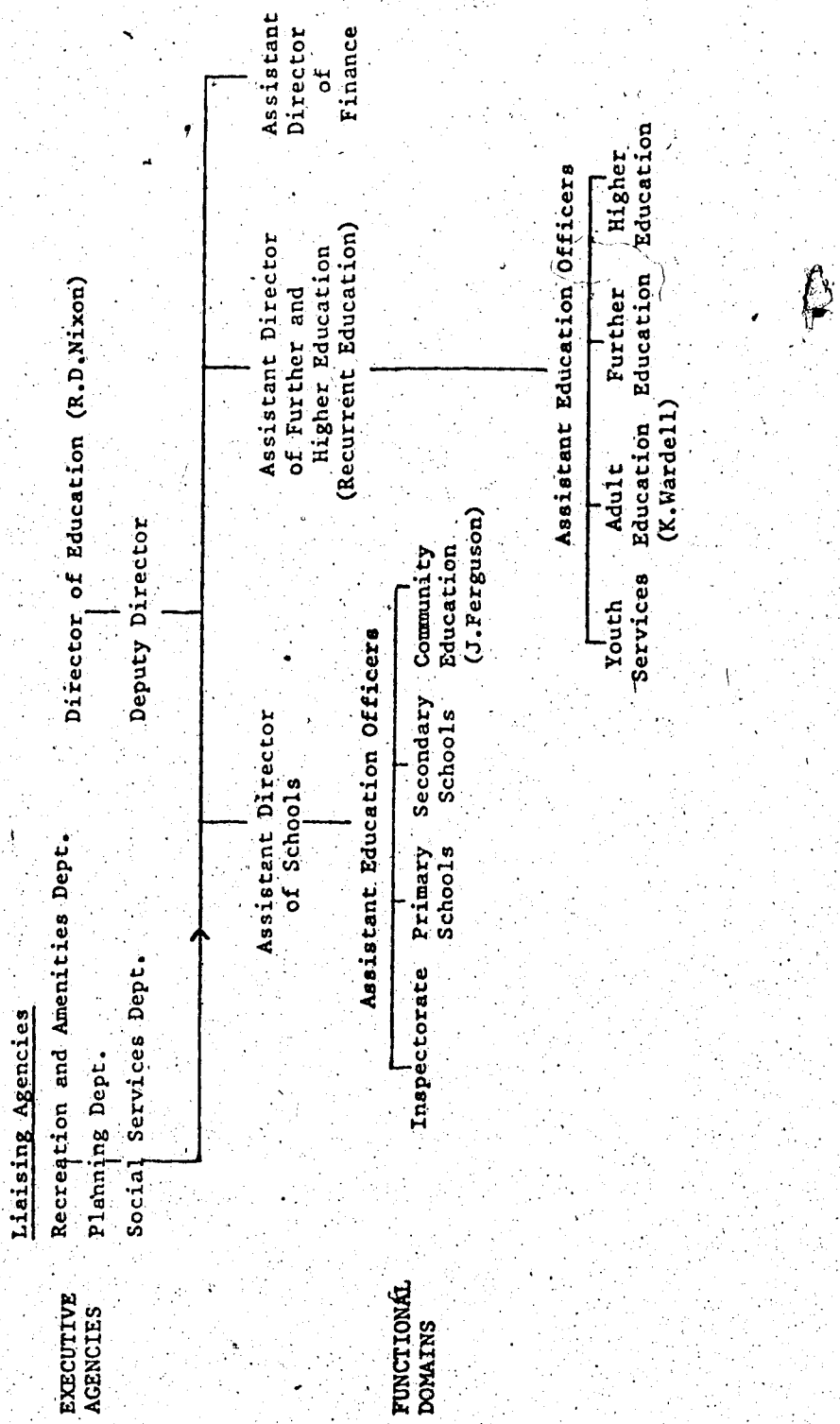


Figure 18
Walsall Metropolitan Borough Education Department
Management Chart

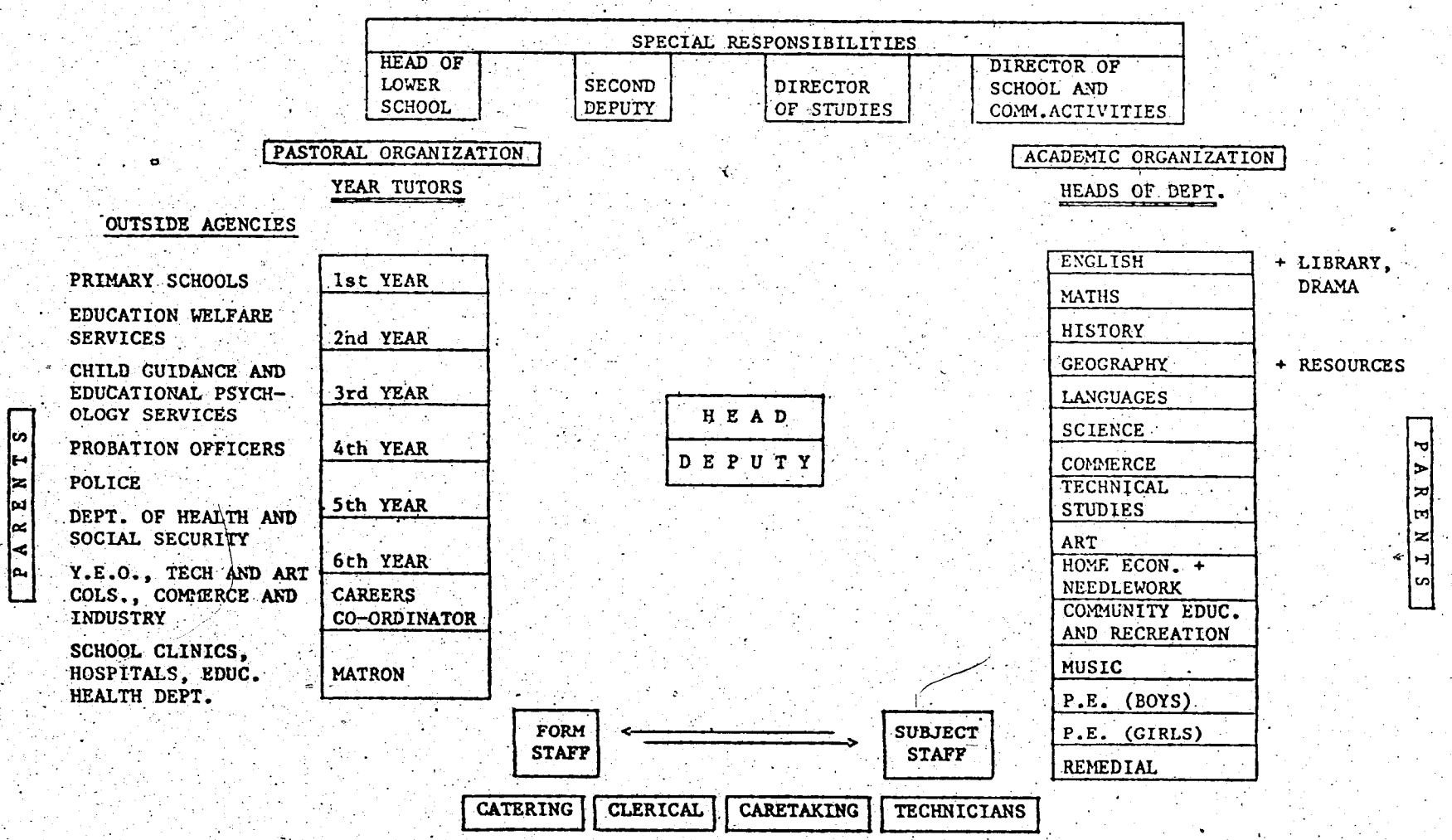


Figure 19
Alumwell Centre Management Chart

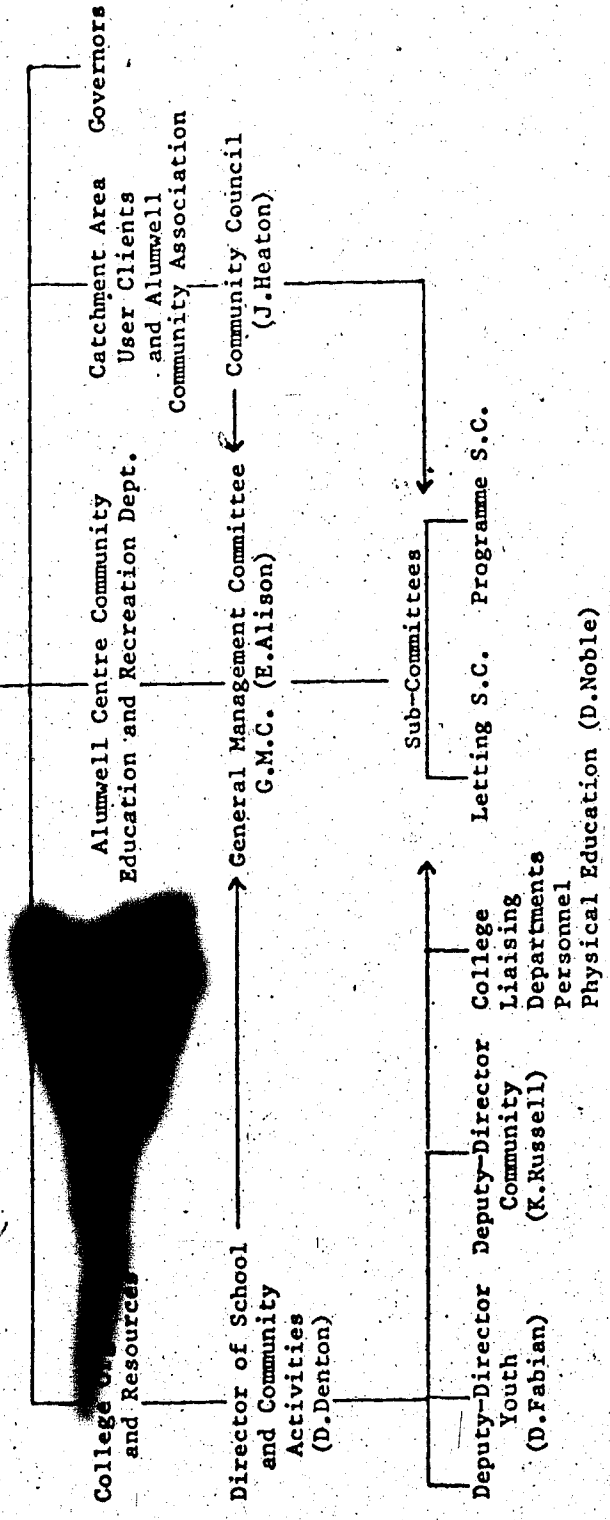


Figure 20
Alumwell Centre Community Education and Recreation Department Formal Organisation Management Structure

delineated in Appendices 13 and 14 respectively. They indicate that both community colleges have an explicit commitment to not only integration in curricular and extra-curricular periods but also to "community outreach" and the servicing of the community's total recreation system, a commitment that research indicates they fulfil. Shadsworth's organisation on the other hand, typifies the dual provision scheme concept of a multi-functional centralised organisation (Appendix 12). Although it employs progressive techniques for school-community integration its community development potential is demonstrably less than Sidney Stringer Community College in particular.

In conclusion, it would appear that the super-ordinate instrumental content of these organisations' stated goals is the synthesis of college and community and the promotion of community development. With the exception of Sidney Stringer, the organisational content of a dual provision scheme has instigated an exclusively centripetal servicing function with the resultant stated goal displacement.

10.1.3. Formal Organisation of the Community Education and Recreation Department. Figures 18, 19 and 20 illustrate the unit of analysis' formal organisation and its constituent sub-units and roles. In the following appraisal of this dimension it is proposed to discuss the power structure and control mechanisms concurrently with each sub-unit and role.

10.1.3.1. Recurrent Education Sub-Unit. The local government organisational parameter outlined in Figure 18 impinges upon the operation of the community education and recreation department to a significant degree through the medium of the further and higher

education functional domain. Although the headmaster in accordance with the principle of single line management is responsible directly to the director of education through J. Ferguson the assistant education officer responsible for community education, it is the regulations governing the adult and further education sub-unit which determine the degree to which the centre is able to integrate college with community.

There are four sections within the further and higher education department: youth services; adult education; further education; and higher education. The latter is solely concerned with polytechnic, art college, technical college and teachers' college educational facilities while the former coordinates all youth clubs, organisations and voluntary bodies concerned with young people between the ages of 11 and 21 years. At the initiation of the Alumwell Centre project both the social services department and the youth services section contributed towards the coordinated planning by the inclusion of their normally discretely located facilities and management within the centre's organisation. Adult and further education conceded only to service the centre thereby retaining their autonomous power. It is their lack of integration with the recurrent education and recreation organisation that militates against total education-recreation-synthesis with the community college organisation.

Further education is concerned exclusively with vocational education which is located solely within the technical college. No courses which terminate in an external award are available for adults over the school leaving age of 16 within community schools or colleges as they are centralised within the city centre located

technical college. This regulation effectively limits the degree to which the community education and recreation department can integrate the community into the academic curriculum of the college during normal hours.

Adult non-vocational courses in the form of evening institute, W.E.A., Birmingham University Extramural Studies Dept., Social Services for elderly and disabled persons, and recreation and library sponsored programmes, are permitted for groups in excess of 12 persons (Appendix 10.1.). These courses and the requisite tutors are financially sponsored by the appropriate agency but the college's community education and recreation department may promote any activity and course it deems desirable provided it finances and organises it. The centre, therefore, is able to facilitate both intra and extra-curricular activities only within the realm of non-vocational activities. The large latent demand in the immediate community from people who wish to study for City and Guilds typing courses and "O" and "A" level examinations remains unfulfilled due to the further education restrictions imposed upon the college and the unwillingness of users to travel the inhibiting distance to the technical college. Evening institute regulations regarding a minimum age of 16 years also discourages desirable usage by disallowing family grouping of parents with children pursuing an activity simultaneously.

The college-community synthesis is therefore promoted within the non-vocational adult education sphere with its component agencies' programmes but it is inhibited by the artificial age barriers of adult education and the unavailability of vocational further education courses. A compensatory factor exists in the capability of the community

education and recreation department to provide courses of any type in response to community needs, subject to the self-financing constraints.

In September 1974 E.M. Hughes, the recently appointed headmaster, succeeded in implementing partial community integration into vocational college classes. It is anticipated that this scheme will develop to embrace all practicable vocational courses thus facilitating the servicing of the full range of recurrent education and recreation resources.

The progressive nature of the education departments controlling the Countesthorpe and Sidney Stringer colleges has engendered the total integration of both vocational and non-vocational courses into the curriculum. No dichotomous functional domains exist regarding age or vocational content. The courses are organised into a three session day; morning, afternoon and evening, to enable all individuals' life styles to be accommodated (Appendices 13.2 and 14.3.) Netherley Comprehensive School and the Shadsworth Centre possess similar systems whereby the community are accorded access to intra-curricular courses. The existence, in these colleges, of further and adult education courses in extra-curricular periods concurrent with community education and recreation department courses, while creating an artificial schism, can be considered to be partially advantageous in that the colleges' financial, physical and personnel resources are supplemented by the education department (Appendix 12.1).

The recurrent education sub-unit is one which can both promote and hinder the development of college-community synthesis. While the servicing of this sub-unit is necessary in terms of resources, the

artificial differentiation of functional domains inhibits the community education and recreation department's community development potential. Although the continued existence of these functional domains within L.E.A.'s is recognised as being necessary for logistical and ancillary facilities purposes, it is counter-productive within the context of the community college. The education department is in a position of being able to sponsor not only the liaising of youth services, recreation and amenities, and social services provision within the community college but also its own functional domains.

10.1.3.2. The Governors Sub-Unit. The governors of the college consists of five councillors and seven lay people. As a body, the governors are a medium of local authority and community control over the functioning of the college which is accountable, in theory, to both the governors and the L.E.A. In practice its influence is minimal as the headmaster liaises directly with the director of education in matters concerning college educational policy. Its impact as a body upon the community education and recreation department is likewise minimal although all governors are automatically members of the community council. The convened meetings of the community council have proved to be so infrequent that the council's influence, and therefore that of the component governors, is negligible. The Chairman of the governors, councillor E. Alison, exerts a considerable influence over the functioning of the centre, however, due to his chairmanship of the G.M.C. and membership of the community council and the recreation and education committees of the borough council.

A similar system prevails at the other colleges with the governors being merely an instrument of local government indirect

control rather than one of community participation. The most notable feature of these governing bodies is the dearth of parent representatives, usually only two, and the preponderance of councillors and their nominated members who although lay people, are closely attached to L.E.A. interests.

10.1.3.3. The General Management Committee (G.M.C.) Sub-Unit. This body, otherwise known in the dual provision context as the J.M.C., is the most influential sub-unit in the whole organisation.

It is composed, under an amended constitution, of: five councillors; seven user clients; the headmaster; the director of school and community activities, hereinafter referred to as the director; head of the college's physical education department; the two deputy directors; and one college staff representative.

The five council representatives include one governor, E. Alison who is chairman of the G.M.C., and one representative each from the council's recreation and amenities committee, the youth services sub-committee, the primary and secondary schools sub-committee, and the further and higher education sub-committee. Although the two deputy-directors are ex-officio members of the G.M.C., the balance of power lies numerically in favour of the non-local authority community education and recreation department representatives.

Representatives serve for a period of three years consecutively without re-election and in order to preserve continuity they can be re-elected after two years for a maximum of two further years. The councillors are selected to represent their various committees and sub-committees by their fellow councillors from the approximately 150 county council members. The seven user-clients are elected to sit

on the G.M.C. by the community council of which they are elected members.

The power of the G.M.C. is such that it is the cabinet in relation to the community council which is parliament. The G.M.C. is an executive body with the power of decision-making and policy-formulation. Due to the procedural expertise and clarity of aims of the councillor representatives allied to the user-client representatives' relative lack of cohesion, unity of purpose and aims, and procedural expertise, the councillors are able to impose what they believe to be government policy upon the G.M.C. The problem is compounded by the user-clients' ignorance of their communitys' needs. E. Alison sums up the councillors' function as one of, "These are the decisions we are making - do you object".

The director, whose responsibility it is to convene the meetings and arrange the agenda, works in close liaison with the councillors. By influencing the councillors to approve his policies he has effectively manoeuvered them into a position where they employ their expertise to effect his policy-decisions. The remainder of the G.M.C. representatives, two of whom are ex-officio, are unable to counteract this power bloc.

Thus the community council's stated function as a policy-formulating body which utilizes the G.M.C. to verify and execute its policies is negated by the inability of its representatives to articulate a coherent policy of need fulfilment, the power vested in the charismatic role of the director, and the coordination of the local government representatives in implementing either the director's policy or the official local government policy.

The G.M.C.'s function, until the advent of the policy sub-committee and the letting sub-committee, was thus the validation and effectuation of the director's policy. There was minimal input from either the college through the headmaster, or the community through the community council's user clients representatives. The councillors, and especially chairman Alison, are anxious to fulfil the stated goals of the organisation by facilitating user-client input. But, due to their reliance on the managerial expertise of the director and their own procedural expertise in effecting what they consider to be the stated goals, only the financial aspects of policy are truly debated while the programming aspect remains under the control of the director. The G.M.C., and its most proactive element the councillors, are thus effectively executive agents for the director's policy.

The G.M.C. has latterly elaborated its structure in response to E.M. Hughe's process of increased community accountability. The process of policy-formulation has acquired a new input in the form of two sub-committees; the programme sub-committee, and the letting sub-committee.

10.1.34. <u>The Programme Sub-Committee and the Letting Sub-Committee Sub-Unit</u>. The sub-committees are innovations by Hughes aimed at promoting a more effective input into programme strategy and policy-formulation especially from the user clients. Both sub-committees are proactive innervating bodies designed to democratise the management system whilst preserving the characteristics of a dynamic working party.

The programme sub-committee's function is to formulate policy. It generates a usage policy in order to facilitate the attainment of

Hughes' philosophy via the programming strategy. It resolves the users' conflicting claims regarding casual, club and instructional usage and attempts to meet the needs of the catchment area population. While functioning as an executive policy-formulating management body it is cognizant of user needs through its composition.

The letting sub-committee's function is to innervate potential user clients into participating by ensuring that letting fees, costings, logistics and general programme strategy, formulated by the programme sub-committee, is effectuated. It is an administrative body which by controlling the bookings, stimulating demand through marketing techniques, and resolving logistical issues, effects the headmaster's objectives as encapsulated within the programme.

The personnel composition of each sub-committee is the same as only their function differs. The headmaster chairs both sub-committees on which also sit the director, two deputy-directors, and four users. Hughes invites four members of the community council to represent the users on each sub-committee, a total of eight. These are personal selections by the headmaster based upon, in his estimation, their knowledge of user clients' needs and their ability to contribute constructively. They represent the four main types of activities followed in the centre, namely; youth, sport, evening institute, and passive recreation.

The salient points to note regarding these two sub-committees are that they are innervators lead by the headmaster in order that they may more expeditiously attain his organisational goals. The users constitute fifty per cent of the representatives and due to their personal qualities are capable of a more effective input into the

administrative and executive processes than the seven representatives on the G.M.C. Although originally intended as adjuncts to the G.M.C. making it more effective, the sub-committees have effectively usurped its power as well as that of the community council. This can be attributed to the fact that they meet monthly as opposed to the G.M.C. and community council which meet termly; the compact and dynamic characteristics of their organisation compared to the diffuse system of the other bodies; and the purposeful leadership of Hughes the headmaster. The two sub-committees have, therefore, curbed the oligarchical power of the director and the councillors in the G.M.C. by supplanting their services with a more effective mechanism which has assumed the G.M.C.'s and community council's decision-making and policy-formulating power. The sub-committees are therefore not ancillary to the community council and G.M.C. sub-units but superordinate to them thereby enabling the headmaster to more effectively implement his proposed goals.

10.1.3.5. The Community Association and Community Council Sub-Unit. All user clients who pay a subscription to join the community association attached to the centre are entitled to certain privileges such as reduced admission charges. The community association, which is a member of the South Staffordshire Federation of Community Associations, was established in order to facilitate the exchange of ideas and promote social action and thus community development. It is answerable to the education department through the college which gives it considerable autonomy. Due to the recent establishment of the innovative area committees previously discussed in Chapter 6.2., one of which is based in Pleck the ward in which the centre is situated (Appendix 10.1.),

the potential of the community association is considerable in the area of community development in view of the resources available and the coterminous nature of the Pleck area committee and the community education and recreation department's catchment area. Due to the high proportion of council house tenants, prevalence of social issues, and the large immigrant population in the area with their resultant attendant problems, the need for a vociferous community association is manifest.

The coordinated voice of the community association is the community council which is composed of representatives of every activity pursued in the centre, the director, a councillor, and the headmaster who is the chairman. It is a large sub-unit of 60 members which, due to its lack of clarity of purpose and articulation of needs, is unable to efficiently fulfil its function of directing the G.M.C. and its two sub-committees. The latter three groups are accountable to the council in so far as they are intended to implement programmes which will fulfil the needs articulated by the community council. This process fails to function due to the community council representative's inability to cooperate for grass roots action, the dearth of meetings and leadership, and the relative effectiveness of the programme sub-committee which performs the council's function more efficiently. In order to promote continuity of ideas and integrity of action the headmaster, director, and E. Alison the chairman of the governors and the G.M.C., sit on the council. They maintain a low profile whilst endeavouring to elicit needs, the cognizance of which is beneficial to their particular sub-units.

The community council's main contribution is in the seven

representatives which it elects for service on the G.M.C. and the eight which the headmaster invites to service the two sub-committes.

It is thus a potentially effective vehicle of community development inhibited by a dearth of experience in grass roots action, a topic which will be elucidated during the organisation-environment interface and integration dimension discussion.

10.1.3.6 The Role of the Headmaster. The headmaster's role is to determine the college's policy in relation to the community education and recreation department. He weighs and balances the impact of his department on the college's academic service. He has, therefore, the general function of coordinating the traditional functions of education with community recurrent education and recreation. Cox, the original headmaster, was relatively ineffectual in formulating a viable philosophy but Hughes, his successor, has evolved clear goals and objectives for the organisation which are in accordance with Nixon's macro community education strategy. He has subsequently elaborated the management structure and administrative apparatus and devolved responsibility in such a way as to make the achievement of his goals more predictable.

The corporate role of the headmaster includes; the chairmanship of the community council, the programme sub-committee, and the letting sub-committee; membership of the G.M.C. and the governors; and head coordinator of community education and recreation for the total catchment area. In accordance with single-line management principles, he is ultimately responsible for all operations within the organisation and its environment and as such is answerable directly to Nixon and the L.E.A. as a result of the education sponsored integrated service, not one sub-unit or role of the organisation is responsible to any

local government department other than education even though other departments' resources contribute to the community education and recreation department. The headmaster's terms of reference embrace the functioning of all dimensions and it is his responsibility to resolve conflicts of interests and inter-sub-unit dissonance.

It has been Hughes' policy to reduce the power of the director in order to reassert the authority instituted in his role. Hence the apparent devolution of power to sub-committees with a greater user client input. But these innovations merely enable a greater degree of control by the headmaster over policy-formulation and administration and the subsequent G.M.C. executive decision-making process than was previously possible.

10.1.3.7. The Role of the Director of School and Community Activities. The director is responsible for the efficient management of the community education and recreation department and Figure 19 illustrates the degree to which this role is integrated into the college's organisation at deputy-headmaster level despite the apparent autonomy of the department. This feature of the organisation reinforces the single-line management structure of the college and ensures the channelling of patterns of communication and control into the role of headmaster.

Within the context of the whole college organisation, therefore, the director's role is to generate community participation in extra and intra-curricular college activities of both a vocational and non-vocational nature. The policy of totally integrating the director within the college facilitates the concurrent use of plant resources by college and community and the reciprocal servicing of activities by college

and community education and recreation department staff with the headmaster and director balancing and synthesizing the two units.

The role of director includes the secretaryship of the G.M.C. and membership of the [illegible]ity council, and the programme and letting sub-committees. Prio[illegible]pointment of Hughes, Denton initiated the unit employing a [illegible] paternalistic style of management whereby the com[illegible]ty [illegible] needs were indicated to them and the G.M.C. acquiesc[illegible] his [illegible]icy recommendations. The director's accountability to [illegible]e c[illegible]unity council was unenforced due to the latter's infrequent meeting[illegible]earth of policy consensus. In addition, as Alison emphasizes, [illegible].M.C. were passive recipients of the director's programme recommenda[illegible]ns, and only effective in executing financial policy.

The role-set [illegible]he director enabled Denton to exert authority over both the deputy-di[illegible]ctors to such an extent that their concepts were unable to contribute to the programming strategy. Fabian's concept of community edu[illegible]ion and recreation was diametrically opposed to that of the director[illegible] engendering the complete curtailment of authority delegation. The centralisation of power and dearth of reciprocity resulted in poor mutual inter-servicing of college and community with a resultant contraction of available resources in terms of personnel.

Hughes' structural elaborations and power redistribution effectively curtailed the director's power and subsumed it within the two sub-committees. The role, now divested of a certain degree of authority, is more accountable to the user clients in the community council, the G.M.C. executors, the headmaster, and the corporate

decisions of the deputy-directors. The process of delegation begets a greater proportion of administration and servicing for the role rather than policy-formulation.

The director, however, is a professional in a service organisation and as such has a responsibility to elicit the needs of the user clients and execute a programme which enables these needs to be fulfilled. This responsibility is now expedited within the context of corporate management of sub-committees and greater input from sub-units and ancillary roles.

10.1.3.8. The Roles of Deputy-Directors. There are two deputy-directors; one who specialises in youth services and another who is oriented towards the adult community.

Fabian has the responsibility for integrating the youth of the college and the community into the community education and recreation department. He services both the college in terms of teaching, and the community youths' activities in terms of leading, thereby establishing continuity of service between the two units. The initial goal conflicts arising from Fabian's differing interpretation of community education and recreation were partially obviated by the creation of the two sub-committees. But the spatial and temporal differentiation of the youth from the community in the centre has transpired to be an artificial demarcation which reinforces the adolescent's social isolation from other community groups. It is a legacy of local government executive agency liaison and the resultant inclusion of discrete adult education and youth services sections within the unit. Fabian's role latterly developed into one of synthesizing the youth of college and community into the general

social milieu and its recreation systems. This involves the peripatetic function of actively liaising with ancillary community organisations and assisting in the college-community transition at the termination of traditional school education.

Russell, the deputy-director with responsibility for the adult community, duplicates the role of the director, although with greater interface with the community. His direct liaison with community association and council members together with ancillary facility representatives results in a peripatetic recreation leader function. It is a role, the utility of which has been enhanced by Hughes' devolution of power.

Both deputy-directors have acquired a greater degree of input through their inclusion within the G.M.C., albeit as ex-officio members, and the two sub-committees. Their instrumental role in policy-formulation and decision-making processes has also reduced the incidence of their role and goal conflict with the director.

10.1.3.9. The Role of the Councillors. Walsall Borough Council is Labour controlled and there is a one party education policy of community education propounded by the Labour Party. The five councillors who compose local government representation on the G.M.C. originate from the recreation and amenities committee and the education development's constituent sub-committees. They therefore seek to enforce the implementation of their party's policy and also that of Nixon the director of education whose professional policies are in accord with those of the Labour Party. There is thus consensus amongst the authority holders and formal elites as to the community education and recreation rationale due mainly to the leadership of Nixon.

The effective executive power of the G.M.C., and thus of the total unit, rested with the councillors until the recent sub-committee innovations of Hughes. In liaison with the director, the councillors formulated policy, programme and financial strategy. Alison, the Chairman of the G.M.C. wields a considerable degree of power in both local government and in the sub-units of the college's organisation. In his capacity as vice-chairman of the education committee, chairman of resources committee, chairman of two schools' governors including Alumwell, chairman of six youth club committees, a manager of several primary schools, a member of the community council, and chairman of the Alumwell Centre G.M.C., Alison is able to interpose local government policy into all the critical stages of the community education and recreation decision-making and policy-formulation processes. His control mechanisms, in company with those of his fellow councillors, are normative in that sanctions take the form of local government withdrawal of financial support. However, as the councillors' objectives are synonymous with the goals of the overall system, conflict has been minimal. The continuity of the local government community education policy is dependent upon the party in power. Should the Conservative Party achieve control in a future election it is likely that the councillors' reinforcement of Nixon's L.E.A. policy would be lessened.

It is significant to note that, although the centralisation of power within the councillors' bloc has meant a decrease in grass roots user client input, Alison and his colleagues are overtly in favour of rectifying this imbalance. It is their opinion that they have been representing the views of an inhibited clientele until the

advent of the sub-committees facilitated greater feedback. They were thus, in Alison's opinion, fulfilling their functions as guardians of the centre's rationale. The flaw in this reasoning is that there is reason to doubt their expertise in eliciting the community's needs. Typical views of the councillors' expertise in this regard, expressed by users and lower level personnel in the centre, are that "They are completely negative - total lack of experience - too obsessed with procedures - never been to the centre and don't know the locals' wants". An indication of the veracity of these observations may be observed in the fact that the councillors tended to refer to the professional expertise of Denton placing themselves in the position of executors of the director's policy.

The councillors as a body have, until recent organisational elaborations, fulfilled an executive function usurped from a weak and ineffective user client input. Their instrumentality in decision-making, policy-formulation and general effectuation of the organisation's goal attainment has been modified by their reliance upon the director's professional guidance thereby partially negating the balance between the organisational roles of professionals and user clients.

The situation with regard to organisational roles within the other four community colleges is not dissimilar to that at the Alumwell Centre. Conflict between the organisation's administrative system and the user clients' needs is the major area of dissonance.

The Shadsworth centre's organisation is similar to that of the Alumwell Centre in that the J.M.C. is heavily oriented towards local government control through the councillors, a common feature

of dual provision schemes (Appendix 12.1.). The manager of community services (Appendix 12.3.) is not in a position to effect as instrumental an input into the organisation as the director at Alumwell. Similarly, the other ancillary management personnel are unable to contribute to policy-formulation due to the all pervading power of the councillor controlled J.M.C. The Shadsworth organisation therefore, whilst evidencing the rationale and organisation configuration of an ideal-typical community college and component community education and recreation department, does not promote the professional and community self-determination process necessary to counteract the formal elites' control mechanisms.

The unilateral L.E.A. control of the Sidney Stringer and Countesthorpe colleges obviates the likelihood of political expediency controlling the objectives of the management. Although differing from the Alumwell Centre in that no other departments cooperate with education in the management of the organisation, they are similar in that educational influence engenders consensus on the community education and reereation rationale. Sidney Stringer is explicit in its community development function and in the devolution of power to lower level personnel and community members (Appendix 13.2.). The educational orientation of staff at both these centres, as well as that at Netherley, ensures an open system of management where the user clients' views are assimilated into the programme formulation process. The balance between the organisational roles of professionals and user clients in these three colleges is in accordance with Blau and Scott's recommendations for service organisations and also with the rationale elucidated in this dissertation (1970, 53).

10.1.4. The Autonomy of the Unit. This dimension has been constantly alluded to in the preceding sections, it therefore remains to summarise the community education and recreation's organisational inter-relationships with both local government and the Alumwell Centre community college.

In the traditional dual provision scheme, the degree of the unit's autonomy is considerable in relation to the rest of the college, in terms of plant, personnel and the organisation's component systems. In the colleges under review the unit is an integral sub-unit of the college's total organisation. The Alumwell Centre's management chart (Figure 19) illustrates the integrated nature of the community education and recreation department.

The physical plant is in no way differentiated as the physical resources are utilized both concurrently and latterly simultaneously. The programme of curriculum and community development devised and fostered by Hughes incorporates the work of the recurrent education sub-unit within intra-curricular as well as extra-curricular units. In terms, therefore, of both vocational and non-vocational curriculum development the community-college synthesis facet of community education and recreation department automony is a developing process.

The unit's formal organisation and its component systems is also largely synonymous with that of the college's, but with certain exceptions. The director is a member of the college's staff at deputy-headmaster level and both deputy-directors service the college's curriculum as teachers and are in fact members of the college's staff. Reciprocal servicing and synonymity of role,

communication, and authority systems exemplify the integrated nature of the unit within the college's organisation. The role of the headmaster typifies this characteristic in that Hughes' terms of reference and overall function stipulate a responsibility for the community and the college. He is specifically entrusted with the task of servicing the needs of the community with the resources of the total college organisation. The headmaster and the unit's management team, therefore, are representative of the integrated organisation implemented at the Alumwell Centre.

Within the categories of culture, informal communication nets, and decision-making and policy-formulating mechanism, the unit has a greater degree of autonomy. The G.M.C. and the unit's sub-units are only part of the college's organisation by virtue of the fact that they are components of the unit. They possess no common organisational systems of authority, status-role, or communication. Likewise the user clients and parents who, as components of a service organisation, are theoretically part of the unit in the context of their policy-formulation input, also do not contribute in this regard to the academic functioning of the college. The local government sector of the authority system as represented by the councillors is further evidence of the unit's autonomy as envisaged by the L.E.A. Thus although the unit evidences certain significant synonymous dimensions and a high degree of integration with both the college and local government it also possesses discrete sub-units the functioning of which is totally independent of the college.

The degree of integration practised at Sidney Stringer and Countesthorpe college is even greater due to the unitary nature of

L.E.A. control. The former college possesses a comprehensive organisation which totally integrates the community development team within the normal academic system (Appendix 13.2.), while Countesthorpe's roles and sub-units have been integrated into a purpose-built plant and system since the inception of the scheme (Appendices 14.2. and 14.3.). The personnel and community education and recreation systems at Netherley Comprehensive School are similarly totally integrated into the college's normal academic organisation with an accompanying dearth of inter-sub-unit conflict.

It would appear, therefore, that the degree of autonomy is dependent upon the extent to which education controls or facilities the community education and recreation organisation. In dual provision schemes where departments other than education play an instrumental role in controlling the organisation, the degree of autonomy is high and the potential for community development proportionately low. In community colleges of the type just examined where the L.E.A. either unilaterally directly controls or coordinates a multi-lateral servicing of the organisation, the degree of integration is high if not total and the potential for community development proportionately high.

10.1.5. The Informal Organisation. A review of the informal communication nets and attendant informal orders of control, association, status and modes of adaption to formal normative control requires a conspectus of the informal organisations' characteristics continually referred to in the preceding sections.

The most realistic and meaningful perspective from which to view the informal organisation of the community education and recreation department is that of the informal power structure and the control exercised by the roles in the various strata.

The role of the councillors, as representatives of local government, is to verify that the stated goals of the centre are being fulfilled. Due to the failure initially of the headmaster Cox, the user clients representatives, and the deputy-directors, to effect a meaningful input into the policy-formulation process the councillors exceeded their function of executive decision-makers and in conjunction with the director effectively informally controlled the programming and thus service potential of the unit. This informal exercise of power was curtailed by the appointment of Hughes to the post of headmaster. There had been, therefore, up until the innovations of Hughes a concentration of executive and administrative power in the councillors' bloc.

Hughes has derived a well articulated rationale and set of objectives for the functioning of the centre. In contrast to Cox, his predecessor who was preoccupied with launching the centre and making it viable, Hughes fulfils his stated function of leading the development of a college-community synthesis. To this end he has effected structural and functional elaborations in the unit's organisation. These innovations, which include the creation of the programme and letting sub-committees, although facilitating a devolution of power from the councillors and the director to user clients representatives and the deputy-directors, enable the headmaster as chairman of these sub-committees and sole selector of user clients representatives to orientate their administrative and executive functioning towards the attainment of his real goals. These goals, while not conflicting overtly with the L.E.A.'s stated goals emphasize a centripetal servicing function for the unit which, although involving an increased community involvement, do not fulfil the self-determination criterion of community development.

Hughes has thus effectively divested other roles and sub-units of their formative power and invested his role with the authority necessary to reorientate the function of the unit. It is apparent that Hughes' objectives are to create an effective informal user client input into the management of the centre to counteract the concentration of power within the formal elites while ensuring that the role of headmaster, in keeping with its instituted single-line management authority, maintains the requisite power to direct overall unit strategy.

Denton, the director of school and community activities, played a significant role in making the unit a viable concern during the initial period of its existence. During this period he practised a charismatic paternalistic form of management in liaison with the councillors which, whilst attracting a large regional interest in the centre as a focus of recreational activities, failed to devolve power to the community or service ancillary community facilities. Hence the high regard with which the centre was regarded regionally but the dearth of community interest in its functioning. Hughes has effectively divested Denton of his entrepreneurial power and reinstituted the director's subordination to both the G.M.C. and the headmaster.

The user clients have not been in a position to make as effective an input into the unit's system as the rationale originally envisaged. Although fulfilling the personnel requirements in terms of representatives on the community council and G.M.C. they have failed to exercise an instrumental role in policy formulation due to their unfamiliarity with committee procedures and an inability to elicit or articulate their community's needs. The peripatetic roles of the two deputy-directors engendered an allegiance by community association members to Fabian

in particular due to his identification with community development. Fabian therefore developed an informal community development servicing mechanism which fulfilled his proposed goals but which negated the intended viability of user client input into the G.M.C. This informal organisational innovation has been replaced by the programme sub-committee which seeks to officially replicate the former's organisation and institutionalise user client input.

The management system has thus evolved over the survey period from a closed system with component informal patterns of authority, power and communication, to a more open system which, whilst retaining the single-line management power of the headmaster, has delegated authority to ancillary units of the system. These discrete ancillary sub-units and roles which previously were inhibited by a concentration of power in the formal elites have now obtained greater autonomy in formulating strategy to meet their needs, a process which involves not only a greater accountability to both community grass roots needs and a constructive input into the G.M.C., but also an institutionalisation of previously informal communication nets involving user clients and lower level management personnel.

10.1.6. Organisation-Environment Interface and Integration.

The use of the Lawrence Lorsch (1967) model to monitor the effectiveness of the organisation's mechanisms for facilitating professional-user client relationships in areas of decision-making and policy-formulation processes, and community development and curriculum inter-penetration, involves the processing of data from both the case study and the questionnaire survey into the three discrete categories illustrated in Figure 15. As the organisation-environment interface and integration dimension has been fully examined in the context of user client input

into various sub-units, it is necessary only to review the employment of the three categories with respect to monitoring and evaluating the efficiency of the organisation's integration mechanisms.

The community education and recreation department roles and sub-units which are involved in community interface are: the G.M.C.; the community council; the programme sub-committee; and the peripatetic deputy-directors. The catchment area environment sub-units with which these are juxtaposed include: clubs, associations and organisations which utilize the unit's resources; ancillary facilities serviced by the unit's peripatetic personnel; and ancillary facilities with which no formal functional or policy-formulating liaison exists.

The functions of the community education and recreation department sub-units have been delineated in the foregoing section while the functions of the community ancillary facilities sub-units will be alluded to in the process of expounding the questionnaire survey report. The interfacing of these two sets of sub-units and the appraisal of their integration mechanisms' effectiveness will thus be more logically undertaken in conjunction with the examination of the community's recreation systems and their associated matrices.

10.2. QUESTIONNAIRE SURVEY REPORT

The report is organised in accordance with the three structured categories of use and user characteristics and their component items of grouped variables outlined in Chapter 9.1.2. Consideration will be given initially to the frequency and proportion and mean and standard deviation data within these three categories. Data from the correlation matrix and principal component analysis processing will be examined in the subsequent section of the chapter.

The number of questionnaires distributed was 1,885, this constituted the total number of visitations to the centre over a seven day period in July 1974. 1,683 were retrieved and deemed acceptable and 202 were rejected or not returned. Of the 1683 respondents, 401 were repeat visits within the week. There were, therefore, 1282 users of the centre during the survey period.

Daily attendance (Table 1) indicates a gradual increase in patronage throughout the week with a substantial drop-off during the weekend. The reduced weekend attendance is due to the lack of programmed social activities and instructional courses allocated to this period. It is also exacerbated by the counter attractions posed by social facilities available in ancillary facilities in the community. The high Monday attendance is accounted for by the 131 members of the Senior Citizens Club.

The timing of the survey did not coincide with peak evening institute attendance which takes place during the winter months. Evening Institute weekly attendance figures for winter peak periods are:

Survey Period	38
May	66
June	72
September - March	110
February and March Peak	130

The mean weekly evening institute attendance during the winter peak is thus 94.5 as opposed to the 38 during the survey period in July,

10.2.1. Visitation Characteristics. The frequency and proportion tables pertaining to this category are illustraded in Tables 2 to 9 inclusive and in Appendices 11.1., 11.2., and 11.3., while

bar diagrams on selected variables are depicted in Figure 21.

640 people, or 80% of users, visited the centre for a period of 1 to 2 hours (Tables 2 and 4). During the mean visitation period of 112 minutes (SD= 36.79), 82.81% of users performed only their main activity which lasted a mean period of 100.32 minutes (Table 21), the remaining period being devoted to the preparation for, and recovery after, activity. The implications of these data are that users visited the centre for the specific purpose of pursuing a single activity. A minimum of time was spent in either ancillary activities or post-activity socialising, a reflection on inadequate programming or social facilities.

The purpose of the visit (Table 3) confirms these deductions, only 0.35% of users being motivated to use the centre for passive recreation. Community association activities constitute the largest percentage of users 67.38, with the youth activities accounting for the majority of the remainder. Evening institute activities are responsible for only 2.26% of users although the number increases during the winter peak period. The distribution of main activities within these three activity categories (Appendices 11.1., 11.2., and 11.3.) is not of direct interest to the dissertation. However it is significant to note that the 276 swimming patrons, the most popular national family activity, constituted the largest proportion, while the 131 senior citizens were only exceeded by the youth club disco clients and swimmers. The overall significance of this distribution is that physically active sports for the younger person, a limited range of family unit activities, and senior citizens' activities predominate. There is a notable dearth of interest in low-activity

sports, cultural, social and evening institute activities which would be attractive to the middle age groupings of community members. Confirmation of this may be observed in the fact that 60.49% of users are between the ages of school-age and twenty five, the physically active age range (Table 19).

The type of user group predominating amongst users also indicates a manifest desire for individual and/or casual activity as opposed to the more structured and formal instructional or team situation (Tables 7.1. and 7.2.). This can be accounted for by not only an intrinsic motivation on the part of the users but also the absence of a substantial instructional programme in areas other than evening institute courses. These data indicate that in addition to a significant orientation towards active sporting pursuits, their is also a bias towards a non-competitive social situation.

The influence of the centre is not important with regard to the stated and real function of the centre in the context of its catchment area community and the contribution that it makes towards community development. Tables 5.1., 5.2., and 5.3. indicate that 69.90% of users commenced practising their activity after joining the Alumwell Centre. Table 5.3. further illustrates the significant contribution that the centre has made to generating community interest in comparison to other venues. Table 5.2., however, shows that approximately 50% of users who practised their activity at another centre prior to attending the Alumwell centre are still pursuing it there. The Alumwell centre is thus performing a duplicatory function with regard to ancillary community facilities. Additional data gathered during the survey showed that a total of 49 ancillary

Table 1

Daily Attendance

Monday	325	Thursday	215
Tuesday	148	Friday	203
Wednesday	189	Saturday	130
		Sunday	72

Table 2

Duration of Visit

Time (minutes)	Number	Percentage
< 30	8	0•48
30 - 60	344	20•44
61 - 90	260	15•45
91 - 120	640	38•03
121 - 150	232	13•78
151 - 180	187	11•11
> 181	12	0•71

Table 3

Purpose of Visit

Purpose	Number	Percentage
Community Association	1134	67•38
Evening Institute	38	2•26
Youth Club	456	27•09
Spectate	20	1•19
Bring/Collect	29	1•72
Socialise	6	0•35

Table 4

Duration of Main Activity

Time (minutes)	Number	Percentage
< 15	4	0•24
16 - 30	22	1•31
31 - 45	22	1•31
46 - 60	570	33•84
61 - 75	17	1•01
76 - 90	195	11•59
91 - 105	20	1•19
106 - 120	547	32•52
> 120	285	16•94

Table 5.1

Influence of Centre

Were activities done elsewhere before Alumwell:

Yes/No	Number	Percentage
Yes	506	30•10
No	1175	69•90

Table 5.2

Influence of Centre

Is activity still being done elsewhere:

Yes/No	Number	Percentage
Never elsewhere	1175	69•90
Yes	255	15•16
No	254	15•10

Table 5.3

Influence of Centre

Where was main activity started:

Venue	Number	Percentage
Other School	356	21•18
Alumwell	877	52•17
Other Centre	210	12•49
Sports Club	38	2•26
Youth Club	75	4•46
Evening Class	24	1•43
University or College	9	0•54
Armed Services	7	0•42
Elsewhere	85	5•06

Table 6

Ancillary Activity

Any other activity on this visit:

Yes/No	Number	Percentage
Yes	289	17•19
No	1392	82•81

Table 7.1

Type of User Group

	Yes/No	Number	Percentage
Evening Institute, Coaching or Instruction Group	Yes	277	16•46
	No	1406	83•54
Organized Club, Group or Team	Yes	245	14•56
	No	1438	85•44
Individual and/or Casual	Yes	1185	70•45
	No	497	29•55

Table 7.2

Type of User Group

Fun or Friendly Game:

Yes/No	Number	Percentage
Yes	1660	98•69
No	22	1•31

Table 8.1

Type of Attendance

Who are people attending the Centre with:

Persons	Number	Percentage
Friends	1097	65•30
Family	286	17•02
Family and Friends	147	8•75
On Own	150	8•93

Table 8.2

Type of Attendance

Family Composition.

Persons	Number	Percentage
Not with Family	1225	72•79
Father	49	2•91
Mother	45	2•67
Mother and Father	31	1•84
Husband/Wife	74	4•40
Children	87	5•17
Brother/Sister	165	9•80
Uncle/Aunt, etc.	7	0•46

Table 8.3

Type of Attendance

	Yes/No	Number	Percentage
Membership of Alumwell Community Association	Yes	1339	79•66
	No	342	20•35
Membership of Community Council	Yes	34	2•03
	No	1644	97•97

Table 8.4

Type of Attendance

Connections with the School

Connection	Number	Percentage
Not connected	1164	69•16
Pupils	365	21•69
Ex-Pupils	89	5•29
Teachers	18	1•07
School Employees	15	0•89
Parents	27	1•60
Governors Managers	5	0•30

Table 9

Frequency of Attendance

Number of Visits in Previous Seven Days

Times per Week	Number	Percentage
< 1	175	10•40
1	744	44•21
2	354	21•03
3	147	8•73
4	112	6•65
5	67	3•98
6	30	1•78
7	37	2•20
8	17	1•01

Table 10

Mode of Travel

Mode	Number	Percentage
Foot	887	52•73
Bicycle	13	0•77
Motor Bike	16	0•95
Car	613	36•44
Bus	153	9•10
Train	0	0•00

Table 11.1

Origin of Visit

Origin of Journey to Alumwell

Origin	Number	Percentage
Home	1537	91•43
Work	25	1•49
School/College	9	0•54
Friend's Home	92	5•47
Elsewhere	18	1•07

Table 11.2

Origin of Visit

Address from which Journey Started

Ward	Number	Percentage
Pleck	853	50·68
Birchills	138	8·20
St. Matthews	44	2·61
Palfrey	30	1·78
Darleston. N	27	1·60
Bentley	68	4·04
Leamore	60	3·57
Hatherton	20	1·19
Willenhall. N	58	3·45
Paddock	8	0·48
Rushall	7	0·42
Blakenhall	17	1·01
Bloxwich. W	27	1·60
Bloxwich. E	23	1·37
Pelsall	13	0·77
Walsall Wood	3	0·18
Brownhills Cen.	7	0·42
Aldridge. N	45	2·67
Aldridge. S	6	0·36
Streetly	1	0·06
Darleston. S	13	0·77
Willenhall. S	36	2·14
Outside Area	179	10·64

Table 12

Home Address

Ward	Number	Percentage.
Pleck	852	50•62
Birchills	133	7•90
St. Matthews	53	3•15
Palfrey	32	1•90
Darleston.N	25	1•49
Bentley	65	3•86
Leamore	58	3•45
Hatherton	20	1•19
Willenhall.N	61	3•62
Paddock	8	0•48
Rushall	6	0•36
Blakenhall	18	1•07
Bloxwich.W	27	1•60
Bloxwich.E	22	1•31
Pelsall	14	0•83
Walsall Wood	3	0•18
Brownhills Cen.	7	0•42
Aldridge.N	45	2•67
Aldridge.S	6	0•36
Streetly	1	0•06
Darleston.S	13	0•77
Willenhall.S	33	1•96
Outside Area	181	10•75

Table 13

Destination of Visit

Destination after leaving Centre

Destination	Number	Percentage
Home	1371	81 95
Work	6	0 36
School/College	0	0 00
Friends Home	57	3 41
Public House	187	11 18
Elsewhere	52	3 11

Table 14

Journey Time

Time (minutes)	Number	Percentage
< 7	683	40•61
7 - 12	459	27•29
13 - 22	332	19•74
23 - 32	133	7•91
33 - 42	37	2•20
43 - 52	22	1•31
56 - 62	12	0•71
> 62	4	0•24

Table 15

Car Ownership

	Yes/No	Number	Percentage
Ownership or Usage of Car	Yes	589	45•94
	No	693	54•06
	Cars	**Number**	**Percentage**
Cars per Household	None	485	37•95
	One	600	46•95
	Two	148	11•58
	> Two	45	3•52

Table 16

Sexual Status

Sex	Number	Percentage
Male	646	50•39
Female	636	49•61

Table 17

Marital Status

Status	Number	Percentage
Married	344	26•85
Single	837	65•34
Widowed/Divorced	100	7•81

Table 18

Educational Status

Age of finishing full-time education

Age	Number	Percentage
At School	536	41•19
< 15	444	34•63
16 - 20	266	20•75
21 - 25	34	2•65
26 - 30	2	0•15
31 - 35	0	0•00
> 36	0	0•00

Table 19

Age

Age	Number	Percentage
(15 At School)	485	37•95
16 - 25	288	22•54
26 - 35	166	12•99
36 - 45	83	6•49
46 - 55	47	3•68
56 - 65	132	10•32
Retired > 65	77	6•06

Table 20.1

Class

Economic Position

Position	Number	Percentage
Full Time	422	32·92
Part Time	74	5·77
Housewife	74	5·77
School	528	41·19
Higher Education	9	0·70
Retired	165	12·87
Unemployed	10	0·78

Table 20.2

Class

Social and Occupational Class

Class		Number	Percentage
	Economically Inactive	205	16·00
I	Professional	28	2·19
II	Intermediate	213	16·63
III	Skilled	578	45·12
IV	Semi-skilled	222	17·33
V	Unskilled	35	2·73

Table 21

Means and Standard Deviations

Variables	Mean	Minimum Value	Maximum Value	Standard Deviation
Duration of Visit	112·06	15·0	225·0	36·79
Duration of Main Activity	100·32	15·0	189·0	37·20
Frequency of Attendance	1·56	0·0	8·0	1·48
Journey Time	2·19	1·0	8·0	1·28
Car Ownership	0·81	0·0	4·0	0·79
Educational Status	15·11	0·0	30·0	7·88
Age	27·59	1·0	77·0	19·40

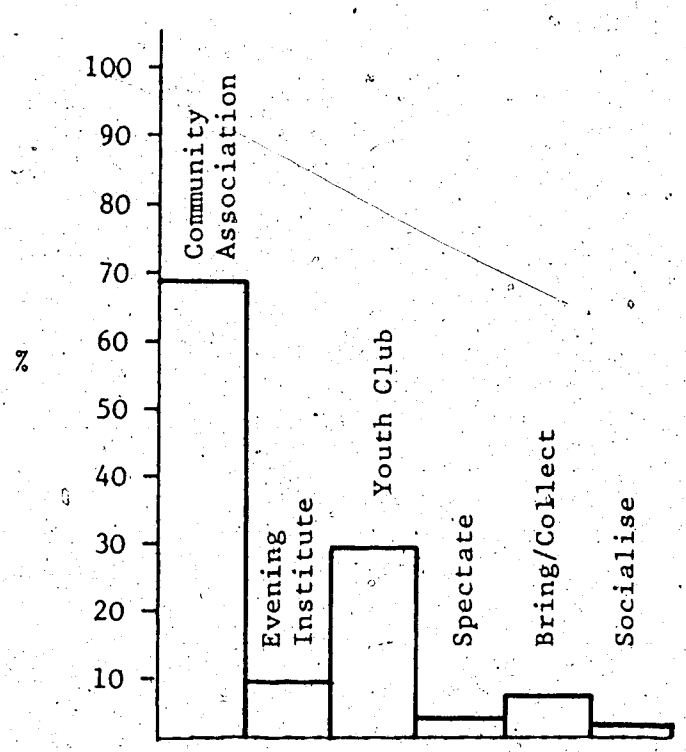


Figure 21.1
Purpose of Visit

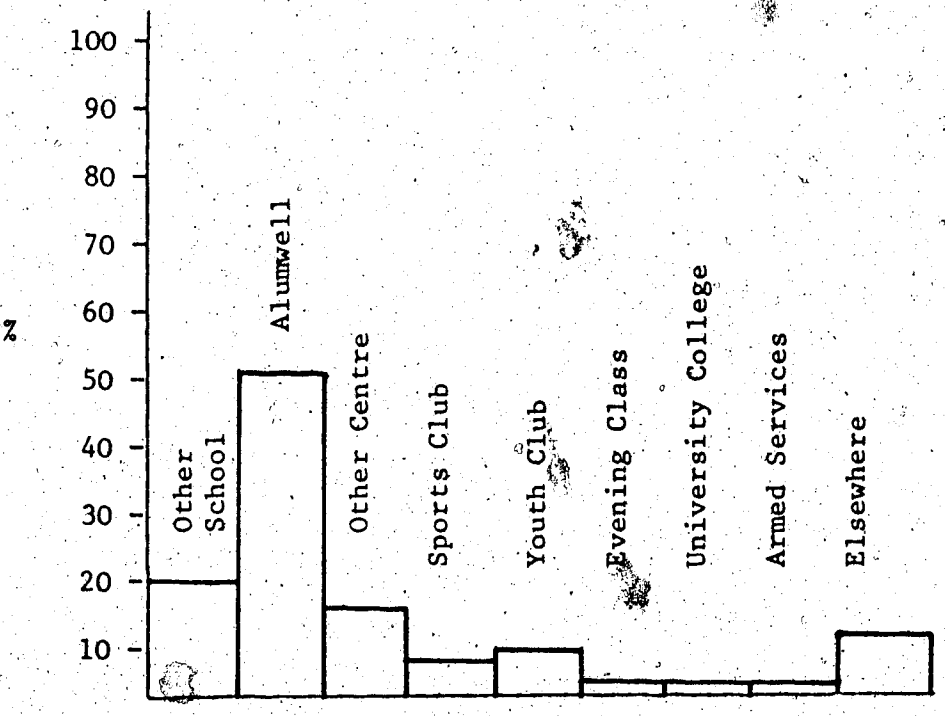


Figure 21.2
Influence of Centre
Where was Main Activity Started

Figure 21

Visitation Characteristics

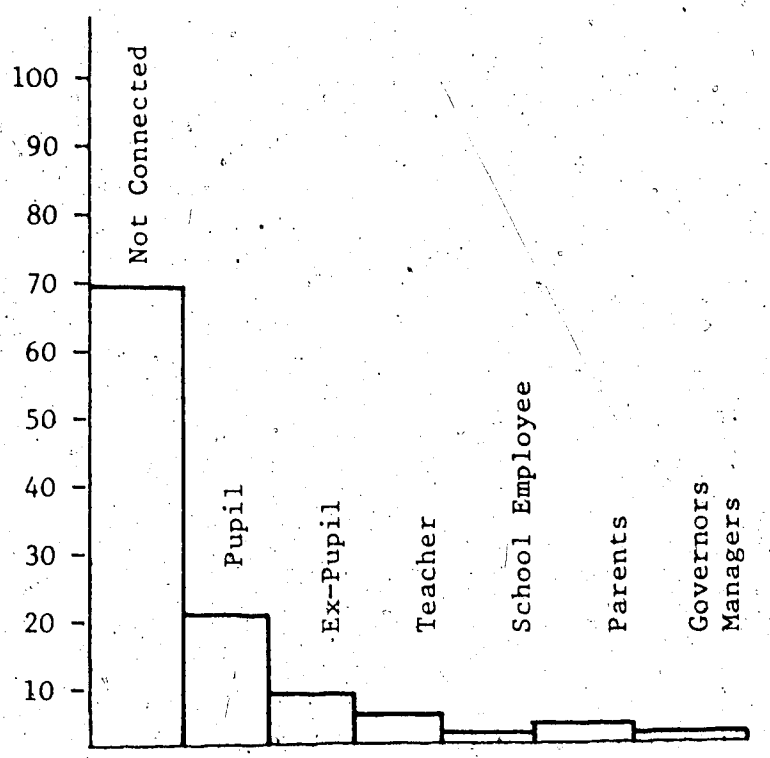


Figure 21.3
Type of Attendance
Connections with School

Figure 21
Visitation Characteristics

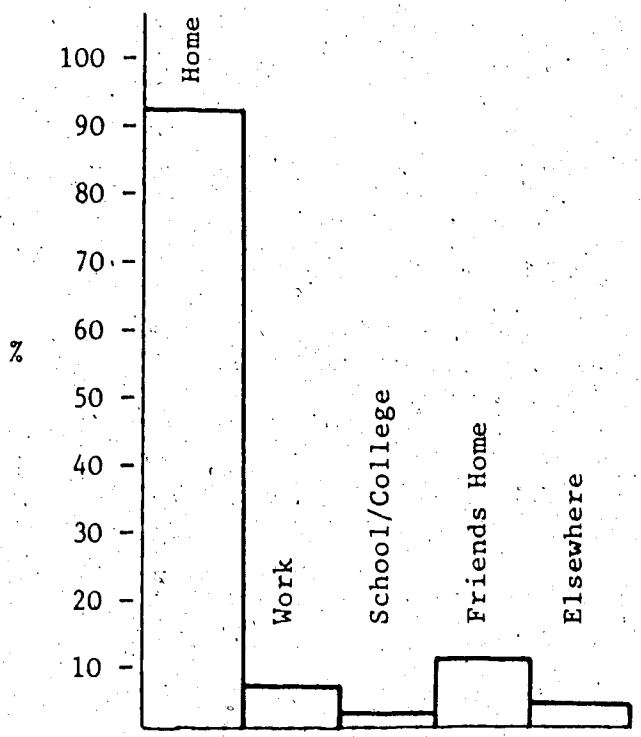


Figure 22.1
Origin of Visit
Origin of Journey to Alumwell

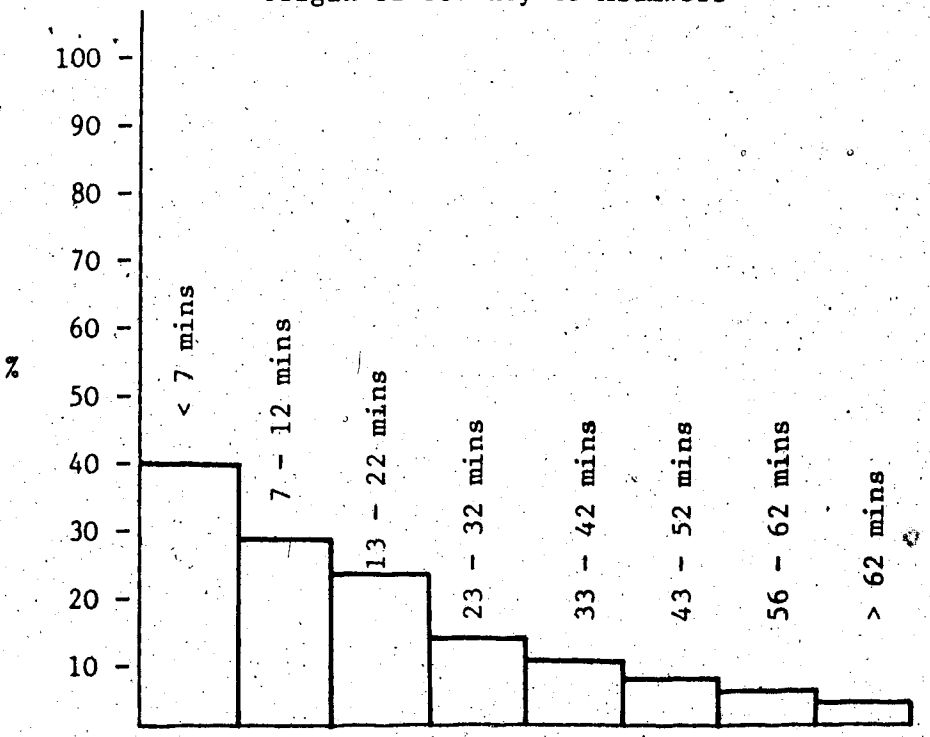


Figure 22.2
Journey Time

Figure 22
Catchment Area Characteristics

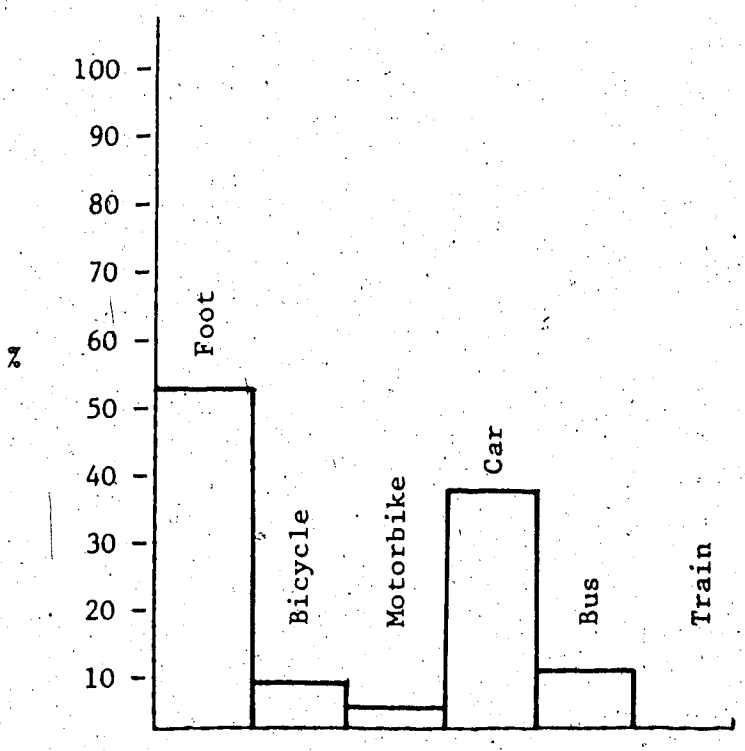


Figure 22.3
Mode of Travel

Figure 22
Catchment Area Characteristics

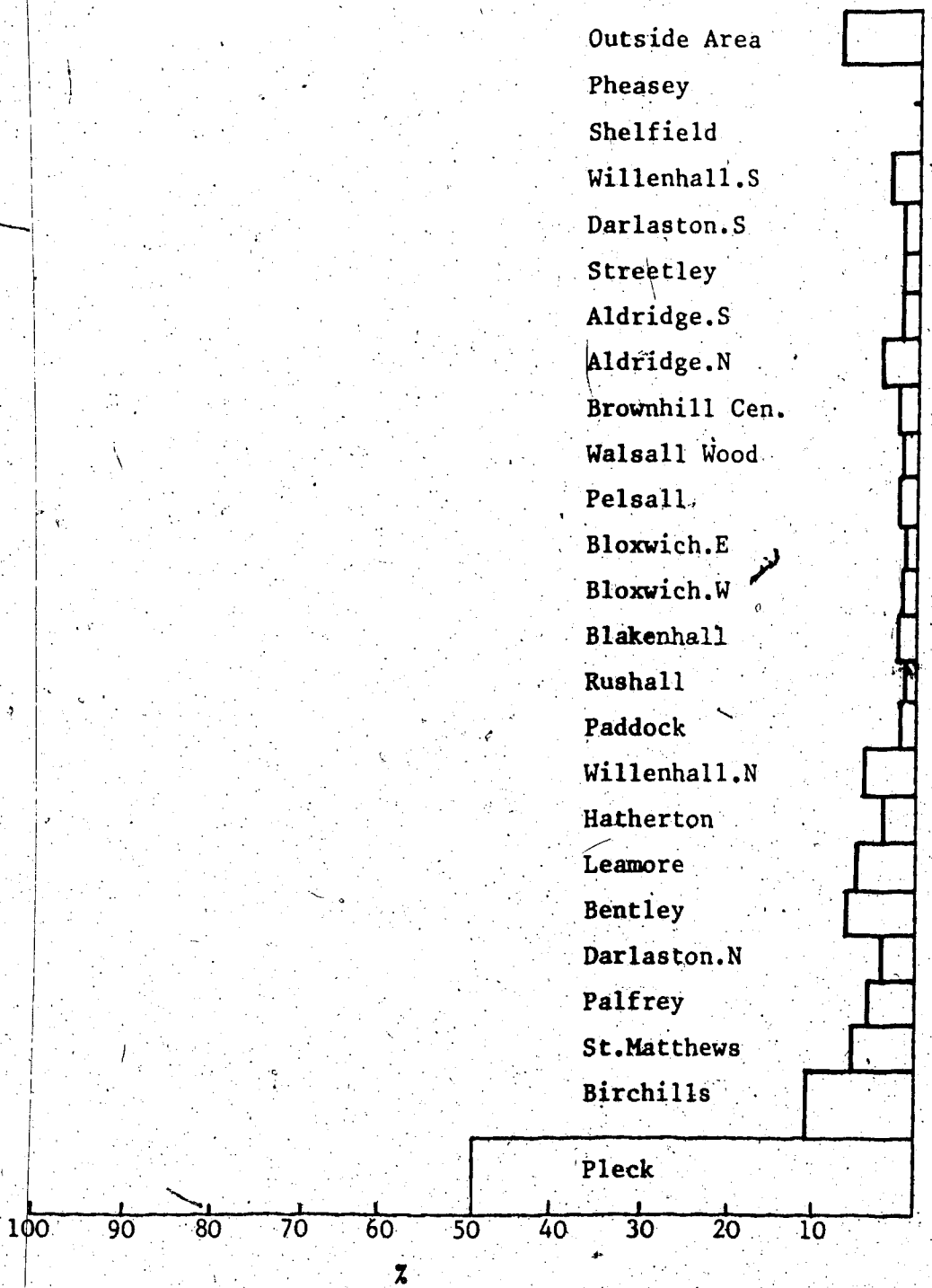


Figure 22.4
Home Address Ward

Figure 22

Catchment Area Characteristics

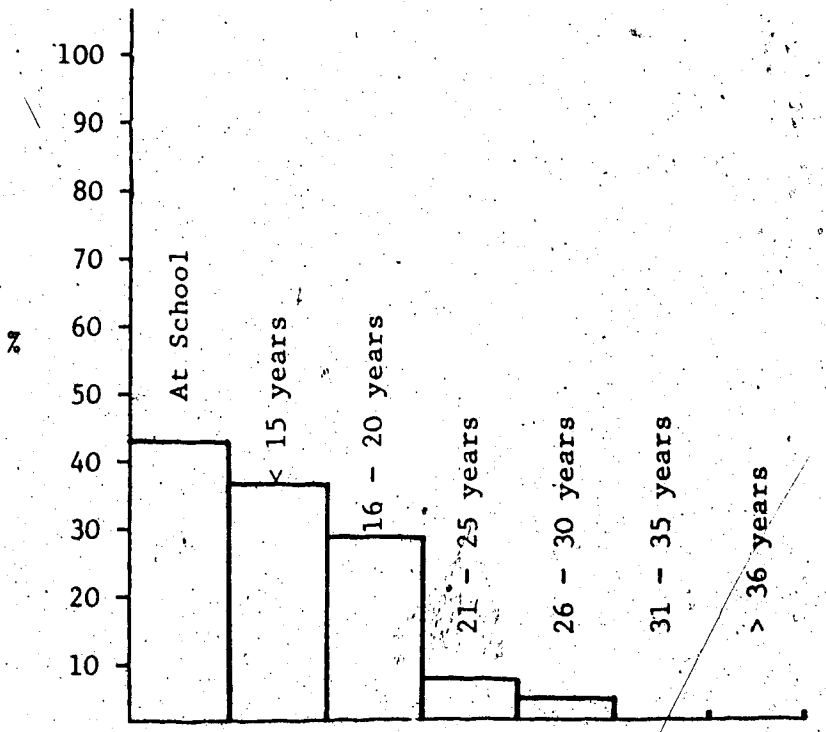


Figure 23.1
Educational Status

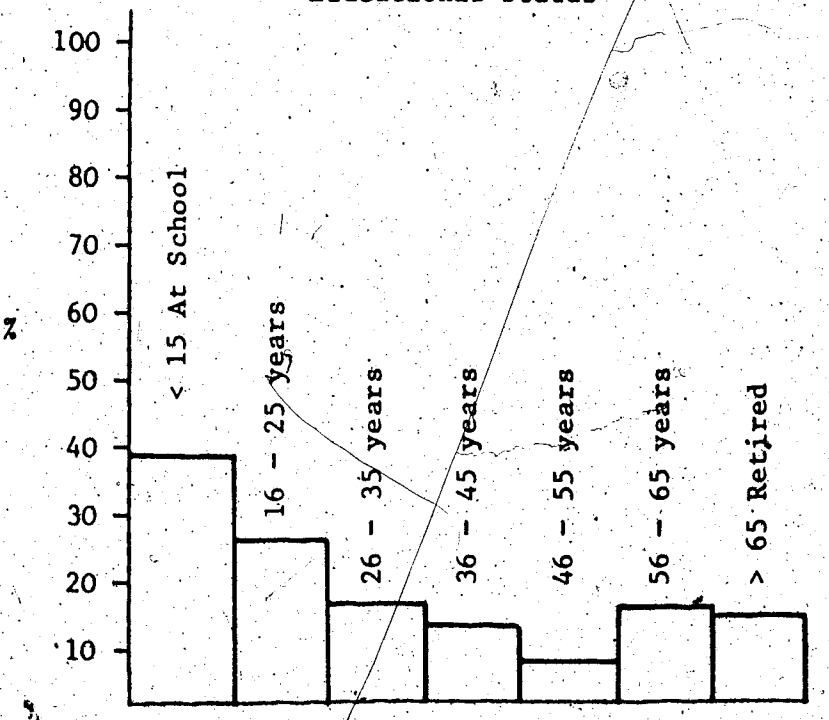


Figure 23.2
Age

Figure 23
Users' Personal Characteristics

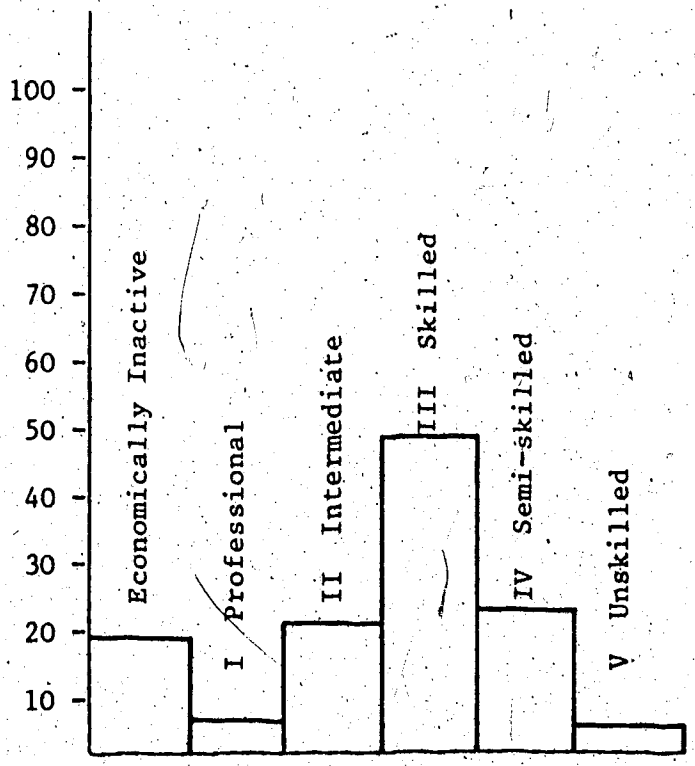


Figure 23.3
Social and Occupational Class

Figure 23
Users' Personal Characteristics

community facilities; consisting mainly of mutual interest clubs, churches, schools and public facilities, were patronised by Alumwell Centre user clients concurrently with the centre. Several activities including the junction 10 theatre, aquarists, fencing club and military or war games society actually vacated long established venues in favour of the new Alumwell Centre, a procedure emulated by the badminton clubs and squash players also. The implications of this duplicatory function of the centre will be reviewed in conjunction with the principle component analyses and also in the summary.

The type of attendance is yet another indicator of the degree to which the centre is promoting community development by integrating with the community recreation systems and their social milieu through the medium of innervating intra-family and inter-generational social interaction. Table 8.1. shows that a 65.3% majority of users came with friends and that of the 17.02% family unit attendance, 9.67% was accounted for by the nuclear family contribution of the mother and/or father with children (Table 8.2.). It should be emphasized in this regard that 37.95% of the users are still at school (Table 19) and thus more likely to attend with friends than family. Non-family attendance of 72.79% suggests that the centre is failing to provide for the large latent demand of the 30 to 60 age range which the census data indicate exists within the catchment area (Appendix 11.4.). Confirmation of this deduction was elicited in the form of users' comments, typical of which are the following: "I am convinced that the local community are totally ignorant of what happens at the centre. I don't think they really care"; "People who live literally yards away from the centre and because they have no kids at the school are amazed when they actually come";

"I doubt if the people over the road know of us other than to ccomplain about noise". Perhaps the most succinct comment pertaining to the type of attendance issue is that of the treasurer of the community association, " . . . absolutely nothing to attract the man in the street who is not sports oriented which must be over 90% of this area" (Heaton, 1975). Although the fact that only 30.84% of users are connected with the centre (Table 8.4) may appear to confound these deductions regarding a dearth of community involvement, a significant proportion of the 69.16% non-school associated users have been shown to be in the younger age groupings. But the lack of parental involvement constitutes in itself a real reason for concern although the relatively short duration of the centre's existence must be taken intoconsideration. The pattern of attendance is a product not only of management policy but of local traditions and attitudes. In an area of predominantly working class traditions (Table 20.2., and Appendix 11.4.) participation in educationally inspired community development can be expected to be minimal. The initial paucity of parental and middle age groupings participation cannot thus be assumed to be a true indicator of the centre's failure to fulfil its stated goals.

10.2.2. Catchment Area Characteristics. The frequency and proportion tables pertaining to this category are illustrated in Tables 10 to 14 inclusive while bar diagrams are included in Figure 22.

The mode of travel is indicative of the local nature of participation, the accessibility of the centre and the socio-economic status of the user clients. The 9.1% bus usage reflects the inadequate

public transport facility provision typical of the neighbourhood, a situation which inhibits the attendance of a significant proportion of elderly and/or non-car owning potential clients. The predominance of walking as a mode of travel suggests a small catchment area radius of approximately a mile (Figure 17). This is confirmed by the data on journey time which show that 67.9% of users travel for less than 12 minutes with the mean time of all users being only 2.19 minutes (SD = 1.28) (Tables 14 and 21). The local nature of participation is further exemplified by the superordinal status of Pleck, the ward in which the centre is located, as both an origin of visit and a home address venue (Table 12 and Figure 22.4.). The predominance of home as both an origin and destination of a visit also confirms the proximity of the user clients homes to the centre as the immediate neighbourhood catchment area of Pleck is almost exclusively council housing. Additionally it exemplifies the importance of the family as a milieu of the community's recreation systems. The relatively high 11.8% of users who visit a public house after recreating and the substantial number of users returning home who, on being interviewed, expressed a desire for upgraded social facilities, indicates the importance of imbuing a community college with a non-traditional education social ambience.

10.2.3. Users' Personal Characteristics. The frequency and proportion tables pertaining to this category are illustrated in Tables 15 to 20 inclusive while bar diagrams are included in Figure 23.

The 54.06% of users without access to a car is consistent with the census data on car ownership for the area (Appendix 11.4.). It also illustrates the dependency of many users upon the inadequate public transport system, particularly in respect of the predominance

of young and elderly non-car-owning users. The relatively minor 26.85% of married patrons emphasizes the bias towards the younger and older, as opposed to middle, age groupings. This is further reinforced by a mean user age of 27.59 years (SD = 19.40) (Table 21) but more especially by the fact that the retired and school categories account for 50.06% of all economic position distribution (Table 20.1.). Only 32.92% of all users are actively engaged in a remunerative occupation whereas 16% are economically inactive, a datum which embraces non-working housewives and the unemployed.

The most significant data regarding personal characteristics are those concerning the educational and social statuses. Apart from the 41.19% of users still engaged in school education, 55.38% completed their education at a mean age of 15.11 years (SD = 19.40), the school leaving age being raised to 16 in 1974 (Tables 18 and 21). The educational profile of the users is replicated by the social and occupational class data which show that 79.08% of users and approximately 90% of all economically active users fall within the intermediate, skilled or semi-skilled classes with the skilled class constituting 45.12% of the centre's users (Table 20.2., and Figure 23.3.). The socio-economic characteristics of the catchment area confirm these data. The wards adjacent to the centre consist of mainly working class families living in council houses and working in the leather industry trades which demand a high degree of traditional skilled craftsmanship.

The recreation systems with which the centre has to integrate its community development programme are dependent upon the matrix of social relationships associated with urban working class life-styles reviewed in Chapter 4.2.1. The exclusively "family-centred"

ethos of contemporary education and recreation as propounded by community colleges can be seen to conflict in this situation with the "neighbourhood-centred" tendencies of the traditional working class. The dearth of social resources to facilitate the latter recreational pattern can thus partially account for the absence of middle age groupings amongst users. These potential patrons are attracted by the more traditional social ambience of the working men's club, the bingo hall or the public house. A programme which can therefore accommodate both nuclear family units and community social groups is required.

10.2.4. Correlation Matrix and Principle Component Analysis. The correlation analysis elicited several significant relationships ($R = 0.79$; $P < 0.01$). Table 22 shows the significant correlations, which are as follows:

1 with 2; duration of visit was found to correlate significantly with duration of main activity. This relationship confirms the earlier statement that visitations are activity oriented and that social and/or ancillary activities are infrequently undertaken.

2 with 7; duration of main activity with chronological age. Although this relationship is not of great import, it does emphasize the point that older users patronise the courses which, as well as being mainly passive, cultural or vocational in nature, entail an extended period of socialising.

3 with 6 (-); frequency of attendance with educational status. The lower the educational status the more frequent the attendance indicates that young persons, particularly of school age, pursue active sports several times per week.

3 with 7 (-); frequency of attendance with age. This

Table 2

Correlation Matrix

	1 Duration of Visit	2 Duration of Main Activity	3 Frequency of Attendance	4 Journey Time	5 Car Ownership	6 Educational Status	7 Age
1. Duration of Visit	1·00	-	-	-	-	-	-
2. Duration of Main Activity	0·79	1·00	-	-	-	-	-
3. Frequency of Attendance	0·08	0·01	1·00	-	-	-	-
4. Journey Time	0·10	0·06	0·03	1·00	-	-	-
5. Car Ownership	- 0·13	- 0·15	- 0·01	0·08	1·00	-	-
6. Educational Status	- 0·05	0·08	- 0·27	- 0·05	0·02	1·00	-
7. Age	0·10	0·27	- 0·25	- 0·11	- 0·25	0·62	1·00

Table 23

Principal Component Analysis

Three Component Factors

Eigenvectors	Component Factor 1 Personal Constraints	Component Factor 2 Linkages Constraints	Component Factor 3 Recreation Systems
Percentage of Total Variance	45·30	25·53	29·17
Eigenvalue or Component Variance	1·81	1·02	2·04
1. Duration of Visit	0·70	-	0·47
2. Duration of Main Activity	0·70	-	0·55
3. Frequency of Attendance	-	0·65	-
4. Journey Time	-	0·76	-
5. Car Ownership	-	-	-
6. Educational Status	-	-	-
7. Age	-	-	0·51

relationship replicated the preceding one in that school children were found to recreate more frequently than other age groupings.

5 with 7 (-); car ownership with chronological age. The younger the user the more cars per family implies that the more elderly users are inhibited from attending by lack of both public and private transport while younger users have the services of the family transport.

6 with 7; educational status with chronological age. The older the user the greater their educational status serves to exemplify the large percentage of school-aged users participating.

The general conclusions are that these significant relationships underline the earlier deductions that the centre's usage is heavily biased towards the younger more active age groupings and that the overall usage pattern, while being local in nature, evidences a dearth of interest from the community's middle age groupings.

In attempting to identify the component factors which constitute the variances between individual users and thereby highlight the community's recreation systems, three component factors were extracted.

Component 1 having an eigen value of 1.81 and accounting for 45.3% of the total variance has been identified as "personal constraints".

Component 2 having an eigen value of 1.02 and accounting for 25.53 of the total variance has been identified as "linkage constraints".

Component 3 having an eigen value of 2.04 and accounting for 29.17 of the total variance has been identified as "recreation syste[illegible]

The personal constraints factor is made up of significant contributions from duration of visit and duration of main activity, which suggests that the recreation or optional time constraints is critical

in determining users' recreation life-styles. Cognizance of the catchment area population's life-space and time-budget distribution will facilitate an evaluation of users' optional time at risk to recreation activity (Parker, 1972, 27-29).

The linkages constraints factor is made up of significant contributions from frequency of attendance and journey time. Accessibility, the existence of counter-attractive ancillary community facilities, and an awareness of the Alumwell Centre's resources, determine the visitation frequency. The proximity of user clients' home venues and the overall local nature of participation is significant in determining the pattern of recreation usage.

The recreation systems factor is made up of significant contributions from duration of visit and main activity, and the chronological age of users. It is deemed that this component is indicative of the nature of the community recreation systems, their antecedent social matrices, and the overall recreation life-styles of the users. Cognizance of the configuration of this component factor is a major determinant in formulating both community education and recreation development policy and the organisation-environment interface and integration mechanisms.

An appraisal of the degree to which these mechanisms effectively match the community education and recreation department's sub-units to their catchment area ancillary facility counterparts, based upon the foregoing evidence, indicates that they are largely ineffective in the Alumwell Centre. The community education and recreation department's apparent lack of integration with existing recreation systems in the community, the duplicatory function of much of the programme, allied to the inability

of the management to orientate this programme to the middle age groupings, combine to reduce the incidence of interface and integration. The user-client input into the management systems and the professional-client interface mechanisms are minimally effective thus the degree of self-determination in the community development process is consequently proportionately negligible. The recent more effective deployment of the peripatetic deputy-directors and increased efficacy of user client participation in the college's community council, G.M.C., and policy-formulating sub-committee, have augmented the viability of the existing mechanisms. Increased participation by user clients in all systems of the organisation and more frequent professional-client interface innervate the process of community development and thus enhance the social solidarity of the neighbourhood.

10.3. SUMMARY OF THE SOCIAL RESEARCH INTO COMMUNITY COLLEGES

The organisational analysis of the Alumwell Centre community college and the review of the four colleges has sought to authenticate the community education and recreation organisation theoretical rationale expounded in Part 1, exemplify the dissonance inherent in the differing organisational concepts utilised by the four other colleges, and thereby indicate methods by which a more rational organisation might more effectively meet the educational and recreational needs of the community.

The community education and recreation department organisation unit of analysis and its component local government and community college parameters have been investigated employing the recreation research model and recreation management organisational analysis

model. Case study techniques were used to retrieve data on the management capacity component of the environment community facility capacity constraints and the five organisational dimensions of the unit of analysis in order to ascertain the efficiency of the unit's management capacity input. Examples of dissonance within the local government and community college parameters were also elicited. A questionnaire survey was used to gather data on the environmental community linkages constraints and personal constraints of the units' user-clients. The processing of data on the users' personal characteristics, socio-economic determinants, visitation and catchment area characteristics, together with census data (Appendix 11.4.) has enabled the profile of the catchment areas' social matrices and recreation systems to be identified. The application of these research techniques has thus enabled the community education and recreation department's instrumental role in determining the pattern of the community's education and recreation systems to be assessed.

In summarising the findings of this social research, several conclusions may be drawn. The planning of community education and recreation facility provision within the local government parameter is constrained by the dearth of inter-agency information flow, the incompatability of executive agencies and their functional domains, and a conflict in priorities, particularly in the financial sector. These constraints give rise to uneconomic and socially devisive education and recreation facilities and an organisation which is functionally differentiated to such a degree that the resultant multi-agency input is incapable of solving macro social problems such as urban malaise. The strategy employed by Walsall

Metropolitan Borough Council whereby the L.E.A. acts as a sponsoring and servicing agency coordinating the resources of other departmental agencies into a synthesized organisation appears to exhibit more advantages than other strategies. The bilateral dichotomous dual provision scheme employed by the Shadsworth Centre, although possessing an integrative single-line management system, incorporates the education versus recreation agency conflict. The unilateral education controlled systems of the Netherley, Countesthorpe and Sidney Stringer colleges, while capable of generating an educationally centred community, deprive themselves of the resources of other potentially contributory executive agencies such as social services and recreation, particularly in the financial sector. Thus in the urban environment of the metropolitan district authority with which this dissertation is concerned, the education department executive agency and its component functional domains would seem to be the most suitable agency to coordinate auxiliary agencies' resources for the implementation of a community education and recreation organisation. This servicing strategy can be further facilitated by a complete synthesis of all educative and recreative activities at community level within a recurrent education and recreation functional domain within the L.E.A., or alternatively the establishment of community education and recreation resources personnel to promote the coordination of diverse but essential resources for this sector. It is considered that such strategies will obviate the prevailing intra-local government dissonance which militates against the implementation of an effective community education and recreation department functional domain (Figure 24).

The rationale of the community education and recreation

organisation as reflected in its philosophy, goals, objectives and function evidences a dearth of consensus amongst the formal elites and authority holders in the planning and management fields. The function of the Alumwell Centre is almost exclusively centripetal in that it fails to undertake an instrumental and formative role in innervating social development by centrifugally servicing facilities and organisations in its catchment area which, as a result, are often duplicated and in some cases supplanted. The "pump-primer spin-off" function of the unit is subordinated due to the lack of importance ascribed to the peripatetic recreation leaders and the desire by the management to develop the centre as a node for all ambient education and recreation activities. The Alumwell Centre's function is contrasted by those of Netherley, Countesthorpe and Sidney Stringer where, due to the educationally oriented ethos, greater emphasis is placed upon servicing the spontaneous informal nuclei of community activity.

The management capacity of the community education and recreation organisation within the community college parameter is constrained by dissonance between the administrative system and the user clients' needs and interests. In the service organisations examined, this takes the form of subjugation of clients' needs to those of the management personnel, and lack of professional-client interface and integration. In the Alumwell Centre, these forms of conflict were found to prevail not only in the objectives of the unit but also in the areas of the policy-formulating General Management Committee; the status role and function of the Headmaster and Director of School and Community Activities; the management structure, its constituent systems and formal and informal

communication nets; and the mechanisms which exist to match, interface and integrate the organisation's sub-units with those of the community. It was found during the investigation of the organisation's five main dimensions that if the terms of reference of the headmaster in single-line management are fully exercised and the role of leader in community-college development is fully assumed, the stated goals of the unit will be more easily achieved. The powers of the G.M.C. and director exhibit a tendency, if they are not balanced by a formative and constructive user client input, to engender a situation whereby all the policy-formulating and decision-making mechanisms are informally concentrated within the formal elite bloc. Delegation of authority to second and third tier management, in the form of deputy-directors and recreation leaders, and devolution of power to community members, as manifest in user client and ancillary organisation's personnel input into community council, G.M.C., and programme sub-committee sub-units, inhibits the development of informal systems and promotes community development.

A feature common to all the colleges is the ultimate power and responsibility of the headmaster or principal for all sub-units and agencies in the organisation consistent with the single-line management principle. The appointment of an individual fully committed to the open school and college-community synthesis tenet is critical to the success of a community college, as is the implementation of an open-management system whereby all parties are capable of playing a formative role in the policy-formulating process. The integration of the community education and recreation

department into the community college's overall organisation is essential. Structural autonomy in the Alumwell Centre results in conflict in the areas of curriculum development, recurrent education courses and intra-curriculum participation by the community. This can be obviated by a total synonymity of structure and personnel as has been achieved at Sidney Stringer, Countesthorpe and Netherley. The differentiated structures of Alumwell and Shadsworth can be counteracted by the institution of liaison committees, this can lead to an unnecessary bureaucratisation of the organisation and a reduction of face to face interaction and mutual reciprocity within the community college which is vital if organisation-environment integration is to be achieved. The degree of the unit's autonomy and its consequent potential for community development is therefore dependent upon the extent to which the education agency controls the organisation. Unilateral control or multilateral servicing by education, as opposed to the bilateral control of dual provision schemes, facilitates organisational and plant integration, a more economic development and utilisation of resources, and thus a greater potential for community development.

Organisation-environment integration and interface is a significant dimension of a service organisation, thus the mechanisms which facilitate the interfacing of sub-units received in depth scrutiny in the survey. The input by user clients and personnel from ancillary organisations in the neighbourhood into the G.M.C. and community council sub-units was negated by the users' lack of procedural expertise and inability to represent the needs of their community. Their only input, at the Alumwell Centre, was via

an informal communication system with the deputy-directors. The user clients were unable to effectively influence the process of policy-formulation and decision-making. Innovations by the Headmaster divested the councillors and the director of certain powers and invested the user clients with a more formative input into the interface mechanisms of the programme and letting sub-committees, the community council, and the G.M.C. Fuller integration can only be achieved by curriculum and community development innovations as practised at Netherley, Countesthorpe and Sidney Stringer where the community participate in the administration of the total organisation. All the community colleges may be said to be dominated by their formal elites in local government agencies and the management structure but significant steps have been taken, especially by J. Rennie in Coventry, at not only incorporating the community into management and administrative processes but also investing them with the power of self-determination in programme planning. It would, appear, however, that although the Alumwell Centre's community education and recreation departmental goals have not as yet been achieved, its organisation is more conducive to the provision of the range of facilities and resources necessary to attract urban working class persons in to participate. The exclusively education centred ethos does not facilitate the integration of the community education and recreation department into the education and recreation systems of its community's social matrices despite its advantages in promoting a synthesized community college structure.

Data retrieved via the questionnaire survey exemplified the degree to which the community education and recreation programme at

the Alumwell Centre articulated with the catchment area's recreation systems. It is apparent that the usage of the centre is activity biased with a minimum degree of socialising and multiple activity participation or cross-fertilisation. The users are predominantly either senior citizens or youths of approximately school age and there is a significant absence of family units and persons in the middle age groupings of 25 to 50 years. The main usage profile is one of patronage of physically active sports by young people who prefer a casual non-competitive individual situation to a more structured coaching course.

Although the unit only provides a minority of instructional courses it can be said to be responsible for largely fulfilling its "pump-primer" function of generating and promoting a range of recreational activities. It does not, however, fulfil the "spin-off" function of dispersing these activities and promoting them in ancillary facilities. On the contrary, it displaces many venues and duplicates the function of numerous other facilities. The personal characteristics of the users reflect the working class traditions of the neighbourhood in that the educational status is low with the majority of the economically active population falling into the skilled and intermediate social and occupational classes. Their propensity for recreation systems allied to neighbourhood social groupings and the family unit is not catered for by the centre, however. There is a distinct absence of this type of attendance and also of users connected with the college, in contrast to the prevalence of school-aged peer groupings.

The catchment area reflects the local nature of participation with the attendance home origin falling within the one mile radius

and walking being the main mode of travel. The absence of the centre as a social venue is emphasized also by the number of users who resort to the traditional community facilities for passive social recreation. The centre may, therefore, be considered to have largely failed to integrate with the community's traditional recreation systems or appreciate the social matrix of the users' life-styles and their optional time at risk to recreation determined by the work situation. It is essential that community colleges seek to identify with the socio-demographic characteristics of the catchment area and for this reason the efficiency of the organisation-environment interface and integration mechanisms assumes superordinal significance.

Chapter 11

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The main objective of this dissertation was to evolve a general approach to the planning and management of community education and recreation within the context of the urban community college. In the course of attaining this objective it was considered necessary to examine several subsidiary lines of enquiry as a means of addressing the main problem:

(a) To examine the validity and scope of the leisure problem and formulate a rationale for research into this field.

(b) To investigate the inter-relationship between work and leisure and its function in respect of individual self-fulfilment.

(c) To delineate the holistic perspective of work, leisure and education promoting community development through an integrated recurrent community education and recreation process.

(d) To demonstrate the potential of recreation in generating community social solidarity in areas of urban malaise.

(e) To elucidate the concept of community education and recreation within the context of the community school and college.

(f) To review the planning and provision of community education and recreation facilities by local government in England and Wales, delineate a rationalised hierarchy of urban recreation provision, and critically appraise the dual provision scheme.

(g) To formulate a recreation research model and a recreation management organisational analysis model as part of the development of a general approach to recreation research.

(h) To effect an organisational analysis of a community college and review of four other colleges in order to authenticate the generic approach to community education and recreation organisation and exemplify the dissonance inherent in existing organisations.

In this chapter the findings of these lines of enquiry are summarised and reviewed.

The concept of leisure as a social problem was found in apters 1.2. and 1.3. to be somewhat problematical although there has been a tendency for professional personnel in recreation organisations to define the problem in accordance with their own concepts and vested interests, there appears to be a consensus of opinion amongst scholars indicating an absence of a real social problem in leisure time utilisation amongst the populace. It seems, however, that there does exist a problem in the understanding and meeting of individual needs. The ability of the individual to achieve self-fulfilment is dependent upon both the effectiveness of planners and managers in eliciting and meeting leisure needs through recreation facility provision, and the socialising process of education and its effectiveness in stimulating

creativity. The real problem is thus one of identifying the strategies by which the planning and management agencies of recreation and education can better facilitate individuals' self-fulfilment through more effectively meeting their needs. The societal-individual or organisational-environment interface was considered to be critical in this regard.

In Chapter 2.1. it was suggested that empirical research on work and leisure found them to be causally related, with leisure a function of occupation. Leisure, therefore, was considered not to be an autonomous sphere of activity but a conjunct of the work experience. The compensatory function of leisure which is a development of this thesis was found to command wide credibility, but the point that emerged most forcibly was the necessity for comprehending the relevance and relationship of these concepts to individuals and their needs. The equivalence of work and leisure as vehicles for need satisfaction was considered invalid in contemporary work oriented society. Nevertheless the premise is adopted that the satisfaction of the need for psychological growth and the development of innate human potential is the prerogative of not solely work but also of leisure and a responsibility of the educational process.

The differentiation of work from leisure within the education system of England and Wales is reflected in the prevailing segmentalist concept of leisure's compensatory remedial function and the elitist dualist approach to educational values. The basic tenet was adopted that the synthesis of work and leisure embracing the holist, utilitarian and thus vocational perspectives of their inter-relationship implies a recurrent education within the context of both society at large and the immediate community. Recurrent education

was shown to be an integral part of education for work and leisure and a function of both the needs of the community and of the individual. The instrumental function of recurrent community education and recreation as a precursor to constructive social action, change and thus community development, was demonstrated. In the course of such a process the fulfilment of the individuals' need for self-awareness and an appreciation of their social reality imbues them with a responsibility for corporate social action and community development.

In Chapter 4, the evolution of leisure trends and the social structure in England and Wales were traced. It was concluded that despite the relatively static nature of British society there exists an incipient convergent trend towards homogeneity in recreation patterns allied to a divergence in wealth distribution and a palpable mass demand for increased recreation facility provision. The recent rapid increase in recreative participation should be viewed, however, in the context of educational and recreational systems which are a function of the local social matrix of family, friends, work, home and community, rather than variations in recreation participation resulting from individual preferences. Therefore, within urban communities, the local nature of recreation participation based upon groups operating within the home-community sphere was seen to be inter-related with a continuing pattern of community social solidarity.

The process by which recreation systems reinforce the matrix of social inter-relationships and thereby generate social solidarity was shown to be a potential instrument for the amelioration of urban malaise in modern working class housing estates. The recreation planning strategies adopted by development corporations, planning authorities, and local governments were found, however, to be

inappropriate to the needs of urban neighbourhoods. The design of estates and the predominance of formal, centralised, corporate and institutionalised recreation complexes based upon the "education-centred" community concept have manifestly failed to counteract the multiple deprivation of urban areas. It was concluded that the contribution of the community education and recreation sector towards generating community spirit, although considerable, is dependent to a large extent upon the incorporation within the community college organisation of mechanisms for servicing traditional informal associations, formal recreation organisations, and ancillary facilities, in addition to a management system cognizant of the contribution it can make towards fulfilling its community's needs and stimulating new activities. It seems that there is widespread agreement with these conclusions amongst planners.

> . . . the planning of good communities is a matter not only of physical design, nor yet of the provision of amenities, but that it also has to do with finding modes of social organisation that will facilitate the engagement of the potential which human beings bring with them into a community in the development of that community itself (Broady, 1969, 71).

Community education was rigorously examined in Chapter 5 with certain salient points meriting re-emphasis. The community school and/or college possesses the potential for facilitating school-community symbiosis, promoting constructive social action, and thereby generating community social solidarity. It can achieve this by curriculum and community development which involves working with the social matrix of groups that compose the community and servicing their needs in addition to utilising their resources. The school or college may also implement the other parameter of inter-penetration by facilitating the community's use of their plant and resources through

the medium of vocational and non-vocational recurrent education and recreation in extra and intra-curricular periods. This strategy engenders such innovations as the peripatetic recreation leader and a comprehensive reorganisation of recurrent education and recreation provision within both the local government and the school or college parameters. In functional terms it was concluded overall that school and recreation facilities will be the most viable components in joint planning for both the short and long term, a view shared by Strelitz.

> . . . schools have the most to offer the community in resource terms, whilst demands for recreation and education are proliferating in the society; . . . schools in Britain are increasingly receptive to association with the wider community in cultural terms, and . . . the pattern of school provision mirrors quite closely the requirements of other community services in location terms (1972, 122).

Subsequent to this rationalisation of a general approach to community education and recreation it was considered necessary to critically appraise urban community education and recreation planning and provision by local government in England and Wales, particularly with respect to the dual provision scheme, and to delineate a hierarchy of urban recreation provision. In discussing the relative responsibilities of both tiers of local government, it was recommended that there be instituted a coherent and balanced programme of community education and recreation at the local grass roots community level serviced, in urban metropolitan areas, by district recreation, education and social services departments reinforced by community council and authority committee channels of public participation. Integration of all executive agencies party to a community education and recreation service is essential in order that the stated goals be achieved. Integration may take the form of: a total organisational synthesis of all relevant

agencies into one autonomous executive agency; a joint provision liaison between agencies in order to maximise resource allocation; or cooperation between agencies under the aegis and authority of the education department which acts as a service organisation. The latter strategy is considered to be the most practicable.

The dual provision scheme is the prevailing strategy adopted by local authorities to fulfil the demand for community education and recreation. It was educed from an empirically verified examination of examples of the implementation of this scheme that dissonance was inherent in both the local government and community college parameters. Conflict was found to prevail at local government level in the process of executive agency cooperation and in the rationale for sector planning. Within the community college management parameter dissonance occurs within the philosophy, goals and objectives of the organisation; the J.M.C. or joint management committee and policy-formulating body; the status role and function of the headmaster and manager or director; the sytems of the management structure; and the organisation-environment interface and integration. Cognizant of these areas of dissonance an ideal-typical urban recreation provision hierarchy determined that the second strata of urban provision which constitutes the first tier of community education and recreation provision might be based upon the primary school, while the second tier is located in the comprehensive school community college. Differences in the [redacted]atial dimensions of their catchment areas mean that although they both share a centripetal focusing function for education and recreation activities, the community college holds the additional responsibility of centrifugally servicing the ancillary facilities and foci of

recreation inits catchment area. They both fulfil the "pump-primer" and "spin-off" function which incorporates a responsibility for generating activities and distributing them to ancillary venues.

In order that the general approach to community education and recreation expounded in Part 1 might be authenticated and the inherent dissonance in the prevailing system exemplified, social research was conducted into the Alumwell Centre and four other selected colleges. For the purposes of effecting the Alumwell Centre's organisational analysis and the reviews of the four colleges, which constitute the social research, it was considered necessary to derive a recreation research strategy.

In evolving this methodological approach, an intermediate level of analysis was identified in Chapter 7.1. which seeks to resolve the quantitative survey approach with that of the antithetical qualitative interpretation of the recreation systems' function in the community's social matrices. In conjunction with this approach a recreation management organisational analysis model and a recreation research model were developed, the latter for the purposes of facilitating the use of a quantitative questionnnaire survey and the former to enable the retrieval of data utilising case study techniques. The two models' structural configurations identify the unit, sub-units and dimensions of analysis. The questionnaire survey was utilised to gather data on the community education and recreation system causal chain and more specifically on the use and user personnel and environmental constraints variables identified in the recreation model. The case study techniques were utilised to examine the organisation of the community education and recreation department in the Alumwell Centre community college. More specifically, the management capacity

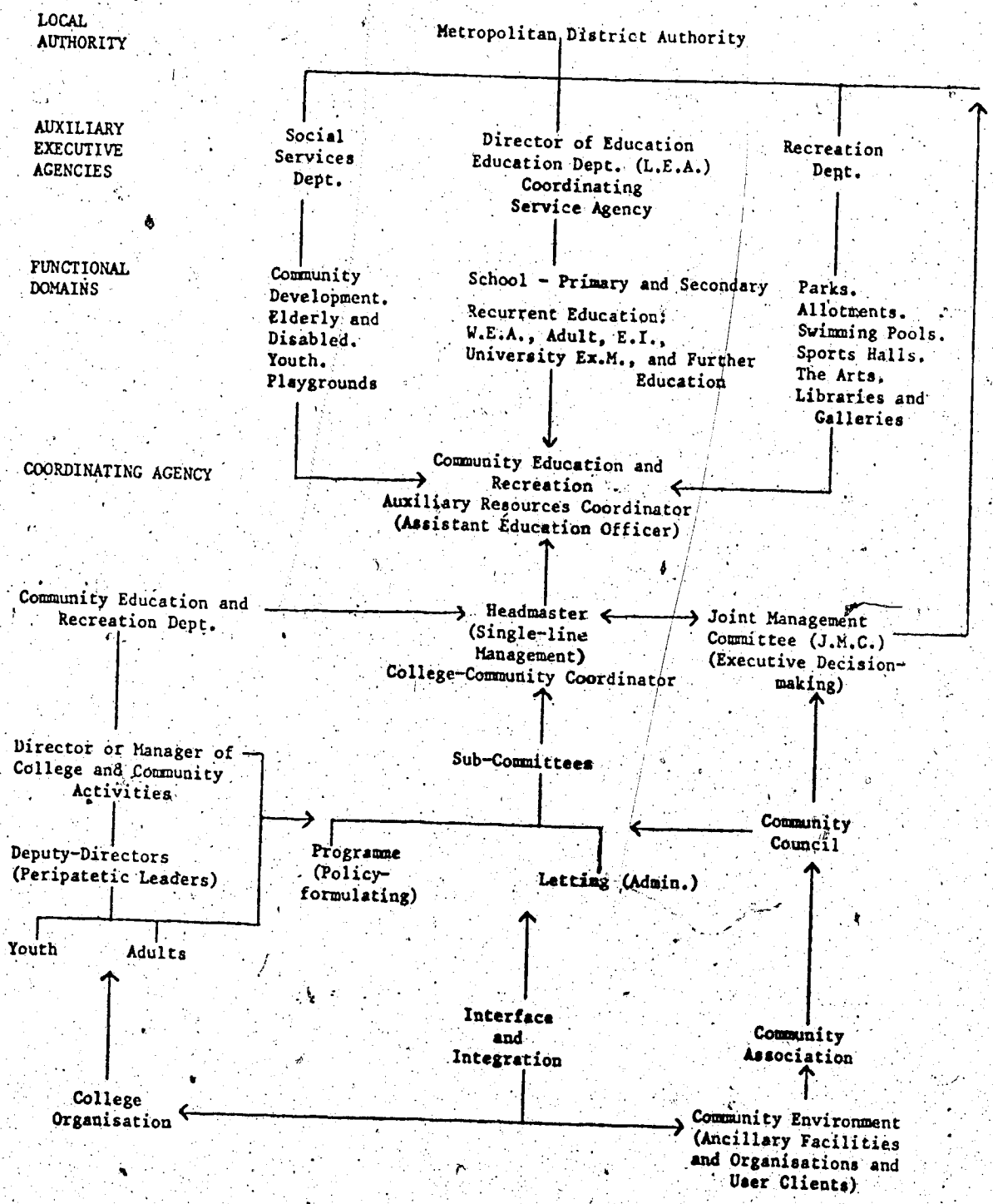


Figure 24

Recommended Community Education and Recreation Organisation

component of the environment community facility capacity constraints was appraised within the dimensions of an organisational analysis model devised by Lambert et al. (1970) which includes the unit's goals, formal organisation, autonomy, and informal organisation. Data gathered by all techniques were interpreted within the framework of the Lawrence Lorsch model (1967) as a means of assessing the degree of organisation-environment interface and integration.

The results of the organisational analysis within the Alumwell Centre and the review of the four community colleges are considered to replicate the recommended general approach to community education and recreation. Conflict in the local government parameter in the areas of inter-agency information flow, executive agency functions, and financial priorities, led to the conclusion that in the urban environment of the metropolitan district authority the education department executive agency and its component functional domains are the most suitable agents for coordinating and servicing the auxiliary agencies of social services and recreation. Although the complete synthesis of the education and recreation departments for the purposes of servicing community education and recreation would seem to be a logical development, in view of vested interests and the prevailing local government political climate it is considered impracticable and unlikely. The establishment of community education and recreation resources personnel to facilitate the coordination of resources under the authority of the education department is therefore strongly advocated (Figure 24).

Conflict evident in the community college parameter is consistent with the areas identified in Chapter 6. The efficiency

of the management capacity input within the service organisation is dependent, it is concluded, upon the appointment of a headmaster whose single-line management responsibilities embrace the total organisation and its environment. The role's terms of reference include all auxiliary agency resources, ancillary facilities and informal associations in the community together with the normal academic systems of the college, the latter being delegated to one of the college's deputy-headmasters.

The Joint Management Committee, which includes local councillors, user clients, and management personnel, functions as an executive decision-making body. It is complementary to the programme and letting sub-committees which act as policy-formulating and administrative bodies respectively. These in turn are answerable to the community council which represents the interests of the community association. The user clients' instrumental role in the process of programme formulation is facilitated by participation in management sub-unit interface mechanisms and by the functioning of the peripatetic deputy-director recreation leaders. Their roles, while being specialised towards the youth and adult user groups, include teaching in the college, innervating community participation, and servicing community needs, thereby stimulating community development.

The responsibilities of the director or manager, as both a deputy-headmaster of the college and coordinator of the community education and recreation organisation department, include the efficient administration of the unit within the context of the college and the resolution of conflicting interests and claims for resources.

It must therefore be recommended that the devolution of a formative role in policy-formulating power to the user clients be balanced by executive decision-making power held by the professional management personnel. Through the process of corporate management embracing both the clients and the professional personnel of the service organisation, it is the direct responsibility of the director, under the aegis of the headmaster, to resolve the logistical issues appertaining to the differentiation between user clients' demands and their needs. The professional expertise of management personnel has to be applied to this critical issue in order that the college and its community may develop in accordance with the best interests of the total organisation. This, it is considered, constitutes a viable organisational power structure.

Results indicate that the autonomy of the community education and recreation department within the college organisation must be kept to the minimum. Structural differentiation inhibits potential community - college synthesis in the form of curriculum development and prevents the incorporation of recurrent education and recreation activities within the college's curriculum. Total structural, functional, and spatial integration is therefore advised.

Organisation-environment integration which is promoted by the sub-unit interface mechanisms previously alluded to is dependent upon the stated goals, objectives and function of a community education and recreation department. The centripetal focusing and "pump-primer" function, which was found to be the superordinal objective, requires to be complemented by a "spin-off" to ancillary facilities in the catchment area. The education and recreation systems of the

community's social matrices necessitate servicing and stimulating not duplicating and supplanting. The overall function should, it is felt, be centrifugally service oriented as a counterbalance to being the node of an education-centred community.

If this generic model is to be more extensively applied, and if a pattern of provision responsive to community needs in general is to evolve, education and recreation planners will need to acquaint themselves more directly with the nature of community services and the requirements and aims of such services. Stewart highlights this point when remarking:

> . . . the planner has been concerned with education, but it has been a concern with the buildings in which education takes place more than with education itself. He has been concerned with forcasting the numbers of school children because that affects the number of buildings . . . (1969, 33).

The need for positive promotion of the community education and recreation sector has been stressed, but although bodies such as the Countryside Commission exist to implement coordinated joint planning in the rural sector, there is no comparable body for the urban context to formulate and promote coordinated policies for the planning, provision, management and use of facilities and resources. As has been shown, regional sports councils, the D.E.S., M.H.L.G., and the D.O.E. have taken substantial initiatives in these respects as have some progressive local authorities. What appears to be required is a framework within which planners and managers can innovate, formulate, and promote a coordinated policy of recurrent community education and recreation for the urban environment.

The aim of the community education and recreation sector proposed helps set a wider perspective for the type of framework

within which macro community planning and development could be promoted. It must be emphasized that what is not required is an agency constituted for the exclusive purpose of extending the education agency's influence at the expense of other executive agencies. The general model purports to exemplify a manner by which a sector of the environment can be made more resourceful for more people. The scope for this approach will depend upon people's willingness to bring it about. Its object is to encourage more agencies to perceive the advantages of an integrated system and to make it easier for them to implement it.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

BIBLIOGRAPHY A

GENERAL

BIBLIOGRAPHY A

GENERAL

American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation. (A.A.H.P.E.R.). Twentieth Century Recreation. Report of the 2nd., National Conference on School Recreation, Nov., 1962. Washington D.C.

Abernathy, R. & M. Waltz. "Towards a Discipline: First Steps First", Quest. April, 1964.

Abrams, M. "Consumption in the Year 2000", in M. Young (Ed.), Forcasting and the Social Sciences. London: Heinemann, 1968.

Adams, M. The Concept of Physical Education. Proceedings of the Annual Conference, Jan. 1969, Vol. III, Philosophy of Education Society of G.B.

Affleck, A.F. Toward the Disciplined Use of the Professional Self: A Bibliography to Facilitate the Search for Principles of Professional Recreation Practice. Dept. of Recreation Administration University of Alberta, Edmonton, 1971.

Albemarle Report. The Youth Service in England & Wales. London: H.M.S.O., 1960.

Allardt, E. "Basic Approaches in Comparative Sociological Research and the Study of Sport", in The Cross-Culturual Analysis of Sport and Games. G. Luschen (Ed.), 1970. Illinois: Stipes Press.

Allport, G.W. Pattern and Growth in Personality. NY.: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1970.

Althusser, L. "Ideology and Ideological State Apparatus", in Education Structure and Society. B.R. Cosin (Ed.), Penguin, 1972.

Amos, F.J.C. "The Development of the Planning Process", Journal of the Royal Town Planning Institute. Vol. 57, No. 7, 1971.

Anderson, A. "Sociology in the Service of Comparative Education", International Review of Education. Vol. 5, 1959.

_____. "The Utility of Societal Typologies in Comparative Education", Comparative Education Review. Vol. 3, No. 1., 1959.

Anderson, N. The Urban Community. Routledge & Kegan Paul, 1960.

_____. Work and Leisure. Routledge & Kegan Paul, 1961.

Anderson, P., and R. Blackburn (Eds.). Towards Socialism. London: Fontana, 1965.

Anthony, D.W.J. Comparative Physical Education: the Development of Organization & Method in the Structure & the Study of International Physical Education & Sport. An unpublished masters thesis, Leicester University, 1966.

_____. "Sport and Physical Education as a Means of Aesthetic Education", Physical Education. Vol. 60, No. 179, March, 1968.

Argyris, C. Personality and Organisation. N.Y.: Harper & Row, 1957.

Arvill, R. Man and Environment. Ch.5., "Leisure Activity", Pelican, 1973.

Ashe, P. An Investigation into Some Aspects of Conflict in a Jointly - Provided, Dual-Use Centre in Rhyl, Flintshire, North Wales. An unpublished D.M. S. Thesis, North London Polytechnic, 1973.

Association of District Councils (A.D.C.). Memorandum of Comment by the A.D.C. on The House of Lords Select Committee Report on Sport and Leisure (1973). A.D.C., 1974.

Association of Metropolitan Authorities (A.M.A.). Memorandum of Comment by the A.M.A. on The House of Lords Select Committee Report on Sport and Leisure (1973). A.M.A., Westminster, 1974.

Bacon, A.W. Social Caretaking and Leisure Provision: The Role of the Professional Middle Class in Planning and Servicing Leisure Facilities in a New Town. Unpublished Paper presented to the Symposium on Leisure, Polytechnic of Central London, 1975.

_____. "Leisure and Research: A Critical Review of the Main Concept Employed in Contemporary Research", Society & Leisure. No. 2, 1971.

_____. "The Embarrassed Self: Some Reflections upon Attitudes to Work and Idleness in a Prosperous industrial Society", Society & Leisure. No. 4, 1972.

Ball, C., and M. Ball. "Open for Business and Leisure", Guardian, Tues. Feb. 20, 1975.

_____. Education for a Charge. Penguin, 1973.

Ball, C. "Hypermarkets of Corporate Life", in The Times Educational Supplement. Nov. 29, 1974.

Banks, O. The Sociology of Education. London: B.T. Batsford Ltd. 1970.

Bannister, D. "A New Theory of Personality", in New Horizons in Psychology. Vo. 1., B.M. Foss (Ed.), London: Penguin, 1966.

Barker, R.G. and P.V. Gump. Big School, Small School. Stanford: University Press, 1964.

Barnard, C.I. Functions of the Executive. Cambridge, Massachussetts: Harvard University Press, 1938.

Basini, A. Education for Leisure: A Sociological Critique. A paper presented at the Symposium on Work & Leisure, University of Salford, 1973.

Bassett, G.R. "Values in Education", New Zealand Journal of Health, Physical Education & Recreation. Vol.4, No. 2, July 1971.

Batten, T.R. School & Community in the Tropics. Oxford University Press, 1959.

Built Environment Research Group. (B.E.R.G.). Assessment of Reward for Recreation. Working Paper 2/72, R. Maw Research Director, Central London Polytechnic 1972.

_____. Harlow Sport Centre. Unpublished Study, 1974 (b), Central London Polytechnic. R. Maw Research Director.

_____. Westminster Leisure Usage. Unpublished Study, 1969 (a), Central London Polytechnic, R. Maw Research Director.

_____. "Swiss Cottage Study", in Official Architecture and Planning. Aug. 1969 (b).

_____. Islington Recreation Study. Unpublished Study, 1974 (a) Central London Polytechnic, N. Ventris Research Director.

Becker, H. (Ed.). Social Problems, A Modern Approach. Chicago University Press, 1967.

Beers, H. The Community School. 52nd. Year Book Part II of the National Society for the Study of Education, Chicago University Press, 1953.

Begtrup, H., Lund, H., and P. Manniche. The Folk High - Schools of Denmark. Oxford University Press, 1926.

Bell, C., and H. Newby. Community Studies. London: Allen & Unwin, 1971.

Bell, D. "Towards the Year 2000: Work in Progress", Daedalus. Summer, 1967.

Bendix, R., & L.H. Fisher. "The Perspectives of Elton Mayo", Complex Organisations. A. Etzioni.(Ed.), New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1961.

Benington, J. "Community Development", in Cities, Communities and the Young. Rayron J. and J. Harden (Eds.), 1973.

Bereday, G.Z.F. "Reflections on Comparative Methodology in Education, 1964-1966", Comparative Education. Vol. 3-4, 1966-68, June 1967.

_____. Comparative Method in Education. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1966.

Berger, B.H. "The Sociology of Leisure", Work & Leisure. E.O. Smigel (Ed.), New Haven: College & University Press, 1963.

Berger, P., and J. Luckmann. Social Construction of Reality. New York: Doubleday, 1967.

Bernstein, B. "Open Schools, Open Society?", School & Society. (Eds.),B. Cosin, I. Dale, G. Esland, and D. Swift, London: Routledge & Kegan Paul, 1971. (Open University).

Bessey, G.S. Community School. An unpublished paper presented at the University of London Institute of Education, London 1969.

Birch, J.G. Indoor Sports Centres. Sports Council & Department of Environment, H.M.S.O., 1971.

Bishop, D. "Stability of the Factor Structure of Leisure Behaviour: Analyses of Four Communities", Journal of Leisure Research. 2, 1970.

Blakelock, E.H. "A Durkheimian Approach to some Temporal Problems of Leisure", Social Problems. Summer, 1961.

Blau, P.M., and W. R. Scott. Formal Organizations: A Comparative Approach. London: Routledge & Kegan Paul, 1970.

Blau, P.M. Exchange & Power in Social Life. New York: Wiley, 1964.

Blau, P.M. and O.D. Duncan. The American Occupational Structure. N.Y.: Wiley, 1967.

Blum, F.H. Toward a Democratic Work Process. N.Y.: Harper, 1953.

Blumer, H. "Society as Symbolic Interaction", Human Behaviour & Social Processes. A.M.Rose(Ed.) , Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1962.

Boaden, N. Public Participation and the Formulation of Plans: Work and Leisure as Areas of Planning. A paper presented at the Symposium on Work and Leisure , University of Salford, 1973.

Bore, L. "Sociological Framework for Comparative Study of Educational Systems", Comparative Education Review. Vol. 4, No. 2, 1960.

Boston, R. "What Leisure", New Society. 26, 12, 1968.

Bracey, H.E. People and the Countryside. Routledge and Kegan Paul, London: 1970.

Bredemeier, H.C., and R.H. Stephenson. The Analysis of Social Systems. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1962.

Bristol's Comprehensive Schools. "Three Kinds of Neighbourhood School", Comprehensive Eduction. No. 16, Autumn 1970.

British Broadcasting Corporation (B.B.C.). The People's Activities. Audience Research Department, 1969.

British Council of Physical Education. The Future of Physical Education in Secondary Schools. Nov., 1974.

British Travel Association (B.T.A.) & University of Keele. Pilot National Recreation Survey. Report No. 1,1967.

Broady, M. "Sociology of the Urban Environment", Architectural Association Quarterly. Vol., No. 3, 1969.

Brookover, W.B., and D. Gottlieb. A Sociology of Education. New York: American Book Co., 1964.

Brown, I.C. Understanding other Cultures. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1963.

Brown, R., et al. "Leisure in Work: The 'Occupational Culture' of Shipbuilding Workers", Leisure and Society in Britain. Smith, M.A. (Ed.), Allen Lane 1973.

Buckley, W. Sociology & Modern Systems Theory. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1967.

Bullivent, A. "The Neighbourhood Comprehensive School", Comprehensive Eduction. No. 18, Summer 1971.

Burke, G. "New Town Agora", Journal of the Town Planning Institute. Vol. 54, No. 9, 1968.

Burns, T. "Leisure in Industrial Society", in Leisure and Society in Britain. Smith, M.A. (Ed.), Allen Lane, 1973.

Burton, T.L. (Ed.), Recreation Research & Planning. London: Allen & Unwin, 1970.

Burton, T.L. (Ed.), and A.J. Veal. Experiments in Recreation Research. London: Allen & Unwin, 1970.

Burton, T.L. (Ed.), and P.A. Noad. Recreation Research Methods. University of Birmingham Centre for Urban & Regional Studies, Occasional Paper, No. 3, 1968.

Burton, T.L. Experiments in Recreation Research. University of Birmingham Centre for Urban & Regional Studies, Occasional Paper, No.3, 1969.

Caillois, R. "Unity of Play: Diversity of Games", Diogenes, 1957.

Campbell, C.N. "An Organizational & Administrative Climate for Community Education", The Community School & its Administration. Vol. X, No. 2, Mott Intern Program, Michigan State University.

Campbell, R.F., and J.M. Lipham. Administrative Theory as a Guide to Action. Chicago: The University Press, 1960.

Carey, R. "Conceptual Tools for Research in Comparative Education", Comparative Education Review. Vol. 10. No. 3, 1966.

Carlisle, R. The Concept of Physical Education. Proceedings of the Annual Conference, Jan. 1969, Vol.III. Philosophy of Education Society of G.B.

Carlson, P.O. "Research in the School System as an Organisation", School Review. Vol. 66, 1958.

Candhill, W.A. The Psychiatric Hospital as a Small Society. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1958.

Central Office of Information. Community Development. Reference Pamphlet 76, London: H.M.S.O., 1967.

Centre for Educational Research and Innovation (C.E.R.I.). Recurrent Education: A Strategy for Lifelong Learning. Paris: Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development, 1973.

Chandler, B.J., Stiles, L.J., & J. I. Kitsuse. Education in Urban Society. New York: Dodd, Mead & Co., 1967.

Chermayeff, S., and A. Tzonis. Shape of Community. Pelican, 1971.

Chermayeff, S., and C. Alexander. Community and Privacy. New York: Doubleday Anchor, 1965.

Cherry, C. "World Communication", Journal of the Royal Society of Arts. London: Feb., 1966.

Cherry, G. Town Planning and its Social Context. London: Hill, 1970.

Child, J., and B. MacMillan. "Managers and Their Leisure", Leisure and Society in Britain. Smith, M.A.(Ed.),Allen Lane, 1973.

Churchill, H. "Trends", in Reader in Urban Sociology. Hatt, K., and A. Reiss (Eds.), Illinois: The Free Press, 1951.

Cicourel, A.V., and J.I. Kitsuse. The Educational Decisions-Makers. New York: Bobbs Merrill Co., 1963.

Clapp, E. Community School in Action. New York: The Viking Press, 1939.

Clark, R. Adult Education in Transition. Berkley: University of California Press, 1958.

_____. The Open Door College: A Case Study. N.Y.: McGraw Hill, 1960.

Clayre, A. Work and Play. London: Weidenfeld and Nicolson, 1975.

Clegg, A.B. "The Role of the School", Education. June, 1962.

Clemans, Martyn. "Community School", Trends in Education. No. 1., February, 1966.

Clinard, M.B. Slums and Community Development. N.Y.: The Free Press, 1966.

Cohen, A.K. Deviance and Control. Englewood Cliffs NJ.: Prentice-Hall, 1966.

Coleman, J.S. The Adoloscent Society. New York: Free Press, 1962.

_____. "The Adolescent Sub-Culture & Academic Achievement", American Journal of Sociology. Vol. 65, 1959-60.

_____. "Rational Analysis: The Study of Social Organizations with Survey Methods", Human Organization. Vol. 17, 1958.

Collins, N. Opportunities and Limitations for Sport and Recreation provided by the New Local Authorities. Paper presented to 7th National Conference of Recreation Management, Bournemouth, March, 1975.

Colville, Lord. "Voluntary Bodies and Local Authorities", Social Worker. Sept., 1. 1972.

Cook, H.C. The Play Way. An Essay on Educational Method. Heinemann 1924.

Cook, L. Community Action & the School. Ohio State University Press, 1941.

Corbett, A. "Community School", New Society. 27th February, 1969.

Corwin, R.G. A Sociology of Education. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1965.

Coser, L.A. "The Termination of Conflict", Social Change. A. and E. Etzioni (Eds.), New York: Basic Books, 1964.

_____. The Social Functions of Conflict. Glencoe, Illinois: The Free Press, 1956.

Craft, M., Raynor, J., and L. Cohen (Eds.), Linking Home and School. London: Longman, 1972.

Crompton, J.L. Problems of Planning and Provision in Leisure. Paper presented to a Symposium on Work and Leisure, University of Salford, September, 1973.

Cyert, R.M. and March, J.G. A Behavioural Theory of the Firm. N.Y.: Prentice-Hall, 1963.

Dahllof, U. "Recent Reforms of Secondary Education in Sweden", Comparative Education. Vol. 2., No. 2, March, 1966.

Dahrendorf, R. "Toward a Theory of Social Conflict", Social Change. A. and E. Etzioni (Eds.), New York: Basic Books, 1964.

Davies, D.R., and L. Iannoccone. Ferment in the Study of Organisations. Teachers' College Record, Vol. 60, 1958.

Davies, D.R. "Organization Patterns in Today's Schools", Teacher's College Record. Vol. 52, 1950.

Davies, M. A Basis from Which the Detailed Planning of Leisure Facilities for the Traditional Working Class Communities Rehoused on Overspill Estates can be Undertaken. Unpublished thesis presented for Town & Country Planning Degree, Liverpool Polytechnic, 1974.

Dawe, A. "The Two Sociologies", British Journal of Sociology. Vol. 21, 1970.

Degrazia, S. Of Time, Work & Leisure. N.Y.: 20th Century Fund, 1962 & 1970.

Dennis, N., Henniques, F., and C. Slaughter. Coal is Our Life. London: Tavistock Publications, 1969.

Department of Education and Science (D.E.S.). 1944 Education Act. H.M.S.O., 1944.

_____. Village Schools, Building Bulletin No. 3. H.M.S.O., June, 1961.

Department of the Environment (D.O.E.). Children at Play. London: H.M.S.O., Design Bulletin No. 27, 1973 (a).

_____. Multi-Purpose Halls. Design Bulletin No. 28, H.M.S.O., 1973(b).

_____. Countryside Act 1968. H.M.S.O., 1968.

_____. 1973 Water Act. H.M.S.O., 1973.

_____. Local Government in England and Wales: A Guide to the New System. H.M.S.O., 1974.

Development Officer. Local Government Re-Organisation on Merseyside. Community Councils Development Group, Liverpool, 1972.

Devlin, T. "College & Council Combine to Boost Community Development: Algonquin College", Times Educational Supplement. July 9, 1971.

Dewey, J. "School & Society", The School & Community Reader. E.G. Olsen (Ed.), New York: Macmillan, 1963 (Orginally Chicago U.P., 1900).

_____. Democracy & Education. New York: Macmillan, 1916.

Dixey, M.G.D. Local Recreation Centres. National Playing Fields Association, 1974.

D'Olieslager, G. "Workers and Culture", Society and Leisure. No.2, 1971.

Donald, M.N., and R.J. Havighurst. "The Meaning of Leisure", Social Forces. 37, 1959.

Dower, M. The Challenge of Leisure. London: The Civic Trust, 1965.

Drukker, P.F. The Age of Discontinuity. London: Heinemann, 1969.

Dubin, R. "Industrial Workers Worlds", Social Problems. Jan., 1956.

Dumazedier, J. "Current Problems of the Sociology of Leisure", International Social Science Journal. No. 4, 1960.

_____. Toward a Society of Leisure. London: Collier-Macmillan, 1967.

_____. "The Democratisation of Culture", Leisure in our Life. H.M.S.O., Council of Europe, 1966.

Durant, H. The Problems of Leisure. London: Routledge, 1938.

Durkheim, E. The Division of Labour in Society: Translated by G. Simpson, Illinois: The Free Press of Glencoe, 1960.

Edmondson, D.L. and G. Baldwin. Multi-Use Provision - Problems of Policy and Practice. Unpublished Paper presented at the Symposium on Leisure, Polytechnic of Central London, 1975.

Eggleston, S.J. The Social Context of the School. London: Routledge & Kegan Paul, 1967.

Ellul, J. The Political Illusion. New York: University Press, 1967.

Elvin, H.L. Education & Contemporary Society. London: Watts, 1968.

Emmett, I. Youth & Leisure in an Urban Sprawl. Manchester: University Press, 1971.

_____. "The Social Filter in the Leisure Field", Recreation News Supplement. 4, 1971.

Englehardt, N.L. and N.L. Englehardt Jun. Planning the Community School. New York: American Book Co., 1940.

Entwistle, H. Education Work & Leisure. London: Routledge & Kegan Paul, 1970.

Erickson, D.A., and H. Schwartz. Community School at Rough Rock. Washington D.C.: Office of Economic Opportunity, April, 1969.

Etzioni, A. Complex Organizations. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1965.

_____. Modern Organizations. New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1964.

_____. A Comparative Analysis of Complex Organizations. Glencoe: The Free Press, 1961.

_____. "The Organization Structure of 'Closed' Educational Institutions", Harvard Educational Review. Vol.27, 1957.

_____. "Basic Human Needs, Alienation and Inauthenticity", American Journal of Sociology, 33, 1968.

Etzkorn, K.P. "Leisure and Camping: The Social Meaning of a Form of Public Recreation", Sociology and Social Research. Oct.,1964.

European Centre for Leisure and Education (E.C.L.E.). Work, Leisure Time and Adult Education in Technically Advanced Industrially Countries. Prague Czechoslovakia: Working Paper for 3rd World Conference on Adult Education, Tokyo, 1972.

Fabian, D. Taped Interviews with the Director of School and Community Activities at the Alumwell Centre, 1973-4.

Fairbairn/Milson. Youth and Community Work in the 70's. Youth Service Department Council, H.M.S.O., 1969.

Fairs, J.R. "The Influence of Plato and Paltonism on the Development of Physical Education in Western Culture", Quest, "Our Heritage". 1971. PP14-23.

Farley, R. Secondary Modern Discipline. London: A. & C. Black, 1960.

Faunce, W.A. "Automation and Leisure" in Work and Leisure. E.O. Smigel (Ed.), New Haven: College and University Press, 1963.

Ferguson, J., and Hughes, E.M. An Experiment in Community Education. Unpublished paper acquired from the Walsall Metropolitan Borough Education Committee, 1974.

Firth, R. Elements of Social Organization. Boston: Beacon Press,1970.

Fleming, D.E. Meritocratic or Egalitarian: a Real Choice", Comprehensive Education. No. 15, Summer, 1970.

Floud, J. "Teaching in the Affluent Society", British Journal of Sociology. Vol. 13, 1962.

_____. "The Sociology of Education", Society: Problems & Methods of Study. T.D. Welford et al., (Eds.), London: Routledge & Kegan Paul, 1962.

Floud, J., and A.H. Halsey. "The Sociology of Education. A Trend Report & Bibliography", Current Sociology. Vol.8, 1958.

Floud, J., Halsey, A.H., and C.A. Anderson. Education, Economy & Society: A Reader in the Sociology of Education. New York: Free Press, 1961.

Follett, M.P. "The Giving of Orders", in Organisation Theory. Penguin, 1971.

Forscher, B.K. "Chaos in the Brickyard", Science. Oct., 18. 1963.

Foster, P. "Comparative Methodology & the study of African Education", Comparative Education Review. Vol. 4, No. 2, 1960.

Frank, R.G. Community Centred Education - One Response to critics of Education. A Paper presented to the American Association of School Administrators Annual Convention, Atlantic City, New Jersey, February, 1971.

Frankenberg, Ronald, Communities in Britain. London: Penguin Books, 1966.

_____. Village on the Border, Manchester: University Press, 1953.

Freire, P. Pedagogy of the Oppressed. Penguin, 1970.

Friedman, A. "Leisure and Technological Civilization", International Social Science Journal, No. 4, 1960.

Friedmann, E., and Havighurst, R.J. The Meaning of Work & Retirement. University of Chicago Press, 1954.

Frost, D. Definitions of Demand Concepts. B.E.R.G., Central London Polytechnic Working Paper 1/71, 1971.

Gabor, D. The Mature Society. London: Secker & Warburg, 1972.

Gans, J. The Urban Villagers. N.Y.: Free Press, 1962.

_____. The Levittowners. Penguin, 1967.

Getzels, J.W. "A Psycho-Sociological Framework for the Study of Educational Institutions", Havard Educational Review. Vol.22, 1952.

Getzels, J.W., and E.G. Guba. "The Structure of Roles & Role Conflict in the Teaching Situation", Journal of Educational Sociology. Vol.29, 1955.

_____. "Social Behaviour & the Administrative Process", School Review. Vol. 65, 1957.

Giddens, A. "Notes on the Concepts of Play and Leisure", Sociological Review. March, 1964.

Gillett, A.N. "Teachers for Community Schools -A Comparative Viewpoint", Towards a Policy for Teacher Education. W. Taylor (Ed.), London: Butterworth, 1969 (c).

_____. Changing Schools in a Changing Society: A Dynamic Model Based on Local Social Surveys. An oversized duplicated paper presented at Bristol University School of Education, 1969 (a).

_____. "The Future of Community Schools", Community Development Journal. No. 4, April, 1969 (b).

Gillinson, B. The Problems of Designing for Leisure. Paper presented at the Symposium on Work & Leisure, University of Salford, 1973.

Gittell, M. "The Community School in the Nation", Community Issues. Institute for Community Studies, Queens College, City University, New York, 1970.

Glass, D.V. (Ed.). Social Mobility in Britain. London: Routledge,1954.

Glasser, R. Criteria for a Leisure Policy in Conditions of Declining Work Motivation, Social Fragmentation and the Energy Gap. Paper presented at the International Congress on Leisure Activities in Industrial Society, Van Cle´ Foundation, Brussels, 1973.

Glassford, R.G. Application of a Theory of Games to the Traditional Eskimo Culture. Unpublished PhD. Thesis, University of Illinois, 1970.

Glock, C.Y. Survey Research in the Social Sciences. New York: Russel Sage Foundation, 1967.

Gooch, R.B. Selection and Layout of Land for Playing Fields and Playgrounds. N.P.F.A. (National Playing Fields Association), 1963.

_____. "Planning for Recreation", Town and Country Planning. No. 32, 1964.

Goode, W.J. World Revolution and Family Patterns. N.Y.: Free Press,1963.

Goode, W.J. and Hatt, P.K. Methods in Social Research. N.Y.: McGraw - Hill & Co., 1952.

Gordon, C.W. The Social System of the High School. Glencoe, Illinois: The Free Press, 1957.

Gras, H. On the Development of a Positive Attitude towards Physical Culture and Sport under Socialist Conditions. A paper presented to the 3rd International Symposium on The Sociology of Sport, Waterloo, Ontario, Aug., 1971.

Greater London Council. Leisure for Londoners - A Paper for Discussion. G.L.C., 1974.

Gretton, J. "The Hours We Work", New Society. 7.1.1971.

Gropius, W. The Theory & Organisation of the Bauhaus. Boston: Chas. T. Branford, 1952.

Gross, E. "A Functional Approach to Leisure Analysis", Social Problems. Summer, 1961.

Hafen, W.J. Administrative Guide Lines for the Cooperative Use of Public School Facilities for Recreation Purposes by Community Groups in State of Utah. An unpublished Doctoral dissertation, University of Utah, 1968.

Hall, P. "Play Power", New Society. March 22, 1973.

Halsey, A.H. Educational Priority. Vol. 1, Research Project sponsored by D.E.S., and S.S.R.C., H.M.S.O., 1972.

Hargreaves, D.H. [illegible]ations in a Secondary School. Routledge & Kegan Paul, [illegible]

Hartley, W.C.F. [illegible]ction to Business Accounting for Managers. Oxford: Perga[illegible] 1970.

Havighurst, R.J. "[illegible]re and Values of Meaningful Free-Time Activity", in Ag[illegible]nd Leisure. R.W. Kleemier (Ed.), Oxford Universit[illegible]ss, 1961.

Haviland, R.M. "An I[illegible]duction to the Writings of Paulo Freire", Adult Education. [illegible] 5, 1973.

Hawkins, D.E. Educat[illegible]n in a Leisure-Centred Society. Prepared as a Workshop discussi[illegible] booklet for A.A.H.P.E.R., April, 1970 California.

Hendelee, J.A., and R.J. Burdge. "The Substitutability Concept: The Implications for Recreation Research and Management", Journal of Leisure Research, 6, 1974.

Henderson, L.J. Pareto's General Sociology. Harvard: University Press, 1935.

Henry, F.M. "Physical Education: An Academic Discipline", Johper. Vol. 69, Sept., 1964.

Herrick, M. "The Rise of Community Schools in Urban Public Education", Part of a study entitled: Local Community Structure & Civic Participation. New York: The National Federation of Settlements and Neighbourhood Centers, 1969.

Herzberg, F. Work and the Nature of Man. London: Staples Press, 1968.

Hjelte, G. and J. Shivers. Public Administration of Recreational Services. Philadelphia: Lea and Febiger, 1972.

Her Majesty's Stationary Office. Physical Training and Recreation Act. 1937. (H.M.S.O.).

_____. Higher Education. Robins Report H.M.S.O. 1963.

_____. The London Government Act. H.M.S.O. 1963 (b).

_____. Community Development. Central Office of Information Reference Pamphlet 76 London: H.M.S.O., 1967.

_____. Town and Country Planning Act. 1968 Part I (Recreation).

_____. The 1972 Local Government Act. Circular No. 121/72, H.M.S.O., 1972 (a).

_____. Local Government in Britain. Central Office of Information Reference Pamphlet 1. 1972(b).

Hollander, P. "Leisure as an American and Soviet Value, Social Problems. 1966.

Hollingshead, A.B. Elmtown's Youth. New York: Wiley, 1949.

Holmes, B. Problems in Education: A Comparative Approach. London: Routledge & Kegan Paul, 1965.

_____. "The Problems Approach in Comparative Education: Some Methodological Considerations", Comparative Education Review. Vol.2., No. 1, June 1958.

_____. "Courses in Comparative Education for Intending Teachers" Education Abstracts. 15, No. 4, 1963.

Homans, G.C. Social Behaviour: Its Elementary Forms. New York: Harcourt, Brace & World Inc., 1961.

_____. The Human Group. New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1950.

Houle, C.O. The Inquiring Mind: A Study of the Adult who Continues to Learn. Madison: University of Wisconsin Press, 1963.

House, R.J., and L.A. Wigdor. "Herzberg's Dual-Factor Theory of Job Satisfaction and Motivation: A Review of the Evidence and a Criticism", Personnel Psychology. Vol., 20, 1967.

House of Lords Select Committee. Second Report on Sport and Leisure. H.M.S.O., 1973.

Howarth, J. Leisure and Human Needs. Unpublished paper presented at Symposium on Work-Leisure, University of Salford, 1973.

_____. Leisure and the Individual. Unpublished paper presented at the Symposium on Leisure, Polytechnic of Central London, 1975.

Hoyle, E, "Organizational Analysis in the Field of Education", Educational Research. Vol. 7, 1965.

_____. "Educational Innovation and the Rôle of the Teacher", Forum. Spring, 1972, Vol, 14, No. 2.

Hudson, S. The Integration of Recreation Services Within Local Authorities: Seven Paradoxes. Unpublished Paper Presented to London Sports Council Workshop, 1971.

Hughes, E.M. Taped Interviews with the Headmaster of the Alumwell Centre. 1973-4.

Hughes, J. "Why the Gap between Rich and Poor is Widening", New Statesman. Nov. 8, 1968.

Husen, T. "Responsiveness & Resistance in the Educational System to Changing needs of Society: Some Swedish Experiences", International Review of Education. Vol. 15, 1969.

_____. "Educational Change in Sweden", Comparative Education. Vol. 1, No. 3, June 1965.

Husen, T., and G. Boalt. Educational Research & Educational Change: The Case of Sweden. London: Wiley & Sons, 1968.

Hutchinson, M. and C. Young. Educating the Intelligent. London: Pelican Books, 1969.

Innes, M. "The Future of Physical Education - Convergence or Divergence", Bulletin of Physical Education. Jan, 1973. Vol.IX, No. 5.

Islington Borough Council. Tollington. Report of Studies, 1969.

Jackson, B. Working Class Community. London: Pelican Books, 1972.

Jackson, B., and D. Marsden. Education and the Working Class. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1962.

Jackson, B. Streaming an Educational System in Miniature. London: Routledge & Kegan Paul, 1964.

Jacobs, J. The Death and Life of Great American Cities. London: Jonathan Cape, 1962.

Jennings, H. Societies in the Making. London: Routledge & Kegan Paul, 1962.

Jensen, G.E. "The School as a Social System", Educational Research Bulletin. Vol. 33, 1954.

Jessel, S. "School of the Future", The Times. Dec., 12, 1970.

Jessup, F.W. The Changing Pattern of Adult Education. Unpublished paper presented to British Association for the Advancement of Science, University of Nottingham, 1966.

Jevons, R., and J. Madge. Housing Estates, a Study of Bristol Corporation Policy and Practice Between the Wars. London: Arrowsmith, 1946.

Johns, E.A. The Social Structure of Modern Britain. Ch.5., "Leisure", Pergamon Press, Oxford: 1972.

Jonassen, C.T. "The Protestant Ethic and the Spirit of Capitalism in Norway", American Sociological Review. Vol.12, Dec., 1947.

Jones, A. "The All Purpose All-Age Community School", Youth Review. No., 22, Spring, 1972.

Jones, K. Ancient Polynesian Games and their Culture. Unpublished M.A. Thesis, University of Alberta, 1967.

Kaplan, M. Leisure in America: A Social Inquirey. N.Y.: John & Wiley & Sons, 1960.

Keller, S. "Neighbourhood Concepts in Sociological Perspective", in Cities, Communities and the Young. Raynor, J., and J.Harden (Eds.), London: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1973.

Kelly, J.R. "Work and Leisure a Simplified Paradigm", Journal of Leisure Research, 1972, No. 4, Winter.

Kelly, T. "Adult Education for Leisure in Great Britain", Society & Leisure. No. 3, 1971.

Kidd, H.G. "All in it Together", Youth Review. No. 22, Spring,1970.

Kidd, J.R. "Learning and Leisure", Society & Leisure. No. 3, 1971.

Klapp, O. Collective Search for Identity. N.Y.: Holt Rinehart & Winston, 1968.

Klein, J. The Study of Groups. London: Routledge & Kegan Paul, 1965.

Kramer, R.M. Community Development in Israel & the Netherlands - A Comparative Analysis. Research Series No. 14, Berkeley: University of California Institute of International Studies, 1970.

Kraus, R. "Riots & Recreation", JOHPER. March, 1967.

Lacey, C. The School as a Social System - An Analysis of Social Relations in a Boy's Grammar School in a Northern Town. An Unpublished Doctoral dissertation, Manchester University, 1968.

Lambert, R., Bullock, R., and S. Millham. A Manual to the Sociology of the School. London: Weidenfeld & Nicolson, 1970.

Langley, F. "The Extended Day in a Neighbourhood School", Comprehensive Education. No. 16, Autumn, 1970.

Lansley, K. Role of Play in Melanesia. Unpublished M.A. Thesis, University of Alberta, 1969.

Larson, Olaf, F. "Rural Community Patterns of Social Participation", Social Forces. Vol. 16, 1937-8.

Law, S. Seminar Paper on Demand for Recreation in the Countryside. Sountryside Commission, 1970.

Lawrence, P.R., and Lorsch, J.W. Organization and Environment. Harvard Graduate School of Business Administration, 1967.

Laybourn, K. The Urban Community School. A Paper presented to the Association of Social Work Teachers, 1968.

Leavitt, H.J. Managerial Psychology. Chicago: University Press, 1964.

Ledermann, A. "Leisure Policy", Society & Leisure. No.2, 1971.

Lee, T. "Urban Neighbourhood as a Socio-Spatial Schema", Human Relations Magazine. No. 21, 1968.

_____. "Psychology and Architectural Determinism", The Architects Journal. Vol. 154, No. 31, 1971.

Leicester, C. Britain 2001 A.D. Cambridge: H.M.S.O., 1972.

Leigh, J. Young People and Leisure. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1971.

Leonard, .L. "Alternative Methods of Data Collection for Recreational Site Survey", Recreation News Supplement. Sept., 1974.

Levy, J. "An Applied Intersystem Congruence Model of Play, Recreation and Leisure", Human Factors. 1974, 15.5.

Lewin, K. "Group Decision & Social Change", Readings in Social Psychology. G.E. Swanson, T.M. Newcomb, & E.L. Hartley (Eds.), New York: Holt, 1952.

Lewis, G. "The Relevance of Comparative Education", Trends in Education. 1966.

Leyton, A.C. The Art of Communication. London: Pitman Press, 1968.

Linder, S. The Harried Leisure Class. N.Y.: Columbia University Press, 1970.

Lipset, S.M., Trow, M.A., & J.S. Coleman. Union Democracy. Glencoe, Illinois: The Free Press, 1956.

Littlejohn, J. The Sociology of a Cheviot Parish. London: Routledge & Kegan Paul, 1963.

_____. The Sociology of Modern Britain. Eric Butterworth & David Weir (Eds.), Fontana, 1970.

Littrell, D.W. The Theory & Practice of Community Development: A Guide for Practitioners. Columbia: Missouri University, 1970.

Loughborough Recreation Planning Consultants. Craigavon Recreation. Craigavon Development Commission, June, 1973.

Lovett, T. "Community Adult Education", Studies in Adult Education. 3, 1, April, 1971.

Lowe, J. Adult Education in England and Wales: A Critial Survey. London: Michael Joseph, 1970.

Lowenthal, L. "Popular Culture: A Humanistic and Sociological Concept", International Social Science Journal. No. 4, 1960.

Lupton, T. Management and the Social Sciences. Penguin, 1971.

Luschen, G. (Ed.). The Cross Cultural Analysis of Sport and Games. Illinois: Stipes Press, 1970.

Mannheim, K., and W.A.C. Stewart. An Introduction to the Sociology of Education. London: Routledge & Kegan Paul, 1962.

Manpower Studies No. 6. Occupational Changes 1951-1961. H.M.S.O., 1967.

Marcuse, H. Remarks on a Redefinition of Culture. New York: Daedalus, 1965.

Marklund, S., and P. Soderberg. The Swedish Comprehensive School. London: Longmans, Green & Co., 1967. Translated by A. Reed.

Marsh, D.C. The Changing Social Structure of England and Wales 1871-1961. London: Routledge & Kegan Paul, 1965.

Marshall, T.H. "Social Selection in the Welfare State", in Sociology of Modern Britain. Butterworth, E., and D. Weir (Eds.), Fontana, 1970.

Martin, A.R. Mental Health and the Rediscovery of Leisure. Paper presented at the 13th Annual Meeting of the World Federation of Mental Health, Edinburgh: 1960.

Maslow, A.H. "Psychological Data and Value Theory", in New Knowledge in Human Values. A.H. Maslow (Ed.). New York: Harper, 1959.

_____. Towards a Psychology of Being. New York: Van Nostrand, 1968.

Mason, P. "What do we mean by Integration", New Society. Vol.7, No. 194, 1966.

Matejko, A. "Culture, Work and Leisure", Society and Leisure. No.2. 1971.

(Maud) Committee on the Management of Local Government, Management of Local Government. London: M.H.L.G., H.M.S.O., 1967.

Maw, R. "Construction of a Leisure Model", Official Architecture and Planning. 22, Aug., 1969.

_____. "Analysing Demand for Leisure Facilities", Built Environment. Nov., 1972.

Mays, J.B. The Role of the Community School. Lecture to the National Federation of Parent Teachers Associations, 1963.

_____. Education and the Urban Child. Liverpool: University Press, 1962.

Mead, G.H. Mind, Self, & Society. Chicago: The University Press, 1934.

Meade, J.E. Efficiency, Equality and the Ownership of Property. London: Allen & Unwin, 1964.

Melby, E.O. "The Education-Centered Community", in The School and and Community Reader. E. Olsen (Ed.), New York: Macmillan, 1963.

Merton, R.K. Social Theory & Social Structure. Chicago: Free Press, 1957 (a).

_____. "The Role Set: Problems in Sociological Theory", British Journal of Sociology. Vol. 8, 1957 (b).

Meyersohn, R. "Changing Work and Leisure Routines" in Work and Leisure. Smigel E.D.(Ed.), New Haven: College & University Press, 1963.

_____. "Television Viewing and Other Uses of Leisure", Public Opinion Quarterley, 1968.

Midwinter, E. "The School & the Community", Comprehensive Education, No. 18, Summer, 1971.

_____. Patterns of Community Education. London: Ward Lock Educational, 1973.

_____. Social Environment and the Urban School. London: Ward Lock Educational, 1972 (a).

_____. Projections. London: Ward Lock Educational, 1972 (b).

Midwinter E. (Ed.). Teaching in an Urban Community School. London: Ward Lock Educational, 1974.

Miller, H. Teaching & Learning in Adult Education. New York: Macmillan, 1964.

Miller, T.W.G. Values in the Comprehensive School. Edinburgh: Oliver & Boyd, 1961.

Mills, C. Wright. "The Unity of Work and Leisure", in Power, Politics and People. C. Horowitz (Ed.), Oxford: University Press, 1970.

Mills, R. Young Outsiders. London: Routledge, 1973.

Ministry of Housing and Local Government (M.H.L.G.). The Scope of the 1972 Local Government Act Circular 121/72. H.M.S.O., 1972.

_____. Circular 33/70 Sports Facilities and the Planning Acts. H.M.S.O., 1970.

Mogey, J.M. Family & Neighbourhood. Oxford University Press, 1956.

Molyneux, D.D. "Working for Recreation", Journal of the Town Planning Institute. Vol. 54, No. 4, 1968.

Morris, H. The Village College: being a Memorandum on the Provision of Educational & Social Facilities for the Countryside with Special Reference to Cambridgeshire. Cambridge University Press, 1924.

Mott, J. "Miners, Weavers and Pigeon Racing", in Leisure & Society in Britain. Allen Lane, 1973.

Mulawka, E.J. "School Belongs to the school Community", Alberta Teachers' Magazine. No. 51, March-April, 1971.

Munch, P.A. "A Study of Cultural Change", Oslo: H. Aschelong & Co., 1956., From Studia Norvegica. No. 9, 1956.

Musgrave, P.W. The Sociology of Education. London: Methuen, 1965.

_____. The School as an Organisation. London: Macmillan, 1968.

Myerscough, J. History and Philosophies of the Use of Leisure Time. Paper presented at a Symposium on Leisure, University of Edinburgh, 1972.

McAdam, C.R. "A Recreation-Education Center for Community Growth", Parks and Recreation. Sept., 1973. (Includes comprehensive ancillary articles on the design and management of the centre supplied by the National Recreation and Park Association).

McClusky, H.Y. "In Support of the Community School - A Summary", The School & Community Reader. E.G. Olsen (Ed.), New York: Macmillan, 1963.

McGeeney, P. Parents are Welcome. London: Routledge & Kegan Paul, 1969.

McIntosh, P. Sports in Society. London: Watts, 1968.

McLeish, J. Evangelical Religion & Popular Education. London: Methuen & Co., Ltd. 1969.

McLoughlin, J.B. Urban and Regional Planning. London: Faber, 1969.

McLuhan, N. Understanding Media. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1965.

McQuail, D. Toward a Sociology of Mass Communications. London: Coller-Macmillan, 1969.

Nadel, S.F. The Theory of Social Structure. New York: Free Press, 1957.

National Federation of Community Associations. Building a Community Centre. London: National Council of Social Services, 1969.

Naslund, R.A. "The Power Age & Community Schools", The Community School. H. Beers (Ed.), Chicago: University Press, 1953.

National Institute of Adult Education (N.I.A.E.). Adult Education - Adequacy of Provision. London: March, 1970.

National Council of Social Service. Short Guide to Social Survey Methods. London: The N.C.S.S.

Nettleton, J.A. and D.J. Moore. Adult Centres in Cumberland Schools. National Institute of Adult Education, 1967.

Newsom Report. (D.E.S.). Half our Future: A Report on the Central Advisory Council for Education. London: H.M.S.O., 1963.

New York State Education Department. Designing the School Plant as a Community Center. New York State University, Albany, 1960.

Noah, H.J. and H.A. Eckstein. Towards a Science of Comparative Education. London: The Macmillan Co., 1969.

North Region Planning Committee (N.R.P.C.). Outdoor Recreation Activities in the Northern Region, 1969.

Norwood, C. The English Tradition of Education. London: Murray, 1929.

Observer Magazine. "Nowhere for the Children to Play. Observer, Nov. 18, 1973.

_____. "Thanks but we have a Chemist already", Observer, Feb. 5th, 1972.

Okeem, E.O. The Philosophy and Practice of Community Development and Adult Literacy Work in Ghana in the 50's and 60's: an Analysis of Structural Determinants and Constraint. Unpublished paper presented at the University of Birmingham, Institute of Local Government Studies, 1974.

Olsen, E.G. (Ed.). The School and Community Reader. New York: Macmillan, 1963.

Olsen, E.G. "Relating our Schools to Life", in The School and Community Reader. New York: Macmillan, 1963.

Olsen, M.E. The Process of Social Organisation. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1968.

O'Riordan, T. Perspectives on Resource Management. London: Pion, 1971.

Ottaway, A.K.C. Education and Society. London: Routledge & Kegan Paul, 1968.

Outdoor Recreation Resources Review Commission. Outdoor Recreation for America. Washington: 1962.

Packard, V. The Hidden Persuaders. New York: McKay, 1965.

_____. The Pyramid Climbers. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1962.

_____. The Waste Makers. New York: Pocket Books, 1964.

Pahl, R.E. Patterns of Urban Life. London: Longmans, 1970.

Parker, S.R. The Future of Work & Leisure. London: Paladin, 1972.

Parry, N.C.A., & J. Flowers. Leisure & Social Structure. Hatfield Polytechnic Report to the S.S.R.C., August, 1974.

Parsons, T. "The School Class as a Social System: Some of its Functions in American Society", Harvard Educational Review. Vol. 29, 1959.

_____. The Social System. New York: Free Press, 1951 (a).

Parsons, T., and E.A. Shils (Eds.). Toward a General Theory of Action. Harvard: University Press, 1951 (b).

Parsons, T. "A Sociological Approach to the Study of Organizations I & II", Administrative Science Quarterly. Vol.3, 1956.

Parsons, T. Structure & Process in Modern Societies. Glencoe: The Free Press, 1960.

_____. Essays in Sociological Theory. Glencoe Illinois: Free Press, 1954.

Patmore, A. The Leisure Revolution. Paperpresented at the National Conference of Recreation Managers, Harrogate, 1974.

_____. Land and Leisure. Pelican, 1972.

Patterson, H.L. The Taholah Community School. Report & Recommendations. August, 1967, Washington D.C.

Paulston, R.G. Educational Change in Sweden. New York: Columbia University Teachers College Press, 1968.

Payne, D. The Development of Community Centres, with special reference to Yorkshire. An unpublished M.Ed. thesis, Manchester University, 1968.

Pedley, R. The Comprehensive School. London: Pelican Books, 1966.

Perlman, R., and A. Gurin. Community Organisation and Social Planning. New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1972.

Perry, N., and J. Hall. "Aspects of Leisure in Two Industrial Cities", Occasional Papers in Survey Research. 5, S.S.R.C. 1974.

Phenix, P.H. Realms of Meaning. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1964.

Phillips, A.A.C. Research into Planning for Recreation. Countryside Commission, 1972.

Pickering, R. Provision for Recreation: Why Sports Centres. Paper presented at a Conference on "Building for Leisure", University of Nottingham, March, 1975.

Pieper, J. Leisure: The Basis of Culture. Toronto: New American Library of Canada, 1962.

Poor, R. (Ed.). 4 days, 40 hours. London: Pan Books, 1972.

Poster, C.D. The School & the Community. London: Macmillan, 1971.

_____. "The Village Colleges Today", New Society. October, 1969.

_____. "Community School", Trends in Education. No.5, 1966.

Prosser, R. "Mass Education", in Dag Hammarskjold Foundation. Lars-Olof Edstrom et al.(Ed.). Stockholm, 1970.

Pugh, D.S. (Ed.). Organisation Theory. Penguin, 1971.

Pugh, D.S., Hickson, D.J., and C.R. Hinings. "A Conceptual Scheme for Organisational Analysis", Administrative Science Quarterly. Vol.8, 1963.

Quincy School Community Council and Quincy School Project Staff. The Quincy School Complex. Planning Office, Tufts - New England Medical Center, Boston, 1969.

Rapisarda, J.R. A Survey of Leisure-Time Activity Experiences & Opinions of Male Vallejo High School Graduates in Relationship to the Activities of the High School Physical Education Program. An unpublished Doctoral dissertation, Sacramento State College, 1970.

Rapoport, R., Rapoport R.N., and Z. Strelitz. Leisure and the Family Life Cycle: A Map of the Territory. Unpublished Paper presented at the Symposium on Leisure, Polytechnic of Central London, 1975.

Rapoport, R., and R.N. Rapoport. "The Dual-Career Family: A Variant Pattern and Social Change", Human Relations. Vol.22, No.1, 1969.

Raynor, J., and J. Harden (Eds.). Cities, Communities and the Young. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1973.

Ree, H. "The Changing Role of the Head", Headship in the 1970's. B. Allen (Ed.), Blackwell, 1968.

Rees, B. "Indoor Sports Centres - a Logical Answer", Built Environment. Nov. 1972.

Rennie, J. Community Education. Unpublished paper presented at a symposium on Work and Leisure, University of Salford, 1973.

_____. Community Education Coventry Project. An as yet unpublished book, rough draft, 1974.

Registrar General's Statistical Review. Part III Commentary. H.M.S.O., 1967.

Reisman, D. The Lonely Crowd. New Haven: Yale University Press, 1969.

Reissman, L. "Class, Leisure and Social Participation", American Sociological Review. Feb., 1954.

Report of Forum 21. The Child & Leisure Time. 1970 White House Conference on Children, Department of Health, Education & Welfare, Washington D.C.

Rex, J. The Demistification of Sociology. London: Routledge & Kegan Paul, 1974.

Rice, A.K. The Enterprise and its Environment. London: Tavistock Publications, 1963.

Rigby, A. Alternative Realities. London: Routledge, 1974.

Roberts, J.M. Arth, M.J., and R.R. Bush. "Games in Culture", American Anthropologist. Vol. 61, 1959.

Roberts, J.M. and B. Sutton-Smith. "Child Training and Game Involvement", Ethnology. Vol. 1, 1962.

_____. "Cross-Cultural Correlates of Games of Chance", Reprinted from Behaviour Science Notes. Vol.3,1966.

Roberts, K. Leisure. London: Longman, 1970.

_____. The Society of Leisure: Myth and Reality. Paper presented to a Conference on Education and Leisure, University of Liverpool,1974.

Rodgers, H.B. "Problems and Progress in Recreation Research", Urban Studies. Vol. 9, 1972.

_____. "The Weekend Life", New Society. 20.7. 1967.

_____. Urban Recreation: Some Changes, Trends and Problems. Paper presented to Conference on Rural Recreation, Reading University, 1973.

Roethlisberger, F.J., & W.J. Dickson. Management & the Workers. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1939. (i.e. Hawthorne Studies).

Rosenberg, M. The Logic of Survey Analysis. New York: Basic Books Inc.,1968.

Ross, G.M., and B.W. Lappin. Community Organisation. London: Harper and Row, 1967.

Ross, J.S. Groundwork of Educational Psychology. London: Harrop,1931.

Routh, G. Occupation and Pay in G.B. 1906-1960. Cambridge University Press, 1965.

Royal Ministry of Church & Education. The State Office for Youth & Sports in Norway. Oslo: 1968.

Rudas, J. "Some Results of Research on the Connection Between Work and Leisure-Time Activities", Society & Leisure. No.2, 1971.

Runciman, W.G. Relative Deprivation and Social Justice. London: Routledge, 1966.

Russell, B. Education & the Modern World. New York: Norton & Co.1932.

_____. In Praise of Idleness. New York: Norton & Co.1935.

Russel, L. Report on Adult Education. H.M.S.O., 1973.

Salaman, G. "Two Occupational Communities:Examples of a Remarkable Convergence of Work and Non-Work", Sociological Review. No.3.1971.

Salter, H., Australian Aboriginal Games and Pastimes. Unpublished M.A. Thesis, University of Alberta, 1967.

Samoloucau, B. "Adult Education as a Function of Leisure", Society & Leisure. No.3, 1971.

Samonte, Q. "Some Problems of Comparison & the Development of Theoretical Models in Education", Comparative Education Review. Vol.6., No.3., 1963.

Sampson, A. The New Anatomy of Britain. London: Hodder and Stoughton, 1971.

Samuelson, A. "Schools and Social Agencies", in 44th Year Book of National Society for the Study of Education. University of Chicago Press, 1953.

Saylor, J.G. and W.M. Alexander. "Making the School a Community School", The School & Community Reader. E.G.Olsen (Ed.), New York: Macmillan, 1963.

Schmitz-Scherzer, R., Rudinger, G., Angleitner, A., and D. Bierhoff-Alfermann. "Notes of a Factor Analysis Comparative Study of the Structure of Leisure Activities in Four Different Samples", Journal of Leisure Research. 6, 1974.

Schools Council. Community Service & the Curriculum. Working Paper No. 17, London: H.M.S.O., 1968.

Seay, M.F. and F.N. Crawford. The Community School & Community Self-Improvement. Michigan University Press, 1954.

Seebohm Report. Report of the Committee on Local Authority & Allied Personal Social Services. H.M.S.O., 1968.

Seeley, I.H. Problems of Recreational Provision in an Urban Environment. Paper presented to a Conference on Outdoor Recreation Sept., 1972.

_____. Outdoor Recreation and the Urban Environment. Macmillan Press, 1973.

Seeley, J.R., Sim, R.A., and E.W. Loosley. Crestwood Heights. New York: Wiley, 1956.

Selltiz, C., Jahoda, M., Deutch, M., and S.W.Cook. Research Methods in Social Relations. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1959.

Semotiuk, D.M. Theoretical & Methodological Considerations for Comparative Sport & Physical Education. An unpublished paper presented to the Department of Health & Physical Education, University of Western Ontario, Spring, 1972.

Sennett, R. The Uses of Disorder: Personal Identity and City Life. London: Allen Lane Penguin Press, 1971.

Sharp, J. Open School. [illegible]: Dent and Sons, 1973.

Sharrock, A. Home-Schoo[illegible]. London: Macmillan, 1970.

Shaw, C.T. "Community D[illegible]: The Verstehen of Urban Renewal", The Health Education [illegible] No.28, November, 1969.

Shelter Report Ext[illegible]s. [illegible]ned: Housing and Poverty", in Cities, Com[illegible]ties [illegible]he Young. Raynor J. and J. Harden (Eds.), London [illegible]outl[illegible] & Kegan Paul, 1973.

Sherif, M. "Experim[illegible]s [illegible]roup Conflict", in Readings in Managerial Psychology. Leav[illegible]J. and L.R. Pondy (Eds.), Chicago: University Press,

Shipman, M.D. Sociolo[illegible] the School. London: Longmans, 1968.

Shuttleworth, J.J. Rur[illegible]ports and Mechanical Solidarity. Unpublished M.A. The[illegible], the University of Alberta, 1972.

Siegal, B.S. "Models for[illegible]e Analysis of the Educational Process in American Communities" [illegible]Education & Anthropology. D.G.Spindler (Ed.), Stanford, Cali[illegible]ia: The University Press, 1955.

Sillitoe, K.K. Planning for Leisure. H.M.S.O., 1969.

Silverman, D. The Theory of [illegible]ganisations. London: Heinemann, 1970.

Simon, H.A. Smithburg, D.W[illegible].A. Thompson. Public Administration. New York: Knopf, 1959.

Simon, H.A. The New Science of Management Decision. New York: Harper and Row, 1960.

Simpson, J.A. "Education & Community Development", Trends in Education. No.20, October, 1970.

_____. "Education for Leisure", Trends in Education. No. 5, March, 1966.

Skeffington, A. People and Planning: Report of the Committee on Public Participation in Planning. London: H.M.S.O., 1969.

Skinner, B.F. Beyond Freedom & Dignity. New York: Knoph. 1971.

Slusher, H. "The Existentialist Function of Physical Education", NAPECW, Report. 1964.

Small, A.W. General Sociology. Chicago: The University Press, 1905.

Smigel, E.O., (Ed.). Work and Leisure. New Haven: College and University Press, 1963.

Smith, M.A. Towards a Sociology of Leisure. Paper presented to Symposium on Leisure, Salford University, 1973.

Smucker, O.C. "Transition", The School & Community Reader. E.G. Olsen (Ed.), New York: Macmillan, 1963.

Social Science Research Council. (S.S.R.C.). Leisure on Merseyside. Unpublished research project for Social Science Research Council, 1974, by Liverpool University Dept., of Sociology.

Solesbury, W. The Needs of Environmental Planning. Paper presented to the Symposium on Environmental Planning, M.H.L.G., and Ministry of Transport, 1968.

Sorokin, P.A., Zimmerman, C.C., and C.J.Galpin. A Systematic Source Book in Rural Sociology. Vol.2., Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1930.

Sorokin, P.A., and C.C. Zimmerman. Principles of Rural-Urban Sociology. New York: Holt & Co., 1929.

Sorokin, P.A. Contemporary Sociological Theories. New York: Harper & Row, 1928.

Spencer, H. Principles of Sociology. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1897.

Spencer, J. Stress & Release in an Urban Estate. London: Tavistock Publications, 1964.

Sports Council. Provision for Sport Vol.2., Specialist Facilities, 1973.

_____. Sport for All in Converted Buildings. 1975 (a).

_____. Sports Halls: A New Approach to their Dimensions and Use. 1975 (b).

Stewart, J.D. "Area Committees - A New Dimension", Local Government Chronicle. June 22nd, 1973.

_____. The Case for Local Authority Policy Planning. Report on the proceedings of the Town and Country Planning Summer School, Town Planning Institute, London, 1969.

Stuart, M. (Ed.). The City. Penguin, 1972.

Strelitz, Z. Joint Use of Urban Facilities, the Derivation of a General Approach. An unpublished Master of Philosophy Thesis, School of Environmental Studies, University College London, 1972.

Suhm, L. "Leisure Time Utilization, U.S.A.", Convergence. Vol 2, No.4, 1969.

Sussman, L. The Community Schools Movement in Compton City: Final Report. Medford Mass: Tufts University, September, 1970.

Swain, H. Community Schools. An unpublished paper presented to the R.I.B.S. Conference on Education Building, 1968.

Taylor, F.W. Scientific Management. New York: Harper, 1911.

Taylor, G.B. "Recreation in the New Towns", Town & Country Planning. No.36, Oct - Nov., 1968.

Taylor, W. The Secondary Modern School. London: Faber, 1963.

Thorns, D. Suburbia. London: Paladin, 1973.

Toffler, A. Future Shock, London: Pan Books, 1970.

Tomasson, R.F. "From Elitism to Egalitarianism in Swedish Education", Sociology of Education. Vol. 38, 1965.

_____. Sweden: Prototype of Modern Society. New York: Random House, 1970.

Tonnies, F. "Fundamental Concepts of Sociology, Gemeinschaft & Geselschaft. Translated by C.P. Loomis, New York: The American Book Co., 1940.

Torkildsen, G. The Scope and Use of Recreation Centres. Paper presented at a Conference on "Building for Leisure", University of Nottingham, March, 1975.

Tregear, P.S. The Community School. A paper presented at the Commonwealth Conference on Education in Rural Areas, Legon : University of Ghana, April, 1970.

Tregear, P.S., & H. Houghton (Eds.). Community Schools in Developing Countries. UNESCO Institute for Education, Hamburg, 1969.

Tunstall, J. The Fishermen. Macgibbon & Kee, 1962.

Turner, C.M. "An Organizational Analysis of a Secondary Modern School", Sociological Review. Vol. 17, 1969.

Turner, R.H. "Role - Taking: Process Versus Conformity", Human Behaviour & Social Processes. A.M. Rose (Ed.), 1962.

UNESCO. "2nd World Conference on Adult Education", UNESCO Education Studies and Documents No.46, 1963.

Veal, A.J. Perceptual Capacity: A Discussion and Some Research Proposals. University of Birmingham Centre for Urban and Regional Studies, Working Paper No. 1, 1973.

_____. Notes on Attraction, Preference and Choice in Recreation. University of Birmingham Centre for Urban and Recreational Studies, Working Paper No. 5, 1973.

Venn, G. "Mann, Education and Work", in Education Structure and Society. B.R. Cosin (Ed.)., Penguin, 1972.

Ventris, N. Some Problems in the Use of Survey Results for Recreational Planning. B.E.R.G., Unpublished paper presented to the Symposium on Leisure, Polytechnic of Central London, 1975.

Verner, C., and J. Newberry. "The Nature of Adult Participation", Adult Education. Vol. 8, No. 4, 1958.

Vernon, J. An Investigation into the Conflict Resulting from the Formal and Informal Organisations of the Management Structure at Madeley Court, Recreational Centre, Telford, Shropshire. Unpublished D.M.S. Thesis, North London Polytechnic, 1973.

Vitomir, A. "The Social Planning of Leisure", International Social Science Journal. No. 4, 1960.

Vogel, E.F. Japan's New Middle Class. Berkeley: U of C Press, 1963.

Walker, W. The Sociology of Teaching. New York: Wiley, 1965.

Walls, E. The Community School & the Solutions it offers to Some Social & Educational Problems on a Bristol Housing Estate. Unpublished M.A. (Education) Thesis, London University, 1967.

_____. "Community School", Trends in Education. 1966.

Warren, R.L, Studying Your Community. London: Collier-Macmillan, 1965.

Watts, J. "Community School", Times Educational Supplement. April 23, 1971.

Ways, M. "The Faculty is the Heart of the Trouble", Fortune. January, 1969.

Wealthy, P.M. A Study to Determine the Effect of the Provision of Sports Centres on Vandalism. Unpublished Thesis Town and Country Planning Department Liverpool Polytechnic, 1974.

Weaver Report. The Government Colleges of Education, H.M.S.O., 1966.

Webb, J. "The Sociology of a School", British Journal of Sociology. Vol.13, 1962.

Webber, M. "The Urban Place and the Non-Place Urban Realm", in Explorations into Urban Structure. M. Webber (Ed.), University of Pennsylvania, 1963.

Weber, M. The Theory of Social & Economic Organisation. T.Parsons (Ed.), Glencoe, Illinois: Free Press, 1947.

Wedell, E.G. "What More Can the Educational System Do to Produce the Participating Citizen". Unpublished Paper presented at the 7th British National Conference on Social Welfare, 1970, National Council of Social Welfare.

Weiss, R.S., and E. Jacobson. "A Method for the Analysis of the Structure of Complex Organisations", Complex Organisations: A Sociological Reader, A. Etzioni (Ed.), New York: Holt, Rinehart, Winston.

White House Conference on Children. The Child & Leisure Time. Report of Forum 21, December, 1970, Department of Health, Education & Welfare.

White, J. "Instruction to Obedience", New Society. 2,5,1968.

White, L.E. Community or Chaos- New Estates & their Social Problems. National Council of Social Service, 1950.

Whyte, W.F. "Skinnerian Theory in Organisations", Psychology Today. April, 1972.

_____. Street Corner Society. Chicago: University Press, 1943.

Wilensky, H.L. "Work, Careers and Social Integration", International Social Science Journal. No.4. 1960.

_____. "The Uneven Distribution of Leisure", Social Problems. Summer, 1961.

_____. "Mass Society & Mass Culture: Interdependence or Independence", American Sociological Review. April, 1964.

Wilkinson, R.H. The Prefects: British Leadership & the Public School Tradition. London: Oxford University Press, 1964.

Williams, R. "Minority and Popular Culture", in Leisure and Society in Britain. A. Smith et al.(Eds.). London: Allen Lane, 1973.

Williams, W.H. The Sociology of an English Village: Gosforth. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1956, Chapter(s) on Sport & Class.

Willmott, P. "Some Social Trends", Urban Studies. No.3, 1969.

_____. "Leisure" Social Trends. No.4,1973 (b).

_____. "East Kilbride and Stevenage", Town Planning Review, 1964.

Wilmott, P., and M. Young. The Evolution of a Community. London: Routledge & Kegan Paul, 1963.

_____. The Symmetrical Family. London: Routledge & Kegan Paul, 1973 (a).

Willmott, P. "Social Research and New Communities", AIP Journal. Nov., 1967.

Willmott, P., and M. Young. Family and Class in a London Suburb. London: Routledge, 1960.

_____. Family and Kinship in East London. London: Routledge, 1957.

Wilson, B. "The Teacher's Role - A Sociological Analysis", British Journal of Sociology. Vol. 13, 1962.

Wilson, N.A.B. On the Quality of Working Life. Dept., of Employment Report. H.M.S.O., 1973.

Wilson, R. Difficult Housing Estates. London: Tavistock Publications, 1963.

Wirth, L. "Towards a Definition of the Local Community", in Cities, Communities and the Young. Raynor, J., and J. Harden (Eds.), London: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1973.

Wohl, A. "Conception and Range of Sports Sociology", International Review of Sports Sociology, Vol. 1. 1966.

Wolcott, H.F. A Kwakiutl Village & School. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1967.

Young, M.F.D. (Ed.). "Introduction", Knowledge and Control. New York London: Collier Macmillan, 1971.

Youth Service Development Council. Youth & Community Work in the 70's. Fairbairn/Milson Report. London: H.M.S.O., 1969.

BIBLIOGRAPHY B

DUAL PROVISION

BIBLIOGRAPHY B

DUAL PROVISION

Cheshire County Council. A Chance to Share: Recreation in Cheshire, Joint Use. 1972.

Department of Education and Science (D.E.S.). Circular No. 2/70 - The Chance to Share. 1970, H.M.S.O.

_____. Circular No. 11/64 - Provision of Facilities for Sport. 1964, H.M.S.O.

_____. The School and DES Architects and Building Branch. 1970.

Department of the Environment (D.O.E.). Circular 2/70, Capital Programmes. H.M.S.O., 1970.

Eastern Sports Council. Report of the Working Party Concerning the "Dual Use" of Local Education Facilities for Physical Recreation Purposes.

_____. Community Use of Industrial Sports Facilities. A Report by the Industrial Advisory Group. 1970.

_____. Dual use of School Sports Facilities in the Eastern Region. Oct., 1971.

East Midlands Sports Council. Joint Action in the Provision of Amenities for Sport and Recreation. A First Report by the Joint Provision Study Group. 1970.

_____. A Report of the Seminar on the Design, Management and Financing of Joint Provision Centres. 1971 (a).

_____. Dual Use of Sports Facilities in Education and Industry. A Second Report by the Joint Provision Study Group 1968.

_____. A Guide to the Management of Jointly Provided Sports Facilities prepared by the Joint Provision Study Group. June, 1971 (b).

Greater London and South East Sports Council. The Joint Planning of Sports Facilities. 1968.

_____. The Joint Provision and Dual Use of Facilities for Sport and Recreation.

Greater London and South East Sports Council. Community Use of Educational Sports Facilities. 1970.

_____. Industry and Community Recreation. A Survey of the Use of Industrial and Commercial Sports Facilities. June, 1971.

IAKS. "Conference Report: Integration of Sports Centres and School Premises", in Sportstattebau & Baderanlagen, 2/72.

Institute of Municipal Treasurers and Accountants. Recreation for All: Management and Finance. A Midland Branch Study Group Report, 1973.

Joint Use. In Parks and Sports Grounds. Dec. 1971.

Jones, B.D. Local Government Reorganisation - A Guide to the Management of Jointly - Provided Sports Facilities. Unpublished paper presented to the Sports Council, 1973.

Lancashire Country Planning Department. Survey of Facilities for Sport and Physical Recreation. 1965.

Ministry of Housing & Local Government. Circular No. 31/66 - Public Expenditure - Miscellaneous Schemes. 1966, H.M.S.O.

_____. Circular No. 49/64 - Provision of Facilities for Sport. 1964, H.M.S.O.

_____. Circular No. 72/66 Public Expenditure. M.H.L.G., 1966.

Munn, J. Planning for Recreation: A Fully Integrated Local Authority Approach. A paper presented to the N.P.F.A. Local Authority Conference, Nov., 1972.

_____, "A Dual Use for Schools", Baths Service. July, 1973, 222-224.

National Playing Fields Association (N.P.F.A.). Joint Provision and Multiple Use. Report by a Working Party, 1971.

_____. Making the Most of School Playing Fields. 1960.

_____. School Playing Fields - Dual Use Policies in Operation. 1964.

Northern Advisory Council for Sport and Recreation. Dual Use and Joint Planning of Sports Facilities. July, 1968.

North West Sports Council. Facilities Bulletin No. 2., Sports Halls, (Larger than local significance). Technical Panel, Feb., 1974.

_____. Facilities Bulletin No. . Sports Halls. April, 1972.

North West Sports Council. Joint Planning. Report of the Conference at Bolton, October, 1968.

_____. (N.W.S.C.). Leisure in the North West. 1972.

_____. Joint Planning. Report of a Conference at Bolton, 1969.

Nottinghamshire Sports Managers' Group. The Problems of Staffing Recreational Facilities. East Midlands Sports Council, 1973.

Perrin, G.A. Sports Halls. National Playing Fields Association, 1971.

_____. "Community Recreation Centres, the need for a Wider View", In Architects Journal Information Library, 5th April 1967.

_____. "Urban Landscape Review: Recreation", In Architects Journal Information Library.

Phelps, R.W. Joint Use and Joint Provision. Skelmersdale Development Corporation, 1971.

Southern Sports Council. Notes on Management of Dual Provision Schemes With Particular Reference to Minor Schemes. 1971.

_____. Report on the Dual Use of Recreational Facilities. Dual Use and Joint Provision Study Group. 1968.

South West Sports Council Technical Panel. Major Recreation Survey Gloucestershire. Recreation Facilities at Educational Establishments. Report No. 6. Jan., 1970.

Spenser, J.R. Dual Use in Nottinghamshire. 1971.

Sports Council. Planning for Sport. London: C.C.P.R., 1968.

Sports Council for Scotland. Planning for Sport in Scotland. A Report on a Series of Regional Conferences, 1972.
4) Joint Provision, by J.R. Spenser.
5) Community Use of Existing Facilities, by L. Tatham.

Sports Council for Wales. Joint Planning of Facilities for Sports and Physical Recreation. 1968.

Watkins, A. "Joint Provisional Dual User Policy in Bedfordshire", Playing Fields. April - June, 1970.

West Midlands Sports Council. Dual Use Committee Report. 1967.

_____. Joint Planning of Facilities for Sports and Physical Recreation. Report of a Conference of Local Authorities, 1968.

_____. The Management of Joint Provision Schemes - A Report. 1971.

Winning, A. "Grounds for Sharing", Municipal Journal. Sept., 1973.

Yorkshire and Humberside Sports Council. Report on the Dual Use of Educational Facilities. 1968, Addendum 1971.

_____. Comments by Local Authorities and Local Education Authorities on the Report on the Dual Use of Educational Facilities. 1969.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1.

EXTRACTS FROM THE WEST MIDLANDS SPORTS COUNCIL WORKING PARTY RECOMMENDATIONS ON DUAL PROVISION SCHEMES IMPLEMENTATION

PRELIMINARY CONSIDERATIONS

(i) The function of the proposed building: Is it to consist purely of playing and training facilities? Is it to be suitable for broadly based recreational facilities? Is it also to have certain social/club aspects? Is it to cater for spectator events?

(ii) Financial considerations: What capital is available? Can money be brought in from other sources, e.g. the Youth Service, F.E., Social Services and other agencies, to extend facilities? What is to be the sharing of the running costs and development?

(iii) Special features of the neighbourhood: What are the existing popular interests? What are the anticipated future interests, e.g. squash as courts become available? Is the centre planned to co-ordinate with, or supplement, other existing or planned facilities in the locality? Is the centre to meet only the local requirements? Is the centre to meet regional or national needs in addition to local needs?

(iv) Policy with regard to users, memberships and bookings: Is the policy to be one of membership, whereby members only use the facilities with their invited guests, or to be one of lettings to clubs and organised groups. Or is it to be open to any individual member of the public to pay at the door and use the premises as at a public swimming bath or a cinema? Or is a combination of these principles to be adopted?

(v) Policy of management: Who, in terms of personnel, is going to manage the administration of the facilities? What facilities are needed for staff?

(vi) Flexibility: Would it be possible to provide secondary uses for areas otherwise lying idle - e.g. Dance studios for fencing? Can a school dining hall be the refreshment area for evenings and be incorporated into the physical education block? If a theatre is provided can it be built into the same block with its stage area used for Dance/Keep Fit?

THE DESIGN STAGE

DESIGN AND OBJECTIVES

It is a fundamental precept of management to establish objectives first, and then to consider the means whereby these objectives can be achieved. Many aspects and details of design which are important to the management and use of jointly provided sports centres depend upon the purpose and function of the centre.

In order to clarify and arrive at these objectives it will be necessary to consider:-

(i) The requirements and the expectations of the promoters.

(ii) The potential users - what are they interested in and what are they likely to find interesting if it were provided?

(iii) The facilities which already exist in the area and those which, though not provided, are already projected for the area. These will affect use.

(iv) Siting considerations in terms of:

(a) accessibility and communications;

(b) proximity to the centre of the community and its population;

(c) schools to be provided in the district which might be possible sites;

(d) area of land available at the site.

From these four considerations should emerge the facilities that are needed and can be provided (The West Midlands Sports Council, 1971, 17 and 15).

APPENDIX 2.

A DUAL PROVISION DRAFT AGREEMENT BETWEEN A COUNTY COUNCIL AND A DISTRICT COUNCIL

THIS AGREEMENT is made the .....day of ..... One thousand nine hundred and seventy.....BETWEEN THE COUNTY COUNCIL FOR THE ADMINISTRATIVE COUNTY OF THE COUNTY PALATINE OF CHESTER (hereinafter called "the County Council" of the one part and THE RURAL DISTRICT COUNCIL OF NORTHWICH (hereinafter called "the District Council") of the other part

W H E R E A S

(1) The County Council acting as the local education authority intend to provide a school to be called the Rudheath County Secondary School in the District Council's area and in connection therewith to provide certain indoor and outdoor facilities

(2) The District Council has requested the County Council to provide more comprehensive sports and recreation facilities and to make the whole of such facilities available for use not only for school purposes but also by organised bodies and the general public which the County Council have agreed to do in consideration of the cost and the responsibility being shared between the parties hereto as hereinafter provided

NOW IT IS HEREBY AGREED as follows:-

1 IN this agreement unless the context otherwise requires "the school" means the Rudheath County Secondary School "the site" means that portion of the site of the school which is devoted to the joint complex delineated and edged red on the plan hereto annexed "joint complex" includes an indoor sports hall measuring Eight thousand eight hundred square feet village room committee room/library social area kitchen (and as and when provided school hall and gallery drama workshop dining area) administrative areas associated stores and changing facilities and car parking areas and vehicle approaches provided for users of the joint complex "annual maintenance costs" includes salaries and wages of staff rates electricity water heating insurance cleaning materials provisions (catering) repairs and painting establishment charges renewal maintenance and repairs of equipment telephones publicity advertising and laundry "organised bodies" means organised bodies recognised by the District Council "school terms" does not include periods for which the school is closed for half term holiday or any Saturday falling within any such period

2 THE County Council will provide free of charge the site which together with all buildings and servi erected or constructed thereon or thereunder shall re the property of the County Council subject to Clause 13 hereof

3 SUBJECT to Clause 5 hereof the cost of construction of the joint complex including professional fees furnishing and equipment shall be shared between the County Council and the District Council in the manner indicated in the First Schedule hereto and such contributions as shall be made by the Northwich Urban District Council the Rudheath Parish Council and the Rudheath Memorial Hall Committee shall be paid to the District Council

4 THE County Council shall pay to the District Council a grant of fifteen per cent towards the annual notional loan charges assumed to be borne by the District Council on its contribution to the capital cost including professional fees of the joint complex The notional loan charges shall be calculated on the basis that a twenty year annuity loan had been raised for the whole of the District Council's capital contribution at the Public Works Loan Board non-quota rate of interest current during the period of construction of the joint complex

5 THE parties shall use their best endeavours to obtain loan sanctions for the portions of the capital outlay for which they are respectively responsible and in the event of any loan sanction being refused or being substantially less than the estimated capital cost of the relevant works such works shall not proceed until the parties have reviewed the financial arrangements of Clause 3 hereof

6 THE County Council shall be responsible for the construction and upkeep of the buildings and grounds of the joint complex and the fixed equipment and machinery therein

7 THE annual maintenance costs and related income shall be shared between the County Council and the District Council in the following manner:-

(i) Expenditure relating solely to the public use of the joint complex shall be charged entirely to the District Council and any income arising solely from the public use of the joint complex shall be credited in full to the District Council excepting the County Library Service

(ii) The remaining annual net maintenance costs of the joint complex shall be borne in equal shares between the County Council and the District Council but as from the First day of April next after the date when a joint facility shall have been in use for a full twelve months and at annual intervals thereafter the percentages shall

unless otherwise agreed between the County Council and The District Council be adjusted to correspond with the percentages of time such facility has been available exclusively for county educational use and for public use respectively as described in the Second Schedule hereto

(iii) The actual expenditure and income arising under Sub-Clauses (i) and (ii) of this Clause in any year or period of a year shall be agreed by the Treasurers of the County Council and the District Council respectively

(iv) The District Council shall be free to negotiate such contributions towards its share of the maintenance costs from the Northwich Urban District Council the Rudheath Parish Council and the Rudheath Memorial Hall Committee as may be agreed with them

8 THE County Council will permit car-parking by users of the joint complex during times when the joint complex is open for use by organised bodies and the public on the school car park shown edged green on the plan hereto annexed when the requirements of county education use so permit and any additional car parking spaces provided for the joint complex by the District Council shall be available for use in connection with county education use when the requirements of the joint complex so permit

9 THE management of the joint complex shall be under the control of a joint management committee the constitution and functions of which are set out in the Third Schedule hereto acting through a manager appointed on the recommendation of the joint management committee by the District Council to the services of the District Council and whose duties shall be as set out in the Fourth Schedule hereto The Clerk of the District Council shall act as secretary to the joint management committee

10 ALL requisite staff employed in the joint complex (except staff employed by the County Council on the upkeep of the buildings and grounds fixed equipment and machinery) shall be appointed on the recommendation of the joint management committee by the District Council to the service of the District Council

11 THE Treasurer of the District Council shall prepare draft annual estimates of income and expenditure for approval by the joint management committee and subsequently by the County Council and the District Council The County Treasurer shall supply to the Treasurer of the District Council for inclusion in such estimates statements of the estimated income and expenditure of the County Council in relation to the joint complex Such estimates and statements shall be in such form and completed at such times as may be agreed between the

Treasurer of the District Council and the County Treasurer from time to time

12 THE joint complex and the various constituent parts thereof shall be available for use by schools organised bodies and the public at the times and subject to the conditions set out in the Second Schedule hereto

13 THIS Agreement shall continue for a period of Forty years from the First day of and thereafter until determined by the County Council or the District Council giving to the other two years' notice in writing On such determination a financial settlement shall be made between the County Council and the District Council in respect of the residual value of the buildings paved areas furniture equipment and machinery which have been provided by the parties respectively

14 IF at any time any difference arises between the County Council and the District Council respecting any matters arising out of this Agreement the same shall be referred to and be settled by arbitration in the manner provided by the Arbitration Act 1950

I N W I T N E S S whereof the County Council and the District Council have caused their Common Seals to be hereunto affixed the day and year first before written

THE FIRST SCHEDULE hereinbefore referred to

Apportionment of the Cost of Construction including professional fees furnishing and equipment

The costs of construction and professional fees estimated at October 1973 are as follows:-

	£	£
Sports Hall & changing	94,371	
Village Room	15,990	
Committee Room/Library)		
Kitchen)	22,480	
Social and Administration Areas)		
Store	615	
Additional car parking spaces	7,050	140,506
Fees		21,076
TOTAL		161,582

The above estimated costs shall be met by the County Council and the District Council as follows:-

		£
By the County Council -	Sports Hall and ancilliary facilities	68,541
	Fees	10,281
	Total	78,822
By the District Council -	Sports Hall & Changing.	25,830
	- Village Room	15,990
	- Committee Room/ Library - Social and Administrative Areas - Kitchen	22,480
	- Stores	615
	Additional car parking spaces	7,050
	Fees	10,795
	Total	82,760

Any increase or decrease in the actual costs as compared with the estimated costs shall be apportioned between the County Council and the District Council in the proportions of seventy nine to eighty three regardless of the item to which the variation in cost relates The County Council shall provide such furnishing and equipment as is required for education use and the District Council all additional furnishing and equipment as they deem necessary for public use of the joint sports complex

THE SECOND SCHEDULE hereinbefore referred to

Division of use of the Joint Sports Complex

1. Exclusive use by the School and neighbouring Primary and Secondary Schools

Sports Hall Dining Area	Mondays to Fridays inclusive 9 am to 6 pm Saturdays 9 am to 12 noon during school terms
Drama Workshop School Hall	Mondays to Fridays inclusive 9 am to 6 pm during School terms
Village Room Committee Room/Library Dining area	By arrangement

2. Exclusive use by Organised Bodies and the Public
At all other times within the times of opening fixed by the joint management committee except when closed for special cleaning maintenance decoration or similar purposes

3. Adjustments between 1 and 2
Adjustments of times may be agreed in advance by the Manager the head of the School and the Clerk of the District Council whenever special events so require or permit subject to report to the next meeting of the joint management committee

4. Use by County Libraries Department

Committee Room/Library - By arrangement

THE THIRD SCHEDUIE hereinbefore referred to

Constitution and Functions of the Joint Management Committee

1. The joint management Committee (in this schedule referred to as "the Committee") shall consist of eight persons of whom four shall be appointed by the Governors of the school and one each by the District Council the Urban District Council the Parish Council and the Memorial Hall Committee from among their respective memberships provided that if either the Northwich Urban District Council or the Rudheath Parish Council or the Rudheath Memorial Hall Committee do not contribute towards the capital cost of the complex their place shall be taken by a further representative of the District Council Any person appointed to the committee on ceasing to be a member of the appointing body shall cease to be a member of the committee

2. The head of the school and the manager of the joint complex shall both have the right to attend meetings of the committee except on such occasions and at such times as the committee may for good cause otherwise determine and such attendance shall be in an advisory capacity without power to vote

3. The Director of Education shall have the right to attend and/or be represented at meetings of the committee in an advisory capacity without power to vote

4. Members of the committee shall be appointed for a period ending on the twentieth day of May next after the date of their appointment but shall be eligible for re-appointment

5. The committee at its first meeting after the twentieth day of May in each year shall elect one of its members to be chairman and another to be vice-chairman for the year

6. The committee shall determine its own rules of procedure but subject thereto the normal principles applicable to meetings of local authorities shall apply

7. The functions of the Committee shall be:-

(a) to be responsible for policy matters affecting the joint complex subject to the decisions from time to time of the County Council and the District Council

(b) to supervise and control expenditure within the financial estimates approved by the parties to this Agreement subject also to the financial Regulations of the County Council or the District Council as appropriate

(c) to be responsible through the manager for the running and maintenance of the joint complex

THE FOURTH SCHEDULE hereinbefore referred to

Duties of the Manager

1. To be responsible to the joint management committee for the running and maintenance of the joint complex in accordance with the policy determined by the joint management committees

2. To arrange with the head of the school the exclusive use of facilities in the joint complex for the School and visiting schools if necessary in accordance with the agreed schedule of use

3. To control the booking facilities and lettings to organised clubs and the use of the joint complex by the public in accordance with a policy determined by the joint management committee

4. To control the staff of the joint complex except staff employed by the County Library Service

5. To be responsible to the joint management committee for expenditure and income entailed in running the joint complex within the estimates approved by the County Council and the District Council and to keep the necessary accounts and records

6. To be responsible for the maintenance care and proper storage of all equipment

7. To ensure that all regulations and instructions are exhibited and complied with

8. To be responsible for general publicity and for promoting sporting and recreational events and activities at the joint complex

9. To attend meetings of the joint management committee except on such occasions and at such occasions and at such times as the committee may for good cause otherwise determine

10. To undertake such other duties as may from time to time be assigned to him by the joint management committee

APPENDIX 3.

RATIONALE FOR DUAL PROVISION SCHEMES

JOINT PROVISION

Joint management pre-supposes some element of shared costs and agreed joint use. There are many ways of managing joint schemes, but whichever method is decided the aim of any management structure should be to ensure maximum use by all sections of the community. It is possible to identify three principal methods of providing joint schemes.

(i) The commonest form of joint scheme is one whereby money from district councils, or in the case of County Boroughs, from another committee, is added to that which is to be spent in any case by the l.e.a. to provide an improved or more varied facility. In a similar manner, as in the case of the Court Centre, Madeley, Telford, money may be added by a Trust or voluntary body. This can be done in two ways:

(a) By providing an "extra over" element and arriving at an agreement to share the running costs on an agreed ratio.

(b) To make capital payment which will ensure community use of an extended local education authority facility secured under covenant without commitment to its running costs and management.

This arrangement may well be best for some smaller schemes where a local authority, or other agency, can add a sum of money, but cannot see its way to being involved in maintenance and running costs, e.g. a contribution for the enhancement of a sports hall, or the total provision of a small facility which a local education authority would take over and run.

(ii) A facility central to a number of schools could appeal in certain situations. This type of joint project provided in a location off the curtilage of a school, but convenient to a number of schools, could be particularly attractive in dense urban areas. Such a scheme might well be brought about by the local education authority which, not able to provide a full range of physical education facilities within its schools, contributes

to the provision of a central facility being provided, in the case of a County Borough, by other committees. (e.g. the proposed scheme at Rowley Regis, Warley).

It is appreciated that such an arrangement could present time-tabling difficulties for the schools concerned and it is conceded in educational terms that this is only the second best solution to facilities on a school site.

The Management of such a central facility could be a separate structure from any school. It might well include specialist teachers not attached to a particular school but rather to the centre.

(iii) In some cases a facility owned by a district authority could be augmented by an additional facility financed by the local education authority or County Council, e.g. the proposed training tank at Nuneaton Swimming Baths.

TYPES OF SCHEME

MINOR

(a) A scheme of perhaps a few hundred pounds to make an existing facility within a school suitable for community use, e.g.:

(i) In the case of a primary school, the provision of an adult lavatory, a tea bar or additional storage.

(ii) An extra entrance which would allow the remainder of a school to be secured, whilst a facility is being used.

SMALL

(b) A scheme whereby a district authority, or another committee in a County Borough, or a statutory, or voluntary, or industrial agency, adds a capital contribution to extend the facilities, e.g.

(i) floodlighting of tennis courts;

(ii) provision of an all-weather pitch;

(iii) a club room;

(iv) additional car parking facilities;

(v) extension of sports hall;

(vi) extension of changing accommodation.

MAJOR

(c) A similar scheme as in (b) Small but involving extensive provision which might include additional land, or for example, a sports hall, a pool, squash courts, rifle range, some spectator accommodation, or a selection of these (The West Midlands Sports Council, 1971, 13-14).

APPENDIX 4.

MANAGERIAL ASPECTS OF DUAL PROVISION SCHEMES

THE PROJECT IN USE

Each of the sections which follow affect management. Before the project comes into use, these matters must be considered, and general decisions must be taken on them. However, these are the elements that control successful development of the project in use and it is for this reason that they are grouped together in this chapter.

A

THE MANAGEMENT COMMITTEE

1. THE ROLE OF THE COMMITTEE

It cannot be emphasised too strongly that the responsibility for the running of any facilities be delegated by the parties to the agreement to a single committee. This committee should have the opportunity to influence future policy by drawing up the financial estimates for consideration by all the parties to the agreement. Acceptance of the Revenue Budget by the parties to the agreement would imply acceptance of the policy of the managing committee and would give it rights and teeth to implement this policy. Without money to finance its operations and discharge its responsibilities the committee's effectiveness suffers.

2. COMPOSITION OF THE COMMITTEE

This will vary in detail from case to case and will depend on the philosphy of use, the nature and size of contribution by the separate partners to the agreement, and the area to be served.

THE BASIC PRINCIPLE SHOULD BE THAT A PREPONDERANCE OF COMMITTEE MEMBERS WHOMSOVER THEY REPRESENT SHOULD BE LOCAL PEOPLE.

Unfortunately, "local" often becomes "parochial". There is value in including one or two members who might have wider than/local experience. These members may possibly be persons already having gained some experience on the managing committee of other centres.

The interests of users should in some way be incorporated into representation on the Managing Committee.

If a section of the community is to receive preferential treatment it would be advisable for it to be represented on the Committee, e.g. the Sports Advisory Council or the Area Youth Committee.

Whilst it might be too early to hypothesise along these lines it should be remembered that the role and scope of school governing bodies is being given considerable thought by many education authorities. We consider there is value in looking at the possibilities of adapting their terms of reference to incorporate the philosophy of joint provision. There will, of course, be need by arrangement with local education authorities, to express and ensure a tangible joint provision philosphy by agreements and by appointments to managing committees/boards of governors.

In this way it is felt that local people, be they councillors or not, should be appointed for it is likely that individuals interested in the provision of baths, parks and housing will also have at heart an interest in education.

If such committees were to cover not individual schools but areas incorporating groups of schools and other joint establishments then the possibilities of a cohesive school/community policy evolving should be strong. This type of development would cut down the number of committees whose terms of responsibility overlap in certain respects. This should lead to easier decision making.

B

THE MANAGEMENT AGREEMENT

Accepting that there is good will on all sides, the management agreement is the heart of a successfully functioning project. From it should flow a clear understanding of the advantages of the project and of the responsibilities and duties of all concerned with it.

However, there are pitfalls which can be avoived and these are now discussed.

1. ALLOCATION OF USE

This will need to be settled in terms of agreed hours or periods of use beforehand and written into the agreement. Where possible provision should be made for some degree of flexibility during the laid down hours of use e.g. to provide community use of a swimming bath during a lunch hour or afternoon in school term if time-tabling allows.

2. RULES AND CHARGES

The fixing of rules and charges is the responsibility of a

managing committee and should be decided in the light of experience. It should also determine preferential letting and differential charges.

3. MAINTENANCE AND EQUIPMENT

The principles which govern the apportionment of running costs will need to be agreed - one suggested principle is based on the agreed hourly user apportionment among partners.

4. STAFF

Conditions of employment are very clearly laid down in local authorities and as long as it is understood by which partner each employee is engaged there should be few difficulties over conditions of service.

5. ACCOUNTING

The procedure for accounting and the financial responsibilities of the various partners will have to be agreed in a document of financial procedure which should be subject to normal accounting processes.

6. INSURANCE

Attention will have to be given to the aspects of third party insurance (public liability), employers' responsibilities, and the insurance of jointly used property. Reference to existing agreements between local authorities is likely to be of valuable assistance.

7. LENGTH OF AGREEMENT

This will need to be stated along with the ownership of the land and the property.

8. DISPUTES

Procedure will have to be written in for settling disputes between the partners in the project.

9. GENERAL COMMENT

There is much that education authorities often provide in services that cannot be written into an agreement. These advantages should not be overlooked when other authorities and organisations are considering a joint provision scheme as at times it appears that the local education authority is driving a hard bargain.

These services can include:-

(i) Free land.

(ii) Free or cheaper professional services.

(iii) Better rates of insurance than a smaller local authority might negotiate.

(iv) Professional services of for example the departments of the County Treasurer and the County Architect.

(v) A contribution towards equipment.

County Councils are empowered to contribute, in their roles as local authorities, to joint schemes between their own local education authorities and one or more local authorities. This is seen as an opportunity to fulfil local authority responsibilities and to help small authorities.

C

THE MANAGER

To a very great extent the success of any project will hinge on the appointment of a suitable manager. If at all possible the appointment should be made before the project comes into use - in a large provision eighteen months before hand is by no means too long. At this time he should be given a brief of his expected duties. It is important, therefore, to consider the roles played.

1. SERVING THE MANAGEMENT COMMITTEE

The manager will be responsible to the Management Committee for the day-to-day running and development of the centre along the guide lines laid down by it and will, therefore, be required to know or to learn how to work in this manner. It requires an ability to prepare and present reports and accounts and to work closely with a chairman and the committee.

The manager is the committee's representative to the public and should have the personality to attract it to the centre.

2. WORKING WITH PROFESSIONAL COLLEAGUES

The Manager's work will involve co-operation with senior local authority officials and, in all probability, teachers, chief among whom will be the Headmaster. It is likely that on occasion there is likely to be a conflict of interest and the manager will be involved, on behalf of the management committee, in co-operating to achieve a solution which minimises the creation of ill will.

3. CONTROL OF STAFF

Obviously the size of a project will decide the type and number of staff under the manager. In many small schemes there will be no responsibility for other staff. In others the responsibility will be limited to a few caretaking staff in one aspect of their cleaning function.

However, large projects are emerging and these require responsibility often over professional, clerical, technical and maintenance staff. The ability to manage human beings and draw out their abilities is an important requirement in the manager.

D

THE PART-TIME MANAGER

It is apparent that in a great number of schemes the employment of a full-time manager could not be warranted. In these cases the usual solution is to engage a part-time manager/warden whose role can be tied in with other work. In most cases this means engaging a teacher or youth leader who shares working time between school or youth club and the centre.

When this is the case it is worthwhile considering appointing the teacher/youth leader to a post which is related to the work of the centre or gives a flexibility in time-tabling e.g. in an administrative or advisory role in the school.

It has to be accepted that the part-time manager is a logical appointment in many instances. There may be specific difficulties. The very nature of the appointment means that full attention cannot be directed to one of the tasks. In addition, there are at least two employers to satisfy. This can easily affect personal relationships unless employers understand the situation.

In any areas where more than one joint scheme is being promoted there could be a case for appointing a manager to share his time between centres. (The West Midlands Sports Council, 1971, 27-32).

APPENDIX 5.

PARTICULAR FEATURES OF JOINT PROVISION SCHEMES

8.1 Reference has already been made to joint provision schemes on several occasions in preceding chapters. This emphasis partly reflects the working party's own experience which stems mainly from such schemes and partly reflects the fact that the majority of multi-purpose recreational schemes planned, in progress or in use are joint provision schemes.

8.2 Such schemes are inevitably more complex to conceive, design, manage and finance because of the additional complication of there being two or more providing authorities and at least two main classes of user, i.e. school and public. The idealists among the readers probably feel that these complications are unimportant and should be ignored in the hope that they will disappear but the pragmatists, particularly the pioneers of such projects, recognises that the best way to overcome difficulties is to face and solve them at an early stage.

8.3 The key requirements in developing a joint provision scheme are co-operation and goodwill from the moment of conception through to its opening day and, just as important, thereafter. The potential benefits are discussed in Chapter 2; the effort required to achieve them must not be underestimated but will rarely be found to be unrewarded.

8.4 Joint schemes may involve co-operation between two or more local authorities or between local authorities and voluntary or other bodies. In a county borough the co-operation has been between different committees and in administrative counties between county and district councils and occasionally, parish councils. Joint schemes involving voluntary associations are less common and more difficult to organise but a number of successful projects have been undertaken.

8.5 Problem solving with joint schemes begins at a very early stage. The key sector county project to which the recreational facilities may be attached, usually a school, will have been placed in the DES and the county's capital programmes in a particular year. There may, therefore be this single opportunity to carry on such a project and the other participating authority is tied to financing their contribution within the timescale thus imposed. The district council may have to adjust its own priorities since most educational building is still tightly timetabled to provide 'roofs over heads' for additional schoolchildren. There is still the problem of ensuring that the appropriate allocation from the county pool for

locally determined schemes under Circular 2/70 will be forthcoming. An unfortunate situation can develop and has done in more than one county at the time of writing where both participating authorities have gone ahead planning joint schemes in good faith only to find that the allocation for locally determined schemes available to the district council is inadequate to finance the projects. Sometimes the problem can be solved if other authorities are prepared to adjust their claims on the pool; in others there is a real risk that the project will founder.

8.6 This programming problem might be alleviated for some projects if the DES experiment of block allocation to local education authorities for major building programmes is applied nationally. The local authorities would then have slightly greater opportunities for integrating the timing of key and locally determined sector allocations. The omission of replacement schools, i.e. those for which there is a less critical time scale, from the DES block allocations system does not help solve the particular problem discussed above.

8.7 There is considerable variety in the manner and extent to which education authorities contribute to the capital cost of joint projects. In some instances the education authority's contribution is restricted to the amount it would have spent on say a gymnasium or swimming pool plus the provision of land and the professional services of the architects and engineers. In others the authority will state what would be provided for the school and available for public use with or without a joint provision scheme. They then ask the district council to state (and pay for) any additional facilities or modifications which it wishes to have incorporated.

8.8 As the former situation most often applies and the education authority's key sector contribution is tied to DES cost yardsticks, it is usually a consequence of this type of cost sharing agreement that any inflationary or design change cost increases will be borne by the district council; the implications of this must not be overlooked by the district council.

8.9 It is open to the county to contribute to the cost of public recreational provision; as already mentioned the power to do so is contained in the Physical Training and Recreation Act, 1937.

8.10 The district's contribution to the capital cost of the project may be paid to the county either by instalments as work progresses or the county may finance the whole scheme (assuming it has 'locally determined' monies available) and recharge loan charges at the current consolidated loan fund rate or any other agreed rate. e.g. current PWLB rate.

8.11 The special features of joint project management received attention in Chapter 8 so comment here is restricted to particular practical problems in running such schemes which have not so far been mentioned. The first concerns siting. A school site on the outskirts of town is probably not the most convenient location for a community recreation facility. There will probably be transport difficulties for young people, non-car owners and older citizens. However the advantages and economies of joint provision already referred to in paragraph 2.8 may more than outweigh these factors.

8.12 Timetabling of activities may be more difficult. The basic agreement between the school and the centre will probably provide for scool use 9 till 4 on weekdays and public use any other time. However, optimum use of the centre will only be obtained if for example vacant periods during the school day in a sports hall or swimming pool are available to the public. Housewives and shift workers for example will probably find day time activities more convenient to attend. A spirit of co-operation is again called for; at one centre the school has arranged its timetabling so that whole mornings or afternoons are free instead of single lessons scattered through the week. Conversely, the school may have clubs or special functions which require the use of centre facilities outside normal school hours. The education authority may also wish to use the whole or part of the premises outside normal school hours to cater for formal further education classes or for community activities associated with the school.

8.13 A point of detail which in practice can give rise to considerable difficulties concerns caretaking and cleaning and ground maintenance. In a combined school/sports centre caretaking and allied functions are complicated by the intensive usage of facilities over long periods. Time must usually be specifically reserved for cleaning and for engineering maintenance. Special conditions of service may have to be negotiated locally.

8.14 A clear understanding will need to be developed between the manager and the Headmaster. The formal division of responsibility between them is unlikely to cover every contingency and a good working relationship between them is essential.

8.15 As has already been indicated joint provision schemes are inevitably somewhat more difficult to get under way. Until the management agreement is settled there will always be at least two sets of councillors, two clerks and two treasurers to consult. Before and after that stage there may be conflicting needs of the director of education, the headmaster and the manager (who should both be appointed some considerable time before opening day) to be reconciled. Fortunately there will probably only be one architect for

the scheme but he will have many points of view to reconcile. As one county architect put it "designing and building joint projects so far has been a story of exciting but nerve-racking improvisations and last minute decisions".

8.16 From a purely financial point of view the treasurer will find some difficulty in making a first estimate of the running costs of the scheme and in devising a satisfactory basis for allocating costs between the education authority and the district council. The following paragraph outlines some of the methods of apportioning costs which are at present in use. Simplicity is a virtue but sometimes cost sharing agreements can be based upon and to some extent be a by-product of proper management accounts.

8.17 Each authority is likely to bear its own debt charges whichever method of capital cost sharing is used (see paragraph 8.10); methods of sharing running expenses include:-

(i) Both the LEA and the district council bear a share of the running expenses of the centre based on usage but the income goes to the district council in full. Usage has commonly been equated to 40% to school and 60% to public for indoor facilities and 50/50 for outdoor facilities though variations have been agreed in a number of cases.

(ii) Both authorities share the net profit or loss of the centre on an agreed basis. This may be suitable where the district council is concerned at the risk of a substantial loss falling on the rates and the county is willing to underwrite that liability.

(iii) The district council bears all the running expenses and the LEA pays a charge for the use of the facilities, just like any other user, though as the major user it may negotiate a special rate. This is particularly appropriate for swimming baths where a charge per visit can readily be fixed.

(iv) The county council bears the costs which are attributable to school use and the district council (with or without the aid of the county council) bears the costs attributable to public use.

8.18 Reference has already been made to the fact that the majority of multi-purpose recreational schemes currently being developed are likely to be joint provision schemes to satisfy both educational and public recreational needs.

Both the education and the public recreational services will be the responsibility of the new metropolitan districts but there will be several county boroughs which, after 1st April, 1974, will no longer control the education service. It is hoped that this separation of functions will lead to more rather than fewer joint school/recreation schemes. Much has been and is being done to optimise the use of public buildings such as schools; it would be unfortunate if such a trend were to be reversed because of a change in the controlling authority for education (Institute of Municipal Treasurers and Accountants, 1973, 36-40).

APPENDIX 6.

DISTRICT COUNCIL CONFLICT WITH COUNTY COUNCIL OVER DUAL PROVISION SCHEMES

CONFIDENTIAL.

AMENITIES AND RECREATION COMMITTEE MEETING - 27th NOVEMBER, 1974.

REPORT OF CHIEF EXECUTIVE OFFICER AND SECRETARY

JOINT USE SCHEMES

1. Introduction

1.1 As Members are aware discussions have taken place between officers of the County Council and the District about joint use schemes in general and those under construction at Rudheath and Frodsham in particular. Attached is a report which goes into a number of aspects of these two projects. Also attached is a copy of the draft agreement relating to Rudheath which is significant for the details set out in the appendices.

1.2 There is cause for considerable concern about the situation which Vale Royal has inherited and it is important that Members should be aware of the implications of what is going on. These matters can be considered under a number of headings: the usefulness of the facilities, the cost, manpower implications and the role of members of Vale Royal District Council.

2. Usefulness of Facilities

2.1 The provision of facilities of this type obviously must have some degree of public benefit. Your officers have tried to assess the usefulness to the District and to the two areas in which the projects are located. In turn, these must be related to the cost.

2.2 Firstly, the provision of such facilities has not come about as a result of any assessment of need or policy decisions by the old councils or the new authority. The schemes are where they are and are being built when they are because the school building programme threw up these two opportunities.

2.3 As yet it has not been possible to prepare a comprehensive record of the leisure facilities within the District and its immediate surrounds. However, it is clear that both projects are of purely local significance unlike, for example, the Hartford/Moss Farm project. They are none the worse for that but this fact must be borne in mind when considering matters such as the cost to the community and staffing arrangements.

2.4 If the two projects are looked at as purely local facilities the precise justification for them is by no means apparent. Certainly, there is no evidence that there is any general shortage of leisure facilities in the two areas. In the case of Frodsham there is a need for a swimming pool but, of course, the Frodsham project does not provide one. One factor which is apparent is that to a greater or lesser extent both projects will compete with other local organisations already in existence.

2.5 An attempt has been made to assume in general terms the number of hours' use which the public are likely to take up on the two centres. As the facilities are local much will depend on how active the local community is and the position will of course depend on a whole range of factors including the weather, the charges and the existence of rival attractions. It is reasonable to assume that the likely maximum of hours' usage at each centre will be 1,800 per annum.

3. Cost

3.1 Against this background the cost factors are disturbing. It seems more than likely that the order of deficit arising from the Rudheath Centre which will have to be borne by the District would be £37,000 per annum and that relating to Frodsham, £35,000 per annum. These deficits would of course continue from one year to the next. Experience suggests that increase in costs over the years would not be matched by increases in income. Figures quoted can be broken down into the following particular headings:-

3.1.1 Rudheath

Expenditure

Salaries	-	£ 4,000
Wages	-	£18,000
Premises Etc.	-	£ 7,000
Debt Charges	-	£12,000
		£41,000
Less - Income from Charges		£ 4,000
Annual net deficit		£37,000

3.1.2 Frodsham

Expenditure

Salaries	-	£ 4,000
Wages	-	£18,000
Premises Etc.	-	£ 7,000
Debt Charges	-	£10,000
		£39,000
Less Income from Charges		£ 4,000
Annual net deficit		£35,000

3.2 The costs of course depend on a number of assumptions, in particular the way in which costs are shared with the County Council and the staff levels at each centre. However, as a general observation your officers must put on record their view that the public benefit to be derived from the two centres does not justify an annual cost of the order of £70,000/£80,000.

3.3 Division of costs with the County Council

The County Council in general terms seek to divide costs equally with the District (see draft agreement). They justify this view by arguing that the facilities are likely to be ayilable to the public for more hours than they are to the school. This point is arguable but even if conceded it does not necessarily follow that the District Council should bear half of these costs. As a general comment, the facilities are provided because the County Council want them there.

3.4 Staff Levels

The County Council's views are set out in the attached report. These figures have been derived from experience with other existing centres. However, the circumstances at those centres significantly differ in a number of ways. If any significant reduction in cost to the District is to be achieved some more modest way of managing the projects must be found. Two possibilities can be considered:-

3.4.1. Routing administrative work through the central amenities and recreation staff.

3.4.2. Providing manpower within buildings for all or part of the time through voluntary or part-time help.

3.5 Income

It is highly unlikely that income can be boosted to make the centres self-sufficient. However, every reasonable attempt should be made to get as much as possible. This factor should be borne in mind when decisions are being made as to whether or not to provide facilities such as a licensed bar. It is of course also relevant when considering the level of charges to be imposed.

4. Manpower implications

4.1 The thinking of the County Council appears to assume that all such centres throughout the county will to a large extent be self-contained. Your officers however see joint use facilities as part of the pattern of recreation facilities provided by the authority. Starting from this premise the staff should clearly be an integral part of the department and not a number of largely autonomous groups of employees working in premises owned by another authority. If an attempt is to be made to economies on the use of permanent staff it would probably be preferable that only a minimum number of staff should be specifically allocated to the individual centres.

4.2 As Members will observe from the report, the County's view is that the manager's post should carry the salary of AP4/5. This clearly would have direct implications for other staff employed by the authority and in particular other staff working in the recreational field. The County also apparently envisage that the manager should be a teacher. Your officers are not convinced of the merits of this argument.

5. Role of Members

The views of your officers are again influenced by the view that joint use facilities should be seen as one of the larger amenities and recreation services. It is possible that over the years quite a number of such facilities would be provided within Vale Royal. In any event they should be managed as part of an overall strategy and the role of members is therefore crucial i.e. any decisions to set up autonomous management committees could work against the need for a co-ordinated approach and this tendency must be heightened if there is to be a separate management committee for each project. In turn the risk is magnified if a large proportion of the members of these management committees were to be non-local authority members. From this point of view the best solution might well be a Joint Use Sub-Committee of the Amenities and Recreation Committee to which other organisations could appoint representatives. It must not be overlooked that the responsibility for the successful operation of the centres will be that of the District Council - theirs must therefore be the control.

6. Conclusions

6.1 This report is inevitably expressed in broad terms. However, your officers feel that it is important that these major problems should be the subject of Member level attention at this stage. Our conclusion is that the degree of public benefit to be derived from the two projects does not justify a continuing deficit of the size anticipated.

6.2 If Members accept that there is at least some merit in the arguments contained in this report it is recommended that the following matters should be pursued:-

6.2.1 The committee should consider very carefully whether they wish to enter into formal, binding agreements with the County Council at this stage.

6.2.2 That the County Council be asked to renegotiate the basis of cost sharing.

6.2.3. That as much as possible of the administrative and managerial functions arising from the centres should be carried out from the central department at Vale Royal.

6.2.4 That attempts should be made to arrange the staffing of the centres using part-time local power.

6.2.5 That the County Council should be informed that Vale Royal do not wish to see a proliferation of management committees.

6.2.6 That as soon as possible a survey should be carried out by amenities and recreation staff of all recreational facilities in both the public and private sectors to assess and define any deficiences.

Clearly there will be a major role in this exercise for voluntary organisations and in particular for the Sports Council.

6.3 Members may wish to consider holding a special meeting to discuss the joint use situation in more detail.

* * * * *

Chief Executive Officer and Secretary

VALE ROYAL DISTRICT COUNCIL

KMRJ/CD.

Over Hall,
Beeston Drive,
WINSFORD,
Cheshire.

To the Chairman and Members of the Amenities and Recreation Committee

21st November, 1974.

Mr. Chairman, Ladies and Gentlemen,

Joint Community Provision

Prior to re-organisation a number of projects were planned involving co-operation, between one or more of the four merging authorities and Cheshire County Council, in the provision of sport, leisure or community facilities at various schools throughout the district.

Since the 1st April, 1974 I have been involved in meetings with County Council Staff regarding these projects and the more I have become involved the more I realise the problems which require to be resolved. Two projects are at an advanced stage of building and are in fact due for completion early in the new year and there are many problems connected with these, which must be resolved as soon as possible. If these problems are not resolved quickly the facilities will be available for use and will be able to be used by the schools but not by the public.

I am of the opinion that the Council must now decide the policy which they wish to adopt for the management and running of these buildings and this policy can then be adopted for similar schemes which are now planned or proposed in the future.

The two centres in course of construction are:-

(1) Rudheath Leisure Centre, which is part of the Rudheath County Secondary School. This centre will comprise in the first phase a Sports Hall with changing accommodation, a village room, committee room/library, kitchen, social area, administrative area and store rooms, with use of the hard play area.

(2) Frodsham Sports Centre, which is part of the Frodsham County Secondary School. This centre will comprise a Sports Hall, with changing accommodation, two squash courts, refreshment bar, social area administrative offices, store rooms, drama workshop, with use of tennis courts, hard play areas and gymnasium.

The various items which require to be discussed and resolved include, management, staffing, public use, income, expenditure, provision of furniture and equipment, hours of opening etc., details of which are attached.

I recently attended a meeting of Rudheath Parish Council, who had agreed to contribute to the scheme at Rudheath and they expressed concern that they had not been kept informed of the progress of the scheme and they have asked that a meeting of the Management Committee should be called at an early date.

I should be pleased if consideration could not be given to the various items attached and decisions made so that advertisements can be placed for staff, orders placed for furniture and equipment and systems set up for the control of income and expenditure, so that the buildings will be available for use by the public when the building work is complete.

Yours faithfully,

K.M.R. JARDINE

Amenities and Recreation Officer

VALE ROYAL DISTRICT COUNCIL

Amenities and Recreation Department

JOINT COMMUNITY PROVISION

1) Management

In similar joint use schemes throughout the County the management of the facilities have been under the control of a Joint Management Committee. The constitution and functions of such a committee are contained in the agreement, which is drawn up between the County Council and the District Council(s) involved in the project. This Committee would act through a Manager, who would be appointed, on the recommendation of the Joint Management Committee, by the District Council and whose duties would also be contained in the agreement, when this was drawn up. The Clerk of the District Council should act as Secretary to the Joint Management Committee.

Draft agreements were prepared by the County Council for both the Rudheath and Frodsham Centres, but have not been signed. These agreements have not been considered by Vale Royal District Council. A Joint Management Committee was set up for the Rudheath Centre but this last met on 3rd January, 1974. At a meeting of the Amenities and Recreation Committee on 4th September, 1974 it was resolved that Councillors Morris and Lydon, who had been appointed by Northwich Rural District Council and Northwich Urban District Council respectively to the Joint Management Committee, remain on the Committee as representatives of Vale Royal District Council.

Since re-organisation and the advent of these and other centres in the future it has been clear that a proliferation of Joint Management Committees would take up Members and Officers time, which could be ill-afforded, and would be expensive to operate. In addition, with the setting up of an Amenities and Recreation Department, and an Amenities and Recreation Committee, these centres could be adequately supervised by that Department and Committee. The County view is that Joint Management Committees for each centre are useful and necessary. Their experience has shown that it has been valuable to have members from the School and local community who were aware of the problems of particular centres.

It is of fundamental importance that a decision is made, whether or not a Joint Management Committee is set up, bearing in mind the contributions which are to be made, particularly at Rudheath by the Parish Council and the Memorial Hall Committee. This decision is of particular importance amongst the main functions of such a committee would be :-

a) To recommend to the County and District Councils on the appointment of a Manager.

b) To recommend to the County and District Councils on the appointment of all requisite staff employed in the centres.

c) To be responsible for policy matters affecting the centres, subject to the decisions from time to time of the County and District Council.

d) To supervise and control expenditure within the financial estimates approved by both Councils and subject also to the financial regulations of the County or District Council as appropriate.

e) To be responsible through the Manager for the running and maintenance of the centres.

It has been suggested that the Manager and other staff could be appointed to the County Staff and this would be considered further as a last resort. I cannot agree with this viewpoint as it concerns me that the District Council would not have much control over the facilities for which they are contributing a large sum of money. I would also be concerned that the public in certain circumstances could be deprived of the use of the facilities when these are solely managed by a body other than the District Council. If this was to be accepted this would then divorce these centres from other recreation facilities and functions operated by the District Council, which could be to the detriment of individuals and clubs who would use these centres, as well as the District Council.

2) Staffing

Considerable discussion has taken place, in the past, with County Council Officers, over the provision of staff for these centres. The County lay down, what they consider to be, the staff which is required to run these centres efficiently, though these vary in number, depending on the size and type of facilities. The staff which the County think should be employed at these centres and the breakdown of what each authority would pay towards their salaries or wages is as follows:-

Staff employed and paid by Vale Royal

Manager	(50% of salary to be recovered from County)
Assistant Manager	(" " " " ")
Receptionist	
Clerk/Typist	
Attendants/Supervisors	(5% of wages to be recovered from County)
Cleaners	(50% " " " " ")

Staff employed and paid by County

School Keeper (50% of wages payable to County)
(Weekends only)

School Cleaners (" " " ")

Discussions with the County revealed that their view was that because of the close link with the school, the Manager should come from the teaching profession and that Grade AP 4/5 was about the right grade for this. They claimed that experience elsewhere had shown that anything less did not produce acceptable applicants. I cannot accept this view on two counts:-

a) I would hope that these centres would be look on as leisure centres covering various aspects of leisure and not used solely for sport, and therefore a Manager from the teaching profession might not be ideal.

b) To pay the Manager AP 4/5 will present difficulties with existing staff in Public Halls and Baths who are not on this grade for doing similar jobs.

This really comes back to the Council's philosphy for the use of the centre and this must be settled before staffing can be sensibly discussed. If the centre was to be solely dependent on Club use the staffing input could be reduced. I would not like to see this, nor would Rudheath Parish Council. If on the other hand the policy was to be one of maximum individual use it may be that the centres would not be used to their fullest extent. The ideal, in my estimation would be a mixture of club and individual use, and experience suggests that to do this a full time Manager plus two other assistants would be required.

One point which must be made is that the Manager and his staff must be seen to be managing the centre for both District Recreation and Leisure Use and County Education Use. I would question whether we should regard either of these centres as warranting maximum staff input, and I think that it is essential to be very critical of staffing levels if these centres are to break even and not be heavily subsidised from the rates.

Until a decision is made over the hours that these centres will be open to the public it is difficult to estimate the number of staff who will be required, but it would appear that if maximum use of the centres is to be achieved, the following staff may be required, at each centre:-

2 Managers	One at each centre
3 Assistant Managers	One at each centre and one to act as cover at either centre for days off, holidays, sickness and abnormal hours.

4 Cashiers/Receptionists	To part time at each centre
2 Clerk/Typists	One at each centre. Both Part time, say 20 hours per week.
4 Cleaners	Two at each centre. Both part time as required.

Extra part time attendants may also be required when the centres are open all day to the public for example the school summer holidays, but these could perhaps be students.

If it is decided, at a later date, to have licensed bars, staff would also be required to staff the bars.

The wages for the manual staff would be equivalent to those paid to existing staff in the Councils present recreational facilities.

3) Public Use/Hours of Opening

Both of these centres will be available for public use from 6.00 p.m. each weekday, from 12 noon each Saturday and from 9.00 a.m. each Sunday during term time. During non term time the centres will be available from 9.00 a.m. each day. The Council can decide at what hour the centres should close but experience in other areas has shown that depending on the demand and the varying functions which could take place, 11.00 p.m. is not unreasonable.

As suggested previously, it is hoped that both clubs and individuals will be attracted to the centres. It is felt that no restrictions should be placed on either and that a Manager will have much more freedom to programme the running of the facilities if this is done.

Some centres have formed user committees who are in a position to advise and assist the Manager and/or Management Committee on the running of the centre and these have proved invaluable.

The question of whether the centres are in fact to be open every day, along with whether both clubs and individuals are to be allowed the use of the centre requires to be resolved.

4) Income

The Financial Controller's Department are producing a report on the estimated income which will require to be included in this report before it is considered by the Committee.

Before the centres can be opened for public use, systems must be set up, in conjunction with the Chief Internal Auditor for the control of income, security of cash etc. The prices which will have to be charged for the use of facilities at the centres will require to be agreed by the Council as well as the Management Committee. All income from the public, including snack bar and vending machine receipts is retained by the District Council and of course must be under the control of the Council's Audit Section.

I can quickly prepare a list of suggested charges for consideration, and I would suggest that this is done at an early date so that tickets can be ordered well in advance of the opening date. I should be pleased to have instructions as to whether this should be presented to the Management Committee for their comments before it is presented to the Amenities and Recreation Committee.

5) Expenditure

The Financial Controller's Department are preparing a short report on the estimated expenditure and this will require to be included in this report before it is considered by the Committee.

Expenditure relating solely to the public use of the centres are charged entirely to the District Council. The remaining annual net maintenance costs of the centres are borne in equal shares between the County Council and the District Council, but the Draft agreements which are in force allow that as from the 1st of April next, after the date when a joint facility has been in use for a full twelve months and at annual intervals thereafter, the percentages shall, unless otherwise agreed between the two authorities, be adjusted to correspond with the percentages of time such facilities have been available exclusively for County educational use and for public use respectively.

The actual expenditure and income in any year or period of a year must be agreed by the Treasurers of the two authorities.

In the draft agreement it is laid down that in the case of the Rudheath Centre only the District Council is free to negotiate such contributions towards its share of the maintenance costs from Rudheath Parish Council and the Rudheath Memorial Hall Committee as may be agreed with them. At the recent meeting of the Rudheath Parish Council, which I attended I understand that both the Council and the Memorial Hall Committee were prepared to contribute a lump sum towards the cost of the Rudheath Centre but not to have to contribute to the annual maintenance costs, and I think this requires to be clarified. I take it that no similar approach has been made to Northwich Town Council, and I would suggest that this be considered.

I have previously mentioned the breakdown on the costs of salaries and wages. The following is a breakdown of the other main items of maintenance costs, as the County see it, but I am given to understand that this is open to negotiation:-

(a) Paid by County with the percentage re-charged to Vale Royal District Council :

Electricity	50%	50%
Water	50%	50%
Fuel Oil	50%	50%
Cleaning Materials	50%	50%
Insurance	50%	50%
Rates	50%	50%

(b) Paid by District with the percentage re-charged to County

Furniture and equipment (Public Use)	100%	Nil
Catering	100%	Nil
Postage/Telephone	50%	50%
Sundries	100%	Nil
Instructors Fees	100%	Nil
Debt Management	100%	Nil
Loan Interest	100%	Nil

I certainly do not agree with all of these. For instance, the electricity and fuel are not metered separately, and it could arise that we are paying for heating and lighting in other than the centres. I trust that these items will be carefully considered before a firm agreement is drawn up.

6) Provision of Furniture and Equipment

If these centres are to be in use by the public soon after they are completed it is becoming increasingly urgent that orders are placed at a very early date. The District Council are responsible for ordering all furniture for use in the public use side of the centres. This will include office furniture which I take it can be ordered through the usual channels. Other furniture and fittings, kitchen equipment, crockery and many items of sports equipment must also be ordered, and I would like authority to put this in hand as soon as possible.

It may be that temporary staff from the County or from my department could be made available to staff the centres until staff are appointed, but if the furniture and equipment was not available there would be no point in opening. The County have already made it clear that the school equipment cannot be used by the public.

I have a draft check list of all furniture and equipment which will be required at these centres, and it is imperative that this be considered in the near future.

KMRJ/CD
21st November, 1974
Over Hall, Winsford

APPENDIX 7.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR RESOLUTION OF COUNTY-DISTRICT COUNCIL CONFLICT OVER DUAL PROVISION SCHEMES

Report: Rudheath and Frodsham Joint Provision Schemes.

A. Brief Résumé of the Situation

Draft agreements re the Joint Provision of the Frodsham and Rudheath centres between Cheshire C.C. and Vale Royal D.C., proposed by the former have not yet been signed. Delay in consideration and subsequent signing of these agreements has been caused by doubts as to the desirability and viability of certain facets of the proposed agreement, viz:

1. Joint Management Committees.
2. Centre Manager Terms of Reference.
3. Centre Management Structure.
4. Centre Philosphy - Function - Programming.
5. Income - Expenditure - Division of Capital Costs and Maintenance.

The views of the Chief Executive Officer and Secretary and the Amenities and Recreation Officer regarding these facets have been noted and subsequent recommendations made in the light of developments and experiences in Joint Provision schemes in the North West and the East and West Midlands.

B. Recommendations

1. Joint Management Committees

1.1. The need for centralized control over indoor recreation facilities in order to facilitate systematisation of equipment purchase, auditing, supplies, maintenance, specialist facility centres and a coordinated facility hierarchy strategy etc. is acknowledged.

1.2. The formation of a discrete J.M.C. for each centre is strongly advocated in order that the catchment area's needs be efficiently elicited and catered for within the programming. Each centre should be encouraged to develop its own individual character within the broad guidelines delineated by the Amenities and Recreation Dept. Although this will necessitate a certain proliferation of J.M.C's, the formulation of an appropriate committee structure can obviate undue work by certain councillors.

1.3. It is considered advisable that, in addition to the presence of the D.C. councillors, a J.M.C. should consist of School Governors, User Groups representatives and a

Recreation and Amenities Dept. representative, in addition to the Headmaster and the Manager of the centre - the latter two as ex-officio members. The Users' representative should not emerge until such time as the Manager initiates the centres' various systems. It is recommended that the members representing the D.C. be balanced numerically by representatives from the school and centre.

2. Centre Manager Terms of Reference

2.1. The terms of reference for the Manager are determined by the philosophy and function of the centre. The latter is a community education institution containing recreation facilities of a largely, although by no means exclusive, sporting orientation. The Manager should thus be capable of administrating within this environment. The liaison between the Headmaster, Head of Physical Education (and other jointly used facility staff) and the Manager is of critical importance in the smooth functioning of the centre. If this tripartite relationship is successful it can obviate the majority of management problems, thus reducing the strain on the J.M.C. For these reasons it is considered that the Manager should be familiar with, and sympathetic to, the problems of education in addition to having a wide concept of recreation including Further Education, The Arts and Sport. In addition, it is essential that any prospective Manager should have undergone a professional recreation management course; N.E.B.S.S., M.Sc., or D.M.S.

2.2. A Manager possessing such a curriculum vitae will exhibit the flair and entrepreneurial ability necessary to make the centre flourish both as a viable economic proposition and as a centre of community recreation. In order to acquire personnel of this calibre, it will be necessary to appoint on the AP5 scale, which is the mean national base line salary for Managers of this type. It is to be noted that where Managers supervise during school hours, as is inevitable, the salary is paid by the County Council and the District Council on a 50-50 basis.

3. Centre Management Structure

3.1. As in the case of the Manager, the second and third tiers of management are dependent upon the philosophy of the centre. If, as is recommended in the following section, the hours are made more flexible and extended at certain times, 100 hours/week of supervision will be required necessitating three management personnel including the Manager.

3.2. The second tier, Assistant Manager, appointed on the AP3 scale, would have responsibility for administration and catering (including the bar). The terms of reference would coincide in many instances with those of the Manager and it is

desirable that the appointee possess the N.E.B.S.S. certificate or its equivalent in recreation management.

3.3. At the third tier it is possible to both reduce the salary scale as well as invest in potential Manager material. A Senior Attendant or Sports Hall Manager will in essence be a trainee Manager who is young and thus does not possess any professional qualifications in management. Appointment could be on the Miscellaneous Grades and the terms of reference would include coaching, programming, maintenance and supervision within the sporting sector of the centre. This appointment will necessitate careful selection as their potential will have to be accurately assessed at an early age. The possession of coaching awards and experience within physical recreation would be required. The Senior Attendant can be assisted in his duties by a sports hall attendant.

3.4. The three tiers of centre management can adequately supervise a full programme efficiently. It is also recommended that the Amenities and Leisure Dept. encourage and facilitate the professional advancement of both the Senior Attendant and his assistant via the acquisition of professional coaching and management qualifications.

4. Centre Philosophy - Function - Programming

4.1. Official Opening Hours:- In accordance with the objectives of offering optimum service whilst attaining financial viability, the centre's opening hours should, dependent upon the tripartite relationship alluded to earlier, exceed the estimated total of 1800 per annum considerably. With the incorporation of senior citizen, housewives and shift worker activities at a minimal level during school hours together with school holidays and weekends, 50 hours/week - 2600 hours/year is a realist and widely achieved usage estimate. Revenue will naturally increase accordingly. The implementation of the community centre philosphy serving a catchment area of 15-25 thousand via imaginative management can facilitate optimum usage of available hours.

4.2. Programme:- In accordance with the overall Recreation and Amenities Dept. strategy outlined in 1.1. and 1.2., general guidelines will be established in such areas as general philosophy and in the development of centre specialisation in certain activities to facilitate complementary as opposed to duplicatory programmes. The programme will be determined in the final analysis by the needs and socio-demographic determinants of the centre's catchment area population and the existence of other facilities within the vicinity. The mix of club, instructional courses and casual usage should be balanced to innovate the inactive recreational potential of the area, not merely provide an upgraded venue for already existing clubs. Thus, external club usage

must be kept to a maximum of 20%, and instructional courses offered to generate the centre's own clubs. Casual usage should be given maximum consideration in programming. The general function of the centre should be one of a "pump-primer" generating "spin-off" both to its own clubs and also to other facilities in the area such as youth clubs, church halls and even the home.
The general overall objective of the management will be to optimize the balance between programming on the one hand and user demand and financial return on the other via the efficient control of the centre's various systems.

5. Income - Expenditure - Division of Capital Costs and Maintenance

5.1. Income:- The potential income of the centres has been grossly underestimated. It is dependent to a great degree upon the expertise and competence of the management team and the J.M.C. The manner in which timetabling and programming can encourage greater patronage, and thus income, have already been outlined. A survey of similar centres' estimated income, actual incomes and surplus, reveal the following figures:

Facility	Estimated Income	Actual Income	Mean Surplus
Sports Hall and Ancillary Rooms	£5,000	£8,400)	
Outdoor Facilities(+ lights)	£ 800	£1,500)	£5,500
Bar and Catering	£3,300	£5,000)	

It is to be noted that these estimates do not include two squash courts which, from recent surveys, can be expected to produce at 1/3rd capacity usage a minimum of £1,200 p.a. The exclusion of bar facilities at the Rudheath Centre will be a major factor in reducing its potential to generate and foster community spirit, facilitate cross-fertilization of interests and achieve a satisfactory income. Entry and activity scale of charges and membership schemes should not be arbitrarily imposed but determined by estimated usage and income, population characteristics and national figures.

5.2. Expenditure - Division of Capital Costs and Maintenance:-

The most frequently employed capital expenditure division of costs ratio is 60:40 or 70:30; 50:50 is therefore a satisfactory proposal. Subsequent replacement, repair and maintenance is commonly on a 50:50 basis converting to a proportional sharing determined by hours of usage. The expenditure relating solely to public use and normally borne by the D.C. is minimal provided that liaison for the joint use of educational equipment is established by the management. Reciprocal sharing of certain equipment creates a harmonious management climate and assists in a greater range of activities being available both to the public and school populations. It is not, therefore, common practice

for educational and council provided equipment to be mutually exclusive in usage or provision. It is strongly advised that the Manager determines, in consultation with the school, the equipment that is to be purchased.

6. Concluding Recommendations

The policy of joint provision is intended to make available facilities for sport and recreation in as economic a way as possible for the community as a whole. Joint provision means joint use. An honest look at all aspects of the total provision including plant and staff has to be taken. Good-will between partners and a determination to make the project succeed fully are fundamental requirements.

6.1. A single J.M.C. be responsible for the administration of the centre.

6.2. Local (as opposed to parochial) users should be appointed to the J.M.C.

6.3. The J.M.C. should express clearly the advantages of the project and the responsibilities and duties of all partners.

6.4. Periods of use be settled prior to agreement and thus written into it.

6.5. Caretaking staff payment should be on a negotiable salary structure incentive bonus not on a basic wage plus letting fee.

6.6. Continuous cleaning should be considered.

6.7. The Manager is the J.M.C's representative to the public, integrating both educational and recreative functions. He or she should have the management expertise to coordinate all the systems of the centre and create an environment where "true" recreation can occur.

6.8. General Comment: There is much that county and education authorities often provide in services that cannot be written into an agreement. These advantages should not be overlooked when the joint scheme is being considered although it may appear at times as if the authority is driving a hard bargain. Accepting that there is good will on both sides, the management agreement is the heart of a successfully functioning project. A clear understanding of advantages, responsibilities and duties should be delineated within it, viz:-

6.8.1. The statutory basis of the agreement, i.e. the powers being exercised by the partners to the agreement.

6.8.2. Which party owns the land.

6.8.3. Definition of which party is to act for the other in architectural and design matters.

6.8.4. Where the responsibility for the supervision of users of the facilities lies at any one time.

6.8.5. Technical description of the facilities to be provided.

6.8.6. Definition of single and joint financial responsibilities, i.e. raising of capital, apportionment of running costs, receipts and disposal of income, and other areas of single responsibilities.

6.8.7. Arrangements for the continuous review of the agreement with a view to desirable amendments.

6.8.8. The usage hours of the facilities to be agreed by the partners plus a flexibility clause subject to school and J.M.C. sanction.

6.8.9. Definition of insurance responsibilities, i.e. which party to be responsible for employer's insurance, public liability, insurance of property and third party cover.

6.8.10. Constitution and power of the J.M.C., including membership functions and powers.

6.8.11. Procedure for disputes between partners.

J.J. Shuttleworth

15.1.1975.

APPENDIX 8

SOURCES OF DATA

Documentary evidence appertaining to the organisation of community colleges and their community education and recreation departments was obtained from the following sources: Liverpool Education Department, Youth and Community Sub-Department and Netherley Comprehensive Community School; Lancashire Education Department, Blackburn Education Department and the Shadsworth Centre; Walsall Education Department, Recreation and Amenities Department, Social Services Department, Further and Higher Education, Borough Council, Census Bureau and the Alumwell Centre; Coventry Education Department, Sub-Department of Community Education and Sidney Stringer Community College; Leicester Education Department and Countesthorpe College; Gwent Department of Education and Recreation; Nottinghamshire Education Department and the Sutton Centre; Milton Keynes Development Corporation, Bletchley Recreation Department and Stantonbury Community College Bletchley; Association of Metropolitan Authorities Westminster London; Wirral Metropolitan Borough Departments of Education, Leisure Services, Social Services and Executive Administration; Flintshire Education Department and Rhyl High School; Telford Development Corporation and the Court Centre Madeley; British Council of Physical Education; the North West Sports Council, the West Midlands Sports Council and The Sports Council's Technical Unit; the National Playing Fields Association London; the London resource centres of the Ministry of Housing and Local Government, the Department of the Environment,

and the Department of Education and Science; the Schools Council; Manchester Education Department and the Abraham Moss Centre; Deeside Recreation Department; The Sports Council for Wales; Cheshire County Council Planning Department and Education Department; Vale Royal District Council Planning Department and Recreation and Amenities Department; Knowlsley District Council Education, Youth and Community, and Recreation Departments and the Bridgefield Forum; the Birmingham University National Documentation Centre, and Centre for Urban and Regional Studies; Central London Polytechnic Built Environment Research Group; and Trent Polytechnic Department of Urban and Regional Planning.

Interviews were conducted with the following personnel: R.D. Nixon Director of Education for Walsall Metropolitan Borough, K. Wardell Principle Officer responsible for evening institute and adult education in Walsall M.B., J. Ferguron Assistant Education Officer responsible for community education in Walsall M.B., J.M.Cox and E.M. Hughes the successive headmasters of the Alumwell Centre, D. Denton the Director of School and Community Activities at the centre, D. Fabian and K. Russell Deputy-Directors at the centre, D. Noble Head of the Physical Education Department at the centre, J. Heaton secretary-treasurer of the Alumwell Community Association, E. Alison a local Walsall councillor and member or chairman of divers educational and/or recreation committees; J. Rennie Director of Community Education for Coventry; G. Holroyde Headmaster of Sidney Stringer Community College; J. Watts Principal of Countesthorpe College; A.H. Fairbairn Director of Education for Leicestershire, B. Godding Principle Officer responsible for

community education in Leicestershire; P. Sykes Director of Recreation for Blackburn, J. Hudson Senior Assistant Education Officer for Community Services, D.L. Edmondson Principal of the Shadsworth Centre, G. Baldwin Manager of Community Services at the Shadsworth Centre; R. Mitson Principal of the Abraham Moss Centre Manchester; J.A. Stone Director of Education for Nottinghamshire, S. Wilson Principal of the Sutton Centre, K. Harlow Recreation Manager at the Sutton Centre; W.G. Dear Secretary of the British Council of Physical Education; G. Cooksey Principal of Stantonbury Community College; J. English Director of the Canon Hill Arts Centre and Trust Birmingham; G. Torkildsen Director of Recreation for Harlow and consultant in conjunction with R. Pickering in recreation planning and management; J. Munn Director of Recreation for Gwent Authority; G. Gearing Director of Recreation for Deeside District Council; B. Barnes Director of Leisure Services for the Wirral M.B. J.M. Sadler West Midlands Sports Council; B. Stevens and C. Pollett North West Sports Council; R. Morgan the Sports Council for Wales; M. Collins Technical Unit for Sport of the Sports Council; P. Bell Manager of the Court Centre Madeley; G. Jones Director of Recreation for Bletchley; R. Tibbott Recreation Development Officer for Warrington New Town Development Corporation; T. Jones Recreation Manager of the Bridgefield Forum; N. Jennings Recreation Planning Officer for Milton Keynes Development Corporation; D.J.Woodman Director of Recreation and Countryside Planning for Cheshire County Council; R. Maw Research Director of the Built Environment Research Group; K.M.R. Jardine Director of Recreation and Amenities for Vale Royal District Council and D. Garrett Chief Planning Officer for the same authority; K. Sanderson Headmaster of Rhyl High School;

and C. Jenkinson Head of the Further Education Department at Netherley Community School.

APPENDIX 9.

QUESTIONNAIRE SURVEY

Liverpool Polytechnic,
Physical Education Department,
(Recreation Management).

USER SURVEY OF THE ALUMWELL CENTRE

Questionnaire No.	

Day of week	
Time of arrival	
Time of departure	

This survey is being carried out by the Management of the Alumwell Centre to find out who is using the centre and how its facilities are being used. YOUR ANSWERS WILL BE USED TO FIND WAYS TO IMPROVE THE ALUMWELL CENTRE AND TO ENSURE THAT WHEN OTHER CENTRES ARE BEING BUILT THEY CAN BE PLANNED TO GIVE MAXIMUM BENEFIT TO YOU AND THE PEOPLE OF WALSALL.

They will be used for statistical purposes only and our staff will be pleased to answer any questions you may have about the questionnaire.

HAVE YOU FILLED IN ONE OF THESE QUESTIONNAIRES ON A PREVIOUS VISIT?

Yes	
No	

if YES, please answer PARTS 1 and 2 ONLY and enter the number shown on your previous receipt card

If you have forgotten it, please answer the WHOLE questionnaire.

PLEASE TICK THE BOX WHICH APPLIES

P A R T 1

1. What is your MAIN REASON for coming to the ALUMWELL today?

To play or take part in COMMUNITY ASSOCIATION ACTIVITIES	
To take part in EVENING INSTITUTE COURSES.....	
To take part in YOUTH CLUB ACTIVITIES.....	
To WATCH/SPECTATE COMMUNITY ACTIVITIES, e.g. as an audience.....	
To BRING or COLLECT friends or family.....	
To use the PLAY GROUP-CRECHE.....	
To MEET people at the BAR or CAFETERIA.....	

2. If you are taking part in COMMUNITY ASSOCIATION ACTIVITIES, which is the MAIN ACTIVITY you are going to do?
Please name it and give the correct name: e.g. Junior or Senior Judo, Junction 10 Swimming Club or Swimming mothers/ toddlers, etc.

3. Are you doing it:

INDOORS	
OUTDOORS	

4. If you are taking part in EVENING INSTITUTE courses, which is the MAIN COURSE you are taking part in?
Please name it:

5. If you are going to the YOUTH CLUB, what is the MAIN ACTIVITY you have come to take part in?
Please name it and give the correct name: e.g. Badminton, Disco Senior or Junior, Youth Club General or Junior, etc:

6. HOW LONG have you spent actually doing your main community association activity, youth club activity or evening institute course during this visit?

.....hrs.....mins.

7. Before the Alumwell opened, were you doing your main community association activity, youth club activity or evening institute course ELSEWHERE?

Yes	
No	

7.1. WHERE did you do it?

Name.....

Address.....

7.2. Are you STILL DOING it there?

Yes	
No	

8. Where did you FIRST START doing your main community association activity, youth club activity or evening institute course?

at school.....	
at Alumwell.....	
at another centre.....	
at a sports club.....	
at a youth club.....	
at an evening class.....	
at a University or College	
in the Services.....	
elsewhere.....	

9. Have you taken part in ANY OTHER community association activity, youth club activity or evening institute course during this visit?

Yes	
No	

If YES, please name it:

10. Has your main community association activity, youth club activity or evening institute course CHANGED during your visits to the centre?

Yes	
No	

11. Are you attending today:

11.1. On an EVENING INSTITUTE COURSE or as a member of an ACTIVITIES INSTRUCTIONAL or COACHING GROUP?

Yes	
No	

11.2. As a member of a regularly organised CLUB, TEAM or GROUP ACTIVITY (not included above)

Yes	
No	

11.3. As an INDIVIDUAL user by yourself or with a friend(s) (not included above)

Yes	
No	

12. Are you doing your activity:

12.1. In a FRIENDLY MATCH or just good FUN? Yes ☐ No ☐

12.2. In an organised LEAGUE MATCH? Yes ☐ No ☐

If YES, are you: at HOME ☐ or AWAY ☐

13. Are you attending the Alumwell today:

with FRIENDS..... ☐
with members of your FAMILY ☐
with BOTH FRIENDS AND FAMILY ☐
on YOUR OWN..... ☐

14. If you are with your FAMILY, are you with your:

father..... ☐
mother..... ☐
father and mother..... ☐
husband/wife..... ☐
children..... ☐
brothers, sisters..... ☐
uncles, aunts..... ☐

15. Are you a currently paid up MEMBER of the Alumwell Community Association (i.e. do you possess a valid membership card)?

Yes ☐ No ☐

16. Are you a member of the COMMUNITY COUNCIL (i.e. a USER representative)?

Yes ☐ No ☐

17. Are you CONNECTED with the SCHOOL as a:

pupil	
ex-pupil	
teacher	
other school staff and employees	
parent	
a Governor, member of General Management Committee or Local Government official	

18. During this visit are you USING:

the CAFETERIA	Yes	
	No	
the VENDING MACHINES	Yes	
	No	
the BAR	Yes	
	No	

19. How many VISITS have you made to the Alumwell in the past 7 days?

None	
1	
2	
3	
4	
5	
6	
7	
8 or more	

if NONE, have you been within the last:

fortnight	
month	
3 months	
year	
never been before	

PART 2

1. How did you TRAVEL to the Alumwell today?

on foot only.....	
bicycle.....	
motor bike.....	
car.....	
bus.....	
train.....	

2. Have you come to the Alumwell:

directly from HOME.....	
directly from WORK.....	
directly from SCHOOL or COLLEGE	
directly from a FRIEND'S HOME...	
ELSEWHERE.....	

3. Please write the ADDRESS you have just COME FROM; do NOT write the number, only the street, work or college name:

street, work college

town or district

4. HOW LONG did it take you to get to the Alumwell?

Less than 7 mins.....	
7-12 mins.....	
13-22 mins.....	
23-32 mins.....	
33-42 mins.....	
43-52 mins.....	
53-62 mins.....	
over 62 mins.....	

5. Will you be GOING:

Straight HOME.....	
Straight to WORK.....	
Straight to SCHOOL or COLLEGE...	
To a friend's HOME.....	
To a PUB.....	
ELSEWHERE.....	

6. Please write the ADDRESS you are GOING TO; do NOT write the number, only the street, work, college or pub name.

street, work, college, pub

town or district

7. Please write your HOME ADDRESS; do NOT write your house number, only the street name:

street

town or district

PART 3

1. Do you OWN or HAVE the USE of a CAR? Yes / No

2. Does your HOUSEHOLD (including yourself) OWN:

one CAR.....
two CARS.....
more than two CARS.....
DON'T have a CAR.....

3. Are you: Male / Female

4. Are you: Married / Single / Widowed

5. If you have left school or college, please write the age at which you finished FULL TIME EDUCATION: .....

6. Please enter your PRESENT AGE: to the nearest year .....

7. The JOB a person does often affects the TYPE OF RECREATION he or she takes part in, so we would like a few brief details about your occupation for statistical purposes only.

7.1. Are you:

in FULL time employment...
in PART time employment...
a HOUSEWIFE.....
at SCHOOL.....
at UNIVERSITY OR COLLEGE..
RETIRED.....
UNEMPLOYED.....

7.2. If you are EMPLOYED, please briefly describe your job:

If you are at school, please describe your FATHER'S job:

If you are a housewife, please describe your HUSBAND'S job:

7.3. Are you SELF employed.. ☐
an EMPLOYEE..... ☐
a FOREMAN/SUPERVISOR... ☐
MANAGING DIRECTOR..... ☐
other..... ☐

WRITE ANY COMMENTS you may wish to make:

1. on the EXISTING FACILITIES at the Alumwell Centre, including ways you think they could be improved:

2. on ADDITIONAL or NEW FACILITIES you would like to see in the Alumwell Centre or in the immediate area:

3. on the MANAGEMENT of the Alumwell Centre and the PROGRAMME of community association activities, youth club activities, and evening institute courses which it offers; include NEW ACTIVITIES you would like to see offered.

THANK YOU FOR TAKING THE TROUBLE TO ANSWER THIS QUESTIONNAIRE.

YOUR HELP IS APPRECIATED. PLEASE HAND IN YOUR COMPLETED QUESTIONNAIRE AND KEEP YOUR RECEIPT CARD FOR THE NEXT 7 DAYS.

APPENDIX 10

ALUMWELL CENTRE CASE STUDY

APPENDIX 10

ALUMWELL CENTRE CASE STUDY

(a) Child welfare classes - In co-operation with the health service, classes in dressmaking are organised at certain child welfare centres.

(b) Walsall Guild of Social Services - The Committee support the work of the Guild appointing teachers for a number of afternoon classes organised chiefly for old persons.

(c) Other voluntary organisations - The Committee co-operates with the W.E.A. and with the Extra Mural Department of the University of Birmingham and, in cases of exceptional need, assistance is also available to certain other organisations which provide opportunities for cultural training and leisure time education.

APPENDIX 10.2.

ORIGINAL SUB-UNITS' TERMS OF REFERENCE

WALSALL EDUCATION COMMITTEE

DRAFT SCHEME OF MANAGEMENT FOR THE WILFRED CLARKE COMMUNITY ASSOCIATION

The Education Committee of the County Borough of Walsall (hereinafter referred to as "the Local Education Authority") acting as the Local Education Authority hereby orders as follows:-

General Control

1. The general policy of the Centre shall be initiated by the General Management Committee and approved by the Community Council, subject to the regulations of the Local Education Authoruty. The Community Council shall meet at least twice in the year.

The Community Council

2. The Community Council shall consist of:-

a) The Governors of Wilfred Clarke Comprehensive School (hereinafter referred to as "the School")
b) The members of the General Management Committee
c) Representatives elected from each class or group of users of the Community facilities.

Each class or group shall have one representative, unless their active membership numbers 50 or more, in which case they shall be entitled to one representative for each complete 25 active members. An active member is a person attending at least 50% of possible meetings. In cases of dispute the Director of Education shall determine what constitutes a class or group. The Headmaster of the school shall be chairman of the Community Council.

The Director of School and Community Activities

3. The day to day running of all activities in the Centre shall be the immediate responsibility of the Director of School and Community Activities, who shall act as Secretary to the Community Association.

The General Management Committee

4. The decisions of the Community Council will be executed by the General Management Committee, which shall also determine general policy as may be necessary in the interval between meetings of the Community Council. The General Management Committee shall have a Youth Management Sub-Committee.

The General Management Committee shall consist of:-

a) 5 members elected from the representative of the user groups at the first meeting of the Community Council for each year,
b) a Governor of the School,
c) 4 representatives of the Walsall County Borough Council. One member to be nominated by each of the following:-

(i) Baths, Parks & Cemeteries Committee
(ii) Primary & Secondary Education Sub-Committee
(iii) Education (Youth) Sub-Committee
(iv) Further Education Sub-Committee

d) The Head Teacher of the School
e) One representative of the teaching staff of the school.

The Director of School and Community Activities shall convene, attend and record each meeting of the General Management Committee. The General Management Committee shall elect its chairman, and such other officers as it deems necessary.

Youth Management Sub-Committee

5. Youth Management Sub-Committee shall consist of:-

a) The Head Teacher of the School,
b) 2 other members elected annual in January from the General Management Committee,
c) a representative of the Education (Youth) Sub-Committee of the Walsall County Borough Council, appointed annually,
d) a representative of the Governors of the School, appointed annually,
e) two persons under the age of 21, who are active participants in the Community Association, one of whom shall be a pupil at the School, elected at the first meeting of the Community Council in any year by whose members of the Community Council who represent Youth activities.

The Assistant Director of School and Community Activities shall convene, attend and record each meeting of the Youth Management Sub-Committee. The Youth Management Sub-Committee shall elect its chairman, and such other officers as it deems necessary.

Provision of Activities

6. The Local Education Authority shall be responsible for the provision of Adult Education at the Centre, and shall receive all funds from such activity.

The Local Education Authority shall also provide assistance with Youth activities in the Centre in accordance with their normal practice.

All other activities shall be the responsibility of the Community Council and its General Management Committee who shall furnish audited accounts and estimates in accordance with a document of financial procedure to be drawn up by the Local Education Authority.

Procedure

7. A quorum at meeting of the Community Council or any Committee, shall be one third of the membership. Any question shall be determined by a simple majority of the votes cast, wit the Chairman exercising a second, or casting vote where necessary.

Notices of Meetings

8. The Director of Education (or his representative) and their elected representatives for the appropriate wards shall receive notices and agendas for each meeting of the Community Council, or any Committee and shall have the right to attend such meetings.

Appointment of Staff

9. All full-time staff at the Centre shall be appointed by the Walsall Education Committee, as shall be all regular part-time staff including Youth Leaders and Adult Education Tutors. Other occasional part-time employees shall be appointed and paid by the General Management Committee.

APPENDIX 10.3.

WALSALL AREA COMMITTEES AND COMMUNITY ASSOCIATIONS

WALSALL METROPOLITAN BOROUGH

DEPARTMENT OF ENGINEERING AND TOWN PLANNING

Report of the Director of Engineering and Town Planning to

Willenhall Area Committee 27th September 1974

Reaction to Experiment

1. It is coming up to the time when the Planning Committee and your Committee are to advise the Policy Committee on the success or otherwise of the Area Committee experiment, of whether the system can be recommended for extension over the whole Borough and whether the functions of area committees might be extended beyond that of the present Willenhall Committee.

2. The Planning Committee have already considered what might constitute other areas and are advising the Policy Committee that, in the event of the system being extended over the whole Borough, these should comprise the following wards:-

1. Willenhall North
   Bentley
   Willenhall South

2. Darlaston North
   Darlaston South

3. Bloxwich West
   Bloxwich East
   Blakenhall

4. Leamore - Birchills
   Hatherton

5. Pleck
   Palfrey
   St. Matthews
   Paddock

6. Brownhills Central
   Pelsall and Rushall
   Walsall Wood, Shelfield and High Heath

7. Aldridge North and South

8. Pheasey
Streetly

Could possibly be combined.

3. Your Committee is requested to contribute general and particular points which you feel should be put to the Policy Committee.

4. I attach a copy of an article by the head of the Institute of Local Government Studies which may be of interest to you in this respect.

REVIEW OF AREA PLANNING COMMITTEE

The Report of the Director of Engineering & Town Planning was submitted:-

The Chairman invited Councillor Powell, Chairman of the Planning Committee, to give his views on the operation of the Area Planning Committee to date.

Councillor Powell said that in view of the proposed introduction of further Area Planning Committees it was important that the Committee should review its operation critically and assess whether the system had deficiencies and where extensions to the Committee's activities might usefully be introduced.

Councillor Powell said that in his opinion more visual information should be presented to the Committee in respect of planning applications, such as examples of the type of materials to be used in the construction of buildings. Such information would enable members to build up a clearer picture of the proposed development. Elevations would also be of great assistance to the members when considering applications.

Referring to the Local Appeal System operated by the Planning Committee, Councillor Powell said that he considered it would be necessary for the system to be extended to the Area Committees in due course with, perhaps, certain categories of appeals reserved for hearing by the Planning Committee.

Councillor Powell then commented on public participation and said that he would like to see more members of the public actively interested in planning. He suggested that it might be possible to introduce into the Committee's a meetings session when members of the public would be able to put forward their views on planning matters. This would enable people to become more involved in the planning of their district and to have a better understanding of the subject.

With regard to possible extensions of the work of the Committee he queried whether the Committee should seek the views of other departments such as Social Services, Housing, Health and zoned educational services on matters under consideration. He said that it might prove possible to establish a central point where residents of a district could seek assistance with problems that arose. Representatives of appropriate departments could be present at the Centres to give advice, together with Councillors when possible.

In conclusion Councillor Powell said that in his view reports on the activities of the Area Committees should be submitted to Council in the same manner as other Committees.

Other members of the Committee concurred with Councillor Powell's remarks and in addition Councillor Brady said that he would like consideration to be given to the Co-opted Members of the Committee being given full Committee powers including voting rights.

After further discussion it was:-

Resolved

That the Willenhall Area Planning Committee whilst appreciating the devolution of planning functions would welcome an extension of this to the Committee in the fields of Social Services, Housing, Recreation and Education and seeks the Policy Committee's assistance in achieving this objective.

APPENDIX 11

ALUMWELL CENTRE QUESTIONNAIRE SURVEY

APPENDIX 11.1.

MAIN ACTIVITY DISTRIBUTION

MAIN COMMUNITY ASSOCIATION ACTIVITY

ACTIVITY	NUMBER	PERCENTAGE
NON COMMUNITY ACTIVITY	548	32.60
AQUARISTS	16	0.95
BADMINTON	66	3.88
BINGO	61	3.63
DANCING	26	1.55
FENCING	7	0.44
5 x 5 SOCCER SENIOR	19	1.13
GYMNASTICS	17	1.00
JUDO	35	2.10
JUNCTION 10 SWIM CLUB	69	4.10
JUNCTION 10 THEATRE	10	0.59
KARATE	74	4.40
LADIES CLUB	30	1.78
MILITARY	18	1.07
OLD TIME DANCING	41	2.44
PIECK DIPPER SWIM CLUB	28	1.67
SELF DEFENCE	21	1.25
SENIOR CITIZENS	131	7.79
WOODLANDS SOCCER CLUB	33	1.96
SWIMMING	276	16.44
MOTHERS AND TODDIERS SWIM	22	1.31
STAFF SWIMMING	6	0.36
TABLE TENNIS	17	1.01
WOODWORK	6	0.36
SQUASH	55	3.27
KUNG FU	48	2.86

APPENDIX 11.2

MAIN ACTIVITY DISTRIBUTION

MAIN EVENING INSTITUTE COURSE

ACTIVITY	NUMBER	PERCENTAGE
NON EVENING INSTITUTE	1644	97.68
DRESSMAKING	8	0.48
FLOWER ARRANGING	6	0.36
LADIES KEEP FIT	1	0.06
POTTERY	1	0.06
SPANISH	4	0,24
SWIM ADULT LEARN	7	0.42
YOGA	9	0.53
WOODWORK	3	0.18

APPENDIX 11.3.

MAIN ACTIVITY DISTRIBUTION

MAIN YOUTH CLUB ACTIVITIES

ACTIVITY	NUMBER	PERCENTAGE
NON YOUTH CLUB	1222	72.65
CANOEING	7	0.42
JUNIOR DISCO	99	5.89
SENIOR DISCO	167	9.93
5 x 5 SOCCER	76	4.52
MUSIC MAKING	3	0.18
ROLLER SKATING	7	0.42
TRAMPOLINING	6	0.30
SOCIALISING	48	2.85
TELEVISION	21	1.25
SWIMMING	5	0.30
TABLE TENNIS	5	0.30
GENERAL SPORTS	7	0.42

APPENDIX 11.4.

CENSUS DATA ON CATCHMENT AREAS

	Total Population	0-4 Yrs. Male+Female	5-14 Yrs. Male+Female	15-21 Yrs. Male+Female	Economically Active Population: 15-30 Yrs. Male	35-55 Yrs. Male	Total Males	15-30 Yrs. Female	35-55 Yrs. Female	Total Females	Females: 15-30 Yrs.	35-55 Yrs.	Senior Citizens > 65 Yrs.	New Commonwealth Immigrants: Male	Female	Housing: Owner Occupier	Council	Private Unfurnished	Private Furnished	Car Ownership: With Car: 1 car	2 cars	No Car: Owner Occupier	Council	Private Unfurnished	Private Furnished	Total Population No Car	Total Population with Car
Walsall M.B. Total Population	183000	16700	30230	18867	23750	28359	52109	13100	17000	32801	24400	28100	19500	5389 3518 India Pakistan	63472	97490	19663	2205	75632	15986	19767	59141	10820	1533	91340	91668
Pleck Ward Total Population	11350	1036	1450	1150	1450	1770	3675	725	1108	2042	1416	1801	1500	707 341 India	4034	5537	1539	238	4418	688	2091	3083	959	168	6241	5106
Birchills Ward Total Population	9561	914	1217	962	1300	1350	3046	696	776	1695	1198	1219	1274	716 374 Pakistan India	4020	2524	2246	1.3	3227	412	2054	1749	1435	83	5316	3689
Beechey Ward Total Population	13655	1217	2118	1359	1920	2225	4482	1130	1594	2884	2035	2313	1039	35 26 India America	3640	9335	591	28	6647	907	713	5094	234	9	6054	7554
LEA Catchment Area	5495	365	994	701	634	1033	1833	391	790	1221	661	1117	349	8 8 India	645	4760	95	3	2536	440	89	2467	22	0	2499	2996
St.Matthews Ward Total Population	11562	1285	1565	1193	1662	1797	3828	783	830	1798	1595	1441	1198	1523 938 India Pakistan	5442	2055	2879	731	3732	911	2913	1306	1675	574	6919	4643
LEA Catchment Area	1794	224	288	230	297	275	679	94	100	205	254	194	128	532 287 India Pakistan	985	57	436	252	485	81	649	37	272	206	1228	566
Ritherton Ward Total Population	12551	1217	2025	1315	1639	1783	3348	844	985	2058	1665	1781	1504	392 262 India Pakistan	5100	5176	1920	302	4486	1383	1510	3926	1017	204	6663	5948
LEA Catchment Area	1820	227	334	200	245	265	574	102	110	231	231	273	176	157 100 India Pakistan	530	818	431	32	412	59	374	693	243	29	1349	471
Palfrey Ward Total Population	10862	803	1618	1018	1219	1564	3292	684	932	1888	1226	1642	1790	417 332 India	4356	4923	2453	126	4280	731	1790	3124	836	98	5949	5011
LEA Catchment Area	1623	180	256	160	185	215	477	98	112	234	210	202	166	204 169 India	322	67	181	10	170	20	217	37	125	10	387	190
Leamore Ward Total Population	12720	1169	2471	1712	1739	1951	3950	653	1203	2389	1810	2009	934	147 90 India Pakistan	1065	10851	727	77	4728	359	372	6369	433	58	7433	5287
LEA Catchment Area	321	63	80	64	72	73	161	30	52	90	66	66	70	66 39 India Pakistan	306	57	130	30	160	2	217	44	73	25	361	162
Darlaston North Ward Total Population	9810	772	1435	939	1158	1589	3150	591	975	1748	1096	1527	1389	531 332 India	3316	4463	1895	135	3412	475	1629	3123	1054	103	5923	3887
LEA Designated Catchment Area	32164	3009	4619	3467	4193	5034	10447	2136	3046	5738	4036	4872	3673	2390 1516	10842	13920	5056	678	11478	1702	5631	8110	3129	518	12138	13180
Potential Adjacent Catchment Area	92071	8413	13899	9648	12087	14029	29271	6106	8421	16502	12041	13753	10628	4483 2895	30982	44944	13250	1750	34980	6046	13212	27774	7643	1284	50398	41026

Information included in Appendices 12, 13, 14 and 15 has been either transcribed from taped interviews or transposed from official community college documents

APPENDIX 12

SHADSWORTH CENTRE

APPENDIX 12.1.

GOALS AND JOINT MANAGEMENT COMMITTEE (J.M.C.)

GOALS

The rationale for school based community centres stems from a variety of sources. In the first place the need to bring about a better integration of community and school is being increasingly recognised so that the school buildings can be regarded properly as a base in the day-to-day life of the community, sharing in its education, recreation and use of leisure time. Indeed the school buildings can become a place where all members of the community can be involved in their use of leisure time. Secondly, most school buildings are in a position to meet the ever increasing public demand for recreation and leisure facilities. In this way resources, both capital and human, can be used more effectively. Thirdly, the development of comprehensive education means that more and more secondary schools are concerned with the education of all young people rather than with that of certain groups of young people as in the grammar and secondary modern schools. With pupils staying on longer at school and the raising of the school leaving age the community's recreational needs and those of the school overlap inevitably with the youth service and further education.

Thus school buildings provide an ideal base for the recreational needs of the community at large. They are ideally suited to offer many varied opportunities for the use of leisure time. But the establishment of the centres will call for great co-operation from teaching and non-teaching staff to make the centre a success. Rather than be based solely on dual use of two public services, the aim is that there be integration of these facilities at all times. Some facilities will be used by the public at all times, amongst them the Swimming Pool, Library, Bar, Cafeteria and Squash Courts, in the same way as other similar public facilities in the town. Similarly, the Gymnasium, Sports Hall, Craft Rooms etc. will be avilable to the public, with supervision as necessary, during school hours, when not in demand for educational purposes and at all times outside school hours when the Centre is open. A sustained public relations drive will be needed to establish the changed concept with the community and continued research will be necessary to ensure that the provision of facilities is in line with the needs of the community.

J.M.C.

The policy and general management of a school based community centre shall be directed by a Joint Management Committee comprising representatives of both the Education and Recreation Committees, and of the Centre Advisory Committee and School Governors. The advisory committee made up of elected staff representatives including ancillary staff of the centre and elected members of the centre will be a consultative body offering advice and suggestions to the Joint

Management Committee on the policies and use of the Centre, and acting in liaison with the Recreation Committee.

The Joint Management Committee will have twelve members made up of three members of the Recreation Committee and three from the Advisory Committee and three members of the Education Committee and three from the Governing Body.

The Joint Management Committee will be responsible for all aspects of policy and management of the centre. This Committee will in turn be responsible to the Education and Recreation Committees and it must endeavour to ensure that at all times the policies of these Committees are implemented and properly managed at the centres.

It will be the duty of this Committee to set the pace and lay down a framework for the successful operation and management of the centre based on the rationale set out above.

This task could be difficult bearing in mind the difficulties which will follow with local government reorganisation but if successful integration can be established from the start, operational difficulties after 1974 should only be based on "book-keeping" to render accounts to both authorities involved.

The Committee will be served by the Principal of the centre, and it will be the duty of the Committee to ensure that the Principal manages the centre within the guide-lines laid down by them, and that he liaises at all times with the Directors of Education and Recreation in carrying out those aspects of the work of the centre which fall within their departmental responsibilities.

APPENDIX 12.2.

SHADSWORTH CENTRE MANAGEMENT CHART

APPENDIX 12.3.

ROLES

Principal-Headmaster. It is essential that the school based community centre should be under the overall leadership and supervision of the Principal to ensure the development and effective coordination of activities to meet the needs of different users, be they educational, recreational or general community welfare. The Principal will be responsible for the management of all aspects of the centre to the J.M.C. of the centre and through it, as necessary, to the education and recreation committees and their respective officers for the day-to-day activities of the centre, carried out within policies laid down by them and the education and recreation committees. The Principal is assisted by three senior members of staff to direct the centre (Appendix 12.2.).

First Deputy Head. In order that the Principal may fulfil his extensive function, this role is concerned with the traditional duties of school organisation. It is regarded as essential that this function be performed in close liaison with the Principal and Manager of Community Services so that the right blend of expertise is created to serve the needs of education, management and community.

Manager of Community Services. Is responsible for library services, entertainments, sports activities and the community generally, and those activities which the education service operate in the field of further education and youth work.

Administrative Officer. Is directly responsible for all administration and ancillary services of the centre including supervision of support staff, control of supplies and equipment and all financial matters.

Librarian Entertainments Officer. Is responsible for liaising with the Manager of Community Services on the public library services and the Headmaster for school library services.

The Librarian Entertainments Officer will be responsible for ensuring a wide range of entertainment and supporting functions aimed at the community generally. They will include performances of classical, folk, jazz and pop music - dancing and ballet - dramatic and operatic performances within the limits of the staging facilities at the centre - and demonstrations by experts in a wide range of supporting skills. This will mostly be by professionals, and as far as possible, arrangements will be made for the performers to meet and perform before school pupils during the day, followed by public performances in the evenings.

The cost of these visits will be minimised by their being part of an overall programme arranged by the Recreation Department in consultation with the centre staff, and with regional art associations. Programmes will be a charge on Recreational funds. Policy on pricing on entertainments and recreation will have to be fixed by the Recreation Committee in relation to promotions at other centres and at the Public Halls.

A Sports Organiser assisted by two staff members, one in charge of "dry" sports and the other of "water" sports, will be responsible for activities of the centre giving advice and coaching where necessary.

Increased use of existing facilities, together with the provision of additional facilities, will necessitate more staff to clean and maintain the premises. It is proposed therefore to appoint a Plant Superintendent at the centre who with the assistance of two senior caretakers will be responsible for the cleaning and maintenance of the entire premises. Whereas most of the cleaning of the centre will have to be carried out at night, some cleaning will be required during the day in areas such as the swimming pool. Here it is hoped to recruit cleaners who can also serve as pool attendants. As with all staff at the centre flexibility is of great importance so they can be used in the most effective and economic way. Agreement has been reached on this idea with the Committees concerned and it is recommended that all such staff be appointed on Miscellaneous Grades, to ensure the necessary staff flexibility. All salaries connected with sports facilities will be apportioned between Recreation and Education Committees on a fifty-fifty basis. Recommendations on salary ranges will be produced at a later date.

Every opportunity will be given for staff members at the centre to participate in more than [illegible] aspect of the work of the centre in order to make the [illegible]ve use of individual talents and interests and to [illegible]ties to the centre as a whole rather than loyalty to or[illegible] or section.

Various other cleri[illegible]upport staff will be necessary but recommendations on t[illegible]l be brought to the Committee at a later date.

APPENDIX 13

SIDNEY STRINGER COMMUNITY COLLEGE

APPENDIX 13.1.

GOALS

GOALS OF COMMUNITY EDUCATION

1. Government

The government of the Community College is the responsibility of the Community, and the representatives of the people, alongside and outnumbering LEA representatives, form the governing body. (Many of the LEA representatives are elected members too).

The governing body decides such things as membership, activities and projects, and has control of all finances other than those which are the statutory responsibility of the L.E.A. It carries out the customary responsibilities of the school governors.

2. Staffing

On the staff of the Community College are professional community and youth workers in addition to the normal complement of teachers.

Many staff are qualified in both community and school work and are able to work in community projects and on the school timetable.

3. A Resource for the Community

The College is likely to be the largest single capital investment made by the Local Authority in the area, and the expensive buildings and equipment are available to the Community in the way the people wish to use them. The services of professional staff are available to provide a life long education and the recreational programmes that the people want.

Buildings are utilised for many hours each week. Adults may join in with school programmes and school pupils with adult programmes. The school day may be extended to make it easier for adults and pupils to share programmes and facilities together.

4. The Community is a Resource

People from the Community contribute to the educational and recreation programmes with whatever skills they can offer, and work alongside the professionals in community projects, playing a leading part if possible.

The area itself, its culture and its people and the every day situations in it, are a laboratory for learning for the school pupils, and the pupils spend time outside the school building during the school day studying and working in the community.

5. The Shared Responsibility for Education

The education of the rising generation is the responsibility of everyone, not just the professional teachers. Parents and other adults are encouraged to take an interest in and influence the curriculum, and if they are able to, contribute to the programmes.

Parents are encouraged to come freely into school, and staff are encouraged to visit the homes and build working relationships with parents as well as pupils. When parents understand what is happening to their children in school, they can help to educate the children at home.

6. The Curriculum

The School curriculum is designed so that pupils are helped to understand the contradictions they see around them, whilst being presented with a vision of what life could be.

Their present experience and understanding is the starting point for the School programme.

School is only a small element in the education process and must be seen by pupils to fit into life, and be relevant to their present and to their future.

Pupils are made aware of the problems of their area, and the changes that are needed, and are encouraged and trained to help to bring about change.

7. Community Development

The staff work with residents to overcome specific problems, or to help specific groups of disadvantaged people; and to encourage people who would not normally take advantage of the College resources to do so.

The people are helped to understand what facilities and services are available for them and how to use them.

Projects are mounted outside the College for the people who will not come to the College.

8. An Agency for Change

The College is in a unique position to mobilise co-operatively all the agencies working in the area; for example, social workers, health visitors, planners, politicians, teachers and residents groups; to commit themselves to deal with the problems of the area, even if to do so conflicts with their functional "professional" interests.

In this way, the College is able to help people to cope with problems which are too big or complex to be solved by individuals

or agencies working alone.

GOALS OF THE COLLEGE

(a) Reputation
- with the pupils
- with the parents
- with the staff
- with other community members
- with the teaching profession
- with Colleges of Education and Universities
- with other Colleges
- with the L.E.A. and Coventry Schools
- with the city in general
- with employers
- nationally

(b) Innovation
- curriculum development
- learning processes
- management of the organisation
- co-operation with other schools and colleges

(c) Productivity
- use of staff
- use of buildings and equipment
- use of learning media
- contribution of pupils and others
- timetabling

(d) Purpose
- aims and objectives and programmes relevant to the needs of those served by the enterprise

(e) Resource Aquisition
- generating income, money raising
- voluntary help
- finding resources from other agencies
- economy and conservation
- influencing the L.E.A.

(f) Staff Development
- individual development programmes for staff
- team work and sharing experience
- motivation
- communication

(g) Community Relations (pupils and others)
- counselling and helping people
- participation in planning by people
- care of people
- recognition and reward of people
- attitudes to people

(h) Public Responsibility
- care of public property
- good neighbours

APPENDIX 13.2

FORMAL ORGANISATION - SUB-UNITS AND ROLES

1. Management is that which gets effective results out of resources and people. Implicit in this statement is the need for management to define what are effective results, and be able to measure progress towards them.

2. In a large and complex organisation, many people are managing for some of the time. A person is managing if he or she is helping to formulate policy and plans, deciding what are effective results, and using resources and influencing the behaviour of people.

3. Management is team work. This organisation permits teams of people to work co-operatively towards objectives, and credit is given to team work rather than individual supremacy.

4. Set out in this section is a model of the organisation structure showing how teams of managing people relate with others. Job descriptions are brief so as to give people the maximum chance to show initiative and be flexible.

5. A situation full of change and of the unknown calls for a flexible and dynamic approach, and although it is necessary to design an organisation structure to indicate in some measure the relationships between people, strict adherence to a mechanistic and authoritarian system would slow down the decision making and inhibit initiative. The structure is organic, and groups of people co-operate with each other to identify and solve problems which concern them; and commitment to the objectives of Sidney Stringer override job or Faculty interests and pride.

6. All staff are invited to participate in the formulation of policy and objectives, but within that framework individual staff members are expected to make and execute decisions - to get on with the job - and accept accountability for their actions.

7. All staff are urged to see their work as concerned with the whole community of which the school is a vital and definable part, and they are encouraged to manage or assist with 'out of school' and 'non-school' activities either voluntarily, or in exchange for time off during school hours or for remuneration for some formal activities.

8. The Sidney Stringer Community - those people who are serviced by it and who make use of its facilities - play a major role in developing future policy and plans, and managing their own activities, using the staff as advisers. People serviced by Sidney Stringer are pupils of compulsory school age, students beyond school-leaving age, and community members of all ages.

9. The care and the development of all members of the Sidney Stringer Community is the concern of all members of the staff. The House staff have particular concern for the care and development of the school pupils, and relations with parents. The Community staff have similar concern for all the non-pupil members of the Community. The work of these teams is the responsibility of the deputy who is the Director of Personal Development (DP).

Inevitably and rightly the work of these groups overlaps. Senior House Heads co-ordinate the work of the houses and Head of Community Activities co-ordinates the work of the Community staff.

10. Curriculum development and the provision and control of activities is the concern of all members of the staff. The Faculty staff have particular concern for the provision of suitable programmes and resources both for school and community, and work of these teams is the responsibility of the deputy who is the Director of Resources and Services (DS).

11. Administrative Services necessary to support the activities of the enterprise, and the personnel management of the non-teaching staff is the responsibility of the Administration Officer (AO).

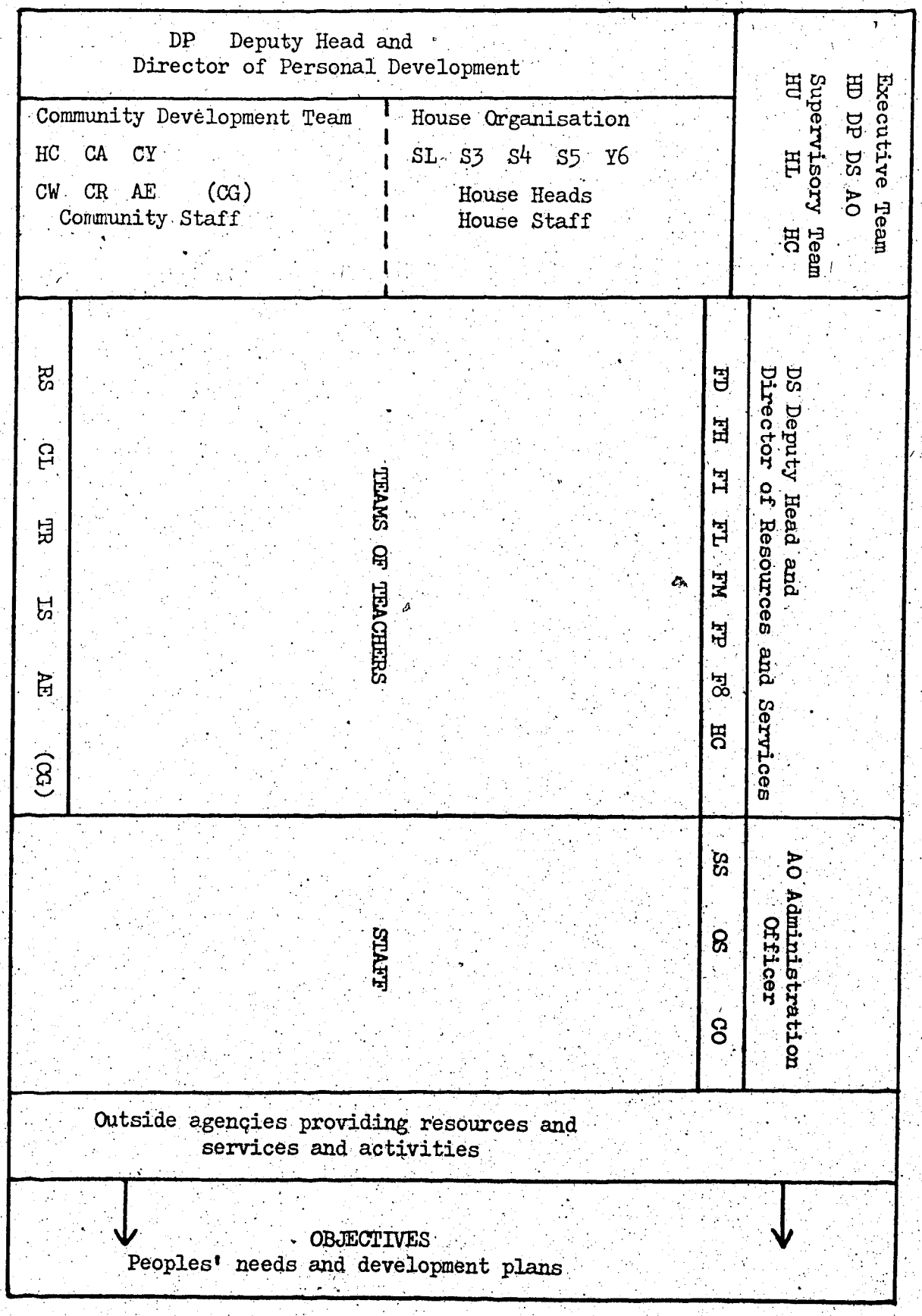
12. The day to day supervision of the activities of the school is the responsibility of the Head of Upper School (HU) and the Head of Lower School (HL); and the supervision of the Community Activities and the Community use of the premises outside school hours is the responsibility of the Head of Community Activities(HC).

13. Excellence is encouraged, but there are no departments which aim for departmental excellence for its own sake. Faculty Heads exist for the provision and care of resources, curriculum development and the development and guidance of staff, but staff are not the exclusive property of any one Faculty Head and work in several different disciplines alongside staff from another Faculty.

14. School pupils are grouped in Years (360) and Houses (120) within the years. The house behaves in many respects like a little school, so that pupils feel to belong to it, and regard the House Head like the Head of a small school. Within a common curriculum, this small school is provided with resources and services to meet its needs. In this way, the advantages of size are retained along with the advantages of smallness. The House is the learning unit, and teams of staff visit the House to carry out education programmes.

15. Each year of 360 pupils provides three houses of 120 pupils. Each house has a House Head. The pupils are encouraged to look firstly to the House Head as the person looking after their total development. Senior House Heads are appointed from the House Heads to co-ordinate the work of a number of houses.

SIDNEY STRINGER SCHOOL AND COMMUNITY COLLEGE - ORGANISATION



KEY TO THE ORGANISATION CHART

Head	HD
Head's Secretary	HS
Deputy Head, Director of Personnel Development	DP
Deputy Head, Director of Resources and Services and Curriculum Development	DS
Administration Officer	AO
Head of Community Operations	HC
Head of Lower School	HL
Head of Upper School	HU
Faculty Heads	
- Design	FD
- Humanities	FH
- Interdisciplinary Work	FI
- Languages and Communication	FL
- Maths and Science	FM
- Physical Education and Recreation	FP
- English as a Second Language	F8
Co-ordinator of Maths	CM
Head of Career Guidance and Employer Relations	CG
Head of Remedial Services	RS
Co-ordinator of Learning Resources	CL
Head of Information Services	IS
Resources Centre Technician	TR
VIth Form Tutor	Y6
Senior House Heads for 3, 4, 5 Year	S3 S4 S5
Senior House Head, Lower School	SL
House Heads (Year and colour - e.g. H3R = 3rd Year red)	
Community Worker (Adults)	CA
Community Work (Young Persons)	CY
Adult Education Co-ordinator	AE
Community Recreation Warden	CR
Community Warden	CW
Services Superintendent	SS
Office Services Supervisor	OS
Catering Officer	CO

HOW THE ORGANISATION OPERATES

1. The Executive Team determines the overall aims and policy for the co-ordinated school and community operation within which the other teams develop objectives and plans. Members of the Executive Team are ex-officio members of all other teams and monitor their performance towards their objectives.

   The Executive Team often incorporates the Supervisory Team into its meetings where appropriate.

2. The Supervisory Team plans the co-ordinated supervision of the school and community activities.

3. The three operations teams (Upper School, Lower School and Community) determine objectives and plans in detail to meet the specific needs of those parts of the Sidney Stringer enterprise.

4. Resources and Services teams determine objectives and plans which enable teams of staff to provide a curriculum and programme of activities serving the requirements of the Schools and the Community.

5. House Heads Team determine objectives and plans which enable the house staff to provide an effective pastoral care and guidance service for pupils and to develop home-school links.

6. The Administrative Team determines objectives and plans to provide a range of back-up services to the School and Community operations working particularly in the functions of secretarial and communications, security and maintenance, catering, accounts and bookings.

7. Teams of teachers (4 to 6) who work with groups of pupils (120) do the detailed curriculum planning and execution. The team has a leader appointed from amongst its members. The team is guided by a Faculty Head to see that its work supports the overall curriculum objectives of the School.

8. The house staff associated with the house do the detailed planning of house activities.

TEAM ORGANISATION

The following teams are constituted. They should meet as infrequently as possible to do essential business. Detail should be delegated to individuals or other teams. Groups other than those listed below may meet from time to time.

(a) Executive Team - ET - HD, DP, DS, AO

(b) Supervisory Team - XT - DP, HU, HL HC
Frequently, the EX and XT meet together to discuss policy and implementation

(c) Upper School Operations Team - UT
HU, Upper School House Heads, Faculty Heads, representative of CT

(d) Lower School Operations Team - LT
HL, Lower School House Heads, Faculty Heads, representative of CT

(e) Community Operations Team - CT
HC, CA, CY, CW, CR, AE, (CG), representative of School Teams

(f) Resources Team - RT
DS and Faculty Heads and HC (DP

(g) Services Team - ST
DS, RS, CL, TR, IS, AE, CG

(h) House Heads Team - HT
DP and the House Heads (Lower School), or Upper, or combined).

(i) Administration Team - AT
AO, SS, OS, CO

(j) Teams of Teachers (4 to 6) who work with groups of pupils (120) do detailed curriculum planning and execution.

(k) House Head and House Staff

NOTES:

Members of the Executive Team are ex-officio members of all other teams.

Service Heads (RS, CL, TR, IS, CG) may be co-opted onto UT and LT

APPENDIX 14

COUNTESTHORPE COLLEGE

APPENDIX 14.1.

GOALS

DEPARTMENT OF COMMUNITY EDUCATION

We set out to provide individual opportunities for members of the community, according to their personal capacities, within the educational framework of the college. The name 'College' was chosen in an attempt to avoid the separation implied in the titles 'school' and 'community college'.

To meet the first requirement, it was obvious that a community programme confined to a rigid adult class based approach would not do.

The programme offers a wider range of opportunities. Adults are attending day-classes, working alongside day-school students, a small number of adults are attending the Sixth form. Creche facilities, supported by community volunteers, in which day-school students are also involved, are provided on seven half-days each week. Some twenty-five societies are affiliated to the college and are encouraged for fifty weeks of the year. A wide range of courses, of varying length, are offered in the evening and at the weekends, with between 800 and 900 students currently enrolled. Holiday activities have recently been held for children and adults. Contact with Social and Health workers has led to the development of additional provision at the college. Youth social provision and a young people's volunteer force is being revitalised and developed.

How far have we gone to meet the second requirement? Inevitably there is separation in organisation and different priorities. We have come so far, even if there is much further to go. Perhaps this has been inevitable, given the tremendous demands of setting up a new school. However, the scene is not a discouraging one.

This aspect of integration is reflected, not least in the individual responsibilities of the staff working in community education.

The recent appointments to the department have involved each tutor in work across the whole age-range and is not therefore confined to the traditional roles of youth and adults similarly there is a positive effort to reduce the tendency towards the insularity of the department from the college as a whole.

It is, however, necessary, in a department responsible for a wide range of activities, taking place over a three-phase day and a seven-day week, for each member to be aware what is happening throughout the department, whilst retaining his own specific responsibilities.

APPENDIX 14.2.

ROLES

Head of Community Education

Overall responsibility for the coordination of the work of all staff, including part-time teachers and youth tutors: liaison with the buildings supervisor.
Overall responsibility for the administrative demands of the local authority.
Responsibility for finance.
Planning the main class programme - youth and adult.
Liaison with the affiliated societies.
Liaison with outside groups using the college facilities.
Liaison with the Countesthorpe Herald.
Secretary to the Community Council and its main sub-committees.
Production of Community News.
Management of the Coffee Service.

Community Tutor

Planning and coordination of social provision for young people both during the day-school and outside it.
Planning and coordination of social events for adults. (And young people, since no events are exclusive).
The development and coordination of community service within the day-school and outside.
Exhibitions.
30% teaching commitment to the 4th Year teams.

Community Tutor (temporary appointment)

Overall responsibility for staffing and supervision of all creche facilities.
Programming and working with the Tuesday Club.
Liaison with the Physically Handicapped Group.
Liaison with the Ante-Natal Clinic.
Overall responsibility for the Coffee Club.
Programming and working with Monday Morning Break.
Internal Display.

At present, the Community Tutor appointment is a temporary one, devoid of direct commitment to the school. In this instance, where she has clearly a genuine sympathy with all users, this seems a very satisfactory arrangement. However, this situation should not create a precedent, since it could very easily reduce the notion of the integrated whole. It is likely that the day-school will fill the thirty-per-cent 'spare' teaching loading with an art specialist that is at present urgently needed.

This outline of staff responsibilities is in no way a static, perfected, situation. It will come under constant review and is, in fact, very likely to be subjected to early change.

Where new developments are taking place and in areas of particular concern or complexity joint consultation takes place.

APPENDIX 14.3.

[redacted]-UNITS

Growth of the Affiliat[redacted]s

The Affiliation [redacted]eme [redacted] members of the community to initiate and control the[redacted]n ac[redacted]es. Some of the twenty-five clubs currently using [redacted] coll[redacted] facilities have been formed from classes by students who [redacted]ed [redacted]ontinue their own activity. Some have formed as a resul[redacted]f t[redacted] Community Education Staff bringing together a number of people [redacted]it[redacted] common need, and others are long-established groups [redacted]ave joined the college to benefit from the available facilitie[redacted] pleasing outcome of the Management Committee's recent revision of [redacted]ffiliated societies' policy is to have encouraged many grou[redacted]to identify themselves more fully with the college, by nominati[redacted]epresentatives to the Council. However, it is important to n[redacted] that this policy in no way excludes the availability of the f[redacted]lities for occasional user groups whose numbers, in fact, are [redacted]adily growing.

The Community Council

The Council is the members' own association, having been empowered by the Leicestershire Education Committee to determine the policy and general management of [redacted]he affairs of the Community College. At Countesthorpe the Cou[redacted] is numerically quite strong, with a wide range of represent[redacted] including class and club members, nominees from the paris[redacted]uncil and College governing body, College day-school staff, part-[redacted]me teaching staff and Youth Tutors; also represented are young people, the caretaking staff, the Countesthorpe Herald, the Holiday Activities Scheme and the Creche users.

The days of 'grass-roots' democracy have been few and we are, therefore, very aware of the need to make effective participation more of a reality. Currently, the Community Education Staff are sharing with the Council members the learning experience and are obviously concerned to find ways of initiating participation - being only too well aware of many adults' lack of experience in decision-making and discussion of this nature. One way in which this effort can be demonstrated is the inclusion of a topic of interest at each of our council meetings, other than the general business. At the October council, Bernard Harvey, the Adviser in Further Education to Leicestershire, will be leading us in a discussion, "The Future Trends in Community Education".

At Countesthorpe - fortunately from the outset - the idea of separate adult education and youth service buildings was abolished and therefore we have probably achieved a higher degree of integration than at other colleges in Leicestershire, whilst still tending very largely to think of ourselves first and foremost as a school with community education being an addition, however well developed. Perhaps this is inevitable, given the demands of setting up a school and the limitations of staffing imposed by the Authority. However, it would, we believe, be disturbing indeed, if we did not continue to look closely at the ways in which the community can be more effectively involved in the total educational complex. In fact, it cannot be avoided if we are to accept that education continues throughout life.

APPENDIX 14.4.

J.M.C.

LEICESTERSHIRE EDUCATION COMMITTEE

SCHEME OF MANAGEMENT FOR

COUNTESTHORPE COMMUNITY COLLEGE

1. Aims and Objectives

The Countesthorpe Community College has been established to provide for the social, cultural and recreational activities of the community of Countesthorpe and the surrounding area.

2. Constitution

Subject to the general supervision of the Governors of the Community College and the direction of the Local Education Authority, the policy and general management of the affairs of the Community College shall be directed by a Council.

3. The Council shall consist of representatives to be appointed annually as follows:-

(i) One elected from the individual College membership for each fifty members of the College.

(ii) Two from each of the affiliated bodies.

(iii) The Chairman of the Council.

(iv) The Honorary Treasurer.

(v) The Warden of the College, and his full-time professional staff.

(vi) Six representatives of the teaching staff, and part-time professional staff of the College and its extra mural classes.

(vii) Six representatives appointed by the Governors of Countesthorpe Upper School and Community College.

(viii) Not more than eight members to be co-opted by the Council under such conditions as it may determine from time to time.

All members of the Council shall retire annually at the Annual General Meeting, but shall be eligible for re-appointment.

4. The Council shall appoint a Committee of Management and may appointment such other committees as it may from time to time decide including, if desired, members of the College who are not members of the Council, and shall determine their powers and terms of reference.

5. The Committee of Management shall consist of not less than twelve nor more than sixteen members of the Council, together with the officers of the Council. The Council shall delegate to it the management of the College subject to the general policy of the Council, together with such other duties as the Council may, from time to time, determine. The Committee of Management shall contain at least one member from each of the groups (other than co-opted members) enumerated in paragraph 3. not less than three representatives shall be under the age of twenty-one.

6. The Chairman of the Council, the Warden or his representative and other officers of the Council shall be ex-officio members of all committees. Each committee shall elect its own Chairman.

7. Annual General Meeting

As early as possible in each financial year the Council shall convene an Annual General Meeting of the College which all members shall be entitled to attend for the purpose of:-

(i) Receiving the annual report of the Council and the annual audited statement of accounts.

(ii) Appointing Honorary Officers of the College.

(iii) Electing representatives of the individual membership to serve on the Council.

(iv) Appointing auditors.

(v) Making recommendations to the Council upon any matter affecting the College.

The Annual General Meeting shall elect:-

(i) The Chairman of the Council.

(ii) An Honorary Treasurer.

(iii) Such officers as it may determine from time to time.

The Warden, or a member of his staff nominated by him, shall be Secretary of the Council and of the Committee of Management.

8. Procedure

All decisions taken, whether at a general meeting or a meeting of the Council or a Committee, shall be determined by a majority of those present, and voting and the decision shall be binding and conclusive, provided that the Warden, if he considers any decision to be contrary to regulations or intentions of the Local Education Authority, may defer taking action on any such decision and refer the matter for consideration by the Governors at their next meeting. If the Warden exercises his powers under this provision, he shall send a full account of the reason for his action to the Director of Education.

9. The Chairman of the Council may, at any time at his direction, and within twenty-one days of receiving a written request so to do signed by not less than twenty members having the power to vote, and giving reasons for the request, arrange through the Warden to call a special General Meeting of the College.

10. For the purpose of securing uniformity of administrative practice, the Governors, the Council and the Committee of Management in the exercise of the functions delegated to them, shall comply with any regulations that may be made by the Local Education Authority.

11. In the event of any disagreement between the Governors and the Council of the Community College connected with the Scheme of Management the matter shall be referred to the Local Education Authority for decision.

12. Minutes shall be kept of the proceedings of all General Meetings and meetings of the Council and its Committees. The Warden shall send to the Governors copies of all minutes of the Council and the management Committee which have taken place since the previous meeting of the Governors. The minutes of all other Committees of the Council shall be open to inspection by the Governors.

13. The Council shall have the power to make rules and regulations for the management of the College, subject to any direction of the Local Education Authority and subject to review by the Governors acting on behalf of the Local Education Authority.

14. Subject to limitations as are contained in this Scheme of Management, the Council shall draw up rules of procedure and shall determine constitutional matters, including voting powers, quorum and the size and composition of Committees. These matters shall be determined in consonance with the wishes of the Annual General Meeting and shall be subject to the approval of the Governors.

15. Finance

The Council shall receive all monies raised by or on behalf of the College. It is also authorised to approve expenditure within the limits of the budget for the College as agreed annually with the Local Education Authority. Unless specifically authorised by the Education Authority, the Council shall have no power and shall not purport to authorise any expenditure from public funds or to represent the Council as acting on behalf of the Local Education Authority in any matter. The Council, or if the Council so delegates, the Committee of Management, shall fix rates of subscriptions for the various classes of membership and shall have the power to make membership of the College compulsory for all who enrol for classes, or join the Youth Centre provided always that the Local Education Authority may, at any time, require the Council to make use of this power of compulsory membership.

16. The Council shall be responsible for ensuring that proper accounts of the finances of the College are kept and audited at least once a year by auditors appointed at the Annual General Meeting. Audited statement of accounts for each financial year, 1st April to 31st March shall be submitted to the Governors and shall be presented to the Annual General Meeting.

17. General

The Committee of Management shall have the right for good and sufficient reason to terminate the membership of an individual member or an affiliated body, provided that the individual member or a person representing the body shall have the right to appeal to the Council.

18. The Council (or the Committee of Management acting on its behalf) shall decide the annual programme of the College and shall inform the Governors of the requirements of the College for the use of the school premises for community purposes. The Governors shall arrange for the accommodation required to be made available and the Warden shall be empowered to make such adjustments in the arrangements for the use of the premises as may become necessary as a result of changes in the programme of the College. In accordance with the Articles of Government of the School, the Governors shall determine the use to which the school premises, or any part thereof, shall be put, out of school hours when not required by the College.

19. The Council and Committee of Management acting on its behalf, shall be responsible to the Governors for the conduct of the College and the care of the premises when in use for community purposes.

Sealed with the Common Seal of the Leicestershire County Council, this 19th day of June, 1972 in the presence of

JOHN JOLLY

Deputy Clerk of the County Council

APPENDIX 15.

NETHERLEY COMPREHENSIVE COMMUNITY SCHOOL

PROGRAMME OF ACTIVITIES (TYPICAL OF MOST COMMUNITY COLLEGES)

MONDAY	Pottery	COMMUNITY ACTIVITIES 7 p.m. - 10 p.m.		YOUTH CLUBS	
Biology	Music Appreciation	6.00-6.55	Under 14's Y.C. Sports	MONDAY	Senior
Typewriting	8.00 Bingo (P.A.)	7.00	Judo	Junior 4.30	6.00-8.00
English	Women's Club	6.55-7.35	Community Adult Football	(under 12's)	(11-14's)
Maths	Gospel Coffee Bar	7.35-8.15	Leonnons F.C.	Woodwork	
1.30-3.30	Ballroom Dancing	7.30	Yoga	Drama	8.00-9.50
Play Group		8.15-9.35	Newhall F.C.	Fishing Club	(over 14's)
TUESDAY	Art	7.00	Boxing Club	Cookery	
Typewriting	Morris Dancing	6.45	Badminton Coaching (Youth)	Swimming	
English 'O'	7.15 Hairdressing	7.35	Lee Park F.C.		
Biology	7.30 Slimming Club	8.15-8.55	Ladies Netball		
English 'A'	Over 50's Club	8.55-9.35	Tower F.C.		
Music	Woodwork	7.30	Ladies Keep Fit		
History	Motor Engineering		Coronation F.C.		
	Metal Workshop		Woodlands Y.C.		
	Cookery				
WEDNESDAY	Music Lessons	6.00.6.55	Alex Vic F.C.	Disco	7.00
Biology	(Piano)	6.55	Upton F.C.	Cookery	Over 14's
Typewriting	Guitar	7.15	Men's Keep Fit, Adult		Youth Club
Music			Badminton		& Disco
English		7.35-8.15	Hale F.C.		
English 'A'		8.15-9.35	Gateacre F.C.		
1.30-3.30		7.00	Boxing		
Play Group					
Pram Club					
THURSDAY	6.30-8.30	6.00-6.55	School Youth Club,	THURSDAY	6.00-9.00
Maths	Tap & Ballet		Badminton & Sports	Craft	School
Typewriting	Dancing	7.00-8.15	Naylorsfield Training		Youth
English	7.30 Motor	6.55-7.35	Woodlands F.C.		Club
	Engineering	7.35-8.15	Lee Park F.C.		
	7.30 French	7.00	Judo		
	8.00 Bingo (P.A.)	8.15-8.55	Naylorsfield F.C. (Intermed)		
		8.55-9.35	Naylorsfield F.C. (Juniors)		

APPENDIX 15. (CONTINUED)

FRIDAY			
R.E.	Morris Dancing	6.55-7.35	Combined Broker F.C.
Sociology	7.00 Advice Centre	7.35	General Football
English	7.00 Boxing Club	7.00	Silcocks F.C.
1.30-3.30		7.00	Badminton Club
Play Group		8.15	Naylorsfield Girls

FRIDAY		
Games		7.15
Trampoline		Naylors-field Y.C.