Materials concerning education in England and Wales are presented in this annotated bibliography containing an introduction and 13 topical chapters. The introduction features a brief history of state education in England and Wales and an essay on educational structure and the school ladder under the Educational Reform Act of 1988 (ERA 88). The chapters in the book are: (1) Education Reform Act of 1988 (ERA 88); (2) Administration; (3) History of Education; (4) Early Childhood Education; (5) Primary (Elementary) Education; (6) Secondary Education; (7) Teacher Education; (8) Higher Education; (9) Postschool (age 16+) Further and Adult Education; (10) Vocational Training and Technical Education; (11) Science, Mathematics, and Engineering Education; (12) Wales and Welsh Language; and (13) Women's and Girls' Education. A list of journals used in compiling the bibliography, as well as an author index and a subject index are included. (DB)
EDUCATION IN ENGLAND AND WALES
An Annotated Bibliography

Franklin Parker
Betty Ford Parker
EDUCATION IN ENGLAND AND WALES

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EDUCATION IN ENGLAND AND WALES
An Annotated Bibliography

Franklin Parker
Betty June Parker

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TO

British educators, especially those who helped
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Series Editor’s Foreword

This series of reference works and monographs in education in selected nations and regions is designed to provide a resource to scholars, students, and a variety of other professionals who need to understand the place of education in a particular society or region. While the format of the volumes is often similar, the authors have had the flexibility to adjust the common outline to reflect the uniqueness of their particular nation or region.

Contributors to this series are scholars who have devoted their professional lives to studying the nation or region about which they write. Without exception they have not only studied the educational system in question, but they have lived and travelled widely in the society in which it is embedded. In short, they are exceptionally knowledgeable about their subject.

In our increasingly interdependent world, it is now widely understood that it is a matter of survival that we understand better what makes other societies tick. As the late George Z.F. Bereday wrote: "First, education is a mirror held against the face of a people. Nations may put on blustering shows of strength to conceal public weakness, erect grand façades to conceal shabby backyards, and profess peace while secretly arming for conquest, but how they take care of their children tells unerringly who they are" (Comparative Method in Education, New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1964, page 5).

Perhaps equally important, however, is the valuable perspective that studying another education system provides us in understanding our own. To step outside of our commonly held assumptions about schools
and learning, however briefly, and to look back at our system in contrast to another, places it in a very different light. To learn, for example, how the Soviet Union handles the education of a multilingual society; how the French provide for the funding of public education; or how the Japanese control admissions into their universities enables us to understand that there are alternatives to our familiar way of doing things. Not that we can often "borrow" from other societies; indeed, educational arrangements are inevitably a reflection of deeply rooted political, economic, and cultural factors that are unique to a society. But a conscious recognition that there are other ways of doing things can serve to open our minds and provoke our imaginations in ways that can result in new approaches that we would not have otherwise considered.

Since this series is designed to be a useful research tool, the editors and contributors welcome suggestions for future volumes as well as ways in which this series can be improved.

Edward R. Beauchamp
University of Hawaii
Preface

The state school system of England and Wales is in the throes of far-reaching school reform. Its school reform is, in fact, as revolutionary as any undertaken by a Western nation at the end of the twentieth century. This work was begun just before passage of the Education Reform Act of 1988 (ERA 88), which is being implemented in the 1990s. This major act along with still-in-force provisions of the 1944 Education Act (with its 17 amendments) comprises the statutes governing education in England and Wales. ERA 88 is the outcome of many years of debate, contention, and changing attitudes about education. This study reflects both the criticism and the praise showered on that important legislation, particularly in the Brief History and School Structure sections, and in Chapter 1 with its longer than usual annotations on ERA 88.

It is interesting to recall that the industrial revolution began in Britain, that it was the modern world's first business society, and that at its height Britain was responsible for hundreds of millions of people living on over one-fifth of the earth. Whether or not and to what degree ERA 88 can help significantly to advance Britain's industrial and cultural leadership is yet to be seen. The large effort through ERA 88 to improve education comes at a time of rising European Community expectations and of rapid Eastern European moves toward democracy and market economies.

The editors have visited schools in England often over the past 20 years, observed many complex changes, and feel that the schools conform uniquely to that country's history. (Not covered in this book are the slightly different and separately administered and financed
education systems of Scotland, Northern Ireland, the Channel Islands, and the Isle of Man.)

Britain and the U.S. are said to be two countries divided by a common language. Some words are spelled differently; other words are spelled the same but have somewhat different meanings. Because Britain, much more than the U.S., uses many abbreviations for education terms, the editors begin the work with a list of "Abbreviations, Acronyms, and Commonly Used Terms." Each term is initially spelled out in each chapter and the abbreviation or acronym is given in parentheses. The abbreviation or acronym is used thereafter in that chapter. The editors retain British spellings in titles of books, journals, and articles, and use U.S. spellings in annotations.

ERIC (Educational Resources Information Center) numbers are listed for entries from that major educational database. Abstracts of ERIC entries can be found in Resources in Education, which also has ordering information for hard copy and microfiche copy purchase.

Dissertations on education in England and Wales, not included in this work, can be found in the series, "American Dissertations on Foreign Education: A Bibliography with Abstracts," edited by Franklin Parker and Betty June Parker, Volume XX, Britain: Biographies of Educators (Troy, NY 12181: Whitston Publishing Co., P.O. Box 958, 1990), and in 13 other forthcoming volumes about British education in that series now in press.

We are grateful to administrators in universities where the work for this book was largely done. We especially thank Director David A. Williams, Center for Excellence in Education, Northern Arizona University, Flagstaff, and NAU's Cline Library Reference staff; Dean Gurney Chambers, School of Education and Psychology, Western Carolina University, Cullowhee, N.C.; WCU's Hunter Library Reference staff; WCU's Media Services Director Chris Martin and Engineer Robert L. Orr; and WCU's Computer Center Academic Consultant Deborah E. Edwards.

Finally, we owe special thanks to Garland Editor Marie Ellen Larcada, Garland Director of Computer Resources Chuck Bartelt, and series Editor Edward R. Beauchamp for suggestions and for their close reading and correction of the entire manuscript. We tried to avoid but remain responsible for all errors. Our hope is that this annotated bibliography will aid the important study of state education in England and Wales.
Abbreviations, Acronyms, and Commonly Used Terms

In each chapter, the term is initially spelled out and the abbreviation, acronym, or term is given in parentheses. Example: Open University (OU). The abbreviation is used thereafter in that chapter.

A level A (for Advanced) level courses and exams are taken in upper secondary school at ages 17 or 18 (sixth year and seventh year of secondary education, called sixth form). A mix of A level exams and AS-level exams is used for university entrance or for job qualification. Previously called General Certificate of Education-Advanced (GCE-A) level. See GCE-A.

ACSET Advisory Committee on the Supply and Education of Teachers, from 1981 to 1984; ACSET recommended the establishment of and was succeeded by the Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (CATE, since 1984).

Advisors Local Education Authority (LEA) inspectors (older and still most used term). Some LEAs call them advisors.

AFE Advanced Further Education has been part of higher education (HE) since 1988. It is study normally begun after the A-level (Advanced level) exams, at age 17 or 18, in polytechnics and colleges of higher education.

APU Assessment of Performance Unit is an educator group initially within DES, now within the School Examinations and Assessment Council (SEAC), which assesses (tests) students on subjects studied.
Advanced Supplementary exams, begun in 1987, are usually taken at ages 17 or 18 to allow sixth formers to study a wider range of subjects. Equivalent to half an A-level exam score but with the same academic standards, AS adds breadth of knowledge, while the older A-level has depth of knowledge.

**Assisted Places Scheme**

Government financial aid to parents on a sliding scale according to income to cover whole or partial tuition costs for their academically able children to transfer from a free local education authority (LEA) school to a fee-charging independent (private) school. Some 40 percent of the places are awarded to students already attending fee-charging schools. Authorized by the 1980 Education Act.

**BEd (or B.Ed), Hons.**

Bachelor of Education degree, with honors, earned after a 4-year course in a polytechnic or college of higher education; can also be pursued part-time over a longer period by currently serving teachers. See also (PGCE) Post Graduate Certificate of Education.

**Binary**

Two-part higher education system consisting of (1) universities, and (2) polytechnics and other colleges of higher education; begun after 1965.

**BTEC**

Business and Technician Education Council, since 1983; an accrediting body which designs and oversees courses, qualifications, and certificates in a range of vocational fields below degree level. See also NC, HNC, HND, and CNAA.

**Burnham Committees**

Government-appointed committees that set teacher pay scales (1919 to 1987); succeeded by the 1987 Education (Teachers Pay and Conditions) Act. A 1990 announcement restored negotiation rights on salaries and conditions of service to teachers and to their LEA employers.

**Bursary**

Scholarship; financial aid.
BYC  British Youth Council.

CAT  Colleges of Advanced Technology (a form of higher education which no longer exists); 10 CATs were upgraded from local technology colleges in 1957 to award a Diploma of Technology. These CATs became universities or university colleges after the 1963 Robbins Report. See also Polytechnics.

CATE  Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education, since 1984; advises on initial (beginning) teacher training programs that are suitable for and confer qualified teacher status.

CCW  Curriculum Council for Wales; created by the Education Reform Act of 1988 (ERA 88). Advises the Welsh Office on the national curriculum.

CGLI  City and Guilds of London Institute, since 1878; an accrediting agency that designs and oversees courses, certificates, and qualifications in a wide range of vocational and industrial fields. Normally referred to as "City and Guilds."

CNAA  Council for National Academic Awards, established in 1964 as a degree awarding and quality assurance accrediting agency for approved studies at nonuniversity higher education institutions (polytechnics and other colleges of higher education).

Colleges of Further Education

Colleges of Further Education are postschool (age 16+) educational institutions under LEA control which (like U.S. community colleges) offer a wide range of courses: GCSE, A-level, and AS-level exam courses; work-related vocational BTEC First Certificate or Diploma and BTEC National Certificate or Diploma courses. They also offer sixth form work (A-level and AS-level exams) in LEAs whose comprehensive secondary schools do not have a sixth form (sixth and seventh years of secondary education, for ages 17 and 18).
Command Paper


Community charge

Community charge is a flat (nongraduated) tax paid by all U.K. residents regardless of property status and used for local services, including education. Replaced Rate (local property tax) on April 1, 1990.

Comprehensive schools

Secondary schools that are free, financed by community charge plus central government grants, serve children of all abilities, usually for ages 12 to 16 (most also having a 2-year sixth form for ages 17 and 18. They offer all programs in one school complex: academic, higher education preparatory, vocational, and other programs. Of all pupils, 85.8 percent in England and 98.5 percent in Wales attended comprehensive secondary schools in 1990.

CPVE

Certificate of Pre-Vocational Education, since 1986; a pre-vocational education program taken between ages 14 to 17.

CSE

Certificate of Secondary Education exam (1965 to 1988) was taken at age 16 by most students of average ability. It was introduced after and particularly to supplement GCE-O level exams, which were set and marked by outside examining bodies. CSE was set and marked by secondary school teachers and reflected the local secondary school curriculum. CSE and GCE-O level exams were both replaced in 1988 by the General Certificate of Secondary Education (GCSE) exam.

CTC

City Technology Colleges are secondary schools for ages 11 to 18, with academic and vocational programs. They were originally intended for inner cities and were to be initiated by, linked to, and financed jointly by industry and central government (central government paid over 80 percent of capital costs in 1990).
Day Release  Employee released from work for the day or part of the day for study in a further education (FE) college or polytechnic offering nonadvanced FE courses (NAFE) or advanced FE courses (AFE).

DES  Department of Education and Science, formed in 1964 by amalgamating the Ministry of Education (established in 1944) and the Office of the Minister of Science. DES is responsible for education in England and, through the Welsh Office, in Wales. The DES and the Welsh Office comprise the senior partner in setting education policy, working with LEAs, voluntary (church and private school) bodies, the governing bodies of educational institutions, and teachers. The DES predecessors were the Ministry of Education, 1944 to 1964; the Board of Education, 1899 to 1944; the Education Department, 1856 to 1899; and the Committee of the Privy Council on Education, 1839 to 1856.

11+  Eleven plus exams, in declining use, are IQ and other tests given at the end of primary school, at age 11 or 12, to aid in selection for academic secondary school education in grammar schools.

ERA 88  The Education Reform Act of 1988; passed by Parliament on July 29, 1988; it significantly changed the 1944 Education Act (parts of which remain in effect).

FE  Further Education is postschool (age 16+) education, mainly below degree level or Higher National Diploma (HND) level, offered in a wide range of LEA-administered colleges of further education, tertiary colleges, technical colleges, and other colleges of higher education.

FE/HE/CE  Further and higher education, for postschool (age 16+) students in sixth form colleges and in other colleges of higher education; increasingly referred to as continuing education (CE).

FEU  Further Education Unit within the DES which supports FE research and development.

GCE-A  General Certificate of Education-Advanced level courses and exams are usually taken at ages 17 or 18 in upper sixth
form (sixth and seventh year of secondary education). Adults at FE colleges can take GCE-A level courses at any age. A mix of A level and AS exams is used for university entrance or for job qualifications. GCE-A level is increasingly called A level.

**GCE-O** General Certificate of Education-Ordinary exams were taken at the school leaving age of 16 by the top 20 percent ability students for school leaver job qualifications or, more often, for admission to sixth form and to higher education. GCE-O level exams were set and graded by external examining bodies and had academic prestige. GCE-O level and CSE were replaced in 1988 by the General Certificate of Secondary Education (GCSE).

**GCSE** In 1988 the General Certificate of Secondary Education exam replaced the GCE-O level exam and the CSE exam, both taken at age 16 for job qualifications, or for admission to the sixth form or for admission to FE. Adults at FE colleges can take GCSE at any age, usually studying a syllabus designed for adults.

**GERBIL** Great Education Reform Bill, an early pejorative acronym no longer used for ERA 88 (a gerbil is a small pet rodent known for running in a treadmill).

**Governors (Governing body)** School governing body members, comparable to U.S. school board members. The Education Acts of 1986 and 1988 set the composition, numbers, and duties of governing bodies of primary (U.S. elementary) schools, secondary schools, and separate sixth form colleges. Members of former Boards of Managers for primary schools have been called governors since 1986.

**Grammar schools** Selective, prestigious secondary schools for ages 11 to 18 with an academic curriculum to prepare students for university entrance. They exist in the relatively few places where LEAs have not adopted comprehensive schools.
Grant maintained (GM) school

A provision of ERA 88 allows parents and governors of secondary schools and of larger primary schools to vote to opt out of LEA control and, if approved by the Secretary of State for Education and Science, to receive DES funding (comparable to or better than LEA funding) as a grant maintained (GM) school.

Green Paper

A consultative document reflecting a government department or ministry's thinking about possible policy changes. Concerned persons, organizations, and the public are invited to send comments, criticisms, and suggestions to the appropriate government department or ministry. Also called a Command Paper. See also White Paper.

Head

Head of school; same as headteacher (U.S. school principal).

Headmaster/Headmistress

Same as head of school or headteacher (U.S. male/female school principal).

Headteacher

Same as head of school (U.S. school principal).

Higher Education (HE)

ERA 88 defined higher education as advanced courses above A level or its equivalent, usually offered in universities, polytechnics, and other colleges of higher education.

HMI

Her Majesty's Inspectorate, formed in 1839, consists of almost 500 career civil servant educators who inspect maintained (tax-supported) schools, including maintained FE and HE institutions. HMI publishes reports and advises the government, through the DES, on educational matters. Because all schools are open to government inspection, independent (private) schools may also be inspected to assure compliance with education laws.

HNC  BTEC-accredited Higher National Certificate, earned after a 2-year part-time course after age 16. See AFE.

HND  BTEC-accredited Higher National Diploma, earned after a 2-year full-time, 3-year part-time, or sandwich course after age 16. See AFE.

ILEA  Inner London Education Authority; disbanded on April 1, 1990, when its responsibilities devolved to 12 separate inner London borough LEAs (plus a section called the City of London which has one school).

Independent schools
Private, fee-charging, nongovernment schools; most often established by Anglican, Roman Catholic, or other denominational foundations. Those in the Headmasters' Conference are commonly called "public" schools and, in the past, "great public schools" ("public" because their founders often left funds for free places for bright poor boys). Independent schools for girls are members of the Girls' Schools Association (includes about 250 schools, of which about 25 schools are members of the Girls' Public Day School Trust). Seven percent of all elementary and secondary school students in the U.K. attend independent (private) schools. See also "Public" schools.

Infant school A 3-year lower primary school for ages 4+ to 7.

IT  Information Technology is a term used since the early 1980s to indicate computer use in schools and to train teachers in computer use in their school subjects. The National Council for Educational Technology (NCET) was established to evaluate and promote the use of new technologies, hardware and software, in education.

Junior school Upper primary school for ages 7 to 11 (schools for ages 8 to 12 or 9 to 13 are called middle schools).
Abbreviations, Acronyms, and Commonly Used Terms

LEA  Local Education Authorities are units of local government that provide education and other related services. LEAs were established by the 1902 Education Act to replace School Boards. England had 116 LEAs after ILEA was disbanded in 1990, and Wales had 8 LEAs.

Maintained schools
Maintained schools (tax-supported) are all LEA schools and those voluntary church schools supported by central government funds and local community charge. See also Voluntary schools.

Managers, Board of
Comparable to U.S. school board members. Primary school board of managers were called managers before 1986 but are called governors since 1986. Their composition, number, and duties were set by the 1986 Education Act No. 2. See also Governors (Governing body).

Ministry of Education
Established under the 1944 Education Act; replaced the Board of Education (1899 to 1944), and was succeeded by the DES in 1964.

MSC Manpower Services Commission (1973 to 1988); suggested by the Industrial Training Act of 1964; provided national policy on programs for vocational training for ages 14 to 18; replaced by the Training Commission in 1988; renamed The Training Agency, and to be reabsorbed after 1990 into the Department of Employment. Major MSC training schemes included Training Opportunities Scheme (TOPS), Youth Opportunities Program (YOPS), Youth Training Scheme (YTS, called Youth Training since May 1990), and Employment Training (ET) for adults.

NAFE Non-Advanced Further Education, a term little used in 1990 (see FE and AFE), was study in academic and vocational education for students ages 16+, up to and including BTEC-accredited National
Certificate/Diploma, A-level qualifications, and their equivalents. Outmoded since 1988 and replaced by FE.

**NC** BTEC-accredited National Certificate, earned after a 2- or a 3-year part-time day or evening course and considered equivalent to A-level exam pass for job qualifications or admission to higher education.

**NCC** National Curriculum Council; independent curriculum review, evaluation, advisory, and research body created by ERA 88; replaced Schools Curriculum Development Committee (1983 to 1988).

**NCVQ** The National Council for Vocational Qualifications was established in 1986 to coordinate and standardize qualifications for the wide variety of vocational education and training programs. An NCVQ-created body, NVQ (see below), formulated (1990 to 1992) national competency-based qualifications and transferable credits earned in various vocational training programs.

**ND** BTEC-accredited National Diploma, earned after a 2-year full-time, 3-year part-time, or sandwich course. Regarded as equivalent to A-level exam qualifications for job placement and for admission to higher education. ND is a nonadvanced FE course (NAFE).

**NFER** National Foundation for Educational Research, founded in 1946 to investigate educational problems and provide objective evidence for teachers, administrators, parents, and the research community.

**NUT** National Union of Teachers, London, founded in 1870; a large teachers' union of primary school and secondary school teachers. Some other major teacher unions, also with both primary school and secondary school teachers, include the National Association of Schoolmasters and Union of Women Teachers, 1922; the Assistant Masters and Mistresses Association, 1978; the Professional Association of Teachers, 1970; the National Association of Headteachers; and the Secondary Heads Association. Higher education teacher associations include: the National Association of Teachers in Further and Higher
Education, Association of Polytechnic and College Teachers, and Association of University Teachers.

**NVQ**  National Vocational Qualification is a competency-based qualification and transferable credit system in occupational training programs. NVQ specifies the standard of performance achieved and the number and kind of vocational competencies learned. NVQ's vocational training standards and transferable credits were formulated (1990 to 1992) for all occupations, based on standards from industry. See also NCVQ.

**O level**  O (for Ordinary; i.e., GCE-O) level exams were taken by the top 20 percent of academic ability pupils at the school leaving age of 16 for (1) job qualifications for school leavers, (2) sixth form admission, and (3) university admission. Three to 5 O-level exams plus additional A-level exams were usually needed for university admission. The O level exam and the CSE exam were replaced in 1988 by the General Certificate of Secondary Education (GCSE). Same as GCE-O level exam.

**Open College**  A distance-learning initiative, begun in 1987 to improve opportunities for continuing education and for vocational education and training by means of open learning systems. (It was being restructured in 1990.)

**Open Tech**  Open Tech programs, based on the success of the Open University (OU), were started in 1982 by the MSC (1973 to 1988) to provide start-up funds but not necessarily continuing funds for vocational preparation of technicians and supervisors by means of open learning systems.

**OU**  Open University, founded in 1969; uses television, radio, assigned readings, and tests to offer higher education to degree-level for students over age 21. Its delivery system is referred to as Distance Learning. The first degrees were awarded in 1971; it had about 101,000 graduates, 1971 to 1990.

**Oxbridge**  Refers collectively to Oxford and Cambridge, the 2 oldest and still most prestigious universities in England.
Pastoral care  Comparable to U.S. public school guidance and counseling.

PCAS  Polytechnics Central Admissions System is a clearing house for all students applying for admission to polytechnics and other higher education institutional members of PCFC.

PCFC  Polytechnics and Colleges Funding Council (since 1988), replaced the Advanced Further Education Pool under LEA financial control. PCFC allocates government funds to nonuniversity higher education institutions and has 15 members, 7 from academia, 8, including the chairperson, from industry, commerce, or finance.

PGCE  Post Graduate Certificate of Education: 1-year teacher education program taken in universities by bachelor degree holders.

PICKUP  Professional, Industrial, and Commercial Updating, a DES project, started in May 1982, offering post-experience vocational courses for the employed; available through universities, polytechnics, and colleges; name changed to Services for Business, September 1989.

Polytechnics  Higher education institutions (31 in England, 1 in Wales) offering academic programs leading to bachelor's and higher degrees; administered by LEAs until ERA 88; since 1990 funded by central government through PCFC.

Prefects  Student monitors given some school responsibilities and privileges in both independent (private) secondary schools and in tax supported state (i.e., LEA and voluntary) secondary schools.

Primary schools
Schools for ages 4+ to 11 or 12 (U.S. elementary school). For administrative purposes, a middle school for ages 8 to 12 is considered a primary school. A middle school for ages 9 to 13 is considered a secondary school.

"Public" schools
Independent schools is the term now preferred for private, fee-charging nongovernment secondary schools. The best
known are members of the Headmasters Conference, founded in 1869; or the Society of Headmasters of Independent Schools, founded in 1961; or the Girls' Schools Association, founded in 1872. Some have junior departments. The older and more prestigious are Eton, Harrow, Winchester, and Rugby, whose students very often attend connected Oxbridge colleges. Earlier called the "great public schools," Independent schools in the U.K. enroll about 7 percent of all secondary school students (including some in junior departments). See also Independent schools.

**RACs** Regional Advisory Councils, supported by LEAs to coordinate and support post-school (age 16+) further education and training. RACs' future is uncertain because they must become self supporting.

**Rates** Local property tax; replaced April 1, 1990, by community charge (pejorative term, poll tax), a flat sum paid by residents regardless of property status.

**Record of Achievement** Both a report to parents and a cumulative record of secondary school courses, test scores, and related achievements which school leavers (age 16+) can show to employers and others. Pilot projects since 1984; implementation plans were uncertain in 1990.

**Redbrick universities** Newer nineteenth and twentieth century universities, distinct from prestigious twelfth and thirteenth century Oxford and Cambridge universities which, with the Universities of Durham (1837) and London (1839), were the first 4 English universities.

**REPLAN** Central government training program for unemployed adults.

**RSA (EB)** Royal Society of Arts, since the eighteenth century; designs and accredits courses and qualifications in business, administration, and commercial subjects. Its Examining Board (EB) is now a separate body.
Sandwich courses
Vocational or other training for students who alternate periods of work with periods of study.

SATs Standard Assessment Tasks, established under ERA 88 to monitor pupil progress in national curriculum subjects. SATs teams were formed under SEAC direction to formulate what students should know about national curriculum subjects at ages 7, 11, 14, and 16. See also SEAC.

SCETT Standing Committee for the Education and Training of Teachers in the Public Sector; founded in 1981.

Schools Council
Full name: Schools Council for Curriculum and Examinations (1964 to 1981); an advisory body on curriculum and exams, with teacher and LEA representatives. It was replaced first by the Schools Curriculum Development Committee (SCDC), which in turn was replaced by the National Curriculum Council, since 1988; and by the Secondary Examinations Council (SEC), which in turn was replaced by the School Examinations and Assessment Council, established by ERA 88. See SEAC (immediately below).

SEAC School Examinations and Assessment Council, established by ERA 88 to advise on all school exams and to supervise national assessment of pupil progress in national curriculum subjects at ages 7, 11, 14, and 16. See also SATs.

Sixth form Post compulsory schooling (after age 16), or the last 2 years (sometimes 3 years) of secondary school, which offers specialized academic study. It is often called lower (age 17) and upper (age 18) sixth form. It is sometimes housed in the same complex as lower secondary school (forms 1 to 5) and sometimes housed in a separate sixth form college. It prepares students for the A-level exams and the AS-level exams and usually leads to university entrance or employment. Adults can take sixth form study in Colleges of Further Education.

State-aided schools  
Maintained (tax supported) schools are financed by central government (about 35 percent of funds in 1990) and LEA community charge (about 65 percent of funds in 1990). About 93 percent of all primary and secondary students attend state-aided schools, 70 percent in LEA schools, and 30 percent in tax-supported voluntary church-owned schools which accept government regulations (divided into voluntary controlled, voluntary aided, and voluntary special agreement schools). See also Voluntary schools.

Streaming  Ability grouping; placing students with others of similar academic ability.

TAP  Training Access Points, begun in 1986; offers support and advice on vocational training opportunities.

TEC  Technician Education Council and the Business Education Council, both recommended in the 1969 Haslegrave Report, were amalgamated in 1983 as the Business and Technician Education Council (BTEC).

TECs  Training and Enterprise Councils are employer-led, locally based vocational training bodies established in England (82 in England) and in Wales to run government-sponsored programs and to stimulate business growth. They replaced the Training Agency's Area Offices.

Tertiary  Third level of education (i.e., primary, secondary, and tertiary school levels) is not higher education but refers to nonadvanced further education (NAFE) and sixth form courses.

Tertiary College  Post secondary (age 16+) non advanced FE college which does not overlap polytechnics or universities.
Three-tier system  
A school complex consisting of first schools, ages 5 to 8 or 9; middle schools, ages 8 to 12 or 13; and upper schools, ages 12 or 13 to 16 or 18.

Tripartite  
Three-part division of secondary schools, recommended in the 1943 Norwood Report and codified in the 1944 Education Act. Until the 1960s, age 11+ exam results separated students into academic grammar schools (the brightest 20 percent), secondary modern schools (average ability, over 70 percent), and secondary technical schools (very few such schools were started).

TVEI  
Technical and Vocational Education Initiative, begun in 1983 and extended nationally in 1987, is a practical and problem solving learning approach for ages 14 to 18; administered by the Department of Employment's Training Agency in cooperation with HMI, the DFE, and the LEAs.

UCCA  
University Central Council on Admissions, founded in 1961 to handle admissions for all undergraduate courses in all U.K. universities (except OU) and their affiliated colleges.

UCET  
University Council for the Education of Teachers, established in 1967 as a national forum for teacher education concerns.

UFC  
Universities Funding Council, called for in ERA 88, replaced the University Grants Committee (UGC) as the government-appointed body to allocate funds to universities. Of the 15 members appointed by the Secretary of State for Education and Science, 7 are from higher education and 8, including the chairperson, are from industry, commerce, or finance.

UGC  
University Grants Committee (1919 to 1989), a government-appointed body which allocated government funds to universities. Replaced in 1989 by the smaller, more industry-oriented Universities Funding Council (UFC).
UK
United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland (includes England, Wales, Scotland, Northern Ireland, the Isle of Man, the Channel Islands, and other islands).

VC
Vice Chancellor; chief administrator of a university (chancellors are mainly honorary and ceremonial).

Voluntary schools
Voluntary schools are church owned or nonprofit charitable trust schools (primary and/or secondary schools) which operate under government regulations and are tax-supported. They are of 3 kinds: voluntary controlled schools, in which LEAs bear all costs; voluntary aided schools, in which the church owners own and repair buildings (with some government reimbursement); and voluntary special arrangement schools, in which LEAs pay half or more of building costs. Voluntary schools also agree to have on their governing bodies a prescribed number of LEA and teacher representatives.

WAB
Wales Advisory Body.

WEA
Workers' Educational Association, founded in 1903.

White Paper
Proposal for legislative changes set forth by the government for debate in Parliament before a bill is introduced. Also called Command Paper. See also Green Paper.

WJEC
Welsh Joint Education Committee, founded in 1948 as an advisory coordinating body and examining board. No counterpart in England except in FE; see RACs.

YTS
Youth Training Scheme, 1983 to 1990, under MSC; run by employers for job training: 2 years for 16-year-olds; 1 year for 17-year-olds. YTS was replaced by Youth Training in May 1990, which allows employers more flexibility in programs.
Brief History of State Education in England and Wales

INTRODUCTION

**Brief Facts**

The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland (its official name, U.K.) includes 2 main and several small islands off the northwest coast of Europe, separated from France by the English Channel. The U.K. consists of England and Wales (England in the south and Wales in the west of the main island); Scotland in the north of the main island; Northern Ireland on the island to the west (north of the independent Republic of Ireland); the Isle of Man in the Irish Sea; and the Channel Islands near France. The unique position of these islands has made the U.K. part of and yet apart from Europe.

The U.K.'s population of 57.1 million (estimated, 1990) lives on 94,251 square miles, about the size of Oregon. It is made up of England, population 50 million, or 83 percent of the U.K. population, living on 50,332 square miles; Wales, population 2,791,851, on 8,018 square miles; Scotland, population 5,130,735, on 30,414 square miles; and Northern Ireland, population 1,490,228, on 5,452 square miles. The U.K. is highly urban (92.5 percent) and its population density is 601 per square mile.

The ethnic makeup is 97.2 percent of British stock (English, Scottish, Irish, and Welsh) and 2.8 percent West Indian, Indian, Pakistani, and others. Britain has a constitutional monarch and a 2-house Parliament: House of Commons and House of Lords. Its religious groups include Church of England (or Anglican, the state church), Roman Catholic, nonconformists, Muslims, Hindu, Sikh, and Jewish. Britain's adult literacy rate is said to be 99 percent, although
literacy experts say some 10 percent have serious reading and writing problems.¹

England and Wales form one education unit, the subject of this study. Not covered are Scotland, Northern Ireland, the Isle of Man, or the Channel Islands, each with somewhat different and separately administered and financed education systems.

OVERVIEW

_Nineteenth Century World Power_

Britain, where the Industrial Revolution began in the late 1700s, helped create the modern world. Here the spinning jenny and power applied to weaving looms revolutionized the textile industry. Steam power for weaving and railroads stimulated coal mining; aided the growth of cotton mills and other factories; increased rail and canal transportation; spurred town and city growth; and improved ironmaking, which gave way to steel. The Industrial Revolution changed England from a green and pleasant land (still found in rural areas) to a modern urban, densely packed, imperial power, once the most influential since Rome. In Europe's competition for empire, Britain's strategic insularity and sea power helped win for it many overseas territories. These provided raw materials for its factories, markets for its goods, and vast commerce and trade. Its large empire, on which the "sun never sets," included at its height one-fourth of the world's land and one-fifth of the world's people.² (Some historians see "empire" wealth as a myth, with trade with the West and China as more important.)

_Twentieth Century Decline_

Britain's loss of world status after World War I was not generally apparent until the end of World War II. Britain lost many of its best young men in World War I, stood almost alone against Nazi Germany in 1940, and emerged from World War II victorious but exhausted. In wartime consensus, Parliament passed the 1944 Education Act, promising secondary education to all, previously available to few working class children. War sacrifices demanded more fairness in health, welfare, and education. The Labor (British spelling, Labour) Party in power extended social welfare programs, which benefited those at the bottom of the socioeconomic scale. With scarce resources and mounting welfare costs, the country could only repair, not rebuild, its ruined...
industrial plants. Unable to compete with the new, efficient industrial plants of western Europe and Japan, Britain also faced postwar decolonization and loss of empire. It gave independence to India (1947) and soon after to most of its other territories. After 1947 the British Commonwealth of Nations, in existence since 1926, became more prominent, with Britain but one among its 50 member states.

**Delayed State Education**

Why was state education for all delayed longer in England and Wales than in most other advanced countries? Workers in the early Industrial Revolution cotton mills, in other factories, and in coal mines did not at first need to be literate. Only a few supervisors needed to read and write. The demand for child labor, in fact, discouraged parents from sending their children to school for long. The Factory Acts of 1802 and 1819 set the minimum working age at 9. The Factory Act of 1833 required working children ages 9 to 13 to attend school for 2 hours daily for 6 days a week, a provision not always enforced.

**Church Dominance in Education**

Church competition also contributed to delayed state mass education. From Henry VIII’s time, the state church, the Church of England (or Anglican Church), considered education its monopoly. Dissenting (non-Anglican) Baptist, Methodist, Quaker, and other churches, along with the Roman Catholic Church, similarly considered education their monopoly for their adherents. Each ran its own schools and considered education as its (not the state’s) responsibility. Most wanted state financial aid for their church schools, but without state interference (Baptists and Quakers did not seek aid). Competing church interests helped defeat 4 bills in Parliament before 1833 to establish state schools.

Competing religious groups dominated British education long after Germany, the U.S., and other nations attained state control over their education. Unlike Britain, mass education systems in these countries flourished before and increasingly after 1850. Some observers believe that the resulting enlightenment, nationalism, and better prepared workers contributed to their outproducing and outselling Britain on the world market.
State Grants 1833+ and Dual Education System

The first state grants for education in England and Wales from 1833 went to two church bodies for their primary (U.S. elementary) school buildings. State secular primary schools began with the 1870 Education Act, but state schools were opened only where no or too few church and private primary schools existed. State secondary schools began with the 1902 Education Act but were not connected with primary schools until the 1918 Education Act. State primary and secondary schools, along with further education (post compulsory education), were not fully connected until the 1944 Education Act.

The delay in state mass education for all was thus caused by the Industrial Revolution's need for child labor, church dominance (rather than state dominance) over education, church competition, church resistance to state intrusion in education, and the historically dual system of educating elites in mainly Anglican or dissenting church schools or in private schools, while working class children learned the 3 Rs and religion briefly and inadequately in charity schools.

This dual school system—which arose naturally in Britain as elsewhere but lasted longer in Britain than in France, the U.S., Germany, and some other countries—consisted of: (1) fee-charging church and private schools for a ruling elite; and (2) low-fee charity schools (Saturday schools, monitorial schools, Ragged Schools, and others), and later free state primary schools, for the working poor. The dual school system pragmatically suited British history, class structure, economic outlook, Industrial Revolution success, and world power status. The dual school system, along with social attitudes, class divisions, and church rivalries, also contributed to delayed state education and the subsequent patchwork of educational compromises.

This overview leaves an unanswered historical question. Are historians right who attribute Britain's decline to late nineteenth and early twentieth century educational shortcomings caused by class division, denominational rivalry, church dominance in education, delayed state education, and giving arts prestige and precedence over industrial training and science? Whence, then, came the engineers, scientists, bankers, insurance leaders, craftsmen, and clerks who made Britain the first industrialized nation and the first major business nation? Still unanswered are the reasons for Britain's decline, surely evident after World War II and likely attributable to human and material
losses from both world wars, from inefficient industrial plants, from loss of empire, and from welfare state malaise.

**BRIEF HISTORY: EARLY CHURCH AND PRIVATE SCHOOLS**

The following brief history of state education helps explain England and Wales's varied and seemingly complex school system.

**Anglo-Saxon Beginnings, 600-1066**

Roman general Agricola is said to have established schools in Britain in 78 A.D. to Romanize the sons of native chieftains. A few tribal leaders, officials, and some craftsmen and traders learned Latin. Roman Catholic missionary St. Augustine arrived from Rome in 597 and established a church and school in Canterbury. Alcuin was connected with the cathedral school at York, established in 732. But monasteries were the main centers of learning.

**Early Medieval Period, 566-1300**

...and absorbed Greek and Arabic learning in Latin translation. The Norman Conquest (1066) brought books and masters from France. Oxford (c. 1161), like Paris and Bologna, became a center of learning, with migrating students founding schools in Cambridge (1209), Salisbury (1238), and elsewhere. Clerics had some Latin learning, knights who fought had less, while peasants were mainly illiterate. Of England's population of 3 million in 1300, about 3 percent were variously literate in Latin, French, or English (about 1.5 percent clerics and 1.5 percent lay civil servants, lawyers, judges, knights, and merchants).

**Later Medieval Education, 1300-1530**

Education centers were in monasteries, cathedrals, other great churches, and schools attached to chantries, where clerics and boys chanted intercessory prayers for the dead. Oxford and Cambridge Universities probably began as chantry foundations. In 1382 wealthy Bishop William of Wykeham founded Winchester College, originally for "poor and needy" boys, age 8 and up, who prepared to enter New College, Oxford University. Eton was founded by King Henry VI in 1440 to prepare boys for King's College, Cambridge University. These,
along with Rugby (1567), Harrow (1571), and others formed the prestigious private boarding schools, the 9 "Great Public Schools." They became the preserves of the upper class and had their greatest growth in the nineteenth century. Here boys were hardened physically and mentally by a system of competitive sports, caning, fagging (doing upperclassmen's bidding), and the study of classics.

These exclusive, high cost, elite "public" schools (founders established scholarships for poor but bright boys; hence "public" schools as charitable foundations under state charter, unlike other private-for-profit schools) produced leaders who, with distinctive public school accents and "old school" friendships, still form a high proportion of Cabinet ministers, bishops, judges, senior civil servants, and ranking military and business leaders. Lesser known church or private fee-required day grammar schools were founded, preparing boys for the universities, the apex of the education system. Trade guild masters trained apprentices who became journeymen, some becoming masters themselves. Inns of Court prepared wealthier boys by apprenticeship to become lawyers. Wealthier merchants shared the social and educational privileges of the gentry. William Caxton's London printing press in 1476 increased literacy and helped bring on the Reformation.

**Educational Expansion, 1530-1640**

Henry VIII's break with Rome brought into being the Church of England (or Anglican Church) and the English-language Book of Common Prayer. Renaissance humanistic learning flourished during the time of Elizabeth I and Shakespeare. To Latin grammar schools as feeders to the universities were added English schools for merchants' sons and daughters (girls studied for a shorter time), and small fee-charging petty schools and dame schools for the poor. One account estimates that England's male literacy rate in larger towns and cities in 1640 was between 30 percent and 60 percent.

**Puritan Revolution, 1640-1660**

While some schools suffered under the Puritan Commonwealth (after Charles I was beheaded, 1649), education tracts and pamphlets were distributed and debated, particularly the innovative educational writings of Moravian Bishop John Amos Comenius (he visited England in 1641), Polish-born Samuel Hartlib, John Milton (he wrote *Of Education*), and others.
Pre-Industrial Academies and Charity Schools, 1660-1780

After the monarchy was restored in 1660, non-Anglicans were barred from universities. Quakers and other dissenters responded by founding academies, which were terminal secondary schools offering more commercial, practical, and professional learning than did secondary grammar schools and universities.

Low-fee charity schools for the poor, begun as parish primary schools, expanded as Anglican and dissenting church subscription committees raised supporting funds. Charity schools were taken over by the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge in 1699. Workhouse industrial schools also served pauper children. Private tutors lived in the homes of the 3 to 4 percent of society who formed the nobility. John Locke, such a tutor to the future Earl of Shaftesbury's son, later wrote Thoughts Concerning Education, 1693.

NINETEENTH-TWENTIETH CENTURIES

Sunday Schools, Monitorial Schools, 1780-1830

As Industrial Revolution factories increased and people moved from rural to urban areas, the need for charity schools grew. To teach the 3 Rs and morality to children working six days in factories, mills, and mines, Robert Raikes, Gloucester Journal editor and evangelical churchman, began and publicized Sunday schools in 1783. The Society for the Establishment and Support of Sunday Schools followed in 1785. Enrollment rose from 750,000 in 1800 to 1.5 million in 1830. Teachers, inexperienced and poorly paid, soon shifted from secular to religious instruction.

Sunday schools heightened further the rivalry between Anglicans and nonconformists in monitorial schools. Raikes met Quaker educator Joseph Lancaster, whose monitorial schools, begun in 1798, competed successfully with Anglican educator Andrew Bell's monitorial schools, begun in 1797. One master would teach simple 3 R lessons to older and abler pupils, each of whom in turn repeated those lessons to 10 or more younger pupils. One master could thus reach 100 or more pupils inexpensively with simple lessons.

The nondenominational (but Christian) Lancasterian Society, 1808, became the British and Foreign School Society, 1815, competing with Anglican Bell's larger National Society for Promoting the
Education of the Poor in the Principles of the Established Church, founded in 1811. Textile factory owner and socialist Robert Owen aided financially both Lancaster and Bell. Owen's successful infant school in New Lanark, Scotland, had 300 day school children plus 400 in evening classes in 1816. Samuel Wilderspin in 1824 organized an Infant School Society. The Glasgow Infant School Society, 1827, became the Home and Colonial Infant School Society, 1836, using Swiss educator Johann Heinrich Pestalozzi's "object lessons" for simple hands-on learning, which spread to the U.S. and elsewhere.

To Sunday schools and monitorial schools were added Ragged Schools in the early 1840s when John Pounds, a Portsmouth cobbler, gave some ragged children care and training. The Earl of Shaftesbury in 1844 helped found the Ragged School Union, which raised supporting funds. By 1870 the Union ran 132 schools enrolling nearly 25,000 children.

Voluntary church and private agencies ran Sunday schools, monitorial schools, and Ragged Schools for poor children who usually attended for a short time. These combined the 3 Rs, religion, morality, and social education to fit children for their working class status and to meet industrial needs. No state aid was given to primary schools until 1833, after Parliament had considered and rejected 4 state education proposals: the 1807 Samuel Whitbread-led Parochial Schools Bill; the 1818 Lord Henry Brougham-led report, The Education of the Lower Orders of Society; the 1820 Lord Brougham-led Parish School Bill; and the 1833 John Roebuck-led Education Bill. The Factory Act of 1833 for the first time limited child labor to 9 hours a day for ages 9-13 and required that they attend school 2 hours daily in a 6-day week.

First State Grants for Church School Buildings, 1833

Compensation for the failed 1833 John Roebuck-led education bill came in a government grant of £20,000 (then worth about $100,000) for primary schools in 1833, given annually, and which rose to £30,000 in 1839. The grants were channeled through the two main voluntary bodies, about 80 percent through the larger (Anglican) National Society, and about 20 percent through the (nonconformist) British and Foreign School Society. Each had to raise 50 percent of school costs and to meet recurring costs thereafter.

To their classical studies, Anglican-dominated Oxford and Cambridge Universities added mathematics examinations in 1800 and

Population in England and Wales, 1801 to 1830, rose from 9 million to 14 million; towns of over 20,000 population increased from 15 to 43. Literacy rose as cheaper books, newspapers, and libraries increased. Working class adult education was advanced through Mechanics Institutes, the first founded in London in 1823, and the Society for the Diffusion of Useful Knowledge, founded in 1826.

**State Grants for Elementary Education 1833-1869**

Annual grants to the two societies' church school buildings were administered by the Committee of the Privy Council on Education, established in 1839 under Secretary James Kay-Shuttleworth. Grants followed satisfactory inspection by Her Majesty's Inspectors (HMI), established in 1839. Anglicans charged the Committee with undermining their authority when in 1846 the Committee laid down conditions for the management of state-aided church schools. In the 1840s £500,000 was distributed by the Committee, four-fifths of it through the larger (Anglican) National Society. From 1843 grants were made for school buildings, furniture, and apparatus. In 1846 Kay-Shuttleworth started apprenticeship teacher training for bright pupil teachers over age 13 who passed an annual exam conducted by HMIs. Some received Queen's Scholarships at 30 teacher training colleges which, by 1859, produced over 7,000 certified teachers. After 1853 maintenance grants went to rural district schools on the basis of attendance and the employment of certified teachers. The School Code of 1860 tacitly acknowledged the wary state-church collaboration in state-aided but low fee-charging church and private primary schools for working class children. State aid was based on HMI-approved school work in cooperating church and private schools whose leaders were administratively and religiously dominant. Yet, by 1850, only half of British children received any regular schooling.

**Two Nations: Rich and Poor**

Prime Minister Disraeli asserted that "two nations" had developed: a small rich upper class and a large poor working class (in fact, an emerging middle class was growing). Those with economic power believed that state-aided primary schools, by teaching religion
and morality, would keep the poor from radicalism and revolution, as had happened among Chartist rioters and Owenite socialists. Some wealthy upper class leaders feared as subversive the state primary schools initiated and overseen by Kay-Shuttleworth's Committee of Council (which became the Education Department in 1856, still under the Privy Council), HMIs, and their published reports.

Newcastle Report, 1861

The Newcastle Commission, 1861, examined how (if at all) to extend "sound and cheap" primary education to all. It followed several education bills which failed because Anglicans mainly and Roman Catholics zealously guarded their educational monopoly despite nonconformist and secular urging to expand state education. The Commission found that most (2.5 million) of an estimated 2.6 million poor children attended school from 4 to 6 years until age 11, with about 5.4 percent remaining after age 13.8 It rejected free and compulsory primary education, recommended continued voluntary church and private school initiative supplemented by state aid based on "Payment by Results"; i.e., grants based on students' academic ability shown through test results.

Payment by Results

Robert Lowe, Education Department head (1859 to 1864), incorporated "Payment by Results" into the Revised Code of 1862, which lasted until 1897. Under "Payment by Results," up to two thirds of a school's grant depended on the number of children passing these exams. State education grants subsequently dropped from £813,441 in 1861 to £636,806 in 1865, and then rose. HMI (Inspector) Matthew Arnold, who opposed grants tied to exams, said the problem was pupils' irregular attendance and dropping out. He believed that free, compulsory primary education would produce higher standards.

Behind the 1870 Elementary Education Act

Successive Factory Acts raised the minimum age when children could begin work (age 13 in 1833), thus making for more idle, nonworking children. Voluntary church and private efforts could not supply enough primary schools. Churches were thus forced to accept the need for state primary schools. When the 1867 Reform Act extended voting rights to working men in 1868, Member of Parliament (MP)
Robert Lowe said, "You have placed the government in the hands of the masses; you must therefore give them education."9

The quality of foreign industrial products, particularly German, seen at the 1867 Paris Exhibition, made Britain fear losing its industrial lead to European countries with allegedly better educated workers. Many admired German industry, attributed to its superior state primary schools. MP W.E. Forster, architect of the 1870 Education Act, said, "Upon the speedy provision of elementary education depends our industrial prosperity... We must make up for the smallness of our numbers by increasing the intellectual force of the individual."10 Britain was also concerned over the army's poor showing in the Crimean War against Russia, 1853 to 1856, vaguely attributed to faults in Britain's education system. These and other considerations led the Liberal W.E. Gladstone government through W.E. Forster, Education Department head (1868 to 1874), to usher in the 1870 Education Act.

(Forster) 1870 Elementary Education Act

Forster continued the dual system: voluntary church and private primary schools to continue receiving 50 percent grants for operating costs, with state primary schools to be built where no or too few voluntary church schools existed. The religious compromise was that objecting parents could withdraw their children from religious instruction in state schools which would begin each day with a collective act of worship; i.e., an assembly prayer or religious message or moral reading or talk. School Boards, elected under the Act, could raise local property taxes (British term, rates, and since 1990, community charge) to aid further their primary schools, whose parent-paid fees continued. Compulsory attendance, ages 5 to 13, became a local option.

The 1870 Act did not make primary education compulsory (which occurred in 1880) or free (which occurred in 1891) but aimed to make it universally available. Payment by Results continued with annual exams. H.G. Wells, himself both a pupil and later a teacher in primary schools, bitterly called the 1870 Act "An Act to educate the lower classes for employment on lower class lines, and with... inferior teachers."11 "Breeding" (family and social status) was generally believed to be more important than ability shown by some working class children.
Primary School Expansion, 1870-1902

In 1870 voluntary church primary schools served 750,000 children. By 1900 the dual voluntary church and state primary schools enrolled 5.75 million children, 53 percent of them in voluntary church schools.12 State primary education became compulsory in 1880 for ages 5 to 10 (ages 5 to 11 in 1893 and ages 5 to 12 in 1899) and free in 1891. Some working class parents preferred to pay fees for their children in the more respected and exclusive voluntary church schools. Payment by Results based on annual exams ended in the mid 1890s, freeing teachers to vary the curriculum. Grants were then based on attendance and satisfactory "general inspection" reports. The Education Department's annual elementary education expenditure rose from under £1 million in 1870, to over £5 million in 1899.13

Higher Grade Primary Classes (Secondary School Level), 1880s

Though state secondary schools did not begin until the 1902 Education Act, the Sheffield School Board pioneered secondary-type schooling in 1880 by expanding its higher primary grades for working class children able to stay past age 12. Other pacesetting city School Boards also offered secondary-type schooling with a scientific, technical, or commercial bias. Pupil-teachers with Queen's Scholarship preparing to enter teacher training colleges also had secondary school level education. In 1882 an extra class (British term of the time, standard) was added for those able to stay to age 13. In 1887 the London School Board's higher grade primary schools admitted all children without selection by ability and taught advanced subjects relevant to working class life. The Bryce Report of 1895 favored these schools as "a new educational movement from below."14

In 1890 the government reduced the number of higher grade primary schools and based selection on ability. In 1902 School Boards were replaced by local authorities, which were the County Councils and County Borough. The local authorities could (and some did) open new council secondary grammar schools which, with scholarships, created a narrow selective ladder from primary school to the university.

Educational Overlap Before 1902

Before the 1902 Education Act brought some order, three separate, overlapping, class-divided, uncoordinated school "systems"
 existed. First, most upper class children attended a private preparatory school to age 13 (a few had private tutors) before entering one of the 9 great endowed public schools, such as Winchester or Eton, or one of the 200 other less well known imitators. The Clarendon Commission, 1864, brought some uniformity to the 9 great public schools and preparatory schools, with closer association coordinated by the Headmasters' Conference after 1869. Second, children from the aspiring middle class attended fee-charging voluntary church or private primary schools, then entered less famous fee-required voluntary church or private secondary (grammar) schools. The 1868 Taunton Commission classified these less prestigious and more numerous private secondary (grammar) schools as follows: 705 endowed classical grammar schools, 2,200 nonclassical grammar schools, and 10,000 private for-profit secondary schools. In 1861 an estimated 974,258 upper and middle class students, ages 5 to 20, attended fee-charging secondary (grammar) schools.

Third, after 1870, although many poor people paid fees for their bright children to attend grammar schools, most working class children attended state-aided School Board primary schools (fees were still required). Some State Board primary schools had higher classes approaching secondary school level, were administered nationally by the Education Department, and received grants from the Department of Science and Art. They were administered locally by School Boards or School Attendance Committees or Technical Instruction Committees of the new (created in 1888) County and County Borough Councils. These multipurpose County and County Borough Councils became Local Education Authorities (LEAs) after 1902, vital basis for a full fledged national system of state education.

The 1867 Paris Industrial Exhibition and later similar world fairs, influenced British educators to start state secondary technical education. The 1889 Technical Instruction Act allowed local property taxes (rates) to support technical education. That year, too, Wales, with fewer secondary schools than England, was allowed state aid plus local property tax (rate) money for secondary schools (100 new Welsh secondary schools opened before 1900). The 1895 Bryce Commission recommended secondary school expansion with state aid (fees were retained) and newly formed Local Authorities for Secondary Education in all counties and county boroughs. In 1899 a single Board of
Education replaced the previous 3 organizations: Education Department, Department of Science and Art, and the Charity Commission.

(Balfour) 1902 Education Act

The 1902 Education Act replaced existing School Boards, School Attendance Committees, and Technical Instruction Committees with some 300 LEAs. County Councils and County Borough Councils were designated as LEAs responsible for primary education, secondary education, teacher training, technical education, and adult education. Municipal borough LEAs in about 180 towns and cities with over 10,000 people each were responsible for primary education only. Local tax (rate) aid was given to voluntary church schools to pay all operating costs. Voluntary church primary schools, renamed "non-provided schools," were administered by the LEAs. LEAs could use state aid plus local taxes (rates) to support voluntary church grammar schools or to create new secondary schools, including technical secondary schools, and to establish and maintain teacher training colleges for primary school teachers. Some nonconformists, especially in Wales, who did not like this division of state aid between both state schools and state-aided voluntary church secondary schools, resisted by refusing to pay their taxes (rates).

In introducing the 1902 Education Act, Conservative Party Prime Minister Arthur Balfour said that £18 million a year was spent on primary education, that over 3 million children were in 14,000 voluntary church schools, and 2.6 million children in 5,700 Board schools. The dual track system remained: most working class pupils attended state primary schools and went to work at about age 14; most upper class students went on to voluntary church or private secondary schools.

One view is that the Conservative Party's purpose in the 1902 Education Act was not to advance working class children to secondary schools but to prevent "liberal-dominated school boards" from building more state schools, from encroaching on secondary education, and also to bolster voluntary church grammar schools. The 1902 Act distinguished between free primary schools for working class children to age 13 (a few able ones continued to age 15 and then went to work), and middle class children in fee-charging voluntary church secondary grammar schools to age 16 (often to age 18, who then went to a university or to a managerial or professional position).
In 1908 the Board of Education, under Liberal Party direction, connected hitherto separate primary and secondary schools by requiring "free places" in voluntary church secondary grammar schools for tax-supported LEA students passing a qualifying exam taken at about age 11 (commonly called 11+). Although such "free" secondary school places increased from 25 percent in 1908, to 40 percent in 1919, to 57 percent in 1938, the ratio of those enrolled was 6 middle class children for every working class child.

As free secondary school places increased, so did the use of tests (in English, maths, and in general intelligence) for secondary school selection. These tests became the age "11+ exam" after the 1944 Education Act. Several types of Junior Certificate exams taken at ages 14 or 15 in 1911 were replaced in 1917 by School Certificate exams.21

(Fisher) 1918 Education Act

The 1918 Education Act, led by H.A.L. Fisher, president of the Board of Education, called for state-aided day nurseries to age 3 and nursery schools for ages 3 to 5 (not implemented because of the economic slump); raised the school leaving age to 14; retained the 1902 division between tax-supported free LEA primary schools and state-aided fee-charging voluntary church secondary grammar schools, but increased secondary school scholarships; and made larger grants to LEAs to increase teachers' salaries. The requirement that LEAs give part-time education up to age 18 to those who left school at 14 was dropped for lack of funds.22

Hadow 1926, Spens 1938, and Norwood 1943 Reports

The 1926 Hadow Report, The Education of the Adolescent, recommended that after 6 years of primary school, ages 5 to 11, the age 11+ exam be used to separate all students into 3 types of secondary schools (British term, tripartitism): grammar school for bright students from all backgrounds heading for the university, ages 11 to 18 or 19; secondary technical schools for the technically inclined, also ages 11 to 18 or 19; and secondary modern schools for the average, ages 11 to 16, and below average, ages 11 to 14 or 15.23 It recommended raising the school leaving age to 15 (delayed until 1947).24

The 1938 Spens Report endorsed the Hadow Report's 3 types of secondary schools, suggesting secondary grammar schools for the ablest 15 percent of student and the use of intelligence tests to make the
separation at age 11+. The 1943 Norwood Report also endorsed the 3 types of secondary schools; recommended as substitute for School Certificate Exams (age 15 or 16) a General Certificate of Education-Ordinary Level Exam (GCE-O, at age 16); and a School Leaving Exam at age 18 (later called GCE-A or Advanced Level Exam) for university entrance and professional qualification; and part-time education option to age 18 for those leaving school at ages 15 or 16. The Spens and Norwood committee members thought that the 3 types of secondary schools would have "parity of esteem" (still hotly debated). Later critics said that the 3-part secondary school system (tripartitism) delayed for 20 years equal secondary school opportunity for all.

An Education Bill to raise the school leaving age to 15 did not pass in 1930. Another was discarded by the House of Lords in 1931. Another was passed in 1936 to take effect in September 1939, but World War II prevented its implementation.

Toward the 1944 Education Act

World War II cooperation and sacrifice helped shift Britain's laissez-faire attitude about education as a private family matter to education as a state responsibility. The Fabian Society since 1883 urged a socialized democracy and education for all (members included George Bernard Shaw, novelist H.G. Wells, economists Beatrice and Sidney Webb, and others). Its political descendant, the Labor Party won the 1945 election. Britain voted Conservative Winston Churchill out and voted in Labor Party leader Clement Attlee. The Labor Party, since 1906 and particularly since displacing the Liberal Party in 1918 as the chief rival to the Conservative Party, was determined to expand social welfare.

With Europe bankrupt and with the USSR under Stalin creating Communist buffer states in Eastern Europe, the U.S. used Marshall Plan aid to bolster European recovery and thus to resist communist takeovers in Western European countries (Greece, for example, was saved from becoming communist). This attempt succeeded, reviving the Western European economies. While Europe recovered, Britain, home of capitalism, went socialist (some European countries also had socialist administrations).

The Labor Party used Britain's limited resources to expand social programs in health, welfare, and education. Increased spending led to a
fall in the value of the British pound from $4.03 to $2.80, September 17-18, 1949. Britain's loss of the Suez Canal in 1956 and, with it, her fragile hold on Middle East oil, contributed to her problems.\textsuperscript{2} Internally, the 1944 Education Act was a turning point, more for what it promised than for what it delivered.

\textit{(Butler) 1944 Education Act}

The 1944 Education Act retained public funds for the dual education system: LEA state schools and church-owned schools wanting public funds and willing to operate under government regulations. LEA state schools, called "provided" schools since 1902, were renamed county schools. Church-owned schools receiving public funds, called "nonprovided" schools since 1902, were renamed voluntary schools and were organized in 3 categories depending on the degree of government control. In \textit{voluntary special agreement} schools (mostly secondary modern schools), LEAs hired, paid, and dismissed teachers; paid operating costs; and church owners appointed a two-thirds majority of the governing body and paid half of exterior building repair costs. In \textit{voluntary controlled} schools (which most Anglican schools became), LEAs hired, paid, and dismissed teachers; appointed a two-third majority of the governing body, paid operating costs; while religion was taught on an agreed-on nondenominational syllabus. In \textit{voluntary aided} schools, church owners retained the most control, appointed a two-third majority of the governing body; hired and dismissed teachers (subject to approval by the LEA, which paid the teachers) and paid half of external building repair costs. The Ministry of Education had the power to inspect private schools and to close inefficient ones.\textsuperscript{30}

The 1944 Act raised the school leaving age to 15 (occurred in 1947) and incorporated the 1926 Hadow Report's recommended 3 types of secondary schools (tripartitism). The age 11+ exam separated pupils into secondary grammar schools for the academically able (about 20 percent), secondary technical schools for the technically skilled (few of these were established), and secondary modern schools for the practical minded majority (about 70 percent). Secondary school fees were ended in both LEA schools and in tax-supported voluntary church schools. Parity of esteem was a catch phrase. Most "knew" (were convinced) that the secondary modern school was second best to the secondary grammar school. In fact, fee-required private secondary grammar schools boomed.\textsuperscript{31} ("Grammar" and "secondary" were mutually exclusive terms;
historically and currently, grammar school denotes academic preparation, usually for elites, but also for bright working class students; "secondary" school students were considered second best). Tax-supported voluntary church or private schools continued to get half and later more state aid for running costs. At first and in practice the 1944 Education Act tended to perpetuate the division of "elite" grammar school and "ordinary" plebeian secondary modern school. It should be remembered that "tripartitism" or selectivity in secondary schools had Labor Party as well as Conservative Party approval.

**Comprehensive Secondary School Reorganization, 1965+**

By 1965 secondary school pupils after age 11 included: 6 percent students from more affluent families in fee-charging prestigious "great" public schools or their less famous counterparts; and in free LEA and tax supported voluntary church schools: 20 percent mainly middle class students in prestigious secondary grammar schools to ages 18 or 19; 3 percent mix of working class and middle class students in moderately reputable secondary technical schools, also to ages 18 or 19; and about 70 percent in less esteemed secondary modern schools to age 15 (roughly equivalent to U.S. tenth grade).

The more socialist-minded Labor Party members saw the 3 types of secondary schools as socially divisive and wanted more comprehensive secondary schools (which gained acceptance before 1965) to offer in one school complex all programs--academic, general, technical, and vocational. Many Laborites began to believe that comprehensive schools would end social discrimination and enhance equality of opportunity. Conservatives generally opposed comprehensive schools as an educational "leveling down" (as some people say has happened). Still, by the 1970s, both major political parties accepted comprehensive secondary schools because the voters (i.e., the parents) wanted them.

Under the Labor Party, in office October 1964 to 1970, the Department of Education and Science, in Circular 10/65, asked LEAs for secondary school reorganization plans along comprehensive school lines. That year 65 out of 148 LEAs had plans to go comprehensive, another 55 LEAs considered going comprehensive, but only a handful of LEAs actually had comprehensive secondary schools. In 1965, 262 comprehensive schools enrolled 239,000 students; in 1969, 962 comprehensive schools enrolled 772,000 students (25 percent of all
secondary school students). In 1970, 31 percent of all secondary students were in comprehensive schools, with 22 out of the 163 LEAs refusing to go comprehensive.

In 1970 the Conservative government repealed Circular 10/65 but allowed LEAs to decide for themselves about going comprehensive. Comprehensive schools continued to grow (ironically under the then Secretary of State for Education and Science, Margaret Thatcher). Use of the age 11+ exam declined, although it is still used in a few LEAs that have retained grammar schools. Most caring secondary school teachers favored comprehensive schooling after 1965 because they thought it was fair and that it valued each student equally. Comprehensive schools in 1990 enrolled over 90 percent of all state-aided secondary school pupils.35

**BETWEEN EDUCATION ACTS: 1944 TO 1988**

**School Control and Differentiation Within Comprehensive Schools**

Author J.F. Hunt saw the comprehensive school's alleged democratization as deceptive. He believed that secondary school differences were retained within rather than between secondary schools, differences retained largely by the examination system. The GCE-O level exams at age 16 were taken by the top 20 percent of students, about the same percentage as had gone to selective church and private secondary grammar schools or to selective LEA secondary grammar schools. The best GCE-O level exam passers (to age 16) took the GCE-A (Advanced) level exams (to age 18), leading to the universities or to other attractive opportunities. GCE-O level and A-level exams thus siphoned off the brightest 20 percent. Lesser ability students, who either did not take or did poorly on GCE-O exams, took the Certificate of Secondary Education exam (CSE, 1964 to 1988), which used much more school-based assessment than did the externally set and externally graded GCE-O exams. These exams were the sorting-out hurdles within rather than between schools which "made it easier for Conservatives and upwardly aspiring parents to accept comprehensives."36 (Others say that many comprehensive school heads deliberately chose CSE because it reflected the subjects their schools actually taught. Other educators also noted that highly motivated secondary modern school students often did better on the GCE-O exams than did weaker grammar school students.)
often did better on the GCE-O exams than did weaker grammar school students.)

Hunt noted the post World War II rising school enrollments. Between 1948 and 1972 enrollment rose from 5.41 million to 8.37 million; the number of teachers rose from 195,300 to 382,000 (student-teacher ratio dropped from 27.7 to 22.0); university undergraduates rose from 54,000 to 191,000; and the percentage of Gross National Product spent on education rose from 2.89 percent to 6.6 percent.

Higher education also expanded, as anticipated by the 1963 Robbins Report. A binary (two-part) system of higher education was adopted after 1965, consisting of: (1) universities (more respected, largely independent, and government funded through the University Grants Committee, UGC); and (2) Advanced Further Education (AFE) colleges under LEA control. AFE consisted of 30 polytechnics (so designated in 1970 from existing colleges of technology) and advanced study in about 400 colleges of higher and further education, a few of which awarded degrees accredited by the Council for National Academic Awards (CNAA) from 1964.

Between 1944 and 1988, Hunt wrote, conflict continued between those wanting to extend educational opportunities and those wanting to retain historic education differences and even discrimination. "Schooling arrangements," he concluded, "have...reflected the stratified society that has been and continues to be England." 37

The educational partnership continued, Hunt wrote, but was influenced by central government's increasing dominance over the LEAs, which provided most of the services. This dominance (not yet the direct control which came in the 1980s) was exercised by central government as the major source of funds. Power to approve advanced courses lay with the individual universities or the LEA-supported Regional Advisory Councils (RACs), but real control was exercised by such bodies as the UGC (1919 to 1988) for funding universities; the National Advisory Body (NAB, 1982 to 1989) for funding LEA-controlled colleges; the Secondary Schools Examinations Council (1917 to 1964) and the Schools Council (1964 to 1981), for overseeing secondary school curriculum and exams; the independent National Foundation for Educational Research in England and Wales (NFER, since 1946), which received DES grants for research; and the Assessment of Performance Unit (APU, since 1974) for monitoring school performance.
Recession and Education Cut's, 1973 to the 1980s

In the 1970s conservative reaction grew against alleged excessive progressive education, child-centeredness, expensive inner city Educational Priority Area grants, multicultural education, sex education, and other social education programs. In a time of youthful exuberance (Beatlemania and drug use) and government sex scandals, displeasure with education was expressed in the charge of fallen standards and in demands for a return to basic education, especially in English, maths, science, foreign languages, and religious education.

It was economic recession in the late 1970s and resulting early 1980s forced cuts in public spending, including education cuts, that paved the way for Conservatives to reshape education through the Education Reform Act of 1988 (ERA 88). The 1973 OPEC oil price rise soon quadrupled energy costs, bringing on inflation which, with increased competition from abroad, made 1.25 million jobless by 1979. Britain was forced to borrow money from the International Monetary Fund (IMF) in 1976. IMF, in turn, required Britain to cut public spending, including education spending. Education expenditure fell from 6.3 percent of Gross Domestic Product in 1976 to 5.3 percent in 1980.

Attacks on education from the radical right began with the Black Papers (4 books, from 1969 to 1977) by well-known essayists critical of the 1964 to 1970 Labor government's egalitarian progressive education reforms. The Black Papers were political documents in the guise of education criticism, directed against LEA schools which had dropped age 11+ selection and embraced comprehensive schools. The media, liking a good fight, publicized a few atypical instances of overzealous progressive education, such as in the William Tyndale Junior School, Islington borough, in London. There in 1975 parents were irate over alleged ultraleftist teachers who, it was claimed, had grossly debased the normal curriculum. The National Union of Teachers distanced itself from Tyndale teachers, and the Inner London Education Authority soon brought the school back into line. But Tyndale was loudly touted as typical of fallen LEA school standards.

Concerned about the economic recession and disturbed about the charge of fallen school standards, Labor Prime Minister James Callaghan asked the DES for a report on the state of British education. Supposedly secret, this report was leaked to the press in October 1976. The so-called "Yellow Book" report was critical of progressive education methods in primary schools and was biased against
"undemanding" (i.e., comprehensive) secondary schools. Prime Minister Callaghan's October 18, 1976, Ruskin College, Oxford University, speech opened the so-called Great Debate on Education. On the defensive because of balance of loan payments, rising unemployment, and government budget cuts, and genuinely concerned about educational quality, he called for a redirection of education to aid British industry and the economy. "You must satisfy parents and industry," he told teachers, "that what you are doing meets their requirements." The Great Debate on Education was sped along in 8 regional public conferences on educational issues in 1977. It marked central government's entry into school curriculum issues, hitherto left to teachers and other educators. It anticipated ERA 88's emphasis on more centralized government control, less LEA control, and more industry-school links to improve the national economy.

Conservative Prime Minister Margaret Thatcher's 3 successive election victories (1979, 1983, and 1987) were increasingly dominated by a free market ideology. Like the Conservative reform initiated by U.S. Republican President Ronald Reagan, from 1981 to 1989 ("Get government off our backs"), Prime Minister Thatcher was determined to reduce state spending and lessen LEA control while encouraging private initiative in health, welfare, and education.

**DES Gains Control**

Education, invariably influenced by political pressures, became more so under the Thatcher-led Conservative government. Central government control over education increased, shaped by a new policy combining state and private initiative and channeled through the DES by the Secretary of State for Education and Science, a senior cabinet member. Government grants, which had gone through DES to all LEAs, after 1981 frequently went via other government departments to LEAs through previously negotiated block Local Rate Support Grants (LRSG), or to the Department of Employment's Manpower Services Commission (MSC, 1973 to 1988) and its successor, the Training Agency. The LRSG plan was called by some a Conservative government strategy to reduce educational expenditure and also to restrict LEAs' discretionary use of grants for their own educational priorities.

DES control over teachers came in the 1987 Education (Teachers' Pay and Conditions) Act, which followed annual disruptions over
teachers' pay, from 1983 to 1987, and intermittent teacher strike action, from late 1986 to early 1987. The Burnham Committee (1919 to 1987), which had negotiated teacher salaries, was abolished (replaced by the Interim Advisory Committee, 1987 to 1990). LEAs did not participate in teacher pay negotiations, 1987 to 1990 (it was announced in 1990 that pay bargaining would be restored to teachers and their LEA employers). DES control over curriculum and exams came by abolishing the teacher-dominated Schools Council (1964 to 1981) and by establishing as advisory bodies the National Curriculum Council (NCC, since 1988) and the Schools Examination and Assessment Council (SEAC, since 1988).

The Conservative government increased parent control of local school governing bodies in the 1986 Education Act, which reformed the composition and duties of primary school and secondary school governing bodies (i.e., U.S. school boards). Vocational training and technical education continued under LEAs, although the Department of Employment's industry-linked MSC (from 1973 to 1988 and its Training Agency successor) had increasing influence. First, in 1983 the MSC began a Technical and Vocational Education Initiative (TVEI), which was extended to all LEAs in 1987. Second, 25 percent of the Rate Support Grants for Further Education (FE), normally payable to LEAs, was given to MSC, to whom LEAs made requests for their non-advanced FE, as part of each FE college's annual development plan.

*Behind the Education Reform Act of 1988 (ERA 88)*

Purporting to show motives and methods behind ERA 88, an article in *The Economist* called Britain "plainly the educational invalid of the advanced world." It noted that 60 percent of students leave full-time education at age 16 (45 percent without a successful age 16 school leaving certificate exam), compared to 10 percent in West Germany and the U.S. and 4 percent in Japan; and that only 15 percent of 18-year-olds entered higher education, compared to 48 percent in the U.S. and 38 percent in Japan.

The Conservative government, noted *The Economist*, began school reform with the 1980 Education Act, whose Assisted Places Scheme offered subsidies for able children whose parents (of modest means) wanted them to transfer from LEA (i.e., state) schools into fee-charging independent grammar schools. Critics said the Conservative Party was catering to those ambitious parents who wanted their children...
to do better in school and in careers than ordinary (i.e., poor or lower class) children. Conservatives said that they wanted to help working class children become middle class by improving schools and the economy.

The article noted that the Conservative government shifted some educational power and direction, particularly from DES (always involved in the new initiatives) to other departments. For example, the Department of Trade and Industry put computers into schools and linked schools with industries. The Department of Employment's industry-linked MSC (1973 to 1988) and its Training Agency successor used large money incentives to promote vocational training and technical education (TVEI). Having necessarily to serve LEAs, teachers, and teacher unions, the influence of the DES diminished during the 1983 to 1987 teacher disruptions. After the MSC initiative toward vocational training, the DES aligned itself more firmly with Conservative government school reform. The then Education Secretary Kenneth Baker (1986 to 1989) ended the 4-year-old intermittent teacher disruptions by stripping teachers and their LEA employers of pay negotiations and imposed contractual terms on them (teachers' right to negotiate their pay with employing LEAs was reinstated after 1990). His biggest achievement, ERA 88, reshaped education along centralized, consumer oriented (parent power), and industry-linked lines.

ERA 88 Key Provisions

The key features of ERA 88 which govern LEA and maintained (tax supported) voluntary church schools (not independent or private schools) include the following, with some reactions by teachers and other educators:

1. A national curriculum for students of compulsory school ages 5 to 16, consisting of 10 foundation subjects: 3 core subjects of maths, English, and science (plus Welsh in Welsh-speaking schools); 7 other foundation subjects of history, geography, technology, music, art, and physical education, and a modern foreign language in secondary school (plus Welsh in Wales). A National Curriculum Council for England and a Curriculum Council for Wales advise on the national curriculum. Teachers were generally not opposed to a national curriculum.

2. National assessment (testing) to monitor student progress at ages 7, 11, 14, and 16. A School Examinations Assessment Council (SEAC) advises testing specialists who, using Standard Assessment
Tasks (SATs), formulate what pupils should know about national curriculum subjects at ages 7, 11, 14, and 16. Teachers were anxious about national assessment because it reflected on how well (or badly) they taught the national curriculum.

3. Open enrollment allowed parents to choose for their children any LEA secondary school with available space. The intent was that better quality schools will attract more students, and therefore receive more money, while weak schools that attract fewer students and less money must upgrade their academic quality or be forced to close. Teachers were deeply suspicious of this kind of competition forced on schools to excel.

4. Secondary schools and larger primary schools (300+ enrollment) were allowed, by parent vote and Secretary of Education and Science approval, to opt out of (i.e., leave) LEA control and, as grant maintained (GM) schools, be funded through the DES from grants withheld from LEAs. Teachers distrusted opting out from LEAs.

5. LEAs delegated financial management and teacher and staff hiring and firing to school governing bodies, who commonly form subcommittees to recommend how best to administer these responsibilities. Three-fourths of each school budget is based on enrollment, using an LEA-devised and government-approved formula. Teachers were open minded about seeing how the transfer of power to headteachers and governing bodies would work out.

6. Polytechnics (29 in 1988) and some other colleges of higher education were removed from LEA control, each administered by a governing body initially appointed by the Secretary of State for Education and Science; half the board members from industry, business, and commerce; half from staff, students, and the LEA; and were funded by central government through the Polytechnics and Colleges Funding Council (PCFC), just over half of whose members are from business, industry, and commerce (Wales's one polytechnic was excluded from PCFC). Educators saw this feature as a natural progression, and also saw that it reduced LEA influence.

7. Britain's 46 tax-supported universities were funded through a Universities Funding Council (UFC replaced the University Grants Committee, 1919 to 1989), just over half of whose members are also from business, industry and commerce. Academic tenure was abolished for faculty appointed after 1987 (faculty appointed earlier retained tenure
unless they changed jobs). Higher education personnel had serious anxiety over this abrogation of long-standing rights.

8. Pre-dating ERA 88 but part of the reform effort, City Technology Colleges for ages 11 to 18 (secondary school level) were being built (originally intended for jobless inner city youth); started by, hopefully largely supported by (under 20 percent industry funding occurred in 1990), and linked to industry and business needs (a total of 22 CTCs was mentioned in 1990). Teachers who believed in fair and common funding were intensely opposed to CTCs.

9. The Inner London Education Authority (ILEA) was abolished in April 1990. In ILEA’s place, London’s 12 inner boroughs plus a section called the City of London (which has 1 school) have educational administration powers. Many London parents protested ILEA’s demise and resented that their views counted little with a popularly elected Conservative government.

10. The religious education requirement of the 1944 Education Act remained, with religious education content and collective worship more closely defined.

ERA 88 Criticism

A critical view of ERA 88 which purports to show motives and currents at work is worth noting. After Prime Minister Thatcher’s large election victory in 1987, she believed that passage of ERA 88 legislation and community charge legislation were vital for a hoped for fourth term election victory needed to complete her political agenda of reducing socialism and increasing private initiative. Unlike the 1918 and 1944 Education Acts, which had political consensus and full consultation with all concerned, ERA 88’s controversial provisions were pushed through hastily. Before final passage, reaction to ERA 88 was invited but little time was given to respond. Still, over 16,000 responses were received. Some claim that the criticism and advice in these responses were ignored.

Critics believed ERA 88 was designed to break LEA power (especially LEAs in which the Labor Party consistently won elections), to differentiate among schools, to encourage competitive market practices, and to gain central government control to serve middle class interests. Rejecting LEAs’ equality of opportunity, Thatcher won her desired variety and choice to serve upwardly mobile Britons: LEA schools for those who want democratic education and, for emerging
elites, DES-funded grant-maintained (GM) schools which opted out from LEAs, and (government) assisted places for bright but poor children whose parents of modest means want them to attend private schools. Some pointed out that this position was a clear departure from Conservative Party education policy of the 1950s and 1960s.

Echoing Thatcher's "variety and choice," then Education Secretary Kenneth Baker (in office 1986 to 1989) said he wanted alternatives between the 7 percent of students in independent schools and the 93 percent in LEA and state-aided voluntary church and private schools, such alternatives as CTCs. Thatcher was angered by and determined to reduce the power of far left (so-called "Iboney left") LEAs where, she said, parents resented their children being taught political slogans and an offensive curriculum (gay rights and sex education were mentioned). Some say that the few such instances were exaggerated in the Conservative press and were used shamelessly for Conservative Party propaganda purposes.

Industrialists and others made LEA schools the scapegoat for Britain's economic decline and job loss, claiming that LEA schools had failed to produce skilled industrial workers. This charge echoed Labor Prime Minister Callaghan's 1976 Ruskin College, Oxford, speech which had suggested that schools stop serving educators' progressive education beliefs and teachers' convenience and give priority to national industrial needs and to parents' desires.

Critics charge that the Conservative government attempted to balance urban comprehensive secondary school influence by introducing the "Assisted Places Scheme" (government aid to parents of modest means wanting to transfer their children from free LEA to fee-charging private schools; or to similar parents with children already in fee-charging private schools). While Education Secretary Keith Joseph was in office (1981 to 1986), government policy, directed through the Secretary of State for the Environment, limited LEA expenditures by reducing LEA local taxing power (called at the time, "rate capping"). Central government control over the curriculum was increased by abolishing the Schools Council (abolished, critics said, because its teacher members and LEA members had undue progressive education influence over the curriculum) and by bringing in such other government agencies as the Department of Employment's MSC to stimulate an industry-oriented vocational training curriculum (TVEI).
Indeed, some say that the DES was for a time in rivalry with the MSC over educational direction.

In 1983-1984, Conservatives tried but failed to turn comprehensive secondary schools into more selective grammar schools in Solihull LEA and other Conservative LEAs. Parents and the public voted to retain nonselective comprehensive schools. Keith Joseph then considered privatizing state schools through a voucher scheme (voucher for cost per child per school year given to parents to enroll their children in schools of their choice). Not seeing how vouchers could work or be passed by Parliament, he discarded the idea. From this discarded idea came ERA 88's national curriculum, national assessment, opting out from LEA as GM schools, CTCs, and other features.44

Critics say that Keith Joseph left behind underfunded schools and crumbling school buildings (school building spending fell 35 percent from 1981 to 1986), an alienated teaching profession, and unwieldy central government control in place of a responsible and fairly efficient LEA system. Mentioned is a 1984 DES report in which senior officials expressed fear that over-educated young people in a shrinking job market would become frustrated and possibly rebellious.45

Critics charge that Conservatives through ERA 88 meant to loosen schools from socialist-oriented LEA control and to differentiate among schools by allowing "popular" (i.e., academically better) schools fuller enrollment and better funding than "less popular" (i.e., academically poorer) schools. The purpose of differentiation, critics believed, was to encourage "better" (and inevitably middle class) schools to opt out from LEA control.

Breakup of the Inner London Education Authority (ILEA) was politically motivated, said critics. ILEA generally provided good education and excellent research but as a Labor Party stronghold it had to go. Having a poor and diverse ethnic mix of children, ILEA's costs were necessarily higher than those in most other large city LEAs. Critics of the Conservative government point to London as a case study of ruthless class politics. Some also believed that Conservatives' aim for further education (FE) was to hand it over to business interests. Thus, arguments for and against ERA 88 are countered point by point. Some believe it was motivated by a mistaken Conservative government competitive marketplace ideology. Others fear undue state domination of education through the national curriculum.
What ERA 88 Accomplished

ERA 88 changed the education power structure, strengthened the central government's curriculum and other decision making powers which had fallen to LEAs between World Wars I and II, and further limited LEAs by giving parents more influence on school governing bodies. The power shift from local to central government control extended to higher education, bringing universities, polytechnics, and other higher education colleges more firmly under government funding control, making them more accountable, competitive, and industry-oriented.

Education Secretary Kenneth Baker charged on leaving office that the education system had become "producer dominated" (i.e., dominated by socialist Labor Party-oriented LEAs and teachers). Diehard Conservatives believed that child-centered progressive schools and comprehensive secondary schools had harmed Britain economically and educationally; that it was time to scale back hitherto socialized health, welfare, and education; and to redirect education to serve better Britain's economic needs and rising middle class aspirations.

The Conservative government's resolve to make schools more differentiated, competitive, market-oriented, and industry-linked was strengthened by teachers' intermittent (1983 to 1987) disruptions, which were unpopular with the public. Having taken on the Conservative government and lost (a Teachers Pay and Conditions Act of 1987 was imposed), the teacher unions had to endure press attacks on teachers and schools which accompanied ERA 88's passage through Parliament.

Some intransigent Labor Party-controlled LEAs refused to make school and other budget cuts the Conservative government imposed and were forced to incur financial penalties. Opponents said that the Conservative government pushed through ERA 88 to show that national political power overrode local political power and that national election victories had precedence over local Labor Party election victories.

How Much Public Support for ERA 88?

Only a referendum (which the U.K. does not have) would show the degree of public support for ERA 88. In explaining how ERA 88 became law, author Ken Jones reviewed the sequence of events beginning with wide media coverage of critical right-wing Black Paper writers' charge of fallen school standards and their urging parents to
choose better schools for their children. Then followed business-funded conservative reports from such think-tanks as the Centre for Policy Studies (founded in 1974) and the Adam Smith Institute (founded in 1977). They urged a free market approach to education and stressed the conservative opinion that parents wanted to choose for their children better schools that enhanced their family's social standing.\(^{47}\)

The right wing of the Conservative Party also questioned compensatory education policy for new immigrant children. In the 1964 to 1970 progressive climate, LEA schools had accommodated language and other needs of immigrant children from India, Pakistan, the Caribbean, and Africa (some LEAs still do). Whites did not like finding themselves a disadvantaged minority in inner city schools. Conservative intellectuals insisted that the English majority's language, history, and culture be dominant. They challenged as misguided special efforts to accommodate immigrants' language and culture. Besides reemphasizing the English language and British culture, Conservative study reports stressed parental hostility to such curriculum innovations in some LEAs as sex education and open discussion in class about gay and lesbian rights (critics say that a very few such instances were overly emphasized in the Conservative press).

Conservative think tank studies also drew attention to the need to improve vocational training and technology education. Correlli Barnett and others have documented a century-old weakness of Britain's academic curriculum as being remote from and hostile to technology education.\(^{48}\) To advance vocational training and technical education, the Conservative government turned, not to the DES, but to the Department of Employment's industry-linked MSC (1973 to 1988) and its Training Agency successor. LEAs had little choice but to accept the new money that stressed industry-linked programs: the Youth Training Scheme and the Technical and Vocational Education Initiative, which, with CTCs, while aimed at all students, in fact helped mainly inner city youth, partly in overcoming joblessness, partly to strengthen the industrial workforce.

With other critics, Jones pointed to these likely post-ERA 88 problems:

1. Industrial training standards are low. Making employers responsible for industrial job training is questionable in light of industry's past failures.
2. Only 40 percent of 17-year-olds remain in school, fewer than half of the German and Japanese proportions.

3. Serious underfunding of education affects the national curriculum, which is expensive and which requires more trained teachers than are available, especially in science, technology, maths, and modern languages.

4. The community charge limits LEAs' taxing potential, especially in already tense inner cities.

5. Accountability and close assessment of their work is draining teachers' sense of involvement and job satisfaction.

Conclusion

Like most other countries, England and Wales successfully educated its elites but delayed extending higher educational opportunities to the working class after age 16. In the 1960s and 1970s it attempted to equalize educational opportunities largely through comprehensive schools. The evidence suggests that comprehensive school growth and attendant grammar school decline succeeded in giving more young people better qualifications at age 16. Still, the U.K. was surpassed industrially and economically by other major countries. Inflation and joblessness mounted and, by mid 1970s, the U.K. was labeled the "economically sick man of Europe." Fairly or unfairly, schools and the education system were blamed. The Thatcher-led Conservative government in the 1980s, or more specifically a group within the governing elite, determined to reform drastically the educational system. The spark that determined this drastic school reform, according to Hunt, was a little publicized 1984 report attributing the West German, Japanese, and U.S. lead over British industry to their better vocational education. The reform decided on called for a return to educational differentiation and for improved vocational training, aided and mainly financed (it was hoped) by British industry. The rationale for this reform was expressed by the Secretary of State for Employment, "There can only be one future for this country. We must become a high productivity, high skilled economy."

The essence of the problem is that the Conservative government since 1979 and U.K. employers have been dissatisfied with the skills, attributes, and attitudes of school leavers. What was challenged was the nature and content of the curriculum and their relevance for a Britain needing to make striking technological advances. Many educators...
believe that blame for the U.K.'s past weak economic performance lies elsewhere, that it was unfair to single out and blame schools, educators, and the curriculum.

Some note that centralization, national curriculum, national assessment, and the new vocational training thrust of ERA 88 will move Britain more into line with European education. They say that this step should strengthen Britain's role in the European Community which after 1992 drops trade and other barriers, including school barriers. Others note that through ERA 88 Britain has put into place concrete school reform measures which the U.S and other countries have tried to do piecemeal over a longer time and with less success. To be successful, ERA 88 must be self correcting.

Barring serious policy reversal by Thatcher's replacement as Conservative Party head or by a Labor Party general election victory--education in England and Wales seems set on an industry-serving and economy-improving course.

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Educational Structure and School Ladder under ERA 88

Introduction

This section explains the school structure in England and Wales, its organization, administration, and changes under the Education Reform Act of 1988 (ERA 88), being implemented in stages in the 1990s. Progress through the school years (i.e., school ladder) is described as pupils move from preschool to primary (U.S. elementary) school, to one of several kinds of secondary schools, to work or to other school options at the school leaving age of 16. These options include industry-linked vocational training programs; further education after age 16; higher education at universities, polytechnics, and colleges of higher education; and adult education. Described are curricular programs, school transition points, major stages when tests are taken, and the accrediting (British term, validating) bodies that approve programs leading to awards, certificates, diplomas, and degrees. Recent statistics are given for various school levels.

Administration

Seeing how ERA 88 evolved offers insight into educational policy changes and school administration. The preceding Brief History section showed how progressive education thinking in the 1960s gave way to a major conservative reshaping of schools in the 1980s in order to strengthen Britain's economy, reduce joblessness, and prepare for a better future. Having won the national elections in 1979, 1983, and 1987 the Conservative government under Prime Minister Margaret Thatcher had another agenda: to stimulate industrial growth and to privatize aspects of social welfare, including education. These new policies led her Secretaries of State for Education and Science to redirect schools along ERA 88 lines: a national curriculum, national
assessment, parental choice of schools, more autonomy for school governing bodies (U.S. school boards), school-industry links to improve vocational training, higher education-industry links to expand technology and science education, and other features intended to advance Britain technologically, economically, and culturally.

These policy changes were discussed by Conservative Party and other leaders and then shared with concerned education partners: local education authorities (LEAs), teachers and teacher unions, school governing bodies, churches and other involved voluntary bodies, parents, the public, and others. Policy ideas were shared widely in 17 consultative Green Papers, with reactions invited, then published as a White Paper stating the government's proposed policy, and submitted as legislation to Parliament for debate, changes, final vote, and assent by the Queen before becoming law. Critical press coverage was widespread.

ERA 88's design and implementation fell largely to recent Secretaries of State for Education and Science, senior cabinet members of the Conservative Party in power, responsible for all education in England and for all universities in Britain. The Secretary of State consults about schools in Wales with the Secretary of State for Wales, also a cabinet member, responsible for all nonuniversity education in Wales. (Not covered in this report are the somewhat different and separately administered and financed education systems in Scotland, Northern Ireland, the Isle of Man, and the Channel Islands).

Policy thus flows to the Department of Education and Science (DES) from the Secretary of State for Education and Science in England and the Welsh Office in Wales, both responsible for the supply and training of teachers, for allocating financial and other resources, and for influencing the other education partners. The DES is a government department of civil servants (2,425 staff in 1985), including 460 inspectors for England (Her Majesty's Inspectorate, HMI), and 54 HMIs on loan in the Welsh Office. The DES serves the 116 LEAs in England and 8 LEAs in Wales, which perform the educational duties of the local governments. The LEAs are administered by a Director of Education (called Chief Education Officer in some LEAs), aided by professional and administrative staffs, and local inspectors, called advisors in some LEAs.
Maintained (Tax Supported) Schools

All schools are registered and subject to inspection by the central government through HMIs and more often by the local government through LEA inspectors or advisors. The 4 kinds of schools (with statistics) in England and Wales are: (1) free maintained (tax supported) schools enrolling about 93 percent of all students (25,458 LEA schools, 1987); (2) fee-charging independent schools, or private, nontax-supported schools, enrolling about 7 percent of all pupils (2,340 independent schools, 1987), described at the end of this section; (3) free new city technology colleges (CTC), 22 being planned for the 1990s; and (4) free grant-maintained (GM) schools, 29 approved by July 1990, adopted by parent vote under ERA 88 who opted out from LEA control to direct DES funding.

Maintained (tax-supported) schools are of two kinds: (1) most students (70 percent of the 93 percent) attend LEA controlled and managed nonsectarian primary and secondary schools (17,592 LEA schools, 1988); and (2) the other 30 percent of students attend maintained (tax-supported) voluntary schools, which are nonprofit church-owned schools receiving state funds after agreeing to operate under central government regulations (7,866 voluntary Anglican, Roman Catholic, or other schools, 1988).

The distinction between LEA and voluntary schools is historic. Church groups started schools. Government control came through various education acts which subsidized those church schools willing to operate under government regulations. Most churches applied for and were granted tax funds for their schools,agreed in turn to pay all or some building costs and to have on their church school governing bodies a prescribed number of teachers and community members in addition to members from that particular church.

Voluntary schools are of 3 kinds: (1) controlled schools (3,246, 1987), in which LEAs pay all costs; (2) aided schools (4,528, 1987), in which church school governors provide the buildings and pay for outside building repairs while LEAs pay for internal building repairs and other costs; and (3) special arrangement schools (85 schools in England, 1987, none in Wales), almost always secondary schools, in which LEAs pay half to three-fourths of all costs.
SCHOOL LADDER

Nursery Schools, Ages 3 to 5 (Noncompulsory)

Although not compulsory, 48 percent of all 3- and 4-year-olds in England and Wales are in day, half-day, or part of week coeducational preschool nursery schools or in nursery classes attached to infant departments of primary schools. Central government funds and LEA funds (through a local community tax) pay for free nursery education in maintained (tax supported) schools. Some preschoolers also attend playgroups, many of which charge small fees, organized by parents and voluntary bodies, such as the Preschool Playgroups Association.

Statistics (1987): There were in England and Wales 558 maintained nursery schools, 4,295 primary schools with nursery classes, enrolling 49,502 pupils under age 5 in nursery and infant classes, with about 40 percent of these attending part-time. Spending on the "under fives" was £561 million in 1990.

Primary Schools

The typical pupil starts compulsory education (ages 5 to 16) in the neighborhood coeducational primary school, usually in the school term in which the pupil reaches age 5. The primary school is divided into a 3-year infant department, ages 5 to 7, and a 3-year junior department, ages 7 to 11 (some are combined in one school; some are separate schools). Legislation in 1965, when the Labor Party then in power promoted comprehensive education (all programs in one school complex), authorized an alternative first school, which take pupils ages 5 to 8 or 5 to 9 or 5 to 10, who then move to middle school, which take pupils ages 8 to 12 (designated as primary schools for statistical and funding purposes); or ages 9 to 13 (designated either primary or secondary schools); or ages 10 to 12 (designated secondary schools).

Statistics (1987): There were in England 18,829 primary schools, of which 2,902 were infant schools for ages 5 to 7, the remaining 15,927 primary schools enrolled pupils ages 5 to 11. Just over 13 percent of these schools had fewer than 100 full-time pupils. England had 1,213 middle schools, 31 fewer than in 1986, serving ages 8 to 12, 9 to 13, and 12 to 14. School enrollment decline continued in 1990.

Wales had 1,774 primary schools. In predominantly Welsh-speaking areas, Welsh is the principal language of instruction.
Secondary Schools

At ages 11 or 12 (called 11+) most students enter a neighborhood coeducational secondary school. Parents of some students may choose a school away from their home area (British term, "catchment"). A few LEAs still use 11+ exams for secondary school selection. Some secondary schools, especially tax-supported church or independent schools, are single-sex schools. Although LEAs have common functions, they differ mainly in the 5 different ways in which they organize secondary schools: (1) some all-through schools take the full secondary school age range from 11 to 18; (2) 6.5 percent of secondary schools pupils in England and 0.1 percent in Wales attend middle schools, who then move on to senior comprehensive school at ages 12, 13, or 14, and leave at ages 16, 17, or 18; (3) some take the age range from 11 or 12 to 16, combined with either a sixth form or a tertiary college (for further education); (4) 3.1 percent in England and 0.5 percent in Wales attend secondary grammar schools, with selective admission to academic programs, usually leading to university entrance, from ages 11 to 16 or 18; and (5) 4.1 percent in England and 0.6 percent in Wales attend secondary modern schools (now called high schools), offering general education with a practical bias for those who leave school for work at age 16 (many return later to some form of further education, adult education, or higher education). Thus there exists side by side in LEAs mostly a 2-tier system consisting of primary school and secondary school, and a declining number of 3 tiers (first, middle, and secondary schools). The chief administrator of a primary school and a secondary school is called head or headteacher or headmaster or headmistress (U.S. principal).

Of students in maintained (tax-supported) secondary schools, 85.8 percent in England and 98.5 percent in Wales are in neighborhood comprehensive secondary schools which take pupils of all abilities and offer all programs in one school complex. Labor government policy (the Labor Party was in power from 1965 to 1970) was to close selective schools and reopen them as comprehensive schools. Conservative government policy since then has been to let LEAs decide for themselves. The result was that comprehensive schools grew, while grammar school and secondary modern school enrollments declined.4
Statistics (1987): England had 3,206 comprehensive schools enrolling just under 2.8 million pupils (some all-through schools for ages 11 to 18, and some for ages 11 to 16); 3,611 other secondary schools (some LEAs retained the 11+ exam for entry into LEA grammar schools, of which there were 152); a small number of technical schools; 234 secondary modern schools; and 106 sixth form colleges (covering ages 16 to 18).5

Wales had 650,000 secondary school pupils; 41 secondary schools in Wales used Welsh (for part of the curriculum) as the language of instruction, of which 16 were designated bilingual schools. England and Wales's total maintained (tax-supported) secondary school enrollment was 3,450,000. Enrollment fell by 12 percent between 1987-91 and is projected to rise by 8.7 percent by 1998.6

SECONDARY SCHOOL EXAMS

Age 16+: General Certificate of Secondary Education (GCSE)

Most pupils at age 16, after 5 years of secondary school, ages 11 to 16, take GCSE exams (secondary school leaving exams) in 5 to 8 or more subjects. GCSE exam subjects and scores are used for job qualifications by school leavers, or for entering vocational training, or for continued further study. GCSE exams replaced (in 1988) the two earlier age 16 exams: the General Certificate of Education-Ordinary (GCE-O) level exam and the Certificate of Secondary Education (CSE) exam. The GCSE exam has a 7-grade scale in each subject, denoted by letters A to G (GCSE exam grades A to C are considered a "pass" and are equivalent to the old GCE-O exam grades A to C and the old CSE grade 1, which were the minimum needed to qualify for further education or training).

Following the GCSE exams, about 50 percent (in 1990) of those at age 16 use results from their exams to qualify for jobs (many of these later do additional study). The remaining approximately 50 percent take some form of full-time or part-time schooling or training after age 16, some trying to qualify for the two kinds of end-of-secondary-school exams at ages 17 or 18 described below, needed for polytechnic, university, or other higher education entrance.
Age 17 or 18 A (Advanced) Level Exam

The A-level exams taken in 2, 3, or more often 4 subjects, along with AS exams below, are the principal indicators used to decide university entrance. The A-level exams, which one source called the "benchmark of academic standards" for the brightest young people, are usually taken at the end of the 2-year sixth form at ages 17 or 18 after 7 years of secondary education, ages 11 to 18.

Age 17 or 18 AS (Advanced Supplementary) Programs and Exams

The AS program is a 2-year exam course (occasionally done in 1 year) introduced in September 1987, with the AS exams taken since summer 1989. Its purpose is to broaden the 2-year sixth form programs, believed to be too specialized. The AS program requires the same standard of work but has only half the content and takes half the time of A-level exam programs. While A-level programs provide in-depth study of a subject, AS programs provide breadth-of-learning of a subject, requiring half the study time of the A-level counterpart.

Some say that educators and students like the new AS courses and exams because they provide a wider career choice. Others say that the AS program is not popular with parents or with their 16-year-olds. Industry and other employers reportedly favor AS because it broadens student preparation. Example: a student, ages 16 to 18, formerly taking A-level science subjects, can now substitute for 1 A-level science subject, 1 science subject at AS level and 1 AS level in a contrasting subject, such as English or a modern language. A-level exams in several subjects or a mixture of A-level and AS level exams are required for entry to polytechnics, universities, other higher education institutions, and most professional training. But some say that universities, polytechnics, and many employers still prefer in-depth A-level exam programs.

Statistics (1990): There were 46,000 entrants to AS programs.

International Baccalaureate (IB)

The IB began in 1975 as an internationally recognized secondary school leaving exam for children of diplomats and other families living abroad and attending international schools. The IB exams, still rare, were offered in 22 British secondary schools, sixth forms, and some colleges in 1989. They are taken at ages 17 or 18 in 6 subjects and are
more broadly based than the A-level exams, which usually test in 3 subjects at comparable ages. Use of IB may increase as Britain, part of the European Community, drops trade and other barriers--including some education barriers--after 1992.

ERA 88

ERA 88's national curriculum, national assessment, and other features control school subjects and programs for compulsory education ages 5 to 16, leading to the age 16+ GCSE exams. (There was a 1990 proposal for a core curriculum for ages 16 to 18). ERA 88 does not affect (but may in the future affect) those staying on in school past age 16 for the A-level and AS-level exams at ages 17 or 18, or those who choose higher education options, or vocational training and technology education options which the Conservative government has encouraged through school-industry links. FE college principals point out that they are the main providers of vocational training.

National Curriculum

ERA 88 initiated a national curriculum and national assessment for all students ages 5 to 16 in maintained (tax supported) schools. A National Curriculum Council for England and a Curriculum Council for Wales advises on this process. The national curriculum consists of 10 foundation subjects of which 3 are core subjects: maths, science, and English (plus Welsh in Welsh-speaking schools); and 7 are foundation subjects: history, geography, technology, art, music, physical education, and a modern foreign language in secondary schools (plus Welsh in non-Welsh speaking schools in Wales). Religious education, as in the 1944 Education Act, is required, based on an agreed syllabus in LEA schools and in maintained voluntary schools (church schools receiving government funds via the LEAs), with parents having the right to withdraw their child. The timetable calls for the national curriculum to be fully in place in September 1997; the first pupils will be fully educated under it in summer 2003.

National Assessment

National assessment is a testing procedure to measure how well pupils learn, against attainment targets (being set in 1990), at ages 7, 11, 14, and 16 (age 7, 2 years after the start of schooling; 11, when
most students move from primary to secondary school; 14, when decisions are usually made about the subjects to be examined in at age 16; and 16, when the GCSE is the basis for assessment). The School Examinations and Assessment Council (SEAC) advises the Secretaries of State for Education and Science and for Wales on school exams and assessment. To accomplish national assessment, SEAC established in 1990 Standard Assessment Tasks development teams to formulate tests which teachers may optionally use in primary schools to test student learning in national curriculum foundation subjects. These Standard Assessment Tests will become compulsory, especially in core subjects: (maths, science, and English). Assessment plans in late 1990 for 7-year-olds were scaled back somewhat in the number of subjects tested, a trend which overburdened teachers preparing 7-year-olds for assessment welcomed.

**Choice (Open Enrollment)**

ERA 88 required every maintained (tax-supported) secondary school to admit students up to its physical capacity. The government justified this "more open enrollment" policy as increasing parents' choice of schools for their children. Observers said the motive was to encourage competition; i.e., to encourage strong academic schools with larger enrollments and more funds, whose success would tend to force weaker schools to improve or to close.10

**Opting Out and Grant Maintained (GM) Schools**

By July 1'90, under ERA 88's opting out provision, parents at 98 schools in England and Wales voted on whether or not to opt out from LEA control; 75 schools voted to opt out, 23 voted against opting out. The Secretary of State for Education and Science, who must approve, considered 56 of the 75 requests to opt out, approved 44 (1 provisionally), and rejected 12. By July 1990 there were 29 GM schools receiving direct funding from the DES (comparable to their former funding as LEA schools). Each GM school's governing body has 5 elected parents, 1 or 2 teachers, the headteacher, plus 7 or 8 local community members.

Which schools opt out and why? Schools considering opting out, one source said, were those being considered for closure. Some believe that in the future parents in relatively few eligible schools (all secondary schools and larger elementary schools enrolling over 300
students) will vote to opt out from LEA control. Conservative advocates favor GM schools because they allow parental choice of schools. They believe that school differentiation and competition lead to efficiency because better quality schools that attract more students and attendant funds force weaker schools to improve their quality or to close. Socialist-oriented critics say that GM schools are elitist and were created to reduce the influence of Labor Party-dominated LEAs, which are mainly in urban areas. No procedure existed in 1990 for a GM school to return to LEA control.

City Technology Colleges (CTCs)

CTCs, planned before passage of ERA 88, were originally conceived of as mainly inner city secondary schools for ages 11-18, not under LEAs, but initiated, managed, and largely financed by local industry. CTCs were to emphasize technology, science, and maths; provide job training in inner cities where many school leavers have been jobless; link industry with schools to improve industrial output and the national economy; increase parents' choice; and help privatize education while reducing Labor Party influence over some urban LEAs. The first CTC opened in Solihull, West Midlands, 1988; 2 more were opened in 1989; and 11 others were planned (a total of 22 CTCs was projected). By 1990 more than 170 firms pledged over £40 million for CTCs. Some critics are wary, noting that vocational training by industry in the past has not always been successful. It was hoped that industry would cover capital costs but central government has had to cover most of these costs (up to 80 percent in 1990, in some cases).

Records of Achievement

Keeping a record of pupils' learning achievement on subjects studied is a tradition in mainly secondary schools and was recommended in the 1943 Norwood and 1963 Newsom Reports. Legislation extended this practice to primary schools with a report required each year. After encouraging pilot projects in 22 LEAs during 1985-88, use of the Record of Achievement was officially initiated throughout England and Wales. It began in 1991 as a report to parents on their children's school achievement in national curriculum subjects, using national assessment findings at ages 7, 11, 14, and 16. Besides informing parents how well their children are progressing, other expected benefits are to help monitor the national curriculum and national assessment; to establish
sectional, national, and international norms; and also to let employers
know the subjects taken and the grades earned by the school leavers they
employ.13

VOCATIONAL TRAINING AND TECHNICAL
EDUCATION

Several factors led to massive efforts in the late 1980s to forge
school-industry links, enlarge vocational training, and acquaint pupils at
every stage of the school ladder with the world of work, business,
commerce, and industry.

Britain’s birthrate fell in the late 1960s and 1970s, causing the
school population to fall by 1.9 million during 1976 to 1987. Faced
with a dramatic one-fourth drop in the number of young people entering
the workforce in the 1990s, employers were increasingly competing for
young workers. The Conservative government has oriented much of the
educational system toward strengthening industry, business, and
commerce. Some say this change has been more successful for boys
than for girls.

Home of the first industrial revolution, Britain climbed out of its
1975 to 1985 economic slump a few years before entering the European
Community era (1992+) of free trade and cooperation. A few say (most
deny) that the Conservative government wanted to overcome the
lassitude of some past school leavers who, without jobs, preferred
living on workmen’s compensation (“on the dole”) rather than pursue
additional study and career training. (Jobless 16 and 17-year-olds no
longer receive state support.) For these reasons, and because the world
of work is changing, the Conservative government turned to industry
and to departments other than DES for large initiatives in vocational
training, in higher education technical skills, and in scientific education,
some of which are described below.

Shift from Arts to Science

Education leaders in the Conservative government believed that
school academic programs gave the arts a higher status than science,
particularly applied science, and that education became increasingly
divorced from business, industry, and commerce. To bridge this gap,
connect schools with practical knowledge, and forge school-industry
links, the Royal Society of Arts (RSA, since 1754), long an accrediting
agency for industrial arts and vocational education programs, launched and publicized Industry Year 1986. This year was followed by Industry Matters (December 1986), a network of 300 regional and local groups to link secondary schools with industry, build company ties with primary schools, increase business involvement with teacher education, and arrange for business managers to work for long and short periods with schools and colleges. Some FE college principals say that these initiatives are media events with little impact on schools and that vocational training is done, not in schools which are busy with academic studies, but in FE colleges.

**Enterprise and Education Initiative**

The intent of the Enterprise and Education Initiative, begun in 1988, was to give all students at least 2 weeks of suitable work experience before they left school at age 16+, to allow 10 percent of teachers each year to gain some business experience, and to see that every trainee teacher (U.S. student teacher) understands employer needs.14

Vocational training was substantially enlarged through programs amply funded by the Manpower Services Commission (MSC, from 1973 to 1988), part of the Department of Employment, and by MSC's successor, the Training Agency (since 1988). The Department of Trade and Industry, working with MSC, offered large financial incentives for colleges of higher education, polytechnics, and universities to participate in Enterprise in Higher Education programs. LEA controlled schools and colleges, always needing funds, naturally accepted additional funds earmarked for vocational training and technical education, some programs of which are described below.

The Department of Trade and Industry allocated £12 million in 1988 to 1990 to finance a national network of 147 local enterprise and education advisors, including 1 per LEA, to help companies and schools provide places for work experience. The Confederation of British Industries sponsored Understanding British Industry, which in turn organized a teacher placement service to promote school-industry cooperation.15

**Compacts: Job Training for Inner City Students**

Like the model Compact which originated in Boston, Massachusetts, Britain's Compacts link inner city schools with industry
in order to give priority to recruiting urban young people for job training. The objective is to motivate as well as train inner city students for jobs. The first Compact began in London in 1987; 40 Compacts received funds by December 1989, involving 17,000 pupils, 2,500 schools, and 3,800 employers who offer jobs to trainees if agreed-on targets are reached. A total of 60 Compacts was planned in 1990, supported by government funds totaling £28 million.16

Information Technology (IT)

Computers were said to be in short supply, averaging in poorer LEAs 2 per primary school. One source listed an average of 3 per primary school and 30 per secondary school in the U.K. Government initiative since 1987 was to increase computer use in schools, appoint computer-trained teachers, offer inservice teacher training in computer use in subject specialties, and integrate Information Technology (IT) throughout the school curriculum. The government-funded National Educational Resources Information Service initiated in 1989 an electronic data base for all national curriculum programs and national assessment attainment targets. The government-established National Council for Educational Technology (NCET) evaluates new IT, applies it to schools, and spreads its use among teachers.17

School Governing Bodies

School governing bodies (i.e., U.S. school boards) and the curriculum have also been made more relevant to industry's needs. The 1986 Education (No. 2) Act changed the composition of primary and secondary school governing bodies. By 1990 over 40 percent of school governors were from business, industry, or the professions. As representatives from these fields rose, LEA, union, and teacher representatives decreased. ERA 88 similarly influenced higher education governing bodies favorably toward industry and commerce. Besides improving school efficiency and strengthening school independence (i.e., allegedly from undue political influence on LEAs), the acts also helped promote such government priorities as vocational training and an industry-oriented curriculum.18 ERA 88, through its Local Management of Schools provision, also handed over financial and organizational powers to governing bodies. The shift of influence was toward individual school governing bodies, parents, and school heads, and away from LEA control.
Business and Technician Education Council (BTEC)

BTEC, an accrediting body since 1983, had approved by 1989 over 250 vocational courses taken by half a million students; given in over 700 FE colleges, polytechnics, and other BTEC centers; and taught by over 1,300 part-time trained staff from industry, commerce, and education; plus full-time FE teachers.

Behind BTEC's large vocational training lies industry's concern about competing more fiercely for the 25 percent fewer young people available for jobs by 1996. Some also believe that Britain must strengthen its industrial potential when in 1992, as part of the European Community, there will be a free and growing movement of goods, services, jobs, and people among the 12 member nations.

BTEC programs are nationally recognized work-related vocational programs that lead to BTEC Certificates and Diplomas at 3 levels: First, Higher, and National, as follows: (1) the BTEC First Diploma for age 16+ students is a 1-year full-time or 2-year part-time course earning the equivalent passes in about 4 GCSE exam subjects; (2) the BTEC First Certificate is a 1-year part-time program; (3) the BTEC National Diploma for age 16+ students is a 2-year full-time or 3-year part-time program equivalent to passes in about 3 A-level exam subjects (BTEC National Certificate or Diploma with a high grade is accepted as an A-level exam subject for university entrance); and (4) the BTEC Higher National Certificate for age 13+ students (who have previously earned a BTEC National Certificate or suitable A-level exam equivalent) is a 2-year part-time course nationally recognized for higher technician, managerial, and supervisory positions. BTEC HNC is said to be generally accepted as equivalent to a first degree (B.A. or B.Sc. degree), with some industries preferring HNC to a first degree because of its work-related experience.19

Certificate of Pre-Vocational Education (CPVE)

CPVE, since 1986, is a 1-year full-time or 2-year part-time hands-on vocational training program. It was designed originally by the BTEC and the City and Guilds of London Institute (CGLI, since 1878) for 16-year-old school leavers who could not find jobs. This linking of school and work offered practical, vocational, and social skills in schools and colleges. Students work at their own pace, arrange programs with a tutor, can try several vocational fields, receive credit
Educational Structure and School Ladder

without formal exams, and have hands-on experiences in actual workplaces from which job offers frequently come. The vocational fields include business administration, IT (computers), construction, retail and wholesale stores, engineering, health and community care, beauty operators (hairdressers), and others. CPVE can also be taken as the first year of a 2-year Youth Training Scheme (called Youth Training, from 1990). Additional study can lead to age 16 GCSE subject exams and age 18 A-level and AS-level subject exams. Still, despite the large government CPVE effort, one critic said that by 1990 CPVE had little appeal to students and had made little impact on industry or commerce.

Technical and Vocational Education Initiative (TVEI)

In pilot projects since 1983, and nationally since 1987, TVEI offers the 14 to 18 age group work-related learning programs and work experiences in industry. TVEI, funded and administered by the Training Agency, cooperates with DES, LEAs, and HMIs. Over 300,000 school and college students were involved by late 1989. Although well established, TVEI still has to be incorporated into the ERA 88 educational curriculum. But again, FE college principals say that schools are too busy with the national curriculum to do justice to the TVEI and that FE colleges remain the significant provider of age 16+ vocational training.

National Council for Vocational Qualifications (NCVQ) & National Vocational Qualifications (NVQ)

A 1984 Labor Force Survey showed that 40 percent of Britain's workforce had no recognized job qualifications. A government-appointed Review of Vocational Qualifications (RVQ) report confirmed this finding and stated that Britain, as part of the European Community's expanding free trade market after 1992, had too few school leavers at age 16 in vocational education and training programs, that Britain's training programs did not fit actual job needs, that 80 percent of the workforce needed by the year 2000 were already at work, and that 90 percent of the expected increase in the workforce would be women returning to work. The RVQ report recommended establishing NCVQ (1) to rationalize (i.e., bring order) among such diverse vocational education and training bodies as RSA, BTEC, CNAA, CGLI, and several hundred other bodies awarding an estimated 4,000 vocational certificates annually; and (2) to establish a national system of transferable credit qualifications in

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vocational education and training for the 14 to 19 age group, known as NVQs. NVQs, devised by Lead Industries (i.e., major industrial, commercial, and business firms), are based on standardized, industry-wide, on-the-job competencies gained by work experience or in training institutions. The 5 NVQ levels are: Level 1 (Basic), for entry into a job; Level 2 (Standard), for routine abilities on a job; Level 3 (Advanced), for difficult job routines; Level 4 (Higher), for specialized job skills; and Level 5 (Professional), planned for master job abilities. These NVQ vocational skill levels are broadly comparable to the following academic levels: Level 2, equivalent to passes in 5 GCSE subjects (A-C grades); Level 3, equivalent to passes in 2 A-level subjects; Level 4, equivalent to Higher National Diploma or Higher National Certificate; and Level 5, equivalent to a first degree (B.A. or B.Sc.).

To be transferable, NVQs, as a competency-based national standard of qualifications in vocational education and training, will be recorded in a National Record of Vocational Achievement (NRVA), which is a personal record of NVQ credits earned. NRVA will move with the applicant from school to job and from job to job. NCVQ was expected to cover all job sectors of the economy by the end of 1992 and later to develop into professional qualifications.22

FURTHER EDUCATION (FE) COLLEGES

As emphasized earlier, FE colleges remain the main providers of age 16+ vocational training. They are often neglected because of the DES and the central government's concern for compulsory education for ages 5 to 16 and finally with higher education. The 385 FE colleges in England and 40 in Wales, or a total of 425 FE colleges, range in enrollment from a few hundred to over 20,000. They are widely dispersed, easy to reach, inexpensive, mainly LEA financed, and are diverse in offering full-time and part-time day and evening courses.

Because FE colleges historically served student needs before major comprehensive school growth in the 1960s and 1970s, they have been excellent "second chance" educational institutions, especially for secondary modern school attenders who had no academic access to the sixth form (sixth and seventh secondary school years, ages 17 and 18). The atmosphere in FE colleges is much more suitable for adults than in sixth form colleges. Most students age 16+ prefer FE colleges for both
general academic study (GCSE, A-level exam, and AS-level exam programs) and for vocational training, which is often connected with local industrial and commercial firms.

FE colleges are thus an invaluable major provider for educating those over age 16, being locally based and low cost (financial aid is often available), flexible in catering to local student and industry's needs, adaptable in offering entry at various levels depending on previous school attainment, and adaptable to students' scheduling needs (day, evening, full-time, part-time, and sandwich courses).

**FE College Organization**

Heads of FE colleges, called principals or directors, are advised by an Academic Board. Academic staff are hired in grades and salaries that are negotiated by the Joint Council for Lecturers in Further Education. About 20 percent of supervised class hours are taught by part-time faculty. FE colleges may be organized in departments, faculties, or schools. They often operate at several locations with some courses conducted on employers' premises. Student services include eating facilities, common room and student union, sport and social activities, counseling, and career guidance. National bodies involved in FE work include a Further Education Unit (FEU) within DES, which provides research and support; the National Insdtute of Adult Education, which promotes nonvocational and continuing education; the Development of Adult Continuing Education created by the Secretary of State for Education and Science to offer educational guidance for adults and access courses to higher education; and the Adult Literacy and Basic Skills Unit.

**One FE College's Offerings**

West Oxfordshire College, since 1950, in Whitney near Oxford in southern England, listed the following offerings in its 1990-91 prospectus (course length and age 16+ details are omitted):

- Access to Higher Education (at Oxford Polytechnic), with or without O-level passes in maths and English;
- GCSE, A-Level, and AS-Level Subjects;
- BTEC National Diploma in Engineering (Aerospace);
- Pre-Foundation Course in Art and Design;
- BTEC First Diploma (leading to National Diploma) in Business Studies;
BTEC First Diploma (leading to National Diploma) in Caring (Nursery and Nursing);
BTEC National Diploma in Computer Science;
BTEC First Diploma (leading to National Diploma) in Engineering (Mechanical, Electrical and Electronics, Motor Vehicle, Mechanical and Production);
BTEC National Diploma in Science (Health Studies);
BTEC National Diploma in Information Technology Applications;
National Certificate in Management of Horses (Thoroughbreds);
BTEC National Diploma in Management of Thoroughbred Horses;
BTEC Higher National Diploma in Business and Finance (Stud & Stable Administration);
Pre-Vocational Opportunities Courses;
Secretarial Studies.

The West Oxfordshire College part-time prospectus for 1990-91, listed over 150 study courses for those who "have missed out on education, at whatever level, and would like the chance to make a new start or pick things up again." (Prospectus, p. 7)

HIGHER EDUCATION (ABOVE SECONDARY SCHOOL A-LEVEL EXAMS)

While FE consists of postschool (age 16+) study up to degree level, higher education, which has been a binary (2 part) system since 1965, consists of: (1) universities, which are government funded through the Universities Funding Council (UFC); and (2) public sector higher education institutions, which are government funded through the Polytechnics and Colleges Funding Council (PCFC). Each is described below.

Looking ahead 25 years (to 2014 A.D.), then Education Secretary Kenneth Baker said in January 1989 that because of the declining birth rate and expected nearly one-third fewer 18-year-olds during 1985 to 1995, higher education institutions would have to recruit more women and more ethnic minorities. He said that rising costs in higher education would require more sources of income: more higher education contacts with industry, commerce, and business; more student fees; and increased state funding. He said that U.K. higher education enrollment grew from
200,000 full-time students and 100,000 part-time students in 1964 to nearly a million students in 1989, when nearly 15 percent of 18-year-olds attended higher education.\textsuperscript{23}

Statistics (1990): About 50 percent or half of all pupils over age 16 stayed on in full-time higher and further education (compared with 20 percent in 1965). One in 7 of 18-19-year-olds entered full-time higher education.\textsuperscript{24}

Universities

The U.K. has 46 government-maintained universities plus a private university, the University of Buckingham, all self-governing institutions, most of them established by Royal Charter and funded since ERA 88 by the Universities Funding Council (UFC). Just over half of UFC are from industry, business, and commerce. England's 35 universities and Wales's single university (the University of Wales) are UFC funded. In addition, the Royal College of Art and the Cranfield Institute of Technology are university-type institutions funded by DES.

Universities are headed by a Chancellor (largely ceremonial) and administered by a Vice Chancellor. Heads of colleges in the University of Wales and some college heads in the University of London are called Principals. Each university appoints its own academic staff, has a common salary scale (except Oxford and Cambridge universities), with faculty over 90 percent tenured (ERA 88 removed tenure for newly appointed faculty), and awards its own degrees, most commonly (despite variations): Bachelor of Arts (B.A.) or Science (B.Sc.), Master of Arts (M.A.) or Science (M.Sc.), which are mostly taught postgraduate degree courses; and research degrees of Master of Philosophy (M.Phil.) and Doctor of Philosophy (Ph.D. or some D.Phil.).

Undergraduate programs require 3 or 4 years, depending on subject specialty (medical studies require 5 years). Students apply through a clearing house, the Universities Central Council on Admissions, listing their preferred university choices. Individual universities decide which students to accept.\textsuperscript{25}

Statistics (1987-88): There were 320,920 full-time university students (38,000 of these from overseas) and 46,062 part-time university students in the U.K. (excluding the private University of Buckingham and OU below), taught by almost 30,000 full-time university teachers (faculty-student ratio, 1-11, one of the most favorable in the world). Women comprised 43 percent of the full-time
and 60 percent of the part-time students. About half of all students lived in residence halls.26

**Open University (OU)**

OU, established in 1969 to make nonresidential university education available to all adults over age 21, is Britain's largest university. It enrolled (1987) 68,000 undergraduates (about 31,000 women and 37,000 men) and has awarded over 88,500 degrees since 1971. OU's distance teaching uses assigned readings (65 percent of study time), TV and radio (10 percent), contacts with tutors and other students (15 percent), and written assignments and exams (10 percent). Most OU students are employed full time, the majority as classroom teachers. Besides headquarters at Milton Keynes, OU has 13 regional centers and over 260 other centers in the U.K. OU offers, besides academic degree programs comparable to those of universities and polytechnics, many continuing education programs, its fastest growing segment. The estimated cost to an OU student for a B.A. general degree in 1989 was over £1,280. Funded directly by DES, OU has been a model for similar institutions in other countries.27

**Council for National Academic Awards**

Shortly after the binary (2-part) higher education system began about 1965, polytechnics and colleges or institutes of higher education became increasingly acceptable and successful as the public sector of higher education. Under LEA control and funded by the National Advisory Body from 1982 to 1988, these polytechnics and selectee colleges and institutes have since ERA 88 been funded by the Polytechnics and Colleges Funding Council (PCFC). Parts of public sector higher education, especially the larger polytechnics, have had forceful leadership, expanded rapidly, and attracted more students for postschool (over age 16) study and degrees than have the universities. Since 1964, CNAA has accredited public sector higher education programs and awards. It is the largest degree awarding body in the U.K. In 1988 some 208,000 students (over a third of all students in U.K. degree programs) were taking CNAA-approved courses in over 140 U.K. institutions, including polytechnics and other colleges and institutions.28
Polytechnics

Under the binary (2 part) higher education system, the public sector part, government financed through PCFC, consisted of (1) 31 polytechnics plus (2) 52 colleges of higher education (as of September 1, 1990), each college enrolling over 350 students. Public sector higher education was under LEA administrative and financial control up to ERA 88, when it was removed from LEA and became central government funded through PCFC.

Each PCFC higher education institution is an independent corporation with its own governing body. Students apply through a clearing house, the Polytechnics Central Admission System (PCAS), listing up to 4 courses they want to pursue. Individual polytechnics or other institutions in PCAS decide which students to accept.

About one-eighth of PCFC funds also go to over 300 other colleges, which are essentially FE colleges offering studies up to degree level, but which offer some higher education studies leading to degrees. Because public sector higher education has had strong leadership and has been aggressive in recruitment, the PCFC-funded sector enrolled 55 percent of all full-time equivalent students in higher education in 1990.

Both UFC (universities) and PCFC (polytechnics and colleges of higher education) have 15 board members each, appointed by the Secretary of State for Education and Science, just under half of whom are from higher education, and just over half (including the chairperson) from business, industry, or commerce. UFC and PCFC institutions are encouraged to increase their income from contracted research and royalties from inventions.

Some critics decry the 2-part division between UFC (universities) and PCFC (polytechnics) and regret PCFC’s business and commercial utilitarian emphasis. ERA 88 advocates, however, think that differentiated, competing higher education institutions promote efficiency and access.

Once accepted into a higher education institution; i.e., either a university (UFC) or a polytechnic (PCFC), students who are eligible for cost of living grants apply to their LEAs for the grant. From 1990 a mixed grant and loan arrangement was implemented.

Statistics (1989-90): The PCFC-funded sector of higher education enrolled 352,328 students, of whom 228,193 were full time or “sandwich” students (alternating study and work).
Professional, Industrial and Commercial Updating Program (PICKUP)

PICKUP was launched by central government in 1982 to help colleges, polytechnics, and universities upgrade midcareer workers' skills in industry, commerce, and the professions. The intent by 1992 is for one in 10 of Britain's workforce to participate in job-skill updating. REPLAN was launched in 1984 to aid and train unemployed adults.

Science Parks

Britain has developed since the 1970s some 40 science parks, where research organizations are concentrated near universities and other higher education institutions. They provide a research-enriched environment, stimulating inventions, improvements, and new products for industry, business, and commerce.

Teachers and Teacher Education

Under ERA 88, schoolteachers are hired by governing bodies and paid by LEAs. They are usually interviewed by the headteacher (U.S. principal) and approved by the school governing body, which frequently delegates this responsibility to the headteacher. In maintained (tax-supported) voluntary church or private schools, teachers are also appointed by the governing bodies and paid with LEA funds.

The Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (CATE, since 1984), accredits teacher education programs. Programs for those entering teacher education (British term, initial Teacher Training) are integrated into the rest of higher education, in a 4-year bachelor of education degree program (B.Ed.), taken in departments of education at universities, polytechnics, and colleges of higher education. There is also a specially designed 2-year B.Ed. program in secondary school subjects where the teacher shortage is acute: maths, physical sciences, chemistry, and craft, design and technology. Graduates with a subject matter degree may become teachers after a 1-year Post Graduate Certificate of Education (PGCE) program. There is also a 2-year B.Ed. program in secondary school subjects with acute teacher shortages. Recent government regulations encourage mature people, many from industry and business, to be trained as licensed teachers as the first step toward becoming qualified teachers. Half the LEAs have asked for
Educational Structure and School Ladder

licensed teachers. There is also a "taster" course (trial course) to encourage entry by potential new teachers or by former teachers.

Inservice teacher education (INSET) is a long standing and recently enlarged enterprise. An LEA Training Grant Scheme, launched in 1987, replaced the earlier Grant-Related In-Service Training. LEAs allotted £280 million for INSET in 1988 to 1989. ERA 88 has burdened teachers with many rapid changes and new duties. To implement ERA 88, especially the national curriculum, central government allotted £214 million and LEAs allotted £80 million in 1989-1990. Teacher pay scales, governed by the 1987 Education (Teachers Pay and Conditions) Act, were determined by the Interim Advisory Committee, from 1987 to 1990. 1990 announcement stated that the right to negotiate salaries and conditions of service will be restored to teachers and their LEA employers. (FE college teacher salaries are negotiated by the Joint Council for Lecturers in Further Education.)

Statistics (1986-87): There were 619,000 full-time teachers in U.K. public sector schools, of whom 502,000 were in maintained (tax-supported) schools, and 117,000 in further education (FE). There were 203,000 full-time teachers in primary schools, 260,000 in secondary schools, and 19,000 in special schools.

INDEPENDENT SCHOOLS

Independent (Non Tax-Supported) Schools

Of all primary school and secondary school pupils in England and Wales, 93 percent are enrolled in maintained (tax supported) LEA and voluntary church schools. The remaining 7 percent are enrolled in independent schools, or private non tax-supported schools. These range from nursery schools to senior secondary boarding schools, many of which offer bursaries (U.S. scholarships). Independent schools for older students ages 11 to 18 or 19 include about 550 "public" schools (called "public" because their founders originally left funds for poor bright boys to attend free), which are members of one or more of the following organizations: the Headmasters' Conference, the Governing Bodies Association, the Society of Headmasters and Headmistresses of Independent Schools, the Girls' Schools Association, and the Governing Bodies of Girls' Schools Association.
Statistics (1989): There were about 2,500 independent fee-charging schools in the U.K., educating 580,000 students.35

**Assisted Places Scheme (at Independent Schools)**

The 1980 Education Act (No. 2) authorized financial aid to parents of modest means wanting to transfer their academically able children from a free maintained (tax-supported) LEA or church school to a fee-charging independent church or other nontax-supported private school. Over 5,500 assisted places were available each year (as of April 1988) to boys and girls normally transferring to secondary school at ages 11, 12, or 13, but also at age 16+ into a sixth form college (i.e., upper secondary school for ages 17 and 18). Part or all costs are covered, except boarding fees, with aid scaled to family income. The motives ascribed to the government for initiating the Assisted Places Scheme are to enhance parents’ choice, encourage private enterprise in education, reduce the hold of comprehensive schools, and weaken labor Party-influenced LEAs. Some critics say that by encouraging differentiation, the scheme is divisive and that it helps the better off at the expense of less well off families.36

Statistics (1988-89): Some 34,000 places were offered in England and Wales in the school year 1988-89.37

**CONCLUSION**

**Education Policy Shift**

England and Wales experienced a public consensus shift from a child-centered, progressive education, and teacher-guided system in the 1960s and 1970s toward a conservative, differentiated, central government-directed, industry-serving school system in the 1980s and 1990s. The post World War II response to social concerns gave way to national economic concerns at a time of intense international competition. Times changed, with economic recession from the mid-1970s, forced budget cuts in the early 1980s, a significant drop in the birthrate (25 percent fewer school leavers available for work in the mid-1990s), and other changes. It was the Conservative government after 1979 that turned the country in an industrial improvement direction as it searched for Britain's enlarged role in the post-1992 European Community's free trade prosperity. The education community was
Increasingly directed by a Conservative government determined to work with industry leaders to advance the national economy.

Other nations are experiencing the same concerns and undergoing pressures for similar changes. The U.S. school reform response has been more hesitant, less resolved, and has lacked the force of law which ERA 88 placed on schools in England and Wales. The U.S. discussed but hesitated to take the definitive steps ERA 88 took toward a national curriculum, national assessment, differentiated schools, school-industry links, and central government drive toward industrial growth.

**Education Aims for the 1990s**

Economic more than social circumstances forced England and Wales to restructure its schools. In the process Britons asked again what purpose their schools should serve. Some answered: to enlarge and enrich life chances for all. Others said: without a strong economy, everybody's life chances are diminished, with those on the bottom having the least chance of all. It is uncertain how many Britons endorse the Conservative government's controversial education goals, to improve the economy, build job security, and advance British industry. Similar educational goals were urged by Labor Prime Minister James Callaghan in his October 18, 1976, Ruskin College, Oxford University, speech.

Until elections and the possibility of a new party direction, education in England and Wales has been set on an industry-serving course, much as it was in the mid to late nineteenth century. Britain as a more caring nation has since embraced greater concern for individuals and groups. Schools in England and Wales may seem to outsiders an inefficient, traditional, and pragmatic patchwork. But that system somehow works, has produced unusual leaders, and has nurtured much talent. The hope is that ERA 88 and any needed amendments will prepare Britain well for the next century.

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33. Whitaker, op. cit., p. 443.
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Education in England and Wales
CHAPTER 1
Education Reform Act of 1988 (ERA 88)


Political background and evaluation of the Education Reform Act of 1988 (ERA 88). National curriculum for ages 5-16 (3 core subjects: English, math, and science; 7 other foundation subjects: history, geography, physical education, art, modern foreign language, technology, and music) is similar to subjects required in Secondary School Regulations of 1904. Arguments for a national curriculum: a 1983 study found West German children better in maths than comparable English and Welsh children; arguments against: national curriculum, with attendant testing applied to state but not to independent schools, is a return to nineteenth century "payment by results." Concluded that the Conservative Party, through the last two education secretaries, has centralized, bureaucratized, and controlled education, ostensibly to promote science, technology, and national economic growth, but in effect has made educational opportunity dependent on parental wealth. Some Canadian comparisons.

Though central government has a legitimate role in education, the national curriculum will hinder individual student and national development.


The 1944 Education Act represented nineteenth and early twentieth century views rather than a new beginning. It needed 17 correcting acts to remove ambiguities, had no clear definition of powers and duties of education bodies, lacked power for implementation, and was the product of nineteenth century social, denominational, and gender divisions. A new education act needs clearer definition of powers and duties of education bodies; curriculum and exams should be under constant review by central and local governments, teachers, parents, employers, and students; and rationalized coordination of 16-19-year-old schooling for jobs and adulthood. Recommended that proposals for a new education act be circulated to all education bodies for their reactions.


Critical of the ERA 88 feature that allowed schools by parent vote to opt out of LEA control to grant maintained school status. An affluent parent minority in a school with an average ability student majority could vote to opt out against majority parents' wishes and cause conflict. Teachers and their professional associations have no say in opting out. Grant maintained schools could be better financed than neighboring local education authority (LEA) schools. Governing bodies of grant-maintained schools could discriminate in admissions. Concluded that ERA 88 is divisive, foments competition at the expense of collaboration, and leads to the success of the few at the expense of the many.

Critical commentary on ERA 88. Behind the Conservative Party's stand for choice and standards are its political aims to remove LEA influence, centralize control, and to win over new "school-owning" voters (i.e., parents) by such incentives as assisted places scheme (money for students to attend independent schools), inducements for schools to opt out from LEA control, and school "selection through the back door." Faults Conservative Party for putting Britain near the bottom of industrial nations in educational expenditure, for closing 1,791 schools since 1980, for allowing 87 percent of school buildings to need substantial repair, for high truancy, and for allowing only 31 percent of young Britons to attend school after age 16--a lower figure than in most European countries.


Education Secretary Kenneth Baker, taking Department of Education and Science (DES) officials with him, went over the heads of critics to talk directly to parents and public groups about supporting "the biggest educational changes since the Second World War." He explained the controversial provision that schools can opt out of LEA control.


Observers wonder if recent higher nurses' pay and social security payments reflect a temporary sop to conservatives who think Thatcher is going too fast in welfare institution cutbacks (total welfare and social service budget, $91 billion, 1988).


Prime Minister Margaret Thatcher (since 1979) has privatized the extensive social welfare system. Educationally through ERA 88 she is trying to restore school standards with a national curriculum emphasizing English, maths, science; with achievement tests; with allowing parents to take schools from LEA control to direct government financing; and to give each school its own budget so
that parents can influence school expenditures. Conservatives see these choice options as restoring eroding school standards and giving education a business-industrial-market emphasis.


John Graystone, 1 of 17 contributors, related ERA 88 history, criticism, and further education (FE) provisions, and suggested that ERA 88 will make FE more visible, speed LEA decline as LEAs are blamed for poor standards, give higher education a new client-centered (business-industry) approach and new managerial (rather than educator-oriented) administration. Other contributors think that ERA 88 will consolidate rather than change nonadvanced FE planning and that the Act's acid test will be to improve FE. Some see ERA 88 as a threat to LEA/FE relationship; believe that LEAs will continue their crucial FE role; urge continued FE monitoring and evaluation; fear less independence for FE colleges; and are concerned over the fate of the Inner London Education Authority (ILEA) and its FE colleges, Careers Service, and Inspectorate (in 1990 ILEA handed over its functions to the 12 London borough LEAs and one City of London school).


Reported that, before passage of ERA 88, the government curtailed parliamentary debate about procedures for schools wishing to opt out of LEA control. Also reported that the Training Agency [formerly the Manpower Services Commission (MSC)] planned to give 100 higher education institutions £100 million in the next decade to make courses more relevant to the world of work.


Though many in elementary, secondary, and polytechnic schools believe ERA 88 will bring needed change, the 47 universities fear the consequences of ending tenure, putting finance into the hands of
a government-appointed agency, and removing autonomy by making universities serve the government's economic ends.


Thatcher has since 1979 transformed Britain from Europe's sick man to the European Community's fastest growing economic power, even though 3 million are jobless. The *Sunday Observer* said Britain was moving fast in health and education "toward private affluence and public squalor." Another critic: "Eight years of Thatcherism have resulted in a widening gap between rich and poor." She proposed job training for all secondary school dropouts and for those without jobs for 2 years who are under age 50. Observers say that education has slipped badly; that education spending has been cut 10 percent after inflation; that schools are turning out illiterate, delinquent unemployables; and that the government will soon take control of elementary and secondary schools away from LEAs.


BYC criticism of ERA 88: subject content emphasis will negate cross-discipline learning; the national curriculum has no multicultural provisions to combat racism; testing at ages 7, 11, 14, and 16 will force learning content rather than investigative skills; no provisions were included for political education (BYC's task has been to produce political education materials); balance in the core curriculum is not assured; allowing LEAs to charge for music lessons and field trips contravenes the free school provision of the 1944 Education Act; reducing student representation on FE governing bodies is inappropriate, as was the 1986 Education Act's removal of student representatives from school governing bodies; youth services are not mentioned in the bill; and schools opting out of LEA control and the breakup of ILEA will adversely affect youth groups (separate London borough LEAs are not required to provide youth services).

Recommendations for discussion of practical aspects of assessment and testing of the national curriculum at ages 7, 11, 14, and 16.


Report 1 examines public reaction to 1987 main report on assessment and testing of the national curriculum; 2 is on individual subjects; and 3 is on implementation, administration, and support.


Likely consequences of stressing maths, English, and sciences and deemphasizing the social sciences.


Background, provisions, and likely ERA 88 effects. Historians blamed economic decline on poor state education, little technical and vocational education (inferior to West Germany, France, and other European countries), and little FE for the 70 percent who leave school at age 16. The 1944 Education Act 11+ exam sent the brightest 20 percent to grammar school and professional jobs and 80 percent to secondary modern schools and dead-end jobs. The Labor government, mid 1960s, inspired by U.S. schools, started all-program comprehensive schools which enroll over 90 percent of students. Conservatives disdained comprehensives, wanted to reduce social welfare, privatize socialized agencies, increase industrial output, and exert control over LEAs, many of them Labor Party dominated. Elected 3 times, Conservatives, flush with victory over a teacher union pay raise dispute, created a rival education system for jobless 16-18-year-olds through the MSC-funded Youth Training Scheme and other agencies linking technical training to
Education Reform Act of 1988

industrial needs, increased parent power on school boards, initiated city technology colleges (CTC), a national curriculum, national assessment (at ages 7, 11, 14, and 16), and let schools by parent vote opt out of LEA control to become DES-financed grant-maintained schools—all ERA 88 ingredients. Critics see ERA 88 as divisive: increasing school segregation by race and income while dividing schools into popular (better supported) and weaker (less well supported) schools. Headteachers will be business managers more than educators. CTCs will lack time for both the national curriculum and technical subjects and will find too few qualified teachers. Commentary on article by Albert Shanker, "Where We Stand: An Omen of Yankee Thatcherism? The British May be Coming." New York Times, November 29, 1987, p. 9.


Scrap "costly and bureaucratic LEAs," states a right-wing think tank (Center for Policy Studies) deputy director's report, Away with LEAs, 1988. Under ERA 88, schools that fail to uphold high standards will attract fewer pupils, get less financial support, and have to improve or close.


Summarized ERA 88 main features: national curriculum, opting out by parent vote from LEA control to grant-maintained status, and other features.


Summarized the March 1985 White Paper, Better Schools, Command 9469, which called for reform in curriculum, exams (introduction of General Certificate of Secondary Education [GCSE]), teacher quality, and school governance (greater role for parents and employers). Also discussed the education of ages 2-5, school discipline, minority students, and independent schools.

Lists ERA 88 targets for action in Parliament.


Conservative Party publication offered ERA 88 background, main provisions, defense, and rebuttals to Labor Party and other critics. Answered commonly asked questions about the national curriculum, testing and assessment, open enrollment, finance, and opting out for grant-maintained school status. Government's aim is higher standards and parental choice.


Listed ERA 88 benefits.


Defended opting out feature of ERA 88 and denied critics' charge that its purpose is to impose fees and restore the 11+ exam.


Explained, defended, and answered critics of ERA 88.

Key features and advantages of ERA 88. Included criticism of ILEA: said to spend 60 percent more per pupil than Birmingham LEA spent, yet its students consistently do worse on exams.


Essays critically evaluate ERA 88, which some early labeled facetiously the Great Education Reform Bill (GERBIL).


Under ERA 88, primary school heads and boards of managers, earlier influenced by the child-centered, progressive Plowden Report (1967), will have new budget, marketing, public relations, and other managerial duties for which they are not prepared. School relationships will change and trust will be reduced.


ERA 88 did not mention multicultural education. Dangers are that open enrollment might produce segregated schools and that the national curriculum, local school management, and opting out might be disadvantageous to minorities. All involved must be alert to minority needs.


To avoid setting school against school and parent against parent, plans for implementing the ERA 88 open enrollment (i.e., choice) provision should require that communities cooperate and that area schools form a consortium to serve all age groups and all education needs.
ERA 88 gave power to individual school governing bodies rather than to LEAs but made LEAs responsible for curriculum, national testing, staff development, and management. CTCs (secondary technical schools) will cause problems, and children with special educational needs will be ignored. Lay governing bodies will want LEA help as they learn that education works best when it is conducted by a mutually supportive network.

ERA 88's major effects will be to remove power from LEAs and teachers; give power to the Secretary of State for Education and Science, parents, and school governing bodies; and hinder long-term educational planning.

The Education Acts of 1986 and 1988 greatly empowered school governing bodies. But lack of time and expertise may weaken their influence and limit innovation. If governing bodies are strong, they can move the country closer to a privatized education system.

The New Right, though opposed to centralizing educational control, greatly influenced the Conservative Party's ERA 88 and the movements toward privatizing tax-supported education and subjecting teachers' pay to labor market forces rather than to a national salary scale.
Education Reform Act of 1988


ERA 88 policy questions answered on the 5 title topics.


Guidebook for head teachers and other teachers. Explained 20-year trend in curriculum, the place of the national curriculum, and ways the national curriculum and related requirements will affect school operations. Appendices include schedules for implementing core subjects and foundation subjects.


Summarizes the larger role of school governors as provided by the Education (No. 2) Act of 1986 and ERA 88 in regard to the national curriculum, admission of pupils, school finance, and shifting to grant maintained status.


Grant-maintained schools defined under ERA 88. Steps are described by which an LEA school can opt out of LEA control, move to direct central government funding, and operate with the governing body making decisions.


Summarized the ERA 88 national curriculum and the report recommending national assessment at ages 7, 11, 14, and 16.


Why the government favors a national curriculum, subjects to be included and national assessment arrangements, and legal requirements and nonstatutory arrangements for implementing the
national curriculum. Also lists resources needed and the implementation schedule.


ERA 88 sought flexibility in requiring that religious education be part of the basic curriculum and that LEAs establish a Standing Advisory Council on religious education. The daily act of worship, still required, should be appropriate to the community served, with parents free to withdraw children from worship or place them in separate acts of worship. Though respectful of non-Christian traditions, the Act's aim is for all to understand Christianity's place in the country's history and traditions.


Editorial (entire issue on ERA 88) predicted that the next school reform effort will be marked by consumer-market oriented teacher education reform proposals.


Editorial (entire issue on ERA 88) considered how ERA 88 and the 1986 Education Act will affect teachers. Stressed need for teacher professionalism as ERA 88 is implemented, 1988-92.


ERA 88 explained in detail, with benefits, under headings: Start of a New Era, More Choice and Higher Standards, CTC, Education in ILEA, Religious Education, FE, and Higher Education.


ERA 88 is less important to FE than to primary and secondary schools. More important to FE are the 1987 DES report on FE college efficiency, the National Council for Vocational Qualifications, client demand, new technology, demographic trends, the 1992 merger of European Economic Community members, and changing skill requirements. Under ERA 88, LEAs are less involved with day-to-day FE operations but will be concerned about accountability, strategic planning, and management.


The 1988 parliamentary vote to abolish ILEA, set up in 1972, and hand over its duties to London's 12 boroughs and one City of London school ended over 100 years of London-wide provision for inner city needs, among them racial and language minorities' needs and children with special educational needs.


Background and effect of ERA 88 on curriculum and teaching. Has sections on politics and education, control of education and the politics of comprehensive secondary education, organization and control of school knowledge, the wider context of change (economic, demographic, and ideological), and the national curriculum.


Contributors (16) on ERA 88 history, 1944-89: national curriculum; national assessment; grant-maintained schools; finance and management; school admission policies (open enrollment and parental choice); and effects on primary schools, vocational schools, liberal education, parents, school board governors, race
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relations, girls' education, special education, LEAs, FE, adult education, and higher education.


Mr. Baker's January 9, 1987, North of England speech exploring the framework for a national curriculum while still allowing for revision, professional initiative, and shared power among educational groups.


Governing bodies, under the 1986 Education Act and ERA 88, will be composed of equal numbers of LEA and parent members. Teacher members, though outnumbered, will play a key role. Chances are good that governing bodies will delegate their financial duties to the headteacher, who will then become more important as a budget manager than as an educational thinker.


One secondary school's experience in a pilot project to show how individual schools can manage their own finances and related activities (formerly done by LEAs), as required by ERA 88. LEAs are responsible for the total budget and its equitable distribution among schools.


Analyzed the report of the Task Group on Assessment and Testing (1987). Concluded that national assessment will increase competition between schools and children, will reduce mixed ability teaching, and will provide more information for parents about their children's progress.

Passage of ERA 88 has challenged the NUT to seek greater partnerships with parents, school governors, LEAs, and other teacher organizations; to work for appropriate inservice teacher education conditions and for courses that will ease adjustment to the national curriculum and assessment; and to seek appropriate present and future staffing arrangements.


Papers show the education establishment's massive resistance to such major ERA 88 proposals as the national curriculum, national assessment, opting out, and open enrollment.


Many in the Labor Party support ERA 88's national curriculum. Teacher unions complain that, with too few teachers for some subjects, the government has not funded adequately the necessary inservice training. Six schools have opted out of LEA control and another 60 have applied to do so. Higher education changes include ending tenure, substituting student loans for grants, increasing higher education enrollments, increasing higher education dependence on private funds, and making universities compete for funds from the new government-controlled Universities Funding Council.


ERA 88, introduced in late 1987, called for open enrollment, with schools funded according to numbers of pupils attracted; and for allowing schools to opt out of LEA control by parent vote.

Thatcher government’s major education proposals called for national curriculum; mandatory testing at ages 7, 11, 14, and 16; freedom to choose one’s school; and the right of schools to put themselves under national (DES) rather than LEA control and financing.


Southampton University professor condemned the national curriculum and the assessment plan developed by the Task Group on Assessment and Testing. The impossible educational assumption on which they are based is that curricula can function independent of the student’s age and ability. ERA 88 plans for school maths lack clear aims, ignore research findings, set unrealistic targets, ignore teacher needs, and do not mesh with the science proposals.


Swedish comparative educator reviewed books about ERA 88 by Julian Haviland, *Take Care, Mr. Baker!*; Brian Simon, *Bending the Rules: The Baker Reform of Education*; and Mary Warnock, *A Common Policy for Education*. Cited education crises in Britain and other industrialized countries: social problems besetting families have moved into schools; and the 1970s oil embargo and stagflation caused austere education budgets. Employment increasingly depends on formal education, education bureaucracies have grown large and rigid, and frustrated parents have turned to private schools or demanded privatization of tax-supported schools. ERA 88, whose supporters favor a "social market" in education and whose opponents see education as a social service and right of citizenship, was pushed too fast. Education reform cannot be hurried.

Thatcher's ERA 88 policies created the secondary school crisis, destroying confidence in publicly financed education by the assisted places scheme (money to help parents of bright students pay for independent schooling) and by the city technology colleges for scientific and technical secondary education (drawing good students from comprehensive schools). ERA 88 has weakened LEAs, set a national curriculum, delegated financial responsibility to individual school governing bodies, given parents the choice of school, abandoned responsibility for equity, and enabled local schools to opt for central government financing instead of local control.


Political scientist's analysis of Thatcher's conservative influence and 1980s events which marked a major change of political direction. The Conservative stance on education was a shift from egalitarianism to a more central government controlled, parent-directed, and industry-linked schooling for economic development.


Summarized ERA 88 provisions for a national curriculum in government-financed schools, for open enrollment, for delegation of financial responsibility to local school governing bodies, and for schools to opt out of LEA control. International comparisons: France, Germany, Japan, and The Netherlands.


Condemns ERA 88 for being dogmatic and divisive, shifting power to central government, and limiting students' life chances. Describes the Labor Party's opposing position on education and on all ERA 88 features.


ILEA abolition provides the occasion for critical review of all LEAs which divert resources from educational to social ends.
School meals, transportation, and other LEA services should be privately and competitively catered for and LEAs should be limited to using funds for purely educational services.


New Right arguments that the ERA 88 national curriculum will not assure basic knowledge of English, maths, and sciences; that misguided education professionals will continue to dominate classroom learning; and that the central government should not impose its will on individual schools.


Explained how, under ERA 88, any secondary school or larger elementary school can, by parent vote, opt out of LEA control for DES-financed grant-maintained status.


Papers by 9 teaching staff, Institute of Education, University of London, examine critically the ERA 88 national curriculum which the editors say is based on "fundamentally flawed" thinking.


Summarized ERA 88 requirements and dates for implementation: the national curriculum and assessment; introduction of maths, science, English, and technology; age groups, subject attainment targets, and programs of study; and religious education and collective worship.

Summarized the Leeds plan for implementing ERA 88 transfer of management responsibilities from the LEA to individual schools. Budgeting will be handled by each secondary school and ages 9-12 middle school, and by each primary and ages 8-12 middle school with over 200 pupils. Primary and ages 8-12 middle schools with fewer than 200 pupils will not have delegated budget responsibilities. All schools will receive some funds according to a prescribed formula.


ERA 88 made the Welsh language a core (required) subject in Welsh-speaking schools and a foundation subject in non-Welsh-speaking schools in Wales. Cites the growing trend toward bilingualism in Wales.


School reform is called by some a reaction to falling standards and by others a government plot to take power from LEAs. The national curriculum and its assessment at ages 7, 11, 14, and 16 will begin in 1989. The GCSE age 16+ exam bases over 20 percent of a student's grade on the teacher's continuous assessment of oral and written work.


ERA 88, while it harks back to the nineteenth century social contract, moved Britain closer to equivalence with the education systems of other European Economic Community members. The Act may not effectively solve Britain's problems nor be consistent with her cultural traditions.

Though different ERA 88 parts have different implementation dates, its impact began immediately. From 1989 all schools will teach all national curriculum core and foundation subjects. The first grant-maintained school (after opting out of LEA control) could come into existence by 1990. The Act's most slipshod feature, requiring ILEA's breakup by March 31, 1990, seemed certain to hinder education in London.


*Times Educational Supplement* (London) editor explained ERA 88 in lay terms. Chapters on the national curriculum and assessment, open enrollment, finance and staff, grant-maintained schools, higher education and FE finance and government of locally funded FE and higher education, education in London, and school governors' powers and duties. Chapter 10, "Perspective: From 1944 to 1988": ERA 88 grew out of broadly based attitude changes about large social and political issues. New Right proponents, though unsuccessful in pushing vouchers, guided opinion toward a major restructuring of education. Nine months before the June 1987 election, a Conservative Party education plan was drafted which, after the Thatcher victory, became ERA 88.


While ERA 88 greatly strengthened England and Wales's central government education role at the expense of the LEAs, U.S. school reform shifted fiscal and other responsibilities to state governments. ERA 88 also gave greater decisionmaking power to parents and school heads (including the possible shift by parent vote of a school from LEA to central government funding), more business and industry involvement, less teacher influence, and a major central government role in curriculum and testing.

Historical and ideological defense of ERA 88 as providing the structural changes necessary to serve the needs of children and the nation.


Most members of the Assessment and Testing Task Group, set up to advise the government on testing children at ages 7, 11, 14, and 16 on the national curriculum, opposed reporting results of tests by individual schools and LEAs. Government favored such reporting because it will help parents compare different schools.


The Association of County Councils, despite its Conservative Party majority, condemned as excessive the projected increases in spending for teachers, other staff, and materials called for in ERA 88.


Argued that the ERA 88 skills-based national curriculum will fail because of Britain's deeply ingrained prejudice against the practical.


Functions and operations of the National Curriculum Council, established by the ERA 88, as an independent body to advise and consult with the Secretary of State for Education and Science on all aspects of the curriculum and to conduct and publish needed research.


Many countries have a national curriculum, but the ERA 88 is unique in combining a national curriculum with tests to assess
attainment at different ages. The new National Curriculum Council has power to set content; an exam and assessment council will plan tests.


Condemned the ERA 88 proposals for parental choice of school (90 percent already send pupils to secondary school of choice), for worsening social divisions, and for leaving education to the whim of market forces.


Explained the ERA 88 provisions for schools to opt out of LEA control to DES-financed grant-maintained status. NUT believed opting out will damage all state-funded education, especially the ability of LEAs to plan for a coherent system in their areas.


ERA 88 provisions on local management of schools are explained to help headteachers, deputy headteachers, and teacher members of school governing bodies to know their responsibilities and express their professional judgment to the greatly empowered school governors.


While NUT favored giving individual schools more financial control, it questioned the government's haste in dramatically shifting financial responsibility. One fear is that headteachers' role will become so financially oriented that other professional aims, especially teacher morale, will suffer.

Attacked the ERA 88 proposals for shifting financial responsibility to individual schools. Uncertain features are how much money a school will get and how comparisons of expenditures between schools are to be made.


Praised ILEA's record in facing inner city education problems and condemned as politically motivated the government's proposal to dismantle ILEA.


Attacked in 24 points the proposal that schools be allowed to opt out of LEA control and become DES-financed grant-maintained schools. Called it an attack on the comprehensive system, an elitist return to direct grant grammar schools, and a step toward privatization of tax-supported education.


The government proposal for parental choice (already possible for 90 percent of parents of secondary school children) will limit LEA capacity to plan, will force closure of some good schools in areas of demographic change, and will place hidden expense on parents who must provide transport to schools outside their LEA.


Opposed opting out of LEA schools because it places education in lay hands, encourages elitism, widens ethnic division, weakens teacher professionalism, and provides no way for schools to opt back into the LEA system.

A guide to school governance as stated in 1987 regulations based on the Education (No. 2) Act 1986. Headteachers are to be members of governing bodies unless they choose not to serve. Teachers will be elected as governors by their teacher colleagues. Their specific duties are outlined.


Analysis, section by section, of ERA 88, its likely impact, and the schedule for its implementation.


The national curriculum will allow less time for and thus less choice of those subjects that are not prescribed, will require much teacher inservice training, will likely politicize teaching and encourage bureaucratic stagnation, and will limit teachers' longstanding professional influence on curriculum development.


Philosophical analysis of neo-conservative and neo-liberal (laissez-faire) influences on the Thatcher government's rightist
education proposals. The New Right wants to restore traditional values and state authority. Author concluded that the traditional academic curriculum is divisive and destructive of community culture.


Conservative Party Education Secretary Kenneth Baker, before Thatcher's June 1987 election campaign, called for radical changes that would weaken teacher unions and local government's role in state schools. He called for a national curriculum; nationwide testing at ages 7, 11, 14, and 16; and an enhanced role for parents.


The Queen's annual speech, written by the Thatcher government, offered legislative proposals for community charge (local taxes), inner cities, labor unions, public utilities, and education. Headteachers and parents would regain the control long held by classroom teachers.


A Conservative Party manifesto on public housing, urban redevelopment, and education proposed a greater role for central government in local schools, a national curriculum, and the possibility that schools might opt out of LEA control for DES-financed grant-maintained status.


During the ERA 88 debates, amendments were adopted favoring hiring outside specialists and providing FE for pupils with special education needs. Because of the weak wording and the high cost of special education, some feared that local financial management would result in too little money for special education.

Despite genuine support for children with special needs during the ERA 88 debate, some fear that special education may have slipped off the educational agenda. The Act also ignored the needs of children under age 5. Without strong advocacy for children with special needs, the national curriculum will neglect the potential of less able children.


With the ERA 88 a fact, Education Secretary Baker was conciliatory in a speech which called for more help from teachers, local education officers, inspectors and advisers, teacher unions, and subject associations in implementing the national curriculum. Speaking on higher education, he praised the U.S. system of diverse funding and broadly based enrollment but was cool to reports that some universities wanted to cut themselves free of government funding to gain their own commercial and ideological freedom.


Growing unease about schools, at a time when more is expected of them than ever before, is focusing attention on changing the curriculum, improving teacher quality, improving assessment, getting better school management, and empowering parents.


Both the 1870 and 1944 Education Acts endorsed 2-track schools in which independent schools had greater esteem than state-supported schools. ERA 88's opting out feature and CTCs increase the tracking system. The U.K. "is the only major industrial
economy where the majority of young people expect to start work at 16."


Attacks ERA 88 as a massive drive to privatize state-supported education and to undermine LEA influence and power.


Her Majesty's Inspectorate autumn 1984 reports and DES discussion papers would bring a national curriculum nearer. Main steps would be to set learning objectives and curricular objectives, to agree on a curriculum for ages 5-16, and to set attainment targets for ages 11 and 16.


Complicated ERA 88 amendments in the House of Lords made Christianity dominant in religious education but assured that non-Christians could have separate assemblies if numbers were sufficient to warrant them.


The national curriculum as proposed was changed little in ERA 88, which gave a framework but did not specify a schedule for implementation. Main goal is to make schools more accountable. Headteachers must ensure implementation of LEA policy as modified by the governing body's statement. The Act set up new independent bodies to advise the education secretary on curriculum and to review assessment and exams.


Except for certain safeguards for church and other voluntary schools to select pupils according to religious background,
proposals to allow parents to choose their children's schools were adopted as proposed in the ERA 88. The education secretary gained power to set a ceiling on admission limits, and parents were empowered to protest attempts to limit artificially a school's intake. Successful schools will gain pupils and funding, segregated schools will increase, and many less popular schools will eventually close.


Local financial management and local management of schools, as provided in ERA 88, is aimed, not at giving schools more responsibility for spending, but at making teachers more accountable to parents and reducing the power of professional educators. Ironically, these professional educators must lead in implementing the national curriculum, national assessment, and teacher evaluation.


Many countries are giving greater power to individual schools. But the ERA 88, in its local management of schools provision, is unique in giving more independence to school governing bodies for finance and teacher staffing and is fundamentally reshaping the power structure. The funding formulas emphasize accountability of schools to parents, who can choose their children's schools. LEAs' role in school management is much reduced.


The ERA 88 is a radical shift from the modern concept that educational opportunity is a right of citizenship to the principle
that education is a commodity to be purchased and consumed. Thus the LEA monopoly is replaced by open enrollment, governing body responsibility for finance and management, opting out as grant-maintained schools, CTCs, and the assisted places scheme. But the national curriculum, a keystone to the ERA 88 and a tool for promoting individuality and innovation, is incompatible with marketplace education. Choice will be possible only for the few and will foster social and racial differences. By taking power from LEAs, the ERA 88 weakens the structure of elected local governments and strengthens authoritarianism, a shift which the public needs to debate.


The changed role of LEAs under the ERA 88 is contrasted with the 1944 Education Act's requirement that LEAs assure educational opportunity. ERA 88's national curriculum seems to contradict the Conservative Party's free market spirit. ERA 88 may greatly weaken LEAs, widen differences in educational opportunities, and unintentionally sacrifice free-market objectives by centralizing curriculum planning.


Proposals that education be treated as a commodity in the marketplace are a threat to democracy, to ways of living and working together, and to traditional views on the individual's worth.


Implications of ERA 88, its alleged purposes, and the structures for achieving them. A radical break with post-1870 education history, ERA 88 would destroy the education establishment, the power of teacher unions, and LEAs by treating education as a commodity, creating a national curriculum, and removing schools from LEA control. ERA 88 encourages privatization and empowers parents to be arbiters of their children's education.

In a broad approach to adult education (AE) and FE, ERA 88 does not refer to the curriculum, which is being reshaped under earlier legislation. It does require that FE/AE governing boards be industry-dominated, a fact that may encourage independence from LEAs and privatization.


Despite long delay and acrimonious debate, ERA 88 may bring improvements. Education should be a growth industry, must receive government support, and must achieve results.


Tenure ended for all university faculty hired after November 1987; principles of academic freedom were codified; and the University Funding Council (more directly controlled by government) replaced the University Grants Committee, which for decades distributed government funds among universities. About 50 degree-granting institutions formerly financed and administered by local governments were placed under the national government.


Challenged the ERA 88 proposals. Favored an overall education revitalization policy. Discussed secondary education structure, curriculum, and exams; teacher education; and higher education. Favored a national curriculum but opposed national assessment, believing that age-related evaluation is the worst feature of the ERA 88. Also opposed empowering parents because they lack the expertise needed to determine curriculum.

Identified contradictions between ERA 88, the 1981 Education Act, and the Warnock Report (1978) in regard to the special education curriculum and mainstreaming.


ERA 88 provisions that allow schools to opt out of LEA control and attain DES-financed grant-maintained status took effect immediately. Such schools cannot later "opt in" to LEA control. But the LEA which formerly maintained a school will continue to provide certain services and benefits, such as school psychology, careers service, and transportation.


Annually gives short, accurate overview of all important aspects of education, including ERA 88 policy changes.


The shift from professional (teachers) to political control of education seems conservatively based on rule by intellectual elites and by businessmen.


Pamphlets (3) explain how schools will be managed. Parts 1-Formula Funding, 2-Financed Delegation, and 3-Format of the Submission.

ERA 88, espousing parental choice and market forces, paradoxically required a national curriculum about which no choice will exist (except in independent schools). Within the New Right, the neo-liberals (laissez faire proponents) support market forces; the neo-conservatives support a national curriculum. For all who believe in a common tax-supported school system, the national curriculum offers hope that such a system will continue to exist despite the ERA 88 steps toward privatization.


Explains provisions of the ERA 88. Education Secretary Baker argued that it will raise standards and make schools responsive to student needs. Others believe it is a charter for the rich and powerful and the biggest attack on local government in this century.


University of Exeter professor explained ERA 88's ideological basis and some of its likely consequences. Has sections on market forces, competition, privatization of education, the national curriculum assessment, and opting out. Concluded that ERA 88 "will recreate the unfair society which the free market of the nineteenth century brought about."

Compared school administration training trends in the U.K., the U.S., France, The Netherlands, Norway, Sweden, and West Germany—all influenced by the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development, the Council of Europe, and the Association of European Education workshops and conferences. The U.K.’s 1983 pilot scheme in management development, conducted by the then new National Development Center for School Management Training, combined management training with such broader issues as school improvement and regional educational policy.


Evidence given to the Royal Commission on Local government was published as Research Study 6. School Management and Government, 1968. Added material showed how varied were the composition, powers and influence of primary school managers and secondary school governors within and among the local education.
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authorities (LEAs), yet within the law. Variations were attributed historically to Leeds Education Director Graham's insistence to Morant (early 1900s) that city secondary school governors make independent decisions. Relationships examined in mainly state supported schools among all involved in school administration, with sections also on administration in independent, church, and direct grant schools.


Analyzed subjects discussed at Inner London Education Authority (ILEA) meetings. Finance was discussed often; policy less often and based on educational officers' position papers. Secondary school reorganization decisions, left mainly to the administrative process, were often long delayed.


Headmasters at the 3 different types of secondary schools (grammar, comprehensive, and secondary modern) gained their positions not because of their differing social origins but because of their unique educational and professional experiences.


Guide to help local education authorities (LEAs) in their educational planning.


Many briefly annotated entries on the economics (finance) of education in the U.K. Volume and number of journals are omitted.


How local government changes have affected the relationship between politics and education. Topics include efficiency and the
size of LEAs, local party politics, and local versus central
government administration of education.

Education*, 5, 2 (1979), 157-68.

The 1944 Education Act created an educational system based on
many interdependent relationships. The traditional non politicization
of schools foundered as political parties tried to shape policy and as
parents demanded greater involvement.

Edited by Eric Hoyle and Agnes McMahon. New York: Nichols

The Government in 1983 gave funds to LEAs for school
management courses; asked regional institutions to provide such
courses; and set up a National Development Center to be a
clearinghouse, promote evaluation of management training, develop
materials, support adoption and implementation of
management training, and publish a newsletter.

Educational Studies*, 30, 1 (1982), 32-42.

Tighter funds and accountability concerns caused education
administration courses to shift emphasis from practical experiences
to management theories and to ways to decide about financial cuts.

139. Bone, T.R., and H.A. Ramsay, eds. "Quality Control in
Education? The Proceedings of the Annual Conference of the
British Educational Management and Administration Society
(9th, Glasgow, Great Britain, September 1980)." *Educational
Administration*, 9, 2 (May 1981), 1-122.

Conference papers, addresses, and discussions about the role of
staff development, national government, school boards, regional
advisory councils, and LEAs in controlling the quality of education.

Central government-local government relations and the financing of LEAs, which administer schools and colleges.


Studied finance, staff, and material resource allocation in Lincoln, Nottingham, and Northumberland LEA secondary schools. Concluded that the national system of financing schools militates against local needs, and that resource allocation policies reinforce educational inequality.


Their experiences as deputy heads (assistant principals) provided newly appointed headteachers with diverse, unsystematic preparation for 8 specific administrative roles.


Headteachers' interviews and diaries showed that if their time-consuming daily school maintenance chores were delegated, they could focus more effectively on long-term concerns.


Studied assessment practices among 11-14-year-olds in 9 northern LEAs.

Headteachers (340) said their first concern was the school's internal operation. They were less certain about their role in community affairs.


Although teachers in 8 schools perceived themselves as participating in decisionmaking, headteachers controlled those areas of power which involved tangible rewards and punishments, and in those areas headteachers ignored teacher opinions.


Headteachers saw themselves as teacher trainers who demonstrated a clearly articulated educational philosophy. Major topics: headteacher's role as administrator, innovator, and leader in parent-school relations. Compared headteachers with U.S. school principals.


Elementary school heads are being limited in their hitherto independent decisions by the government, teacher unions, and the National Association of Governors and Managers. In the example of Countesthorpe, Leicestershire, teaching staffs are making policy, with the head as chief executive, and with student opinion involvement. Heads must be open to different leadership styles.


Because headteachers make most decisions and assign routine tasks to deputy heads, experience as a deputy head offers limited preparation for becoming a headteacher.

Found little direct government intervention in LEA activities except for an obvious shift in funding.


Found in 3-year study of 2 LEAs that management consultants hired to help solve problems were not always useful, and that the two types of chief education officers had difficulties coping with 1960s problems. One type dealt professionally with politicians; the other type adjudicated between diverse public demand.


LEA decisionmaking processes are illustrated by studies of 1960s moves to take secondary education comprehensive and to expand LEA higher education. Showed the spillover effect on primary and further education.


Secondary school department heads wanted a larger role in decisionmaking about budgeting and curriculum design, believing that their participation would produce better decisions and deeper commitment to policy.


Found much variation in patterns of Management by Objectives; used by some LEAs to solve administrative problems, used as a change agent, and used to sustain administrative momentum and commitment.

Management skills were needed for day-by-day care of pupils, staff, finance, legislative requirements, and other needs.


LEA advisers, until the 1960s called inspectors, usually advise the chief education officer and local council members about standards of education. They also assist headteachers and teachers, advising them about such matters as internal organization, current curriculum developments, and the appointment and deployment of teachers.


Reviewed rapid educational expansion, 1948 to early 1970s; and considered effects that sudden cutback in funds would have on teachers, the curriculum, and age 16+ schooling in the 1980s.


Examined government influence, budgeting process, accounting, and allocation methods of school finance.


Outlined the organization and roles of the DES in sections on schools, buildings, age 16+ education, science, teachers, research, other services, and Her Majesty's Inspectorate (HMI).

Some conclusions in HMI reports published January-June 1983: teachers need to meet students' individual needs, receive more inservice training, and give greater focus and coherence to the curriculum.


Summarized HMI reports published January 1983-May 1984 on schools visited. Primary schools need to define clearly teachers' curricular roles, to increase their reference book collections, and to ensure that curricular guidelines are met. Secondary school teachers need higher expectations for pupils.


Uses evidence from HMI reports since January 1983 to identify some characteristics of good primary and secondary school teachers: qualifications, classroom language, organization and management of learning, evaluation of learning, and relationships outside the classroom.


Concise summary of HMI's role (to report to government on education quality), who inspectors are (485 education specialists), the inspection and reporting process, their relationship with teachers and teaching standards, their professional independence, and how to obtain their reports.


Recommended radical educational changes aimed at raising academic standards, increasing parental involvement, and serving local community needs.

Teachin was generally good in all LEA schools. Poor and inappropriate buildings increasingly hindered instruction. Parental contributions of cash and labor, more often given to primary schools, widened the gap in educational opportunity.


With enrollments declining and funding reduced, most education is of satisfactory or better quality. But better inservice training is needed as is a better match between teacher qualifications and tasks.


Explained HMI procedures before, during, and after a reporting inspection at an independent (i.e., private) school. Suggested ways to prepare for inspection and follow up on the HMI report.


Information for administrators, governors (U.S. school board members), and teachers at LEA-maintained (tax supported) schools about what happens before, during, and after an HMI visit.


Summary of the White Paper, Better Schools (Command 9469, 1985), which called for reform of the curriculum, exams, assessment, and governance; more effective teachers; and more parental and employer involvement in education.


Names of Directors of Education and addresses of 106 LEAs.

Explained for parents and others the role of the 490 HM inspectors who advise the government on the quality of education, inspect all schools except nonstate further education (FE), and share their reports with heads of schools inspected and then with the public.


Summarized HMI functions as provided in the 1944 Education Act, Section 77. New policy is that HMI reports will be published for parents and the general public. Lacking executive authority, HMI advises government on the efficiency of school spending and the quality of instruction.


Kinnock, shadow education secretary and later leader of his out-of-power Labor Party, fought (unsuccessfully) the Thatcher government's efforts to strengthen private grammar schools via the Assisted Places Scheme (grants for parents wanting to transfer their children from comprehensive schools to independent grammar schools).


Labor Party Green Paper grew out of Prime Minister Callaghan's 1976 Ruskin College speech, which called for a public debate on education. Deals with curriculum for ages 5-16, standards and assessment, teachers and teacher education, transition between schools, minority group needs, school and work, and schools and the community.


Explained diverse patterns of funding, the lack of central control of educational expenditures, and post-1964 changes in school finance.


Analyzed the legal bases of education and its governance: central government and DES, LEAs, FE, and teachers' organizations. Recent studies show how heads of school and teachers work together to make schools function.


Explained central government education policymaking, pressure group influence on education, and school finance arrangements. Contended that policymakers are usually prisoners of circumstances and of prior decisions.


Attributed the central government’s growing power in education to declining funds and enrollments, not to partisan politics. Another centralizing influence was the Manpower Services Commission (1974).

Characterized changing relationship between central government (generally the senior partner) and LEAs (generally the junior partners) in making and carrying out educational policy. The school building program is used to illustrate the varying relationship.


Political aims of education such as "equality of educational opportunity" and "local autonomy," though widely accepted, have imprecise meanings and do not provide a rational basis for decisionmaking.


Reviewed official reports on local government; discussed 1974 reorganization proposed by the Royal Commission on Local Government; and looked at post-1974 reorganized LEA management, staffing, and finance.


Papers (23) analyzed public control of education, LEA decisionmaking, and teacher unions' role in policymaking; manpower forecasting and cost effectiveness; and school administration, the headteacher's authority, and the part curriculum planning plays in administration and innovation.


Used Coventry's local government system to show how the corporate approach to planning and management affected education policymaking.

Examined research into the extent and limitations of LEA testing. Concluded that testing is growing but its effect on standards is not certain.


Administration agenda to 2000 A.D. should include personnel management (stressing teacher evaluation), school-parent relationships, institutional effectiveness, administration/educational policy relationship, and the role of the British Educational Management and Administration Society.


Readings (24), first published 1982-87, are on school leadership, school cultures and effectiveness, school and its context, curriculum and resource management, and issues in faculty management.


Described school finance and the increased funding needed to meet Council for Educational Advance targets.


A majority of the 124 teachers questioned opposed national testing and feared that its scores would be used in teacher evaluation.


Findings about attitudes of 124 teachers regarding national testing: 65 percent opposed it, two-thirds would increase review time if national testing was implemented, half believed it would lead to a more test-oriented curriculum, a majority wanted to know more about the Assessment of Performance Unit (APU) test design, and 45 percent feared that national testing could be used in faculty evaluation.


Effect of declining enrollment on educational standards, personnel and building policy, and curriculum. Need for long-term planning to improve educational quality.


A case study of a British LEA's process in selecting a deputy head and implications about administrative decisionmaking.


Because of underinvestment in education, Britain has a smaller base of educated manpower than do many other industrial nations. The Conservative government's belief that private business can prepare a better workforce seems unrealistic. Instead, wage and tax policy and changed attitudes should encourage appropriate training.


A model illustrated a complex decisionmaking process. Conclusion is that, with professionalism and bureaucracy increasing, headteachers will greatly influence the future direction of primary school education.

Not a popular success as Education Minister (1970-74), Margaret Thatcher is praised for cancelling the Labor Party's comprehensive school circulars, rebuilding primary schools, raising the school-leaving age, and issuing the 1972 White Paper, *Framework for Expansion*.


Effect of the City of Birmingham Polytechnic one-term management training course on the performance of headteachers and senior teachers.


Case study of how a nonmetropolitan LEA implemented 1979 central government funding cuts. Showed that "policymaking takes place within a set of cultural conditions" which greatly influence choice. Ideology shaped organization and policymaking, leaving local officials to decide, not whether but where to cut.


Amid pressures for cuts and contraction, LEAs must defend education against ill-considered change.


Operation and consequence of a pilot approach to local finance developed by the Cambridgeshire County Council.

Education outputs were not affected by expenditures per student, socioeconomic environment, changes in political party control, or changes in administration.


Review of relevant studies and possible application of research on school costs at a time of financial cuts.


Categorized decisions and decisionmaking styles; explains educational policymaking bodies and tactics and strategies used to achieve policy aims; and outlined constraints on educational decisionmaking.


Local government reforms in 1974 made external changes in structure and function and internal changes by introducing "corporate management," or more centralized administration and fewer local executive bodies. Effects of the 1974 reforms in the newly created county of Ridleyshire: educational objectives were set by appointed education officials, not by elected committee members; policy implementation was delegated to appointed officials without policy reviews being carried out. Author speculated on the failure to install corporate management as envisioned by the reforms.

Discussed trend toward smaller pupil-teacher ratio, reasons for variations in local and regional educational funding, and likely consequences of future government spending cutbacks.


Examined politics of school management; crucial administrative issues; and the role, power, and authority of the headteacher, giving reasons why schools so often malfunction as organizations.


Views held about the headmaster's role by heads of comprehensive, grammar, and secondary modern schools were compared with views of faculty, chairmen of boards of governors, and LEA officers. Significant differences existed in regard to personal involvement with individual pupils, willingness to define responsibility precisely, control of appointments, and use of faculty meetings for decisionmaking.


Discussed the value of both theoretical and practical content of social science courses in preparing school administrators.


Education problems, part of the larger social and economic problems at the heart of Britain's decline, were too massive to be solved by Conservative Party proposals made during the post-1979 Thatcher years.

Looked at the nature of political party control of education; ways that subtle relationships between LEA chief education officers and party politicians shape educational policy; and such constraints on local education policy as central government, education financing methods, community sectionalism, disputes over "going comprehensive," and pressure groups.


In the 1970s shift toward centralized authority, LEA deputy directors' duties became less organizational and more functional, less educational-professional and more managerial, and more concerned with external relations.


The 1980 Education Act marked a shift from professional to public accountability. In 1983 the Department of Education and Science (DES) published the results of tests taken in 96 LEAs. Article looked (inconclusively) at test data analysis to distinguish efficient from less efficient LEAs.


Considered ways to retain good teachers, improve the curriculum, reform the age 16+ exam, and raise academic standards.


The centralization trend in assessment and education policymaking is reducing LEA and teacher autonomy.

How schools are governed and the effect of governance on teachers and pupils; administrative structure, locally and nationally; lines of responsibility; power structure and the role of the National Union of Teachers (NUT), Schools Council, and parents' associations; and schools' freedom to decide curriculum.


Historical study of advisory committees named by ministers of education to write education reports (1925 Burnham Report to 1972 James Report), how they worked, and how they reflected changing assumptions about education.


Case study of 3 chief education officers' constraints as they dealt with the DES, HMI, LEA councilors, school heads, teachers, and governing boards, the public, and pressure groups.


Governing bodies' composition (recently more parents and teachers); duties; expectations; pressures; accountability; and relations with the LEAs, DES, HMI, parents, teachers, school heads, and others.


Papers compared diverse forces affecting the centralization-decentralization debate in U.S. and British education. Some believe centralization is a better way to promote equal opportunities and innovation.

Longtime (26 years) Essex chief education officer reviewed post-1918 education developments; the effect of block grants (begun in 1958); the importance of funding and school administration responsibilities being shared among central government, LEAs, and voluntary religious bodies; criticized undue political party influence on the LEAs; and praised proposals for more decisionmaking by school management boards.


Brief HMI history and its contemporary influence on various aspects of education. Explained complex relationship of HMI with the LEAs and the DES and evaluated HMI contributions. Praised the conclusions of the 1983 Raynor Report, which caused HMI to be strengthened and assured its future.


Looked at rate-of-return analysis and manpower forecasting, rate-of-return analysis and the social-demand approach, and sociological models of education demand.


Praised ILEA's (abolished in 1990) research department. Commented on ILEA's surprise findings (1989) casting doubt on previous studies which rank different schools on how well they prepare students for age 16 exams. ILEA's research showed that previous school ranking studies were suspect because they masked large variations in student abilities within each school.

Statistical study found no direct correlation between funding and educational achievement. What most affected student achievement were social class, housing quality, and qualifications and length of service of teachers. Book is reviewed by Biddy Passmore, "Study Finds No Link Between Cash and Performance." *Times Educational Supplement* (London), July 6, 1984, p. 6.


Background and strategies of the DES, its power, and its role in changing the colleges of education.


Concluded that the manpower requirement approach is inappropriate for educational planning.


The British government in the twentieth century gradually confronted the relationship between socio-economic background and schooling. The Swann Report (1985) challenged schools to adopt "clear policies on racism" as a way to improve the education of
ethnic minority children from Bangladesh, India, Pakistan, and the West Indies.


Examined educational, statistical, and economic assessment factors. Quantitative models and qualitative judgments must both be considered in making accountability judgments.


DES civil servants distort political parties, ministers of education are hampered by informal restrictions, and inadequate funds curtail innovation.


Examined the pressures to change the procedure for selecting secondary school headteachers in England and Wales, Western Europe, and the U.S. A government-sponsored POST project, done by the Open University faculty (1980-85), evaluated the selection process in England and Wales. Secondary school principal selection in the U.S. is influenced by the National Association of Secondary School Principals.


Interviews with 40 LEA chief education officers showed their impact on LEA policymaking, 1930-75.

London headteacher retired early because teacher union activists and intrusive Inner London Education Authority policies had reduced drastically all headteachers' influence.


Part 1, a DES report, contained background information; part 2, the report by OECD examiners, commented on long-term educational development in England and Wales and also on the planning process; and part 3 reported on the DES-OECD confrontation meeting and on the planning process.


The Taylor Report (1977) on school administration included a history of and recommendations for closer parent/school relationship, better teacher training, and more clearly defined educational objectives.


Shortage of funds has cast doubt on government's ability to provide such services as medical care and education. Described how giving parents more power in school management and using an ombudsman (begun in 1967) were meant to strengthen confidence.


Traditional concept of LEA-central government partnership in school administration is no longer applicable because of pressure group politics and central government's closer control over local finance and closer evaluation of local implementation of national policy.

A former DES Permanent Secretary explained its responsibilities and evolution, 1944-74, and the vastly expanded importance of education in British society.


Compared U.S., U.K., and Australian programs for assessing pupil achievement nationally. The DES set up the APU, 1975, primarily to monitor standards. A goal was for policymakers to use findings in future education planning.


Compared decisionmaking structure, principal/headteacher roles, and community involvement in English and U.S. primary schools.


How LEAs are affected when the political interests of particular social groups cause educational resources and opportunities to be unevenly distributed. Probes which groups make decisions in the school system, particularly in inner city and other priority areas. Argued for greater involvement of parents, disadvantaged interest groups, and community members.


Charged that the DES, ignoring its first duty to use education for individual development, has since the mid 1970s been pressured politically to emphasize a vocational curriculum, rationalize resources, and put national economic concerns ahead of equal opportunity.

Examined the changing pattern of power and education decisionmaking between central and local governments. Section headings: Strains among the Education Partners (Parliament, Department of Education and Science, LEAs, teachers, inspectors, parents, and the Manpower Services Commission); Analyzing Developments in Policy Sectors (curriculum, assessment, teacher professionalization, and school finance); Scenarios for the Government of Education; and Conclusions. Editors proposed a new pattern of education governance based on the professionalization of teaching, LEA power to analyze and implement policy, and central government responsibility for general priorities and directions.


A computer-based information system, updated annually, gives detailed age/sex group forecasts useful in planning education and other services.


The DES's "bureaucratic dynamic" has coalesced with the New Right's ideas on education to create unstoppable momentum toward greater state control in education.


Architectural rules of the London School Board, 1870-1914, showed concern for poverty, teaching standards, and autonomous classrooms. London's post-1945 architectural influence was mainly on the design of elementary school buildings.

Post World War II educational concern with equal opportunity resulted in Britain's Plowden Report's (1967) recommendation for Educational Priority Areas (EPAs) to aid urban slum children, particularly immigrant children; comparable to Title 1 of U.S. Elementary and Secondary Education Act (1965) and other Great Society education programs.


Traced relationships, duties, and other complexities education officers face in managing LEAs. Examined pre- and post-mid 1970 changes when national economic growth, rising school enrollments, and higher education expenditures gave way to a declining economy, falling school enrollments, and reduced education expenditures. LEA managers had to adjust to the change from high public aspirations to public uncertainty, and often to public doubt that education could restore the economy and overcome joblessness. LEA managers must contend with the larger role of central government and with agencies such as the Manpower Services Commission in shaping policy.


Composition, backgrounds, role, relationship (with schools, teachers, and others), and changing practices of about half (1,116) of known LEA inspectors (some are called advisors) whose main tasks in the late 1980s included inservice teacher education, finance, school board management, and overseeing a national curriculum (with associated attainment targets, testing, core curriculum, and foundation subjects).

Characterized the adaptable LEA as one emphasizing client-oriented planning at the administrative level and flexibility at the management level.


Educational information which Education Management Information Exchange provided (since 1981) to LEA professional staffs is based on LEA needs, includes policies and practices, and is distributed in bulletins, abstracts, and briefing papers.


The assisted places scheme enacted by the 1980 (No. 2) Education Act to pay fees for several thousands of students at independent schools was founded upon inconsistent objectives. The wider problem is the relationship between publicly financed and independent schooling.


In educational policymaking, the former tripartite relationship—the DES, NUT, LEAs—has been replaced by the DES alone. With power to match its responsibilities, the DES will make education more responsive to national economic needs.


Survey of major aspects of education finance. Compared national education expenditures and education's role in developing countries.

Inservice training for school administrators is provided by specialized outside agencies, club-style centers, and local or central government academies.


Conference papers (30) on educational finance (5 papers), enrollment decline (13), and evaluation (13).


In 1965 London was decentralized into 33 borough councils, each of which supervised a variety of city services, including education. But education throughout the city was also coordinated under ILEA. London's decentralized administration was looked at as a model for New York City.


Content and form of training for secondary school headteachers should be appropriately designed.


The Taylor Report's (1977) recommended changes in school management can be understood only in the context of economic events and social circumstances. The recommendations grew out of some consensus among social classes. Effects on education policy will depend upon the way the recommendations are implemented.

History and role of LEA inspectors and advisers. Some are generalists and others are subject matter specialists.


Review of research on the economics of education. Headings include costs and expenditure, cost-benefit analysis, demand for educated manpower, educational planning, education productivity, and sources of funds.


Examined control of education in its political and social aspects, touching on the roles of the Schools Council and teachers.


Education administration and policymaking can be understood better within the suggested social and political framework.


Issues in the economics of education.


Used data from a national sample of educated males to calculate private and social rates of return to education. Concluded that private investment in education was too low and that graduate level university education was overexpanded.
CHAPTER 3
History of Education


Attributed decline of Gresham College, London (closed 1768), to court patronage which lowered academic standards and noncooperation between trustees and professors.


The 1918 and 1944 Education Acts both grew from the crisis of war, reflected prewar educational wisdom (as evidenced in reports), and were only partially implemented as wartime impetus declined.


Reviewed Richard Burgess’s 1855 arguments that central government should take final responsibility for national education.

Milman's 1846 article, "Popular Education," in the prestigious journal, Quarterly, stated the case for state intervention in education, the position eventually embodied in the Education Act of 1870. He said that state schools were a necessity for the many unschooled children, especially in industrial areas, and that state education would aid, not hurt, church education. His views fit the liberal Anglican mentality of the time but were not accepted by Parliament for another 25 years.


Brief history of British education from medieval times, focusing on broad themes in primary, secondary, and higher education.


Though Parliament first granted only £20,000 education aid for school buildings, pressure grew for helping teacher education and salaries.


One-teacher, short-lived schools arose offering Latin, Greek, Hebrew, and the 3 Rs.


Estimated population growth late 1940s to 2030 A.D. and the effect on school population.


Described a Norwich schoolboy's 1590s manuscript book of writing and arithmetic exercises.

Told how school boards were formed and attempts made to provide more school places in late nineteenth century Buckinghamshire.


Explained why the commission recommended that classics, not modern science, dominate grammar school curriculum.


Prince Albert in 1854 asked that the college provide a practical curriculum.


Parents' mounting criticism of the literary curriculum persuaded school boards to allow needlework, cooking, and agriculture to be taught.


Blamed delayed and inadequate state-aided primary, secondary, and technical education as well as university science for Britain's economic decline.


With local schools teaching rudimentary Latin, Cambridge in 1540 abolished the post of grammar master, a shift that reflected rejection of scholasticism in favor of a humanist curriculum.

Ambitious Englishmen who studied in Padua were a primary source of Italian Renaissance values and styles in England.


Examined still-influential progressive concepts, implemented and tested at the Hazelwood School (early nineteenth century), among them student government and discipline based on material and psychological rewards.


Fairy tales were thought unsuitable for children's education, 1699-1785.


French and German language study was widespread in elementary schools, 1872-1904, but declined because the Board of Education changed its curriculum policy.


Emphasis on relevance and social tools threatens history's place in the curriculum. The best hope lies, not in government or professional educators, but in giving parents greater freedom to choose schools for their children where history is taught as a reconstruction of the past for its own sake.

Showed changes in education and educational research, 1950s-80s, as reflected in the *British Journal of Educational Studies*.


Conservative Member of Parliament argued that, because voluntary agencies were teaching basic skills, the 1870 Education Act was a mistake and that post World War II education policy has also been ineffective.


Primary schools and secondary schools were two separate unconnected systems. Working class children were in primary schools to age 14; the 1926 Hadow Report called for either grammar (mainly academic) or modern (academic plus vocational) post-primary schools for all after age 11 or 12.


Financial stringencies and rigid class barriers limited secondary school entrance to 14 percent of 11-year-olds. The rest remained in primary school to age 14, where typical class size was 50.


Considered in historical context the emergence of critical scholarship in English classical learning (Latin and Greek). Essays are about classicists Richard Bentley (1662-1742), Richard Porson (1759-1808), and A.E. Housman (1859-1936).

Social and intellectual life in the late Middle Ages is illustrated through the life of Robert Joseph.


Included a chronology and bibliography on changing concepts and practices regarding British childhood.


Rapid growth of education, especially at secondary and university levels, offered opportunities to many formerly excluded but raised questions about authority, elitism, and the effectiveness of new teaching methods.


As a result of the philosophical struggle represented by the Clarendon and Taunton Commissions, St. Paul's remained a classical haven for well-to-do boys. St. Paul's Girls' School opened in 1904.


Churchmen disliked early English literature, though it helped educate the masses, because its questionable moral and political content seemed a threat to the social structure.


The Ragged School Union (founded 1844) opposed accepting government grants and being absorbed by school boards, as provided in the 1870 Education Act.

Contrasted John Cheke's tutoring of Edward VI with George Buchanan's tutoring of James I.


Described classical education of George III's sons. Concludes that William IV's naval experience and more practical curriculum were better preparation for kingship.


Argued that before 1844 coal mine owners favored education, not for social control, but to improve understanding and thereby reduce class conflict.


Before 1550, at Oxford and Cambridge, endowed tutorial and lecturing facilities evolved, so that colleges became the primary teaching units. King's Hall, Cambridge, led in promoting tutorial teaching.


Surveyed contributions of Marxist scholars to economic history. Focused on studies of historical problems that have influenced other historians.


Detailed history about such topics as the golden age of English scholasticism, 1320-40.

Contemporary documents (156) outline the school system and illustrate seventeenth century social and political pressures bearing on education.


Considered how equal access, elitism, social class, and literacy affected public schools, 1530s-1700.


Demographic study of the spread of literacy, which was attributed to economic need and circumstances rather than to ideological pressures.


Found that between 1637-42 students entered grammar school at ages 11 or 12 and entered the university at age 17.


Early twentieth century open-air schools were used to offset adverse effects of urban overcrowding.


History and problems of English and Scottish education. Included is a partially annotated bibliography and additional list of major government publications.

Case study of a college of education illustrated how it served its environment. Described how St. Luke's College Exeter emerged, spurred by such goals as reform and the desire for growth and reputation.


Nineteenth century education documents (74) arranged under religion and morality, social class and the economy, teachers and the classroom, and girls and education.


History of British magazines for children and youth shows changes in attitudes toward childhood.


Rigidities in economic and social institutions, including education, caused the relative decline in British economic growth.


Compulsory school attendance, payment by results, homework, and secondary education caused conflict.


Examined influences on school attendance of such factors as job prospects, parental and employer attitudes, school laws, factory laws, and social environment. Poverty, ill health, weak laws, and...
indifference kept children from school. Not until 1880 was the length of school life extended appreciably. Only in the 1890s did the average daily attendance exceed 70 percent.


Rewarding success on examinations, required by the 1862 Revised Code, slowed primary school education progress. But availability of interesting reading material and tax-supported public libraries increased literacy.


History of education in England and Wales from the nineteenth century, with focus since World War II.


East London settlement house, Toynbee Hall, encouraged concerned university-educated young people to provide schooling for the deprived. Some later led in promoting state-supported education for all.


The Aberdare Report (1881) on Welsh intermediate and higher education, though it brought educational improvement, reflected a limited middle class view, accepted class differences, was negative about the Welsh language, and was unsympathetic to the University College, Aberystwyth.


Historical and administrative reasons for the 1964 founding of the Schools Council.


Recounted the writing and illustrating of 1816 histories of the great "public" schools: Winchester, Eton, Westminster, and others.


Chapter 4, "Education and Welfare," showed that poor children had only occasional schooling and that state-aided primary school education grew after 1900.


Topical annotated list of instructional materials about English history.

Surveyed the history of various types of private schools since the seventh century, including independent and semi-independent schools, among them voluntary aided schools.


Focused on nineteenth century working class private education, especially in Bristol (1940s-80s); such schools transmitted working class culture and were centers of class conflict.


Comprehensive history of private schools for males and for females; concluded that they aided the extraordinary cohesion of English society, 1830s-1940s.


Intent of history textbooks was to create Christian gentlemen imbued with love of country.


Schoolbooks reflected the political and economic forces that fostered primary education. Such schooling provided neither a literate work force nor strengthened the social order, but it perpetuated class divisions.

Cited HMI reports and fiction (including Dickens' *Hard Times*) that depict the school manager's role. The 1870 Education Act created two new classes of managers.


Surveyed local education administration and its evolution from voluntary (church-related) schooling to the development of school boards, central government's growing influence, and the establishment of county councils and local education authorities (LEAs).


Sociological, technological, and ideological influences on the curriculum. Presented chronologically school laws and directives relevant to curriculum. Discussed links between examinations, teaching methods, and curriculum change.


Three sections: Maintaining the Service, Development of Welfare Services, and Reconstruction. Important developments were the 1941 Green Book, 1942 White Paper, 1944 Education Act, and the Fleming and McNair reports. One theme is the great power of civil servants to shape education policy.


Local education committees, attributed to the Balfour Act of 1902, actually grew out of the way many authorities in the late nineteenth century implemented the Technical Instructions Acts. Such committees were composed mainly of council members and of outsiders knowledgeable about education problems.

History of Yorkshire College of Science, 1874-1974: its curriculum, finance, governance, students, and buildings. Its survival was attributed to its being an academic community rather than a mere service agency.


History of Yorkshire's West Riding LEA, located in a diverse region of manufacturing, mining, prosperous suburbs, and rural areas. Themes: tensions between central and local government, evolution of LEA structure, impact of the 1944 Education Act, teacher training, and comprehensive school reorganization.


Chapter 8, "The Role of Education," attributed educational progress to the need to make England a Protestant nation, with such lesser goals as increasing literacy, enhancing social status, and providing vocational training.


History of Oxford's Lincoln College and the impact of the decline of scholasticism, Protestant Reformation, Civil War, university reform, and recent higher education movements.


Chapters on education, including adult education.

England's intellectuals were strong, 1830-80, and then declined; this fact explained the lessened role of Oxbridge's reform thereafter.


Compared education of males, 1949 and 1972, as part of a study of education, equality, and mobility, and the relationship between social origin and education.


British class division was perpetuated and selectively enlarged by admission to "public" schools and to Oxford and Cambridge Universities. Nineteenth century mass education was imposed from above as "a policy of selective educational embourgeoisment."


This act, which excluded women and children under age 13 from underground mines, was supported by many who believed children should not work but should receive a Christian education which would wean them from C:artism and socialism.


The strength of Nonconformist cohesiveness, which varied between 1830-80, reached its height in 1843 with successful opposition to factory legislation that would have given the Church of England control of primary schools.

Wesleyan Methodists in 1839 and 1846 joined other Nonconformists in opposing Church of England domination of national education with hopes of getting the best terms for their own schools.


Samuel Johnson, Oliver Goldsmith, William Wordsworth, and Charles Lamb were among the famous men who studied at dame schools. Such schools were a part of rural culture which disappeared with the rise of industrialization.


Studies on humanist curriculum, 1300s-1500; challenge from science, mid-seventeenth century; eighteenth century promoters of science; nineteenth century fine arts; nineteenth century science teaching methods; and the need for a history of higher education.


On administration and control; payment by results; Technical Instruction Committees; Welsh education, 1881-1921; and Scottish education, 1719-29.


Criticism of "public" school classical curriculum, 1860s, for its irrelevance to industrial society and especially for failure to teach English language and literature.


Seven short nineteenth century readings on educational thought during the Chartist reform period show the nature of class conflict. Middle class reformers saw education as the route to a stable society. Conservatives feared it would create unrest.

Although personal failings and jealousies blocked success for the West London Lancasterian Association's plan to provide low-cost schooling for poor children, its ideas influenced reformers' plans to aid and empower the working class.


This unenforceable 1873 law used education requirements to restrict child labor in agriculture; it was replaced by the more effective 1876 Education Act.


Traced rural education from the sixteenth century. Described monitory schools, pupil-teacher systems, teacher training, living and working conditions, tenure, unions, and payment by results.


Revisionist account attributed primary school growth to civil servants, not to church societies, and payment by results to Kay-Shuttleworth, not to Robert Lowe's 1862 Revised Code. Well-documented study included chapters on teacher education and school buildings.


Depicted social and political struggles over the extension of working class primary schooling. Deplorable health problems were caused by poverty and inhumane school conditions.


Historical survey included many contemporary documents.

Considered mechanics' institutes in London and 5 provincial centers, profiled leading proponents, and concluded that the institutes were a cultural rather than an education movement.


Listing of important education events, 1870-1969.


Out of step with U.S. and European colleagues, late nineteenth century Oxford and Cambridge historians remained amateurish; research was deprecated, teaching emphasized, and "literary" history given prestige.


Conservative minister Butler, Board of Education president, is credited with the 1944 Education Act. He admitted that the act safeguarded Conservative Party interests. Others worked out the act's controversial provisions. Wartime pressures eased the implementation of this educational reform.


Increasingly in nineteenth century England the need for science and practical subjects vied with Greek classics for time in the curriculum.

The loosely associated educators' ("experts") efforts in the 1830s brought about the government's Education Department and Parliament's Committee of Council on Education, 1839. Their modest success ultimately assured stability.


How early nineteenth century political debate on education affected teaching methods.


Examined past mistakes in government-education relations and how they might have been avoided. Among topics: Clarendon Code, Devonshire Commission, 1963 Robbins Report, and Parliament's role.


Though children were an exploited minority, by the end of the nineteenth century, effective laws protected them. Nationally supported schooling evolved slowly, not out of a need for child development but for a trained work force and for public order.


The Liberal, Conservative, and Socialist parties--despite different concepts of equality and different ways of implementation--desired equality of opportunity in terms of sex, region, and social class, especially at the secondary level.

Traced the growth of government influence on curriculum; explored the case for a national curriculum.


Papers (published 1960-84) on such themes as the effects of early experience were introduced by a history of the psychoanalytic movement.


Children's literature sought to serve ideological goals. In that era childhood became unique, mothers read to their children, and formal schooling isolated children from adult society.


Contrasted seventeenth and twentieth century England. doubted that education between 1550 and 1640 was as widespread as some contend. But, citing the likelihood that both Newton's and Shakespeare's fathers were illiterate, concluded that education could in one generation produce rapid social mobility.


Traced England's transition from a one-class society to rule by an elite. Used literacy and other data from the Cambridge Group for population growth and social structure.

History of Education

Stressed the growth of literacy, the relationship between education and social class, and the recent expansion of educational opportunity.


Cited reasons for successes and failures. Described the contributions of some headmasters at lesser known late nineteenth century schools which emulated the great "public" schools.


Education was seen in the context of political developments. By 1974 over two-thirds of secondary school students were in comprehensive schools, a major change which the Labor Party demanded in 1965.


Examined the relationship between British education and social change.


Called the 1960s educationally a decade of achievement and an "era of consensus" that was shattered by student protests and conservative fear of lost quality. Universal secondary education ended the 1970s demand for universal higher education.


Authors (9) examined schooling in Spitalfields, Mitcham, Leeds, Manchester, and Merseyside. Found that literacy and numeracy were the main curriculum, that domestic service was an important career goal for girls, that many pupils did not want to become monitors.
(teachers), and that paying a weekly pence was preferable to accepting charity schooling.


Considered how the 1867 Reform Act affected educational attitudes. Most Conservative Party members favored a denominational basis for popular schooling. In the struggle over religion and local taxation, the compromise was that denominational schools should be aided from general revenues, not from local taxes.


Showed the early nineteenth century geographical spread of the monitorial system. Explored regional variations between northern counties adjoining Scotland and Monmouthshire adjoining Wales. Despite widespread voluntary schooling, by 1870 a new impetus was needed to reach many yet unschooled.


Discussed ways ecological theory can illuminate nineteenth century urban education. Used interdisciplinary ecology to show links between schooling and the dockland slum of Bootle, Liverpool, where a Church of England and a Roman Catholic school paternalistically served working class children.


Described the disparities in educational opportunity caused by residential segregation which accompanied rapid nineteenth century urbanization.

Showed the relationship of urban history, historical demography, and historical geography to nineteenth century education. Urban schools after 1870 became mainly social welfare centers as three-fourths of the population became city dwellers by 1901.


Examined Booth's invaluable 1891 data on London's residentially segregated primary schooling. Booth showed that attitudes favored class-divided education. He called for the best moral education for all.


History, political origins, and consequences of the Newcastle Commission's 1862 Revised Code and payment by results requirement.


History of the activities and social philosophy of Toynbee Hall, England's first social welfare center (U.S. term, settlement house).


Schoolmasters were on the staff of noble households. Oxford grammar masters taught them necessary household business skills until the mid-fifteenth century when local grammar schools began training household scholars. Tutors were common. Curriculum stressed moral and social training, homemaking, and academic skills.

Most institutionalized children received minimal schooling and were equipped only for lives of poverty.


Eighteenth century separate schooling for the social classes continued in the nineteenth century, with middle class children attending grammar schools and lower classes attending voluntary church charity schools. The twentieth century moved toward equalizing educational opportunity, but less so at the secondary level.


Studied causes, course, and consequences of educational growth in York diocese. Opportunities, especially for primary schooling, were much greater than previously supposed. Growing literacy might have opened the way for emerging lay power during the Tudor period.


The 1870 Act in perspective. Clarified the religious problem and explained the religious settlement.


Concluded that Victorian era bureaucracy raised the status of teachers and tutors but also, by standardizing education, made it more mechanistic, hierarchical, and authoritarian.

Literacy among the poor grew steadily in the eighteenth century. Has chapters on chapbooks and other low cost literature; and appendices on teachers' salaries, the chapbook trade, and statistics on literacy.


Impetus to sixteenth century adult education came from the Protestant Reformation, printing, several teachers (Robert Recorde and John Dee), Society of Antiquaries (promoted study of English history), and Gresham College, London (founded 1596), which sponsored scholarly lectures.


Much schooling in Latin occurred in religious centers. Yet separate town schools were an important feature of medieval urban life.


Reconstructed later medieval education of lay aristocracy, modelled after the royal household. The church's mandate that everyone be confirmed and taught to pray also shaped learning. The curriculum for boys included arts, languages (Latin was required), and physical education. Few girls were taught anything beyond rudimentary skills, homemaking, and manners.

Examined history as a discipline, its role in universities, and the influence of the French historical method in the nineteenth century.


Revisionist conclusion was that the influence of radicals and bureaucrats has been overrated in many accounts of working class education.


The 1870 Education Act marked a major shift in political attitudes toward state responsibility for primary schools. Voluntary (church) societies, in absolute control of primary schools since 1810, faced a battle for survival after 1870 and became a junior partner in the nation's schools.


History of progressive Dartington Hall School, founded in 1926. Compared later careers of Dartingtonians with a control group from less progressive schools. Found that Dartingtonians had more difficulty adjusting to society and earned less.


Reprint of classic history of European origins, early administration, and student life of Oxford (more thoroughly covered) and Cambridge Universities.


Described sources and manuscripts available to prose writer Aelfric during the Benedictine Revival.


Broad examination of problems and developments at all school levels.


Contended that the importance of the nineteenth century infant school movement has been overstated, especially when compared to the dame schools. Around 1850 more children were attending dame schools than infant schools. Only with the decline of dame schools after 1890 did infant school enrollment rise.


Founded to teach inmates a trade and to develop good habits, Bridewell, the world's first rehabilitation prison, began in response to the crime wave caused when dispossessed sixteenth century peasants flooded London.


Concern about the physical and mental health of poor children unaccustomed to school pressures grew, stirred controversy, and raised questions about providing school meals and guidance counselors.

The 1870 Education Act represented broadly based parliamentary support for W.E. Forster's proposal for compulsory primary education. Consensus developed as confidence declined.


First draft of Forster's memorandum, previously ignored by historians, was altered by Prime Minister Gladstone to omit sections on two controversial issues: relation of the state to not wanting to destroy voluntary (church) schools, believed that rate (local tax) supported schools should give nonsectarian religious instruction, a position untenable to Gladstone, a religious purist. Finally, Gladstone had to accept nondenominational teaching (Cowper-Temple clause) and no local tax money to voluntary (church) schools.


Chapters on education, architecture, painting, literature, and music. Major influences on learning were the royal household and the church.


F.W. Farrar's own Victorian school life was accurately cited in his novels: *Eric or Little by Little* (1858), *Julian Home* (1860), and others.


Reddie's New School at Abbotsholme was the first modern progressive school. Its emphases on physical fitness and practical
activity and Reddie's other educational ideas greatly influenced later educators and institutions.


Examined the work of Board of Education President H.A.L. Fisher, the aborted 1914 proposals, and the 1918 Education Act; concluded that World War I had little impact on education.


Pressures for educational reform, especially among Nonconformists, mounted until World War I postponed education plans. The war exposed British deficiencies in scientific and technical education, but leaders remained wedded to 1913-14 plans for schooling. H.A.L. Fisher, Board of Education president, favored social reform but not radical change. The conservative 1918 Education Act failed because of a poor economy and its own limitations. Sectarian animosities were unresolved. Central authorities failed to implement the day continuation school proposal, and teacher supply problems were left to local authorities.


Traced the history of social conditions affecting English education.


Essays on British and some U.S. education developments showed the intricate connection between education and society.


During rapid technological and economic change, middle class radicals moved toward a national education system. The working
class saw education as the way toward political unity and social advancement.


Readings (32) from major reports and other publications showed the prolonged struggle over education and social class; movement toward universal secondary education, 1922-47; comprehensive schools, 1950-60s; and compensatory education (Plowden Report), 1967-73.


History of St. Mary's School, Kennington, London, a Church of England school for poor children. Showed its transition from church to state funding and showed national social and education changes.


To reduce idleness and begging, the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge's eighteenth century charity schools shifted emphasis from catechism lessons to giving children workhouse jobs.


Author and other members of the Spens Committee, wanting to fulfill the 1926 Hadow Committee's intent to equalize all forms of post-primary education and knowing that separate codes regulated kinds and levels of schools, formed a "code committee" subcommittee and by 1936 formally proposed equality of post-primary education.

Some Spens Committee members wanted equality of educational opportunity at the secondary education level. This desire led the subcommittee on school code by 1936 to draft such a proposal, but the long discussions and disagreements weakened the Spens Committee's influence. World War II, not the Spens Report, produced the 1944 Education Act, which called for secondary schools for all.


Concluded that seventeenth century London apprentices were usually literate and assertive, contrary to the popular conception of the master-apprentice relationship.


Peasants in southern Cambridgeshire had ample but erratic opportunities for schooling. Good schools were in the larger villages. There was no correlation between the availability of schooling and dissent from the Church of England.


The chapter, "An Economic Elite: Company Chairmen," showed that since the nineteenth century industrial leaders have increasingly been products of the "public" schools and Oxbridge.


Objective account of progressive schools, most of them expensive boarding schools; showed differences among types of progressive schools and included the international progressive education movement (New Education Fellowship).

Revisionist view that, despite the growing impact of the Department of Education and Science on universities and despite post-World War II education reforms at all school levels, the direction of British education has not changed and will not change until the capitalist political-economic system changes.


Explored Jeremy Bentham's attacks on the Church of England and National Schools Society for failing to educate the poor.


Eighteenth century grammar schools have been inaccurately characterized as weak and indifferent. Evidence showed that their curriculum broadened as new schools opened.


Many grammar schools founded before 1800 did not have a purely classical curriculum. There was a definite trend toward founding schools whose curriculum combined classics and English (3 Rs). Grammar schools were capable of adjusting curriculum to meet changing educational needs.


Flora Tristan (born Paris, 1803), socialist and feminist, included accounts of Robert Owen and his infant schools in her 1840 journal.

Historical background and recent government shifts in education policy. Analyzed Thatcher's success in creating a uniquely British centralism in education administration.


Begun in 1784 as a response to crime and social unrest, Manchester's Sunday schools taught reading only and their textbooks were religious or inspirational.


One of the marked changes in mid-nineteenth century thinking was that widespread education would enhance, rather than threaten, social harmony.


Set popular education in social and historical context. Stressed growth of state intervention and factors which influenced changes in curriculum and teaching methods.


Historical survey rebutted the radical deschoolers' claim that formal schooling had outgrown its usefulness. Showed that the public's appetite for schooling accounted for its rapid growth in the mid-twentieth century.

Economic historian and proponent of vouchers for parental choice in schooling argued that the nineteenth century shift from denominational to state support of education had negative results. Argued that education in Victorian England was more successful than other historians have stated at teaching basic skills.


Political, social, and economic impact on early childhood education; the influence of Pestalozzi, Froebel, and Montessori; and while the infant school for ages 5-7 was accepted, nursery education was neglected.
CHAPTER 4
Early Childhood Education: Day Care, Nurseries, and Kindergartens


Evaluated the work of liaison groups from staffs of 9 neighborhood preschools; part of Schools Council project, "Transition and Continuity in Early Education."


Preschooling before age 5 is available to few British children because of high cost. Pressure is growing for more nursery school places.


U.S. Headstart and British preschool experience since 1908 did not substantiate claim that compensatory preschool was worth its cost. Those funds might be better spent on kindergarten and school-age children.

Research and policy showed that local services for children under age 5 need coordination.


A comprehensive, coordinated strategy for those under age 5 was lacking despite existing programs to reduce poverty and provide better housing, health service, day care, and education.


Major school needs of 4-year-olds: appropriate physical environment, trained staff, a developmental curriculum, and recognition of differences between 4- and 5-year-olds.


A longitudinal study of 11,000 British children from birth to age 7: examined each child's physical, intellectual, social, and emotional development in relation to socio-economic status and likely effect on the child's well being.


Need more medical, psychological, and other specialist services, more skills with non-English-speaking minority children, more parental involvement, more in-service teacher training, and larger staff.

Explained the need for nursery education, its impact on families, teacher characteristics, and curricular programs.


Demanded and defended child care centers and nursery schools and classes.


Study of day care given by 39 registered "childminders" found that the quality was unacceptably low, that nearly 40 percent had more children than licensed for, and that some "minders" were ill or depressed.


Nursery school organization and classroom activities, along with case studies of 7 children, illustrated the transition and adjustment to primary schooling.


Study found that preschool education provided long-term benefits.


Longitudinal study of 13,135 children during their first five years, the relationship between their entering infant schools and their preschool attendance, and the effect of preschool education on their learning ability and behavioral adjustment.

Research on early childhood education and on community preschools; compared findings with research done in Leicester and in the U.S.


Monograph on crosscultural child care: demographic, sociological, psychological, and educational factors.


To judge the reading readiness and appropriateness of beginning reading textbooks, tested vocabulary of 50 5-year-old native English speakers. Found a strong correlation between low socioeconomic status and low vocabulary scores.


Although good training was available after the 1874 founding of the Froebel Society, most people believed anyone could teach small children. The National Union of Teachers and others wanted to replace untrained with trained nursery teachers.


Susan and Nathan Isaacs' research on child development in England and on the origin and function of human language.


Only 22 percent of England's 3- and 4-year-olds were in nursery school, among them Prince William (son of Prince Charles and Princess Diana), in a private school. Others were in local education authority and central government nursery schools. Each school set
its own curriculum with stress on freedom and self-expression (not emphasizing the 3 Rs), and most had half-day sessions.


Summarized all available research on British early education and ways to implement major findings. Gave researchers' opinions on which questions needed further study.


Reviewed recent research on preschools, preschool children at home, and socially disadvantaged and mentally handicapped preschoolers.


Compared child care provisions in Britain and other countries. Considered aims and nature of nursery education as part of a comprehensive policy on the family.


All British preschools were surveyed (1975) on such topics as attendance, children's characteristics, center characteristics, parental involvement, geographic distribution, and outside professional support.


Study of expectations of 1,676 parents of various social classes concluded that demand for preschooling resulted from parents' desire for best opportunities for their children.

Language skills were strongly related to frequency with which family members read to the child. Socioeconomic status was not significantly related to a child's achievement until after entering school.


Social class had a greater effect on written than on oral language skills. Measuring oral language at successive ages provided progressively stronger predictors of later educational achievement.


Findings were examined from the Educational Priority Areas experiment, the National Foundation for Educational Research Preschool Project, and some U.S. research on the appropriateness of curriculum, value of working with parents, and ways to provide nursery education for disadvantaged children.


British and U.S. findings were that preschool helps life chances of the disadvantaged. Can preschool also benefit other countries?
CHAPTER 5
Primary (Elementary) Education


Found that students' social background did not affect ability grouping (British term, streaming) which, in turn, had little effect on academic achievement.


Three papers are on the use of computers to promote science education in English and Welsh primary schools.


Official report on the 1973-75 breakdown of organization and discipline, mainly at the junior school, which caused parents to lose confidence in the school and its teachers.

In England, the teacher is the source of much innovation, with Jean Piaget as the most influential theorist. U.S. curricular innovations come from subject matter specialists, with Jerome Bruner as the most influential theorist.


Looked at post-Plowden Report (1967) teaching styles, opportunities to learn, and classroom tasks, from which a new Plowden Report would draw implications for teaching practice, teacher training, and educational structure.


Mixed-age classes aimed at using resources efficiently and giving children stability met limited parental and teacher acceptance.


Findings about open plan schools, which comprised more than 10 percent of England's primary schools.


In the informal schools observed, U.S. educators found no consistent patterns of teacher-pupil decisionmaking nor of ways of setting and maintaining standards.


Chief of Her Majesty's Inspector (HMI) of primary schools, a progressive education proponent, described the change process in primary education. Five case studies illustrated changes he advocated.
Tests of black and white male and female children (average age 4 years 9 months) found few differences attributable to ethnic origin. Main factors affecting scores were parental teaching and mothers' education level.

Considered the status of humanities in the primary school curriculum and suggested ways to assess pupil achievement in them.

Studied children in first 2 years of infant school. Though girls were regarded as brighter than boys, teachers tended to give girls a far less favorable prognosis. Teachers relied on test scores in judging children's potential.

Criticized conclusions and methods in the National Foundation for Educational Research study of teaching primary school French.

Essays on the history, politics, organization, curriculum, and practice in primary schools.

Papers about British urban compensatory education projects; introduction has U.S.-Israeli comparisons.

Teachers did not incorporate into the curriculum widely available language and general interest TV programs.


Policy statements from recent government and other reports, curriculum research from best sources, and writings from primary education specialists.


Implications of the trend for infant schools to admit more under-5-year-old children.


In contrast to the 1960s child-centered ideal, primary schools were targets for a subject-matter centered national curriculum aimed at economic development.


Photos and accounts of children's sequential learning experiences in informal schools.


The role of the deputy head was seen differently by men and women, mainly because of sex stereotypes, and by the youngest deputy heads, who saw the position as a steppingstone.

Practical chapters (12) on organizing for effective learning, collaborative teaching, grouping children, classroom planning, record keeping, and other topics.


History of progressive education and how progressive methods were used in the primary school curriculum.


Four-year study of 4,000 primary school children showed that they understood racial and ethnic differences enough to make sense of the world.


Family-type atmosphere allowed impromptu decisions to be made, based on student needs.


New findings confirmed that inter-ethnic choice of friends existed. Statistical analyses in earlier research masked this fact.


Evaluated primary school and secondary school progress, effect of major education laws since 1870, and trends.
Large classes often resulted from inappropriate classrooms rather than from a teacher shortage. Asked LEAs to announce teacher-pupil ratios and to explain how class size was determined.

Surveyed quality of instruction, children with special needs, ethnic minorities, roles of headteachers and teachers, and inservice and preservice teacher education needs.


Stressed that schools in all social and economic areas can improve the quality of science, history, geography, mathematics, English, and drama teaching.

Teachers greatly overestimated students' scores on maths and English achievement tests; greatly underestimated reading achievement scores.

Types and curricula of middle schools, proposed in Government Circular 10/65 (1965) to serve ages 8-13; favored by the Labor government as an economical way to go comprehensive (all-
Primary Education

purpose secondary schools) and to ease pressure when the school-leaving age was raised to 16 in 1972.


Conflict in 1975 among teachers over progressive versus traditional methods stirred tension. Parents lost confidence, and the National Union of Teachers (NUT) and the press intervened.


Explained England's informal primary school practice and its relevance to U.S. elementary education.


Reading and mathematics scores of 9,500 children. By age 11 children from white collar families were 1 year ahead in reading and in maths. Skilled and semiskilled workers' children were 0.4 of a year ahead of those of unskilled workers. Smaller families' children exceeded achievement of children from large families.


Explained open school characteristics: children occupied and involved in self-directed learning, with teachers encouraging and assisting.


More parental involvement substantially improved reading scores and brought other dramatic changes.

Despite the 1967 Plowden Report recommendation for child-centered education, learning remained teacher-dominated. Organization and classroom arrangement were less important than decisions teachers and pupils made during a lesson.


Study on the relationship between teaching methods and student achievement found that effective teachers interacted often with children, provided consistent feedback to students, encouraged students to work alone, used many open-ended questions, and gave fewer repeated instructions.


A study of the relative effectiveness of different teaching methods. Identified and described 6 teacher types and 4 student types. Findings were summarized and compared with other studies and reports.


The 1967 Plowden Report inspired primary school development but was insufficiently followed because of the "consistent conservatism of our schools." Primary school teachers now have longer, better professional preparation, which suggests that they are well prepared for the 1990s.


Overview of primary school education: teacher education, curriculum, supervision, organization, assessment, and accountability. Schools were never highly child-centered but emphasized basic subjects under firm teacher direction.

Disadvantages of the exams set by the national curriculum outweighed advantages. Primary schools will become more like secondary schools.


Selected contemporary documents related to primary education.


Suggested systems for acquiring, storing, and retrieving all types of materials, including computer software, for a school library and resource center.


Important influences on primary school curriculum: ideology, technology, teaching methods and theories, new subjects, administrative procedures, pressure groups, and secondary schools.


The report's influence was negligible in making the school a relaxed, friendly, and child-centered learning place. Instead, West Germany and Austria experienced a neoconservative upsurge and remained teacher-centered, subject-centered, and centrally controlled.

Overview of infant schools which used informal, open classroom methods. Included children's educational background, parental contact, teachers' probationary year, and curriculum (language development, maths, movement, music, and physical education).


Most of the 631 schools surveyed used a single scheme for teaching reading, supplemented by other materials.


Described post-Plowden Report research into 4 Educational Priority Areas (EPAs). Some conclusions: preschooling was an economical and effective way to raise educational standards; partnership between families and schools could be improved; but compensatory education was no substitute for a comprehensive policy to end inequality.


Role of middle schools was not clear because middle school proponents favored contradictory theories and practices.


Called for improved administrative practices; especially favored use of an output budgeting system.

Examined teachers' varying views toward sex differences in cognitive task performance and social behavior.


Teachers' views of sex differences were similar at a working-class school and a middle class school. But teachers in the working-class school blamed boys' poor behavior on social factors and in the middle class school on psychological factors.


U.S. educators should view Britain's informal, open primary classrooms in cultural context, which differs markedly from U.S. conditions.


By 1880, many recognized that English must be taught and tried to use the 1862 school code to promote English teaching.


Micros and Primary Education (MAPE) promoted awareness and the effective use of computers in elementary schools.


Recent technological developments; computer use in history teaching; and author's experiences in using computers in elementary schools.

   Official documents and explanations by Kay-Shuttleworth (1804-77), an education pioneer for poor children who in 1839 became England's first Secretary of Education.


   Compared 3 infant schools serving varying social classes, consequences of different ways of defining children in the 3 schools, and possible educational improvements, some of which would require teachers to change their practices and philosophies.


   The 1967 Plowden Report's research evidence was incompetently interpreted, its emphasis on the individual child and progressive methods was unrealistic, and it unfairly cast teachers as change agents.


   Questioned validity of many conclusions in the 10-year study of teaching French in primary schools. Compared with the U.S. Pennsylvania Project.


   Rural teachers were not community leaders, had low status, and were tightly controlled by the Anglican-Tory oligarchy. In Wales teachers had a higher relative status and often became religious and political leaders.

Reviewed post-1960 primary education development and the 1967 Plowden Report, conditions that aided reforms, the spread of open education, and establishment of teacher centers.


Reading scores from schools with a varying mix of social classes and immigrant children showed that scores were higher in socially segregated schools.


Topics: the 1967 Plowden Report, primary school organization and teaching methods, the role of teachers and pupils, and an evaluation of primary schools in sociological perspective.


Experienced teacher educators' practical suggestions on primary school curriculum planning for future teachers.


Teaching effectiveness and student learning in Inner London Education Authority junior schools.


Two U.S. teachers described the English open classroom with its emphasis on teacher and pupil creativity. Used in only one-third of
English schools, open classrooms seemed appropriate for England and the U.S.


Examined transition from home to school, noting differing patterns of primary education, nursery education, the 1967 Plowden proposals, and the "London Plan" to end disadvantages caused by being born in summer.


Findings and problems of the 1964-65 Nuffield project which explored teaching French to a much wider age and ability range of primary school children.


Movement for more democratic school governance was illustrated in the 1977 Taylor Report and later central government policy.


Conflicting interests limited 2 decades' attempt to democratize primary school government by extending parental, board of governors, and neighborhood involvement.


Home background and school environment data collected in 1964 for the the Plowden Report and checked again in 1968 for the same children, confirmed the 1964 conclusion justifying nursery education to compensate for undesirable home background.

Identified such problems as high pupil turnover, short periods in the same school, and frequent short-distance family migration.


Primary school science suffered because teachers were poorly trained, had little access to good scientific literature, and could not cope with various learning styles.


The 1967 Plowden Report greatly influenced primary schools, helped make parents partners in education, and hastened the spread of preschooling.


Evaluated primary school education 10 years after the 1967 Plowden Report.


Described primary school curriculum, testing, teacher education, support services, administration, and 7 recent studies.


A guide for primary schools wanting to become community schools. Described 4 well-established community schools.


Essays (16) on primary school education trends and on teaching science and history; also on evaluation, accountability, politics, teachers and the state, progressive education, and the educational implications of changes in Western society.


Vol. 2: official government statements, aims, curriculum issues, and other aspects; Vol. 3: classroom and teaching studies, introduction, and roles and relationships.


Primary school science as related to teachers, pupils, and education policymakers. Included approaches to children's learning and evaluation; such curricular innovations as the Oxford Primary Science Project, the Nuffield Junior Science, and Science 5-13; and inservice teacher education.


Extracts from official government and academic publications on primary school education; historical, philosophical, and sociological perspectives on children's learning.

National study tested primary school pupil performance, surveyed the organization and curriculum of 542 schools, and included HMI observations. Reading standards rose consistently; 11-year-olds scored significantly higher on standardized tests than in 1955.


A learning approach based on the observation of 9 to 11-year-old children at work and play.


Though 78 percent of parents approved of their children's primary schooling, many chose independent schools over state schools with low standards. LEAs responded by involving parents.


What to teach and how to train teachers were problems as the DES began requiring all primary schools to teach science (only 10 percent did so in 1984). The DES was to begin a 3-year science teacher training program in 1985.


The 1967 Plowden Report implausibly contended that each child's potential could be realized through free expression. Many factors, including the report, caused subsequent educational failures. The schools' first duty is to transmit knowledge.


Included Maurice Galton's "Classroom Organisation and Teaching in British Primary Schools" and Neville Bennett and Charles Desforges' "Quality of Pupil Learning Experiences."


Origins and influence of the progressive education movement, its idealism, reliance on Freud's theories, and the experimentation allowed in nursery and infant schools because they were not restricted by the government's primary school code.


Referred to the Times Educational Supplement, May 2, 1986, article on primary school teacher shortage in London and outer boroughs. Emergency recruiting inducements did not help. Related this situation to forthcoming U.S. teacher shortage.


Greendown Community School, Swindon, England, tried to stimulate intellectual skills by focusing on the interconnection of knowledge [described in Sue Surkes, "Wiping the Curricular Slate Clean," Times Educational Supplement (London), October 31, 1986].


Schooling, family life, and the changing position of women were examined to show how children learn behavior patterns needed for a meaningful life.

Study of primary teacher-student interaction, teaching styles, and management methods.


Contended that curriculum development lacked comprehensive strategies as well as assessment criteria. Local school groups, working within broad policy guidelines, should participate in basic curricular research and decisionmaking.


The 1967 Plowden Report's proposed EPAs to aid the disadvantaged were ill-conceived and faltered for lack of money and political support. But subsequent research and U.S. experience could guide in recasting these in more appropriate form.


History and limitations of a French teaching project in primary schools, negative findings of the National Foundation for Educational Research report, and future prospects.


London primary school headteachers' (124) attitudes toward LEAs, boards of managers (U.S. school boards), and administrative advisers were often hostile but few had specific complaints.

569. Stern, H.H. et al. French from Age Eight, or Eleven? A Study of the Effectiveness of the Teaching of French at the Primary Level

Summarized the 1964-75 National Foundation for Educational Research study on teaching French in British primary schools and applications to Ontario.


Recent primary school contraction and accountability contrasted sharply with the 1960s and early 1970s' expansion and experimentation.


Policy making on compulsory attendance, school fees, and government grants was done by politicians, not educators.


New towns, begun in the 1950s to ease urban congestion and for other special purposes, had many young families and needed many primary schools. Decisions about education and other social services were coordinated by social development departments.


The teacher must organize learning activities to achieve individualized self-directed learning and teacher-directed learning. Discussed how a traditional teacher can make the transition to open education.

Essays (6) on how teachers discussed the aims of education, ways of emphasizing different aims for different age groups, how teachers used child-centered learning, how curriculum development was managed, and the relationship between curriculum and the wider social environment.


Teachers' questionnaire responses showed the extent to which their teaching accomplished the 72 aims of education identified in teacher discussions.


The most important influences on curriculum were within, not outside, the primary schools. The headteacher was the single strongest influence, but the classroom teacher wielded the strongest influence within the classroom.


Report of the Schools Council Aims of Primary Education Project at the University of Birmingham School of Education. Studied 12 primary schools with 120 teachers. Within classrooms, teachers had considerable de facto power. Within the school, the headteacher had the greatest influence.


Children ages 6-9 who received extra reading help at home made significant gains.

Historical background and 16-month observation of 56 schools during 1965-66 were used to explain England's child-centered primary education.


Informal, open-classroom teaching replaced traditional methods in many primary classrooms in England, Wales, and Western Europe.


Praised the 1967 Plowden Report for its specific recommendations and even more for its insistence that the child is at the center of the educational process.


The 1967 Plowden Report was based on oversimplified assumptions about children and their families. It underrated racial and cultural issues. Good primary school education requires teachers with complex professional qualities.


Observed in Oxfordshire primary schools such innovations as vertical grouping, nongrouping, open education, integrated day, and integrated curriculum. Also saw how various agencies affect primary schools.
CHAPTER 6
Secondary Education


Because of the Tameside case, in which courts reversed the Education Secretary's ruling that comprehensive schooling be implemented despite the Tameside Local Education Authority (LEA) wish to reverse the order, other executive decisions about education would likely be reviewed by the courts.


Examined proposals for secondary social science curriculum made by the General Certificate of Secondary Education (GCSE) Grade Criteria Working Party.


Recommended major management changes: closing 1,000 secondary schools; changing ways of assigning teachers and deciding their pay and working conditions; and delegating more authority to schools themselves.

Influential independent (i.e., private) school headmasters said that the raising of the schooling-leaving age to 16 in 1972 would eliminate the need for age 16+ exam, including the General Certificate of Education-Ordinary (GCE-O) level and the Certificate of Secondary Education (CSE).


A 3-year study of a coeducational comprehensive school gave details about pupil identities and their school careers. The effect of the school's changing from ability grouping to mixed ability organization was to reduce discipline problems, create more realistic academic expectations, and enhance social control.


Case studies of specific issues facing comprehensive schools: transition from middle to upper school, gender and ethnic problems, sixth form, mixed ability grouping, declining enrollments, teacher careers, and politics and comprehensives.


Sociological-psychological 4-year study of achievement at a grammar school, grammar-technical school, and academic section of a comprehensive school showed that "love-oriented" parental discipline was more important than income status and that schools might be able to affect achievement even when pupils lacked other motivation sources.


Described teaching methods, assessment, exams, learning theory, and curriculum in comprehensive schools.

LEAs were using various strategies to maintain a varied secondary school curriculum despite declining enrollments (down to 2.8 million by 1991). Using educational technology could help as the number of teachers decline.


International comparison of the comprehensive school movement; the role of central government, political parties, the electorate, and local authorities in comprehensive school reform; and the potential of comprehensive schools to achieve egalitarian and educational aims.


Labor Education Minister Ellen Wilkinson was committed to tripartite schooling based on the 1943 Norwood Report. Only in 1949 did the party's national executive committee first raise the comprehensive school question.


Year-by-year list to 1975 of LEA plans for going comprehensive. Only 21 of 164 LEAs had completely abolished secondary school selection.


Comprehensive school reorganization created too great a variety of schools.

The Conservative government's elitist support for selective entry and independent school subsidies was designed to reverse the 1976 comprehensive schools act.


Ways teachers and pupils could ease adjustment in the first month in a comprehensive school for ages 11-18.


The Labor Party's comprehensive school policy, 1944-70. Though comprehensive schools became national policy in 1965, they retained some internal selection.


Ignoring professional educators' judgment, the Labor Party chose comprehensive schools as the instrument for achieving a classless society.


Described social services and their role in assuring equal educational opportunities.


Why U.S. students did poorly in international tests for 17- and 18-year-olds. Students from England were third best in algebra (after Japan and Finland), second best in biology (after Singapore), and best in chemistry and physics.

Greater London was largely unsuccessful in establishing comprehensive schools, 1940s-75.


A personal account of the political debate over comprehensive schools, 1944-72.


Almost all counseling was done by teachers as part of "pastoral care"; pupils were organized by class year or by "house" (4 or more "houses" across age/year levels) and counseled by teachers assigned to their year or "house."


Described a 1978-80 research project into declining secondary school enrollment and the educational implications in the future for post-16-year-olds.


Major research about the effect of declining enrollment in 20 schools, 1976-80. Case studies illustrated the interplay between in-school decisions and the LEAs when many changes occurred, including changes in the sixth form.


Parents sent their children to independent schools because of low academic standards, large classes, and high teacher turnover in tax-supported schools. Upper class parents wanted the social advantages of independent schools.

Despite growing dissatisfaction with school exams and rising enthusiasm for such alternatives as Records of Achievement, formal exams would not soon be replaced.


History of assessment showed that, before Assessment of Performance Unit pressures for accountability, exams had long influenced the curriculum and teaching methods.


Ineffective articulation between educational levels was characteristically British and resulted from elitism, dualism (past separate primary and secondary school systems), and local tradition.


History to the twentieth century of London secondary schools included girls' education, the major role of guilds and companies, and the effect of the spreading railroad system.


Examined the complex social structure of a comprehensive school and the effect of human relations on school operation.


Traced the transition from using 2 exams at age 16+ (GCE-O level or CSE) to using the single General Certificate of Secondary Education (GCSE), begun in 1988. Described how general and
national GCSE criteria were developed. Related these exam changes to higher education social science teaching.


Defended the 22 boards that administer school-leaving exams at age 16+ on the ground that they permit alternative curricula.


Curricular and ethical problems of the great public (i.e., independent) schools and reforms recommended by the 1861-64 Clarendon Commission.


Recommended a common 5-year curriculum for all secondary school pupils.


Comprehensive schools might yet fail to reduce social class barriers because teachers were patronizing toward lower class children, whom they considered slow learners.


Found the experimental Test of Academic Aptitude to be a supplemental predictor for university entrance when used with GCE-O level and GCE-A (Advanced) level exams and other predictive data.

Findings of experimental academic aptitude test of second-year sixth form students: boys scored higher than girls on mathematics, sex had no consistent effect on verbal scores, and university-bound students excelled.


Teachers' guide on ways to implement the GCSE, which stressed independent, self-directed learning; recommended using computers and other technologies.


Test scores were affected by the different types of institutions students attended and by other biographical, intellectual, and behavioral factors.


Three studies concerning comprehensive schools showed that their success could be judged either good or bad, depending on the data and statistical techniques used.


Recommended program organization, teacher selection, and curriculum for appropriately identified slow learners.


In a large comprehensive school which kept students in mixed ability groups until the fourth year, findings supported
comprehensiveness: bright working class pupils performed well, fewer working class pupils dropped out early, and better social integration occurred.


At 7 East Midlands secondary schools, studied effects of comprehensive school reorganization and other factors on curriculum and the type of comprehensive pattern adopted.

627. "Comprehensives Under Fire." *To the Point*, 1, 21 (October 21, 1972), 73.

Some irate parents, wanting the right to choose academic secondary grammar school for their children, refused to enroll them in comprehensive secondary schools. Critic Rhodes Boyson declared comprehensive schools a barrier to social mobility.


Elite boys' boarding schools (5 in England, 12 in the U.S.) similarly gave pupils respectable education credentials while enhancing their adult social positions.


The new GCSE might destroy integrity of academic subjects, bring assessment by coursework, and reduce intellectual demands on pupils.

Begun in the 1960s, career guidance was concerned with understanding the individual pupil’s talents, how the pupil chose a career, how society valued talent, and how to ensure that social and economic needs were met.


Most universities based admissions on students' GCE-A level scores. They should also consider students' attitudes and headmaster reports, both important predictors of success.


Considered effect that GCSE (begun in 1988) would have on the teaching of economics to pupils ages 14-16.


Proposed curricula and examinations available to pupils in the 1-year sixth form program at age 17+.


School organization should provide curricular oversight, student services, and adaptability to change.


Foresaw greater parental role in decisionmaking as enrollments decline and financial cuts occur.

Teachers' ability to identify the ablest 10 percent of their pupils was comparable to test-related data about student ability.


Teachers' judgments of their pupils' characteristics were found to be accurate.


Inappropriate influences on teachers' opinions did not grossly distort their judgment of students' abilities.


Her Majesty's Inspectors' (HMI) findings, 1975-78, on visits to 10 percent of publicly maintained secondary schools for ages 15-16 about curriculum (language, science, and maths), pupils' personal/social development and behavior, teachers, and exams. Refuting criticism, described most schools as "orderly, hardworking, and free from any serious troubles." Major criticism: unequal opportunities. Implications for teacher education.


Guide on new exam: from summer 1989, sixth-form students could broaden their studies by substituting 2 GCE Advanced Supplementary (AS) courses for 1 GCE-A level subject.

How businesses could offer pupils to age 16 opportunities to visit or do planned work for them. About paying pupils, assuring their health and safety, and providing insurance. Companion publication to DES, Welsh Office, *Education at Work: Guide for Schools*. See entry 649.


Changes made since 1979 in secondary school exams: GCSE (begun in summer 1988), taken at age 16+, replaced both GCE-O level and CSE exams; Certificate of Pre-Vocational Education (CPVE, begun in 1985), taken at age 16+ by those wanting additional study leading to a vocational skill; AS courses begun in summer 1987, first exams in summer 1989, were intended to increase the range of subject options for GCE-A level students.


Explanation of the GCSE, which did not affect the GCE-A level exam and the new AS level exam.


Reasons for replacing the GCE-O level and CSE exams with the GCSE.


History of comprehensive education; numbers of such schools and total enrollment; and curriculum, teaching arrangements, and administration implicit in government's call for a fully comprehensive school system.

Waddell Report (2 parts) was a feasibility study of costs, administration, and educational viability of using a single exam (GCSE) to replace the GCE-O level and CSE exams at age 16+.


Proposals from the Education Secretary for England and the Secretary for Wales for a new exam system.


Needs cited by HMI after observing various approaches with slow learning and less successful secondary school pupils: more specialists to help identify slow learners, appropriate curriculum and grouping, improved preservice and inservice teacher training, good libraries, and more pastoral care (i.e., guidance) by classroom teachers.


Suggested benefits for primary school and secondary school pupils from activities organized in workplaces in support of the curriculum. Practical advice about health, safety, insurance, and placement. See entry 641.


In one north of England school district, headteachers considered themselves the mainspring of innovation in reorganizing secondary education, 1965-70. Major curricular changes: traditional courses were altered and the Nuffield Science program was adopted.

House system (i.e., school counselor's concern about student's welfare, academic and personal) in comprehensive schools was not efficient because other organizations in the school performed some of its functions, administrators were often ambivalent about it, and most schools had inadequate physical facilities for its operation.


Age of transfer to secondary school, IQ, and social class, rather than type of secondary school attended, had the greatest effect on GCE-O level exam scores.


Compared attitudes of former teachers in grammar schools and secondary modern schools toward their roles as comprehensive school teachers.


Between second and fifth years of secondary school, pupils' (especially girls') attitudes toward science became more negative.


As streaming (i.e., ability grouping) was gradually halted, more pupils gained 5 or more passes on GCE-O level exams, behavior improved, but attitudes toward school were unchanged.


Despite Conservative government opposition, the goals of comprehensive schools and "education for all" persisted, while opposition to the 11+ exams grew.

Founded in 1953, the AEB widened the curricular basis of exams, liberalized syllabi, stressed further education (FE) and technical education, and involved teachers in all stages of the GCE exam.


Recounted the process of reorganizing secondary school education on a nonselective basis and the role and opposition of teachers.


Analyzed post-1945 secondary education reforms: policy goals, curricular and administrative trends, and the consequences of changes. Concluded that secondary school needs to be tied more directly to job-related skills.


How teachers improved secondary school curriculum by bringing subjects together in larger units, by creating mini-units, by establishing mixed-ability groups and team teaching, and by promoting independent learning.


Study of the relationship between housing and school attainment showed that 16-year-olds with poor housing did not perform well at school.

Discussed the Schools Council's role and summarized its proposals for a new exam structure.


Trends and changes proposed in 16+ exams and other assessment.


Dissatisfaction with the 1944 Education Act's failure to equalize secondary schooling led to comprehensive schools. The most influential groups were not parents or national leaders but teachers' organizations, LEAs, and political parties.


Personal objectives and experience of an educator who for 20 years led in comprehensive school reorganization.


How to use innovative methods in teaching modern languages without threatening achievement on GCE-A level exams.


Examined reasons for conflicting interpretations of 3 studies that compared exam results of pupils from comprehensive and selective secondary schools.

Secondary Education

Effect of social class and other motives for having private schools.


Course review and study of past exams were preferred ways to prepare for the GCE-O level exams.


Interest, previous performance, and value to career were major factors influencing students' choice of subjects for GCE-A level study.


On the ambivalent place of independent schools.


Traditional and progressive tendencies could coexist to everyone's benefit, as illustrated by goals at an innovative comprehensive school.


Exam scores were significantly related to intelligence, social background, and school policy for providing 16+ exams.

A member of the Secretary of State for Education's national advisory group on selective and nonselective secondary schools criticized the group's report, *Progress in Secondary Schools*, 1980.


Exam results of LEAs that used selectivity in secondary education were no better than in LEAs with fully comprehensive secondary schools.


Examined the rise of comprehensive schools, 1965-70, and concluded that independent schools and other factors made equalizing educational opportunity unlikely.


Independent schools prospered (1973-86), new schools opened, government subsidies and other funds increased, and links grew with the Conservative Party.


Private schooling as a mark of privilege or as a route to educational excellence: history, finance, and relationship of independent education with political parties.


Contrasted selective with mass education. Children of professional and white collar families (28 percent of the school population) filled 74 percent of university places. The remaining 72 percent of the school population resented elitism.

Evaluated U.S. and British research on comprehensive education; traced its history in the U.S. and Europe; and considered the implications for curriculum, ability grouping, guidance, and counseling.


Applied Basil Bernstein's open school model and Emile Durkheim's "organic solidarity" mode in observing teachers' perceptions of their comprehensive schools and ways to motivate unmotivated students.


Wanted fundamental reform; believed one common curriculum would restore dignity to working class pupils, whom author earlier mistakenly labeled as delinquents.


How the GCE-O level and CSE would be replaced by the GCSE.


Most proposals to broaden the sixth form curriculum foundered out of loyalty to the GCE-A level exam and the universities' desire to retain their 3-year degree program. Compromise: allow substitution of 1-year AS courses for 2-year GCE-A level courses.

Government education policies since 1944 have had little effect on social class inequalities because ambitious parents continue to find ways to maximize their children's chances.


Defended comprehensive schools against the conservative right's charge that they sacrificed academic standards and the left's charge that they did not provide equal opportunity.


Data about 10,000 adult males who attended all types of secondary schools, 1913-47, showed that the school attended ("old school tie") became less important while the qualifications earned became more important.


Emphasis on current affairs and relevance to the present weakened the syllabus tied to the history section of the GCSE exam.


Report of a project among 5 LEAs, some of their secondary schools, and several Her Majesty's Inspectors (HMIs) to improve curricula and teaching while meeting pupils' needs.


Observations at schools using mixed ability grouping and papers on its effect in specific subjects: classics, English, geography, history, mathematics, modern languages, science, and others.

Secondary Education

Depicted 48 middle schools, how well they served the age range, and pupils' response to middle school education.


Examined goals, student services, curriculum, academic organization, teachers, school-community relations, and leadership at 10 good secondary schools.


First official use of the term "secondary education" was in the Taunton Commission Report (1868). Not until the early twentieth century did impetus come for expanding secondary education.


Findings: 111 of 163 LEAs were still allocating school places, almost all used verbal reasoning tests and teacher assessment in placing pupils, many County Councils had a mixture of comprehensive and selective school systems, and the all-through school (ages 11-18) was the most popular comprehensive pattern.


Secondary school teachers worked longer hours than elementary school teachers; spent less time in instruction, planning, and grading; but spent more time on administrative work.


Experiments involving plans, goals, and behavior of 32 sixth-formers at Oxford comprehensive schools.

History of the north's most famous grammar school (probably founded 1286), with strong ties to Oxford and Cambridge. Based on the personal library of headmaster Reginald Bainbrigg (1578-1613).


Marxist analysis alleged that much sociological research failed to recognize that secondary schools prepared pupils for a capitalist society and the labor market, but that the education offered was "alienated" from the individual pupil's personal development.


Recommended a coherent curriculum. Discussed management of teaching and learning, scheduling, sixth form, and pastoral care.


The major independent schools formed a cohesive group after 1870 and greatly influenced the early twentieth century concept of secondary education. Their neglect of science and technology affected Britain adversely to the 1980s.


The nature and importance of public school life; the philosophy, writings, and contributions of Thomas Arnold; and the sociological circumstances that caused families to send their sons to private schools.

Traced post-1850 written exams to earlier written and oral tests and their assumptions about the nature of knowledge and about pupil-teacher relationships.


Management training for heads of comprehensive schools might aid them in handling decisions about specialization, ability grouping, exams, delegating responsibility, and communicating with pupils and teachers.


Many teachers, headmistresses, and Welsh educators preferred comprehensive secondary schools, as shown in the confidential Spens survey, but 2 powerful LEA organizations and the Association of Inspectors influenced the Spens Report (1938) to support separate schools after the 11+ exam.


Symposium review of Inner London Education Authority (ILEA), *Improving Secondary Schools*, which recommended that curriculum should foster individual development. Criticisms made included: report ignored wider social implications, failed to discuss the labor market and Manpower Services Commission programs, and neglected the problem of raising pupil achievement.


Ways to use child-centered methods with British young adolescents: pupil-teacher decisionmaking, teachers as facilitators, and a curriculum based on pupil needs.

The role of local and central government, parents, teachers, and political parties in reorganizing secondary schools along comprehensive lines.


Examined Schools Council's proposals for restructuring exams for school leavers.


Troublesome comprehensive school questions: should teachers and parents have more power, are schools performing adequately, are curriculum choices appropriate, and how can performance be measured?


Considered the effect that raising the school-leaving age to 16 had on the GCE and CSE exams; and offered proposals for more sophisticated exams for entrance to higher education.


Girls and boys did equally well on GCE-O level maths exam. But girls who also studied physics did better in maths than did boys who studied both maths and physics.

High ability students gained more while low ability students gained less over a 5-year period than if they had not been grouped by ability. U.S.-British comparisons.


Older U.S. boys had realistic educational expectations, but English boys at age 13 and older overestimated the role that ability played in educational attainment.


Study (1969-79) of changes in ability grouping, grading, prefectorial (student monitor) system, and other aspects of secondary school organization.


Arguments for such alternatives as sixth form centers and colleges, short-course comprehensives, technical colleges, and postsecondary colleges. Identified interest groups which supported specific alternatives.


Concluded that the pattern of school organization did not determine the degree and nature of pupil involvement in the school.


Social class was not important in friendship choice. Students chose friends of the same age, sex, and learning group who were also their friends out of school.

Ways LEAs assessed educational needs of 16-19-year-olds and used those findings and other factors in making and implementing policy.


Ending ability grouping in an LEA grammar school improved results on the GCE-O level exam.


Ending selective schooling did not lower educational standards.


Compared students in GCE-A level exam technical and FE college programs with a control group of traditional grammar school sixth formers. Examined reasons students entered a technical college, popularity of various A-level subjects, and the universities which students preferred.


Theories, political movements, and the effect of social class on educational opportunity, especially secondary education.


Relationships among central government, local government, and teachers in determining curriculum. Stressed the role of the
Department of Education and Science (DES) and its Assessment of Performance Unit in trying to wrest influence from teacher unions.


Economic and technological changes, egalitarianism, and how secularization affected curriculum. Recommended a common core curriculum with related electives.


Considered problems posed to sixth forms by Oxbridge admission requirements; relationship between GCE-A level exam scores, winning a university award, and university exam scores.


History of preparatory schools, which grew from private enterprise and philanthropy.


Oxford and Cambridge universities drew about half their students from independent schools, which enrolled over 6.5 per cent of secondary students during 1979-86. The Labor Party's failure to absorb independent schools into the state system shows the tenacity of the class system.


The European shift to comprehensive schooling was highly political. Opponents in England called for "schools of choice" and vouchers.

Research studies (6) on subjects sixth form students chose showed that the abler students had specialized subject interests.


Found that the test discriminated against all except average students.


Inspired by Margaret Thatcher's embrace of free-market competition and private enterprise, Harrow and other independent "public" schools broadened their curricula and increased science and technology requirements (Harrow began teaching computer skills in 1986).  


School systems nurtured gifted GCE-A level students toward university admission. Less able A-level students were guided by school staff and their families toward higher education decisions.


Considered practical relationships between school-based curriculum development and externally set school-leaving exams.


Two alternatives for small, inefficient sixth forms (under 50 students): cooperation between schools and sixth form colleges and between schools and postsecondary colleges.

Compared secondary school centralization, organization, and curriculum in England and Wales, South Australia, Greece, Canada, and the U.S.


Central London comprehensive school headmistress wrote about administrative, instructional, and community relations problems.


Various school and career options for 16+ year-olds.


More research was needed on academic achievement in comprehensive schools.


Used almost 700 students' scores on GCE-O level and A level Nuffield physics exams to justify the O level exam's validity.


In fiction about secondary modern schools, schools were usually located in slums, teaching was a battle, the teacher was vulnerable, and staff-pupil conflict was characteristic.

Black girls maintained levels of reading progress comparable with white girls; progress of black boys was slower.


In England in 1966 Nuffield materials evoked more favorable scientific interests and attitudes from students than did traditional science programs.


In the 1960s, as secondary education became increasingly comprehensive, social factors affected changes in science teaching.


The history and operation of Britain's independent school system for ages 13-18.


Comprehensive schools were essentially traditional: the best teachers were assigned to abler students; the best students were in grammar schools; and pupil friendships were among their own social, ethnic, and ability groups.


Despite the Conservative government's 1970 Circular 10/70, which nullified Circular 10/65 (asking LEAs to submit plans for comprehensive secondary schools), the comprehensive movement seemed likely to continue.

Secondary Education

Six comprehensive schools' success with the common core curriculum, continuing education, the mini-school concept, community schooling, the changing role of the teacher, and student grouping and evaluation.


The 112 modern language exams used in the U.K. at GCE-O level, Scottish O grade, and CSE Mode 1 were analyzed, evaluated, and discussed by independent experts.


Compared exam grades given during normal GCE grading periods with grades given later by a senior GCE examiner on the same papers.

750. Murphy, Roger J.L. "Sex Differences in GCE Examination Entry Statistics and Success Rates." Educational Studies, 6, 2 (June 1980), 169-78.

Changes in assessment techniques used in GCE exams might directly affect sex differences in the results.

751. Murphy, Roger J.L. "Sex Differences in Objective Test Performance." British Journal of Educational Psychology, 52, part 2 (June 1982), 213-19.

Males did well on objective questions, but females surpassed males on essay sections of the GCE exam because of their more highly developed writing skills.


Comprehensive school students, especially females, held favorable attitudes toward authority groups: teachers, parents, and police (particularly the latter two).

Restated NUT's 1969 position favoring a single age 16+ exam. Accused central government of procrastination and asked government to set a date for establishing a single exam system.


Response to the LES report, *Aspects of Secondary Education in England*, 1979. Welcomed the conclusion that most schools were doing well. Accepted most of the criticisms, but questioned causes and proposed solutions, pointing particularly to the adverse effects of funding cuts. See entry 639.


Studied academic background of 969 university entrants from comprehensive secondary schools. Among recommendations: end ability grouping, include a common core curriculum in the early secondary school years, and have a national age 18+ exam.


Primary school background had a greater influence than ability grouping on academic achievement. Mixed ability grouping provided social advantages and no academic disadvantages.


Independent schools were criticized for their elitism, isolated social setting, political rather than academic administrations, and requirement that students live away from home for long periods.

Feared that an anti-independent school bias among examining boards for the GCSE exam would result in lower marks for independent school students.


Essays on the new age 16+ exam criticized the heavy weight given to teacher judgment and course work, the emphasis on relevance rather than on classics in literature, and the denigration of subject matter content.


Thomas Arnold's reforms as Rugby's headmaster (1828-42), emphasizing character and loyalty to school and country, helped create the officers needed in World War I.


New design for science instruction for ages 9-13.


Post-1945 central government and LEA roles in the comprehensive education movement and the limitations of central control.


Independent school headmaster defended independent schools for providing maximum stimulus for the gifted.

764. Persell, Caroline Hodges, and Peter W. Cookson, Jr. "Leadership Training in Elite American Boarding Schools: Reconciling the

At 50 U.S. and 10 English independent schools, the total experience was a rite of passage into an elite social class; but it had little effect on instilling service and leadership values.


The sixth form was compared with European counterparts. Author proposed that GCE-A level exams be reshaped along international baccalaureate lines; that sixth form curriculum be planned, balanced, and less specialized; and that the age range for secondary education be shortened.


Examined 7 major proposals (1959-88) to reduce sixth-form specialization. Blamed the failure to lessen specialization on the absence of a local or central authority to control curriculum. The best hope was for university admissions officers to give preference to a 5-subject mix of GCE-A level and AS subjects, including mathematics.


Teachers had less influence than other pressure groups. Local politicians were less influenced by pressure groups than were national politicians.


The physics working party and other subject specialists were producing performance criteria for awarding grades A-G in each subject tested on the GCSE exam.

Issues in the movement to develop a single age 16+ exam to replace the CSE and GCE-O level exams.


Teachers identified correctly the pupils at age 13 who scored high on GCE-O level exams at age 16+ in English, French, physics, and mathematics.


Paul Willis in Learning to Labour (Farnsborough: Saxon House, 1977) found British working class boys wanted traditional working class roles and did not seek credentials at school. In contrast, working class Black and Hispanic twelfth graders in northern California saw school as their chief route to occupational success—a way to move out of the working class and into a middle class lifestyle. See entry 859.


Innovative course, "Personal and Social Education," to help first- and second-year comprehensive school pupils develop social skills and get acquainted. Pupils liked the class but felt they were not learning anything. Teachers were influenced by the "hidden curriculum" which pegged pupils by their social background.

Pastoral care (student guidance and counseling) grew as comprehensive schools grew and it was feared that students' personal needs would suffer. Counseling was threatened by the tendency to use it for discipline, by emphasis on basic skills, and by concern about school-work connection ("new vocationalism").


Most of the irrational forms of inequality in British society have been removed. Further measures, such as ending all selection in state-aided education and eliminating the advantages of heredity and upbringing, could lead to social stagnation.


Though the GCSE exam was supposed to measure all ability levels and show each student's achievement, such differentiation seemed impossible. With high priority on retaining GCE-O level standards, the GCSE seemed to be the GCE-O level by another name.


Westminster School headmaster (a Social Democrat) described the struggles and survival of independent schools despite the Labor Party's opposition.


In a north of England borough, parents who chose comprehensive schools instead of grammar schools did so without regard for their child's IQ.

778. Reid, Ken, and Beatrice Avalos. "Differences Between the Views of Teachers and Students to Aspects of Sixth Form Organisation at Three Contrasting Comprehensive Schools in South Wales." Educational Studies, 6, 3 (October 1980), 225-39.
Contrasted attitudes toward teaching and teachers, attendance, conditions of entry, closed and open classes, and general studies.


Studied what 500 teachers hoped to achieve and the methods used in their mixed ability classes. Considered school policy, pupil allocation, advantages and disadvantages of different arrangements, and teaching methods.


University admissions reflected applicants' stereotypes and institutional constraints rather than objective evaluations. Showed implications for secondary curriculum and for reducing selection inequalities.


Explored the effect of university admissions on the sixth form, especially on subject specialization.


From nineteenth century roots in independent (i.e., "public") schools, the sixth form became part of a larger controversy over postsecondary colleges and the extension of semi-vocational courses for ages 16-19.


History and effectiveness of comprehensive schools. In a Welsh community, where one-third of the students attended selective rather
than comprehensive schools, comprehensive schools did poorest with the middle third of the ability range.


Studied efforts to reform GCE exams, 1966-76, to test Ralph H. Turner's thesis that reformers were bound by the logic of folk norms. Found that educators and GCE reformers were constrained by the ideology and interests of particular education constituencies.


Steps in decisionmaking and the influence of different groups at various stages in an LEA's movement toward secondary school reorganization.


Cultural and social influence of novels about independent school life, the first of which was Tom Brown's School Days, 1857.


Found that sixth formers' values and choice of going to work or getting more schooling (university, polytechnic, college of education, or other form of higher education) were in line with abilities demonstrated by GCE-A level exam scores.


Former consultant to a growing comprehensive school wrote on secondary school problems: administrator-teacher relationships; teachers, curriculum, and guidance and counseling; headteachers; inservice education; and the changing role of teachers, pupils, parents, and governors in a changing society.

Evolution of the exam system was part of a trend toward greater central government control in education.


Reappraisal of independent schools: praised curricular experimentation; said classics were no straitjacket; called lack of free places and failure to reorganize educational endowments nationally a major disaster; credited Dorothea Beale, Frances Buss, and Emily Davies with revolutionizing girls' education; and bemoaned failure to implement administrative structure proposed by the 1868 Taunton Commission.


History of secondary school leaving exams (involving Oxford and Cambridge universities); their educational and social results; and their effects on curriculum, structure of schools (particularly girls' schools), and university entrance.


Most comprehensive pupils did well after leaving school. The brightest had high GCE scores and most entered higher education. Able working class pupils did particularly well. Less able boys usually obtained apprenticeships, and less able girls entered nonmanual jobs.


Smaller schools had stronger holding power in fifth and sixth forms, were more successful in curricular and extracurricular fields, and could find ways to overcome other disadvantages.

Comprehensive schools in 1970 enrolled 31.3 percent of the relevant age group. Academically oriented students were not handicapped by comprehensive education.


Opposed independent schools because they perpetuated inequality of opportunity.


Wilkinson, Labor Education Minister after 1945, delayed and attempted to prevent the introduction of comprehensive schools. Suggested reasons for her attitude.


Chronological account of the comprehensive school movement; differences within the Labor Party; and constraints caused by existing buildings, LEA politics, and the national economy.


Contrary to commonly held belief that British elites were from privileged family backgrounds and attended elite independent schools, author found that most of the elite were from the middle class and that social mobility was more common than assumed.

The plan's greatest challenge will be to serve both the least able students and sixth form students (16-19-year-olds).


Experts (13) suggested how to study for GCE-O level exams in modern languages, at about age 16, and the transition to studying for the GCE-A level exams in modern languages, at about age 18.


At 12 inner city London comprehensive schools, studied behavior outside of school, academic achievement, school behavior, and attendance rates. Exam scores varied greatly. Evidence showed that schools made a difference: boys of the same ability were 3 times as likely to be delinquent if they attended the worst school.

802. Ryan, Desmond. "The Rise and Fall of the Public School as a Dominant Social Form." The Stonyhurst Magazine, 45, 483 (Autumn 1987), 59-68.

Independent schools after the early 1960s lost their historic role of producing moral leaders for country and empire. Freed of that task, they could cultivate their uniqueness.


Opposing views of Labor and Conservative governments toward comprehensive schools did not stop the breakdown of the tripartite school system. Specific decisions depended on LEA politics and the reputation of existing schools.

In the 1980s, amid ideological struggles among powerful political parties and the rising authority of the DES, independent schools prospered.


How LEAs and their division executives actually functioned in the transition to a comprehensive school system.


Secondary schools had unclear priorities, unrealistic expectations, and limited resources. A new form of secondary education was needed that would emphasize lifelong learning in local communities.


At an informal English middle school, all teachers were involved with all students, staff interaction provided informal inservice training, and teachers shared similar teaching-learning views. Implications for U.S. schools.


Contained data from 227 sixth forms, other schools, and 5 FE colleges about staff and space resources needed to change from a 3-subject sixth form curriculum to a 5-subject Normal level and Further level curriculum.


Described centers used by science teachers to keep in touch with university and industrial scientists; included finance, administration, and organization of centers.

The main considerations in examining comprehensive secondary schools were patterns of administration and the curriculum.


Teaching the history of science in secondary schools was a way to explain attacks on science.


Founders of endowed independent schools gave bright poor boys free places but set the principle that secondary education was a privilege to be bought.


Conference papers on the background of Victorian headmasters, science in the curriculum, the concept of the "English gentleman," leadership and imperial service, the games cult, and school architecture.


The role and academic standards of schools in Bath run for profit by a single proprietor or company, 1870s-1980s.


Founded by private philanthropy, the Crypt School under t. 1944 Education Act became a maintained grammar school.
controlled by the LEA. It had a balanced curriculum and a thriving sixth form which in 1987 for the first time admitted girls.


   Girls' schools tended to have more stable heads (U.S. term, principals) than boys' schools. Inner city schools had more frequent turnover of heads and heads at earlier stages in their careers than did suburban schools.


   Implementation of the 1902 Education Act and pressures for a broader secondary curriculum.


   More higher education students took mixed arts and science courses for their GCE-A level exams (1951-87) than specialized in either arts or science.


   Compared students age 15 who wished to leave school with those who wished to continue to age 18. A significant relationship existed between the desire to stay in school, social class, and ability. Most students wanted school to prepare them for jobs or other future goals.


   Condemned 1970s Labor and Conservative governments for weakening the support of secondary school education by stressing
social engineering and accountability. Comprehensive schools never fulfilled their promise.


Endowed grammar schools (1867-97) modeled themselves after the great public schools and were judged by the number of Oxford scholarships students received.


Comprehensive education's effect on gifted children. Regional differences, national options, and local strategies for meeting the needs of gifted students.


Statistical study of student success on GCE-A level exams. Best scores were made at sixth form colleges, in girls' schools, and by higher social class students.


Sports and the military greatly influenced nineteenth century independent school life which, after the 1861-64 Clarendon Commission reforms, became increasingly regimented.


Analyzed England's socioeconomic structure and technological progress. Discussed reasons for secondary school organizational and
structural reform. Stated that internally, many comprehensive schools retained a tripartite system.


Examined influences of personality, IQ, home background, school, and other factors on academic achievement.


More pupils, especially females, were taking science courses.


Until the mid-1960s the major political parties agreed on broad policy outlines affecting schooling, then considered nonpolitical. After that time education became highly political, and party views diverged.


For more than a century the great independent schools provided political education broadly in all school experiences, not in political science courses. Now with emphasis on academic achievement, specific political science courses might be needed.


Evaluated social consequences of the shift to comprehensive secondary education. Felt that comprehensive schools would not necessarily equalize educational opportunity or enhance social harmony.

Contended that both political parties should take only a general position toward the future of independent schools. Parents, wanting the best for their children, seemed unaware that independent and maintained schools had become more similar and that their students attained comparable examination results.


Reviewed the revival of independent schooling, its growing political sophistication, its inevitable alignment with the Conservative Party, and the struggle between market forces and the state bureaucracy for control of the educational change process.


Co-director of Nuffield Resources for Learning Project favored more individualized learning, preferred a 2-tier instead of an all-through (ages 11-18) comprehensive school, and proposed that media-based learning packages be developed for secondary schools.


Heads and teachers at 180 independent, direct grant, and LEA schools strongly favored sixth form specialization. They underestimated the university influence on sixth form curriculum; and they saw trends toward larger numbers, larger classes, and new institutional structures.


Compared academic achievement in a school which dropped ability grouping. Rate of completion of 5-year secondary course rose from 37 percent (1955) to 64 percent (1965). Exam results rose comparably.

Despite teacher shortages and funding cuts, many curricular improvements remained possible.


Found that English and Welsh comprehensive schools using ability grouping were more traditional.


Students' sources of career information were school career conventions (38.5 percent) and career teachers (29 percent). Over 25 percent of students hoped to have an industrial, commercial, or education career. Of those planning post-sixth form education, only 12.3 percent were taking science.


Problems and payoffs of school-based exams, which helped schools to equalize opportunity, aided curriculum development, and assisted teacher self-evaluation.


Despite widespread computer use in secondary school economics classes, actual time on computers was limited, suitable software was unavailable, and girls were not encouraged to develop computer skills.
Secondary Education


Data on all children born in one week in 1946 showed that all were affected by school reorganization, that the type of school attended was the most important factor affecting academic achievement, that social class was relatively unimportant, and that girls were handicapped as they moved up the school ladder.


Discussed curriculum planning, research, syllabi, and teachers.


"Independent," the term preferred by private schools, was a misnomer because the Conservative government gave them considerable direct and indirect aid through its Assisted Places Scheme, offered tax advantages for charitable gifts, and lent ideological support. In 1986 these schools enrolled 6.5 percent of England's total school population. The cost to taxpayers if all attended LEA schools would be more than was given in aid to independent schools.


The social world and experiences of male students and faculty in independent boarding schools in the 1980s, and the recent admission of girls.


Research and analysis of recent history, politics, and issues related to private education.

The Thatcher government was discussing core curriculum of 5 subjects, including English and mathematics, for ages 11-16, and a single national test for 16-year-olds administered by one government-appointed authority.


Ideologies and socioeconomic forces encouraged middle schools to emerge in the 1960s, but 1970s financial cuts hit them hard. Increased bureaucratic control, pressures for pupil selection, and vacillation about mixed ability grouping caused a crisis in the 1980s.


Comprehensive schools needed a new curriculum to meet the pressures created by higher school-leaving age of 16 and a more democratized education.


Many incoming university students became disoriented, academically and socially, because they unrealistically expected university teaching methods to be like methods they experienced in the sixth form.


Studied teacher-based physical education curriculum changes, 1976-84. Concluded that exams had a conservative effect and must either be dropped or examiners' made more tolerant.

Proposals to replace the GCE-O level and CSε exams would widen the gap between secondary and higher education, make schools largely autonomous in exam procedures, and ignore society's needs for professional skills.


Examined philosophical, managerial, and administrative problems as affected by declining enrollment and tight funds. Showed how technology can save money and improve administration.


Declining enrollments, parental-community participation in governance, pressure for standards, and social change posed challenges for comprehensive schools in the 1980s.


To overcome student alienation and apathy, comprehensive schools must study methods of successful teachers and such eminent pioneering schools as Risinghill (closed 1965) and Countesthorpe College.


School-leavers' attitudes at ages 16 and 18-and-a-half about school and work. Those whose schools had ability grouping had more positive attitudes toward teachers and school but had negative attitudes toward jobs. Females liked school more but were less happy at work than males.


Emphasis on accountability, standards, and tighter control of the curriculum put more constraints on teachers. Need more attention to the relationship between education, the economy, and the state.


Information on GCE-A level syllabuses in sociology, views of examiners and teachers, and reading lists and sample examination paper.


Attitudes of over 2,000 male and female social science pupils in over 500 English and Welsh secondary schools: over 40 percent expressed racial prejudice, 25 percent admitted anti-Asian prejudice, 82 percent believed in government's ability to change things, and 94 percent were satisfied with their education.


Studied counter culture of northern comprehensive school boys who opposed authority, were sexist, racist, nonconformist, and from a working class culture which endured rather than enjoyed a job. Implications for school and career guidance. See entry 771.


In contrast to the view that schools were powerless in the face of socioeconomic disadvantage (as some misinterpreted the 1966 U.S. Coleman Report), Rutter's study of London inner-city secondary schools concluded that schools could and did make a difference in fighting socioeconomic problems. See entry 801.
Secondary Education


Regardless of social class, boys in all schools and girls in comprehensive and grammar schools did not differ in their general orientation to school. Concluded that schools had significant influence on student values.


The CSE exam improved educational and job opportunities for secondary modern school students.


Comprehensive school students performed up to national norms on exams, even though many bright pupils attend grammar or independent schools rather than comprehensives.


Freedom to choose subjects of study was a myth: student preference was heavily influenced by class origin; and when teachers counseled students to take exam or nonexam courses, the effect was to continue social class division.


Examined 3 studies which compared academic achievement of comprehensive and selective secondary school pupils.


As education secretary (1970-74), Margaret Thatcher did not reverse the comprehensive school movement.

Secondary-level science teaching, especially in physics, chemistry, and biology, increased, 1969-76.


Analyzed ways of grouping students: by age, home areas, religion, special needs, sex, and administrative and teaching convenience. Explained pros and cons of horizontal and vertical grouping, team teaching, and ability grouping. Favored neighborhood schools without ability grouping.
CHAPTER 7
Teacher Education


Rapid school changes and complex social problems required broad governmental involvement and inservice education for teachers. The operation and role of teacher centers, begun by the Schools Council in 1967, are explained. U.S. and Australian experiments followed the British model.


After the mid 1960s, teacher education decisionmaking was centralized under the Secretary of State for Education and Science, the Department of Education and Science (DES), and the Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (CATE). Teachers and local and regional authorities should regain control.


Presented teacher education curricular changes since 1963. Offered case studies of 4 institutions. Discussed past, present, and future needs in teacher education.
Graduate training of secondary school art teachers in 12 specialized centers, all part of larger polytechnics and other higher education institutions: entrance requirements, programs, links with schools, links abroad, and the evolution of various certificates and diplomas earned.

Teachers who, as adults, decided to enter teaching scored high on job satisfaction and need satisfaction. They complained that superiors gave them inadequate help and pupils and the public showed them little respect.

Discussed the benefits of offering fellowships to prospective maths teachers.

Account of a course leading to Diploma in Professional Studies in Education (Computer Education): aims, content, candidate selection, and experiences during the first year offered.

Teachers reacted to their experiences in using simulation in teaching geography, business, teacher education, and other fields.
Findings and recommendations from the Nottingham University School of Education program to train teachers in multicultural and antiracist viewpoints.

   Calculated that taking the 1-year B.Ed. course after a 3-year teachers' certificate program would bring high investment returns.

   To end the exodus from teaching of technical subject teachers, higher pay and better working conditions were needed for all teachers, not a differential salary scale favoring technical fields.

   Explained the movement to include teachers on governing bodies, reasons specific teachers were chosen, and their problems and activities.

   Begun in the late 1960s, teacher centers were organized and run by teachers themselves and funded by local education authorities (LEAs) and the teachers. Existing curricula and practices were reviewed and teachers were encouraged to make improvements.

   How funding cuts and government demands were changing teachers' lives and careers.

The role of universities and colleges of advanced education, possible mergers, and 4-year training requirement for all teachers as ways to cope with the declining demand for teachers.


Because teachers could easily dissuade pupils from choosing industrial careers, recommended a national survey of teacher attitudes about industry and a dialogue between teachers and industrialists.


On higher education aims and objectives; classroom economy and efficiency; recall and retention of information; skills and abilities; attitudes and motivations; and research into evaluation of students, teachers, and teaching methods. Stressed the use of programmed learning, computers, TV, simulation, and games.


Statistical study of dropouts at 5 teachers colleges.


Teachers' centers were established to meet mainly primary teachers' professional and social needs. Some were operated by specialists, not teachers, to provide technical and science materials.


Studied pupil progress when taught by different teaching styles. Concluded that formal (in contrast to progressive) teaching methods succeeded academically without harming pupils' social and emotional development.
Efforts to professionalize primary school teaching by forming associations and reviving uncertified teachers failed, mainly because teachers received unspecialized training and were from the working class.

Workshops at a teacher center helped teachers develop study packages (maps and photos) for teaching local history.

Assessed changes and the consequences of changes, 1964-84, in government policy, courses, and faculty responsibilities at 3 teacher training institutions.

Efforts to make teaching a profession comparable to the legal and medical professions by establishing a Teaching Council were unlikely to succeed because of divisions among teachers and DES opposition.

Concluded that beginning teachers should be free 1 day per week in their first term to attend workshops and/or to develop their own programs for improving their teaching skills.

The views of teachers who, as sixth formers, had preferred a teaching career. Five years later they were more realistic but still favored a teaching career more than did undecided sixth formers who did not become teachers.


National survey of 510 teachers' opinions on ethnic groups found consensus about the academic and social behavior of West Indian and Asian pupils. Discussed the possibility that teachers have stereotyped views of West Indian pupils.


Looked at teacher education needs to 1980, proposed ways to match these needs with national provision for teacher education, and reported local changes and new developments in the Keele Area Training Organization.


History of teacher education policy changes and conflicts over the nature, structure, length, status, and style of teacher training courses.


Growth in the centralized control of teacher education and changes in teacher quality, 1944-84.
899. Burgess, Robert G. "Sociology of Education Courses for the
Intending Teacher: An Empirical Study." Research in Education,
17 (1977), 41-62.

Aims, structure, curriculum, teaching methods, and extent of
sociology of education courses; also on the sociology of education
faculty in U.K. teacher training institutions during 1972-73.

900. Butterfield, P.H. "The First Training Colleges for Teachers of the
Blind." British Journal of Educational Studies, 25, 3 (1977),
268-83.

By 1867, there were 12 schools for the blind. Not until Braille
type was generally accepted did teacher training for the blind begin,
first at the Royal Normal College in the 1880s. Government
funding began with the 1893 Elementary Education Act.

901. Butterfield, P.H. "The First Training Colleges for Teachers of the
Deaf." British Journal of Educational Studies, 29, 1 (February
1979), 51-69.

Scant nineteenth century financial support was given to deaf
education, in which Fitzroy Square College for the Deaf pioneered.
Ealing College (closed 1913) gave the first significant but low
level quality of training for teachers of the deaf.


Examined kinds and causes of secondary school teacher shortages
in 22 comprehensive schools and in 10 LEAs.

903. Calthrop, Kenyon, and Graham Owens, eds. Teachers for
Tomorrow: Diverse and Radical Views About Teacher Education.

Most essays were by progressive authors who rejected orthodox
academic values, would reduce the exam system, and found teacher
training programs irrelevant to real needs. The editors proposed
organizing each teachers college into groups of 50-70 students led
by 5-6 tutors who developed a suitable program.

Found a negative relationship between a teacher's inservice training and that teacher's later curriculum innovation.


The stress and burnout levels of 78 teachers studied were low.


Rapid teacher turnover was causing instability in the profession, but could be reversed with adequate funding and appropriate working conditions.


Comments by 6 teachers on how to recruit primary school teachers. General job description and list of desirable qualifications.


Explanation of the late 1980s plan to produce for each pupil a "Record of Achievement" which contained written information on the pupil's personal and academic achievement and experience.


Because of declining enrollment and funding cuts, few new teachers would be hired. Inservice education was needed to give experienced teachers added skills to meet special school needs.


Located in Bradford’s ethnic center, the college had a comprehensive community college program, trained teachers for children ages 3-13, and stressed multicultural values.


Ministers of Education had no formal role in teacher salary decisions until the 1965 Remuneration of Teachers Act required the Burnham Committee (which set teachers' salaries) to have on it representatives from the Secretary of State for Education and Science, LEAs, and teachers’ associations, with an independent chairman. This act marked the rise of the DES as a major force in educational politics. Divided teachers’ groups to build a stronger power base.


Described various teachers organizations (unions), the power relationships within which they functioned, and their responses to changing conditions.


The major causes of teacher stress in a comprehensive school included relationships with students and the school’s pastoral care (guidance) policies.

History of the role of a Church of England teachers college in developing kindergarten education and in training kindergarten teachers.


Teacher education changes, mainly 1960s, at Bede College, Durham.


Examined amounts of time spent in 1960s in lectures, seminars, tutorials, and practical work. Looked at the use made of closed circuit TV and independent study.


Brief history of student teaching, school-college liaison problems, student reactions to the student teaching experience, and various supervision methods.


Literature survey on student selection, student teaching as a part of teacher education, and student attitudes.


Strategies for training teachers for the Geography 16-19 Project: focused on curriculum development, a man-environment approach, and inquiry-based learning.

Brief history of teacher education (eighteenth century to 1981). Covers the government's role in the major reorganization of teacher education, the many school closings, and the 60 percent drop in enrollments which marked "the beginning of the end" of affluence in higher education.


Analyzed attitudes of 332 principals, deputy principals, and heads of education and subject departments in 144 colleges and polytechnics toward teacher education proposals in the 1972 James Report. Despite sympathy for the report, the overall conclusion was that the James Report was not an effective instrument for changing teacher education.


In a sample of young teachers studied in 1965, 1967, and 1972, the weaker teachers did not overcome their weaknesses. Those highly ranked in 1965 continued to rank high.


Teachers must be trained to take initiatives in a rapidly changing world and to question the status quo. Curriculum must be future-oriented and stress appropriate idealistic values.


More primary as well as secondary school teachers were being trained in the post-degree 1-year course leading to the Post Graduate Certificate in Education (PGCE). The CNAA working party...
suggested that PGCE training for primary school teachers should differ substantially from that for secondary school teachers.


Extensive excerpts from the 1972 James Report, *Teacher Education and Training*, which urged paid leave for inservice training.


The deputy headteachers did not agree on the criteria thought to apply to good primary school teachers.


Described a workshop designed to train teachers for a new pastoral care (guidance) system. Working sessions (8) were on such aspects as student perspective, teacher perspective, and parental roles and feelings.


Inservice teacher education grew in the 1980s, and the Education Reform Act of 1988 (ERA 88) brought an even greater need for such training.


Teacher education began in church training colleges (1840s). Growing government influence and post-1945 changes led to longer, better, bipolar college degree and university graduate programs. While critics decried teacher education as dysfunctional,
Teacher Education

pressure mounted for it to move into the mainstream of higher education.


With fewer teacher education places available in the 1970s, women entered other areas of higher education. Discussed the implications for women's careers.


Open University (OU) text of original documents (16) on preschool teachers, teaching as a profession, teachers and the Schools Council, and teacher politics and education.


Stressed the importance of technology and learning in schools and the need for LEAs to train teachers to use technologies.


History and influence on school organization and teachers' careers of the complex system of laws and local discretion by which teacher salaries and promotions were decided.


To improve teacher education, one needed to consider a hidden dimension: the belief teachers share that they must have classroom control and privacy to teach successfully.

Origins and administration of teacher education, nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, with discussion of 2 recent controversies: separation of primary school and secondary school teacher training and the 1970s demise of the colleges of education.


Examples of new and remodeled school buildings serving teaching needs in primary education, special education, secondary school special subjects, community education, further education, and higher education needs.


To recruit primary and secondary school teachers, explained career prospects; how to qualify; training needed: and how to apply for training, grants, and financial aid.


Quality of B.Ed. teachers' courses in the wake of criticism of the 1972 James Report.


Universities' 1-year postgraduate programs (GCE) needed better management to reduce tutors' traditional autonomy; assure balance between theory and practice; and get tutors, supervising teachers, and students to cooperate to assure the best possible training.

PGCE study grants: eligibility and application information; monetary value and payment method regarding fees, living allowance, grants for dependents, travel expenses; and responsibility of parents or spouse for sharing costs.


Studied how well new teachers were prepared for their first jobs and how effectively schools used these teachers' skills, knowledge, and training.


Over 50 HMI inservice courses for teachers, administrators, and others in education, from adult continuing education to youth and community service. Also explained the Council of Europe Teacher Bursary Scheme and HMI Central Bureau courses offered abroad.


The James Report suggested 3 cycles of teacher education: a 2-year preprofessional course; followed by a 2-year course consisting of 1 year of theoretical and practical studies, and a second year in teaching under professional tutor supervision with 1 day a week in further study; followed by inservice education, with 1 term paid leave every 7 years for further study. Recommended that each teacher education institution have a third cycle and that a National Council for Teacher Education be formed. Criticized university responsibility for teacher education, the B.Ed. course, and LEA control of teacher education. See entries 921, 1038, and 1145.


How teacher education should prepare teachers to help pupils move easily from school to industry. Report on 10 institutions visited which had specific links with industry.


On teacher education, teaching methods, and secondary school curriculum as they related to comprehensive secondary schools. Based on conferences held with teacher educators, LEAs, and teacher association representatives. Concluded that improved inservice training was the key to improving secondary school teaching.


Teacher turnover in nearly 3,000 schools was 18.6 percent; higher for women, for primary schools, and for inner and outer London than for other areas.


Urged that future teachers be selected carefully, given needed subject matter content and teaching methods, and receive longer training (4 years instead of 3 for the B.Ed., 36 weeks for the PGCE).


White Paper recommended more rigorous selection of future teachers, stricter standards for teacher education courses, a system
for evaluating teachers, and more inservice education. See entries 944, 1051, 1073, and 1138.


Historical-comparative survey of Western European, U.S., and English teacher education. Showed the cultural differences in their programs, and the effects of teachers' improved social status on teacher education.


Forty-year history of the institute from its 1932 transfer to the University of London (formerly London Day Training College), to its postwar leadership as area training organization for all teacher education in London and Southeast England, its reactions to the 1963 Robbins Report, and the introduction of the 3-year teachers' course and B.Ed. degree.


Primary and secondary school teachers lacked freedom in curricular decisions and were most influenced by professional teacher organizations.


Case studies (4): school-based inservice activities initiated by teachers, students, department heads, or principals; LEA-initiated inservice training; and inservice training in Northern Ireland, Scotland, and Wales. How to evaluate inservice training and how to improve communications among teachers about each child's development.

Inservice training for teachers of minorities, not centrally planned, was provided by some LEAs, religious institutions, and universities. Teaching English as a second language was the major topic, with other topics also presented. The need for more and broader courses is great.


Views of students and faculty in 6 colleges of education. Most thought that the main course should be more professionally relevant. Most faculty thought that their students' motivation to teach grew during training. Most students thought colleges should offer training for other related education, social, and medical professions.


Most teacher education courses lasting at least 20 days full time or 60 hours part time listed alphabetically by LEA. OU courses were included.


The Association acted more as a trade union than as a professional organization, advocating higher salaries, pensions, shorter working hours, higher standards for teachers, and teachers' rights.

Influence of the National Union of Teachers (NUT) on the General Certificate of Education (GCE), 1966-70.


The first teacher centers (1960s) were to help teachers during curriculum change, comprehensive school growth, and the 1-year extension of compulsory education.


Preservice and inservice training of mathematics teachers; the role and uses of teacher centers; and differences in ways primary and secondary teachers used teacher centers.


Expected that inservice teacher education in information technology would become more effective because of less preoccupation with computer software and hardware and more concern for educational objectives.


The Church of England's role in teacher education declined because of limited funds, growing government influence, and the trend toward requiring teachers to have a degree.

Students at 6 former colleges of education reported little diversity in teaching methods (lectures were most common). Concluded that new and varied teaching methods were needed.


New students at 6 diversified former teachers colleges included more men and older students, fewer who had science and maths exam passes and only 1 GCE-A level subject, and more who had modest grades and were middle class. Concluded that differences between college and university students were disappearing.


Begun in the 1890s, postgraduate certification programs for primary and middle school teachers were expanded after 1950 because of the acute teacher shortage.


More PGCE courses were offered, 1974-84, most of them by LEA higher education institutions rather than by universities.


The approach used for evaluating teachers should be determined locally, not nationally.

Influence (1905-40) of the government's Blue Book for teachers, after 1927 known as Handbook of Suggestions for Teachers.


Although primary school teacher education became compulsory in 1970 and secondary school teacher education became compulsory in 1974, provision for teacher training spread rapidly after 1869 and gradually gained status as an academic discipline.


History of teachers' associations and of teachers' salaries, pensions, tenure, qualifications, and school administration.


Former NUT general secretary traced historically how teachers fulfilled or fell short of being a profession by performing a social service, having advanced education and training, having professional freedom, and being largely or wholly self-governing.


Principles and procedures for evaluating teachers in working class urban schools. Evaluation procedures might become more direct because many feared that teacher incompetence was causing educational problems.

Urban school problems from ideological viewpoints: conservative, liberal, radical, and Marxist. Interviewed inner London teachers designated as "good" by their headteachers. Teachers' concept of a good teacher's qualities in effect limited possibilities for radical change.


Teachers' accountability could be assured, not by inspections or tests, but by teachers becoming a self-governing profession, as are doctors and lawyers.


Despite early 1970s government stress on teacher education priority, inservice teacher education was not expanded and preservice teacher education did not improve.


All teacher training--preservice and inservice--should prepare teachers to teach students with special education needs, many of whom attend ordinary schools.


Bristol University's Hillview experiment helped future teachers get better acquainted with 15-year-old working class students soon to leave school by meeting regularly with 2 or 3 of them informally for a year. Suggested ways to improve the teaching of such children.

Applications of information technology (IT) to teacher education and to the education of pupils aged 5-16. Resources needed for IT use.


Teaching practice (1982-83) seen in relation to academic organization, curriculum content, teachers, and teaching methods.


Dissatisfaction with education and belief that poor education caused slow national economic growth led the central government to assume a growing role in teacher education curriculum in the 1970s-80s. The Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (CATE) was formed to strengthen that role.


When demand for teachers declined, many colleges of education were merged with polytechnics (tax supported further education and higher education units). These mergers were more beneficial than harmful.


Secondary school teacher training was either concurrent as part of an undergraduate program or consecutive in a 1-year post-degree program; the latter was handicapped by time constraints. Author proposed a new pattern to combine the best features of concurrent and consecutive teacher training.

Teacher training places were cut from 114,000 to 46,000, 1971-77. Case studies (4) showed the ways used to make cuts (at Darlington, Brighton, Bulmershe, and Bradford Colleges). Described the teacher training pattern proposed to begin in 1981.


Teacher education prestige suffered historically, with university graduates as teachers having more status and nongraduate college of education students awarded the Certificate of Education having less status. The 1944 McNair and 1963 Robbins Reports helped, but not sufficiently, to raise teacher education status. That status could be raised by integrating teacher training into the higher education system, raising admission standards, and freeing students to take a broad curriculum before deciding to become teachers.


Papers on the history of teacher education, the DES role, voluntary and maintained colleges of teacher education, the curriculum, and the need to broaden the function of teachers colleges.


Research findings from East Sussex schools on how to judge inservice education needs, formulate inservice education policies, and evaluate inservice education.


Movement for a national system of teacher evaluation, begun in 1983, led to negotiations with teachers' associations. All agreed that evaluations correctly conducted would be good. But implementing a satisfactory procedure would take time.

The Council's power was limited by the DES contention that policies about teacher supply were its (the DES's) prerogative.


Practical advice for evaluating immigrant pupils' abilities and academic achievement and coping sensitively with their dietary needs, religious education, and other special problems.


Essays on teacher education trends. Contributor H.L. Elvin said that teacher education must join the higher education mainstream and be supplemented by inservice education. Contributor G.N. Brown called the B.Ed. degree inadequate.


Analyzed time use by 129 primary school teachers during 200 school days, 75 weekends, and 150 days when schools were not in session. Teachers spent 25 percent of their time on mechanical chores, 26 percent of whole working days on teaching, and had many interruptions.


Large-scale study with results reported under such headings as: influences on promotion, appointment procedures, and teaching as a career.

How subject-matter specialists should be trained in the 1-year PGCE program: course objectives, content, length and organization, and evaluation criteria.


Related 3 teacher education approaches to the training offered at Manchester Polytechnic. Regarded the personalized approach used in the bachelor's degree program as suitable for preparing religious education teachers.


Examined various kinds of inservice teacher education and found most promising the LEA-established teachers' centers, originally sponsored by the Nuffield Fund and from 1964 by the Schools Council.


U.S. teacher education, more than European teacher education, offered in appropriate model. The major problem was to make teacher education fit the needs of a democratic school system while maintaining university standards.


Teacher education contrasted in Britain, France, other European countries, and the U.S. Focused on the 1972 James Report.

Criticized the Advisory Committee on the Supply and Training of Teachers' mentorship proposals and suggested a more effective alternative.


Recommended 11 ways to increase the supply of good science teachers.


Rural teachers, 1860s-90s, were mainly young women and not college educated.


This statistical survey of all U.K. professional educators at all school levels was done to assist in planning for libraries and other information services.


The teaching profession became more stratified as teacher qualifications increased in number and variety. Such stratification was dysfunctional and was particularly harmful to the male teacher's self image.


Until the mid twentieth century, most primary school teachers had only 2 years of training. Gave reasons for the resistance to better qualified and university degree teachers.

Articles on school-based inservice education, workshops, curriculum projects, and the inservice work of the OU and the College of Preceptors.


Practical advice, opinions, and guide to school laws and regulations which affected teachers and others inside and outside of school.


Examples from 6 LEAs illustrated the structure of teacher-LEA relationships.


Described purposes, forms, and providers of inservice education; made international comparisons; and recommended giving sabbatical leaves and having universities coordinate inservice courses.


Purpose of GCSE Assessment in Mathematics project was to identify materials suitable for training teachers in anticipation of 1991 compulsory GCSE maths test.


Growing central government influence reduced the number of teacher training institutions, increased the importance of university
and postgraduate teacher education, and standardized teacher education by establishing the CATE.


U.S. and British teachers were not considered professional, as were physicians and lawyers, were not a tightly knit group, did not earn fees, and did not control entry into their ranks. Teachers tried to become acceptably professional by acquiring marketable skills and competency (stressing practical school experience) and by associating teaching with university prestige and values (which has distanced teachers from the real world of the classroom). Author urged university schools of education to reconcile these tensions and ambiguities.


England had 2 routes into teaching: concurrent 3 or 4-year (for honors) course leading to a bachelor's degree; and a consecutive 1-year course after a bachelor's degree. Government policy favored the latter consecutive route for all secondary school teachers, leading to the PGCE.


The government-led 4 horsemen of change that frustrated teacher education institutions: accreditation (CATE), validation (CNAA), inspection (HMI), and reallocation (manpower planning for teachers needed in particular fields).

Decision-making, administrative structure, and teachers' role in the process of reducing the number of faculty positions and merging 4 teacher education institutions.


The Association of Teachers in Technical Institutions (ATTI), a professional body, became a trade union and joined the Trades Union Congress in 1967 as a way to strengthen its power in teacher salary decisionmaking.


During a 1-year PGCE program, observed how students changed: their reasons for becoming teachers, the degree of their commitment to teaching in general and to teaching a specific subject, and their attitudes toward education in general. Concluded that students must develop ways to cope with new demands and that they can also produce changes in institutions.


Effect of 1920s socialist thought and the Labor Party on the NUT was seen in activities of the Teachers' Labor League, later renamed the Educational Workers League.


Case studies of teacher unions in 6 countries and of specific issues: merit pay, contracts, and teacher burnout. Ken Jones wrote on the evolution of the NUT.

Studied the relationship between central government and teachers in the 1920s and after the 1944 Education Act. Found that teachers were managed by indirect strategies which limited their professional autonomy.


Improved salaries and terms of service were needed to aid in recruiting and retaining better teachers.


Analyzed the characteristics of a profession; compared British and U.S. teachers and teachers' work. Contrasted teacher-pupil relationships with client relationships in other professions.


Editorial blamed adverse government policy for the declining morale of science teachers.


Revolutionary changes were initiated by the 1972 White Paper, *Education: A Framework for Expansion.* Colleges of teacher education were closed and colleges of higher education were created to function alongside universities and polytechnics. Looked at underlying issues and questions about finance, management, and the control of teacher training and other aspects of education.


Brief history since 1870 of teacher education and likely future trends in preservice and inservice training.
Education in England and Wales


Summary of the institute's activities in teacher education and research, its international role, and its status within the university. Appendices on enrollment statistics, degrees, diplomas, and certificates granted; research grants; and a bibliography of faculty writings.


Dutch teachers visiting Britain in 1981 reported on the aims, organization, inservice training, and curriculum development of teacher centers, with some comparison to The Netherlands.


Examined 1970s changes in teacher education: contraction and restructuring of colleges, introduction of the B.Ed. degree program and of new curricula, increased research and inservice education, and growing influence of the CNAA as a validating body. The major weakness was the division between LEA teacher training and university teacher training.


Despite rapid post-1945 education changes, the 3 countries were dissatisfied with and tried to reform teacher education. Covered context and structure, issues, curriculum, teaching methods, organization and control, and cultural change.

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Used a theoretical model; analyzed how teachers in 5 comprehensive schools developed their careers in secondary schools which were undergoing major changes.


Described the use of computer conferencing, rather than face-to-face meetings, for a 12-week inservice education course on student learning.


Argued that the romantic child-centered approach to educating the disadvantaged disregarded political, economic, and social realities.


Independent study course helped teachers to organize and present complex information, learn from experience, and evaluate themselves.


Argued for an approach to sociology of education in teacher training that was both rigorous and practical in the classroom.


Compared U.S. and English teacher militancy in the face of financial realities and administrative power.

NUT power declined because citizens demanded more influence and the central government took a greater policy role.


Teachers should work cooperatively to help parents use home programs and new information technology with their children.


Surrey County Council recruited middle aged degree holders wanting a second career. They were to be paid during their 1-year PGCE courses to become teachers of maths, physics, technology, or business.


To encourage faculty research, further education (FE) colleges needed to adjust teaching loads and provide sabbatical leave.


The 1972 James Committee Report identified teacher education weaknesses and recommended that a 2-year Diploma of Higher Education program, offering general knowledge, precede professional courses, with first-year teaching treated as training and inservice education continuing throughout a teacher's career. See entry 943.


Origins of teacher centers and their importance in encouraging teachers to work for reform, assume professional responsibilities, and emphasize children's needs.
Teacher Education


Analyzed many aspects of teaching primary school mathematics. Has chapters on a teacher education project and assessment strategies used in England.


Explained the British 5-step teacher career ladder used since the 1940s; its effect on teacher performance, relationships with colleagues, and career decisions; and its possible applications in the U.S.


Described academic control, curriculum, the role of exams, and the organization of teacher education.


Growing classroom computer use would cast teachers in the role of guide, planner, and resource person rather than the "expert" in a particular field.


The Conservative government's proposals for a national curriculum were "misconceived," insensitive to individual student needs, and oriented to skills rather than to creative living.

Wide-ranging educational needs survey by the largest teachers union, which fought for educational equality, quality, expansion at all school levels, and for teachers' rights and salaries. Covered curriculum, teacher supply, inservice education, and government funding.


Called for a 4-year B.Ed. degree program to enrol at least half of intending teachers; a 2-year inservice B.Ed. degree program for serving teachers; and a 2-year program for the PGCE.


Guidelines for protecting teacher tenure, salaries, and status when declining enrollment or other factors caused LEAs to close, merge, or in other ways change schools.


Information on NUT services available to student members (legal aid, insurance, professional support) and on NUT policies, publications, travel offers, and student teaching advice.


NUT supported systematic teacher evaluation as a tool in professional development, unrelated to salary demands or punitive measures by management.


NUT offered student teachers legal aid and assistance, automatic insurance protection, professional help at its regional offices, and publications containing useful advice.
Teacher Education


Critical reaction to each section of the 1983 White Paper, *Teaching Quality*, whose recommendations would not promote quality because they were "inherently critical and hostile" to the teaching profession. See entry 949.


Teacher comments submitted to a body considering the teacher pay dispute showed that teachers' responsibilities were greater, their work more complex, and their work load heavier than in 1974.


The decision of 1 university to begin the B.Ed. degree program was widely accepted by the faculty because they were consulted, if only on less important matters.


Higher education institutions needed flexibility to respond to the demand begun in the 1944 McNair Report that teachers be better educated. Colleges of education needed closer links with university and polytechnic education departments.


The effects of major teacher education reports: the 1925 report (Departmental Committee on the Training of Teachers for Public Elementary Schools) transferred the Teacher's Certificate Examination from the Board of Education to Regional Joint Boards; the 1944 McNair Report initiated University Institutes of Education; the 1963 Robbins Report led to the B.Ed. degree and to making Colleges of Education into University Schools of Education; and the 1972 James Report wanted greater independence for Colleges of Education and a weakening of the university
connection. Authors favored a return to the institutes of Education concept.


A working class child was still likely to have a middle class teacher despite the recruitment of teachers from diverse social backgrounds.


Women teachers were paid less than men because society saw women as dependents and valued family life above women's careers.


Those teachers' centers (over 400 in 1972) involved in national projects were most likely to survive, but LEA support and firm leadership also gave strength.


Believed that implementation of the 1972 James Report would downgrade colleges of education and shift control of teacher training from universities to LEA-controlled councils and the CNAA. See entry 1038.


A study of history teaching and the training of history teachers during 1985-87.

Examined historically the ambivalent relationship between universities and teacher education, cited relevant reports, and concluded that universities saw teacher education as a threat to their status and autonomy.


History teachers (129) in 106 teaching practice secondary schools (most were coeducational comprehensive schools for ages 11-18) felt that in supervising PGCE student teachers they should be practical and supportive. Most favored and taught evidence- and skills-based "new" history.


Few secondary school student teachers were observed to use innovative methods, but PGCE student teachers favored teaching "new" history and used varied teaching methods.


Preliminary report on 1-year PGCE training during 1979-80.


History of university postgraduate teacher training programs.


History of university postgraduate teacher training.

  Studied the government programs to attract able maths, physics, and chemistry graduates into teaching.


  Found a significant mismatch between PGCE training and first-year job assignment, too little help for a substantial minority of first-year teachers, and a great majority (88 percent) still committed to a teaching career.


  Issues raised by a study of the 1-year PGCE training, 1979-80.


  Survey of 1-year university PGCE training courses, 1979-80.


  Rapid growth of enrollment and numbers of women students in colleges of education by 1969 produced overcrowding. A preference for concurrent training (i.e., taking general studies along with pre-degree education courses) complicated the prospects for integrating colleges of education into other institutions.


  Case study of the impact that mid 1970s teacher education reorganization had on careers of 52 college of education faculty.

The political motive for the 1972 White Paper, *Education: A Framework for Change*, was to centralize control. The effect on teachers colleges was drastic: some closed, others merged, and most became aligned with polytechnics. See entry 949.


Proposal to classify courses in the B.Ed. degree program by types of knowledge (propositional or practical) and types of skills taught (organizational or curricular).


HMI proposal that classroom teachers work directly with teacher education institutions in selecting, instructing, supervising, and evaluating students.


Teaching was semiprofessional rather than professional: pay was low, career mobility was usually lateral rather than upward, authority was centralized, and women predominated. Stronger unions with power to control entry to teaching would strengthen teacher professionalism.


New teachers needed a formal induction program during their crucial first year.


Assessed the OU's contributions to professional teacher education, teachers' general education, and provision of supplementary materials for college and university education courses. Concluded that the OU was a major agency for inservice teacher education.


Compared and analyzed the history, characteristics, and influence of teachers' centers in Britain, Norway, the U.S., and Kenya.


Reviewed the status of sociology in the teacher education curriculum, pros and cons about its value to classroom teaching and to teachers' personal development, and the types of sociology syllabi commonly used.


Essays written during 1962-74 about the place and value of sociology in teacher education.


Summarized 4 major 1970s DES-funded teacher education research projects, looked especially at the University of Leicester study of PGCE courses, and suggested likely teacher education research in the 1980s.

Recommended that quality and standards of teacher education be raised, that it have a sound theoretical base, that preservice training last 4 years, and that inservice training be ongoing.


Characterized the institute's activities and problems. Extensive appendices: analysis of student numbers, examination results, graduate degrees and research grants awarded, and staff writings published.


Found that one-fourth of 180 teachers favored using discovery learning at all times, one-third favored it in most curricular areas, and one-third favored it in some curricular areas.


Lectures (6) for teachers: how personality, teacher expectations, motivation, curriculum, and language influenced learning; and the causes of students' deviant school behavior.


Newly qualified, unemployed teachers during their first year became increasingly politicized but were not radicalized. Their interest in and commitment to the political system increased.

Foresaw that polytechnics would be increasingly important in teacher education, that colleges of education would merge with polytechnics, and that sandwich courses would be used in teacher education.


Discussed implications of teacher demand and supply for recruiting and training science teachers.


Colleges of education were created because, historically, universities would not prepare sufficient teachers for primary and secondary schools. Teacher education should be in university departments of education.


An experimental "Applied Education Project" course for students preparing to teach 5-13-year-olds combined academic and professional subjects. These students performed as well as those trained in traditional programs. Students taking the B.Ed. degree did particularly well.


Impact of post-1972 government-ordered reorganization of colleges of education was seen in relation to student characteristics and the courses they took during 1972-76.

The hoped-for coordination between teacher centers and the Schools Council in getting new curricular materials to teachers and into use did not occur.


Replacing the 1965 Remuneration of Teachers Act, the 1987 Teachers' Pay and Conditions Act abolished teachers' rights to negotiate pay, set conditions of service and a new salary structure, and replaced the Burnham Committee with a nonbinding authority. In 1985 fewer than half of all teachers were NUT members. (A government announcement in 1990 said that salary negotiations would be restored to teachers and to their LEA employers.)


How the Burnham system set teacher salaries and determined career patterns.


Despite reorganization, mergers, and the closing of teacher training institutions in the 1970s, teacher education quality did not improve.


Early monitory teacher training until the late 1830s was limited to observing teaching in model schools. The movement for additional primary school teacher training paralleled the growing demand for middle-class secondary school education. Founders of the first teacher training colleges were Derwent Coleridge, Arthur Rigg, and James Kay-Shuttleworth, who believed the main purpose of teacher training was to form student character.

Project-developed materials and methods could help student teachers in their first classroom experience and strengthen their grasp of specific teaching strategies.


Government-financed teacher education needed the confidence of the DES and LEAs, sound decisions, flexibility, and responsiveness to meet the 1990s changing demands for preservice and inservice teacher training.


In the 1970s the DES used both its direct and indirect powers to change the numbers and the nature of teacher education institutions. One complication was that many students, unable to attend universities, entered colleges of education.


Negotiating processes were used, 1969-71, when many colleges of education shifted curricula from preparing mainly secondary school teachers to preparing mainly primary school teachers.


Examined historical phases of St. Luke's College, Exeter, in adapting to increasingly diverse demands and a variety of goals.

The 1912-14 educational proposals, postponed by World War I, called for better teacher pay, pensions, and training. Fears of teacher unrest caused H.A.L. Fisher and the Burnham Committee (founded 1919) to recommend improved teachers' salaries. The national pay scales benefited teachers during 1922-39.


Until the 1960s, primary school teacher education institutions had low status and attracted mediocre faculty. As the B.Ed. degree spread and colleges were linked with universities, they attracted better qualified faculty and developed stronger curricula.


Despite institutional changes in secondary education, content and teaching styles did not keep pace with society's changing expectations.


Only in the 1960s did universities begin teaching professional education courses although many of their education departments were founded in the 1890s.


Predicted that the ERA 88 national curriculum would not assure better schooling. It would weaken teacher professionalism, which was a more promising route for educating students.

Pre-service teacher education courses should avoid the extremes of institution-based theory and practice-based apprenticeship. Instead, future teachers needed to learn craft skills and be open to change, guided by mentor teachers and university tutors.


Recommended a national inservice training program and a career structure to attract and keep the best teachers.


Recommended using an evaluative profile of student teachers instead of a pass/fail marking system.


On the nature of teacher education, its theoretical foundation, and the form and function of student teaching.


Explained first-year teachers' problems, the kind of help provided them by headteachers and principals, and the need for more research into the requirements of first-year teachers.

Teachers' centers took diverse forms in response to various needs and influences. Explained their role in educational change and recommended a national strategy.


Summarized teacher education research on issues relevant to teacher education policymaking.


The 1963 Robbins Report briefly expressed concerns about the structure and funding of teacher education. It recommended separating teacher education from LEAs, linking it with universities, and making teaching a graduate profession.


Projected into the 1990s the likely institutional, structural, governance, and curricular changes in teacher education.


Explained the 11-point salary scale, incentive pay and other pay, pension plan, and conditions of teacher employment.


Information, especially for midcareer adults, on teacher qualifications, grants available during training, and how and where to apply.


Describes teaching as a career in LEA or grant-maintained schools. Lists PGCE programs offered at 86 institutions for bachelor degree holders.

Explained requirements for becoming business education teachers, offered advice for entering teaching as a second career, and illustrated by describing careers of 3 business education teachers.


How to develop an inservice training program for teachers of vocational training.


With numbers of teachers declining, recommended much more inservice education and a new salary policy for teachers of subjects facing a teacher shortage.


Adamson's (1857-1947) logbooks showed teacher education theory and practice at the day training college which became the Department of Education, King's College, London.


Confirmed that the number of degree recipients who entered teaching was relative to the level of unemployment and the salary range in other fields.

Essays (6) on origins, problems, and functions of teachers' centers, especially their influence on curriculum development.


History of teachers' union movement and of post-1945 teacher negotiations. The Burnham Committee, a statutory national body for setting salaries, in the 1970s had increasing problems because of teacher militancy and government intervention.


Essays (9) by university and college of education specialists traced teacher education growth, the role of colleges of education, various curricular aspects, the need for longer training and for more inservice education, and the possible future structure of teacher education.


Growth of teacher training institutions: from church-related residential colleges (1840s) to twentieth century university departments of education.


Growth of undergraduate concurrent courses (teacher training and academic studies combined) and of education as a subject of study in degree programs. Future university role in teacher education.


Single women teachers earned more than married women but less than men teachers, especially in primary schools.

Area Training Organizations (ATO), established to advise and coordinate the various groups involved in teacher education, came after the 1944 McNair Report. There were 23 in 1971.


Broad view of teacher education since 1900, schools' social role, the changing curriculum and teaching methods, lack of reliable research on the teacher's role, and the possible future of preservice and inservice teacher education.


Examined uncertain relations between teachers colleges and universities, the evolution of the B.Ed. degree, and the likely future of teacher education.


Lectures (6) on changing roles and likely future of schools, teachers, teaching methods, and teacher education.


History (1871-1971) of the university's teacher education activities. The university's education department was formed in 1890 on the Cross Committee's recommendation that universities add such departments. The university became independent of the University of Durham in 1963.

Described the scope, objectives, structure, and activities of the project, established in 1974 at the University of Leeds.


The White Paper, *Teacher Quality*, required that secondary school teachers study their major subject 2 years, that teaching methods be emphasized, and that future teachers be apprenticed to a qualified teacher. See entry 949.


As job prospects for university graduates in all fields improved, only half as many in 1986 sought teaching positions (70 percent of them women), as in 1980.


Advice for student teachers and supervisors on making classroom observation useful.


Despite lofty goals, teacher education seemed diffuse, student teachers easily disenchanted, and schools provided too little help for first-year teachers.


With enrollment declining, allocating teachers according to curriculum needs was replacing the simpler student-teacher ratio method. This DES-sponsored study found that curriculum-based staffing assured enough teachers for a specific curriculum but had many limitations.

Their professional values greatly affected the way men physical education teachers perceived their roles in a particular teaching situation.


Analyzed opinions given to the Select Committee on Teacher Training—the basis for the 1972 James Report. Concluded that the report fairly represented these opinions, which reflected the complexity of teacher education practice. See entry 943.


Inservice teacher education from the viewpoint of the Schools Council, LEAs, universities, p.t.technics, and teachers colleges.


Teachers drew on such disciplines as philosophy, educational psychology, sociology, history, and curricular studies in developing course materials for a well-rounded preservice maths methods course.

Teacher training should include more multiracial, multicultural, and comparative education courses.


Historical, academic, and financial reasons for teaching comparative and international education.


Surveyed 27 universities and 30 polytechnics and colleges to learn why the number of students preparing to teach physics increased by 75 percent during 1979-81.


Conservative Education Secretary Kenneth Baker in teacher wage negotiations pressed for merit pay, more extra teacher duties, and an increased central government role.


U.S. secondary school teachers of economics were usually prepared in the social studies. British secondary school teachers of economics studied that subject in the sixth form and specialized in it in college. The teaching syllabus for economics was set externally to coordinate with exams, and inservice courses were offered by the Economics Association and other bodies.


The effect of sex discrimination and stereotyping on female maths and science underachievement was targeted in preservice and inservice teacher education courses at 1 teachers college.

Despite their stronger interest in competitive sports than in teaching, incoming physical education teacher trainees did not lose interest in teaching.


Summary of evidence given to the House of Commons Select Committee on Education and Science in 1968.


Report of a survey of special education headteachers about the 1986 Education Act requirement that all teachers be evaluated. The main appraisal methods suggested were interviews, classroom observation, and self-appraisal. Headteachers urged that the process support improved teaching.


Both Britain and Ghana failed to plan appropriately for teacher supply. They expanded teacher education rapidly in the 1960s only to make sharp reductions in the 1970s.


Materials for mathematics methods course to be taught in the 1-year PGCE program were based on evidence that undergraduate maths courses did not meet future teachers' needs.

Office for Europe, World Health Organization, 1981. ERIC ED 204 289.

Papers from the U.K., Denmark, France, West Germany, and the USSR on teacher training for the health professions.


Urged that university schools of education strengthen their practice-oriented educational research.


Research findings on teaching skills, class management during student teaching, asking questions, explaining the new teacher's job, and related topics.


Student teacher reactions showed that schools and teacher training institutions needed to strengthen their partnership in supervising student teaching.


Identified and evaluated various approaches to supervising student teaching.


Surveyed attitudes of college of education faculty toward their teaching role, their student-teacher interaction, the access to education and resources, and the curriculum.

Used teachers' own job descriptions to identify their roles, activities, status, and experiences within those roles.


Analyzed effect of changes in starting salary on teacher supply, determinants of teachers' decisions to change schools, and ways salary structure was manipulated to achieve salary differentials in subjects faced with a teacher shortage. Summarized other research and compared findings about U.S. teacher supply.
CHAPTER 8
Higher Education. A. Universities


Evaluated the first 15 years of 7 new universities which the government created in the 1960s to provide an ideal educational experience.


Origins, development, and future of such university staff officers as the registrar and others; influence of the admissions council and the University Grants Committee (UGC).


University expansion, urged by the 1963 Robbins Report, lagged because of public disenchantment, government cuts, and fewer young people.


Essays, 1959-72, on how universities adapted to societal needs, especially technological and scientific needs.

Concluded from University of Salford data that the best way to increase university teaching effectiveness was to encourage more faculty research and to emphasize student-centered learning.


Described efforts for closer relationship between universities and industrial and commercial concerns.


Renewal of Oxford University's academic excellence in the early nineteenth century, as told through the letters of G.R. Chinnery, student of Charles Lloyd at Christ Church College.


Nostalgic look at Oxford's past as pressure for research and practical studies grew.


Founded in 1928 by a gift from T.R. Ferens, the University of Hull operated under the University of London until 1954, when it received its charter.


Because of government cuts, universities lost to industry many teachers in engineering, technology, mathematics, and computer sciences. The universities turned to short-term contracts that did not assure a teaching career.
Higher Education. A. Universities


The structure, government, management, effectiveness, and purpose of higher education. Lamented higher education's growing centralization as funded by the UGC and as directed toward national objectives by the Department of Education and Science (DES).


Political science should be taught by those with experience in politics.


Disheartened by Conservative party's higher education policies, 200 or more top British scholars moved to U.S. universities.


Compared how faculty members, faculty groups, lower administrators, and central administration influenced university decisionmaking in the U.S. and in England.


Economics teaching, University of Durham, 1879-1946, was influenced by Cambridge University and the teaching of Frank Byron Jevons (1858-1936).

Examined inter-university cooperation and self-examination as ways to help universities despite funding cuts.


Former British educator bemoaned the stagnation created in universities by DES intervention and consequent damage to university experimentation.

1184. Bowen, Ezra, and John Wright. "Defecting to the West: Britain's Loss of Bright Young Academics is America's Gain." Time, 127, 26 (June 30, 1986), 77.

Britain lost 1,404 university faculty to industry or universities abroad in 1985, mainly to the U.S., Germany, and France, because of higher salaries and better research facilities. Britain's full professors annually averaged $30,000 compared to U.S. $42,000, with academic stars earning much more. Said a Save British Science spokesman: Britain has "no overall policy or concept of what they should be doing in supporting science."


Covered the founding of University College, London in 1826, which broke the Oxbridge monopoly, to the 1963 Robbins Report. Despite expansion, British university enrollment was small by U.S. and European standards because of the assumption that universities should cater to an elite.


History of the two major universities; has many photographs.


Viewed universities as centers for acquiring, transmitting, and advancing knowledge in an atmosphere of tolerance, honesty, and compassion.


The goals of state intervention accompanying university expansion since the 1940s were to control public expenditures and broaden higher education.


The background and consequences of the 1963 Robbins Report: rapid university expansion with wide political support; later contraction and a questioning of the government's role.


Explored ways to improve cost effectiveness of higher education. Developed teaching load models. Tried to establish relationship between faculty and student numbers.


Profiled 10 country/areas, including England and Wales, to show the relationship between secondary school and higher education and ways universities shaped schools.

1192. Committee of Vice-Chancellors and Principals of the Universities of the United Kingdom. British Universities' Guide to Graduate
Graduate courses (2,500 in 54 subject groups) and programs were described. Each university was depicted academically, with information on social atmosphere, residential accommodations, fees, grants, and scholarships available.


Information on universities' entrance requirements, courses, location, academic organization and size, and residential and social facilities.


Report on university research funding (Sir Alec Merrison, chair) recommended that each university set up a committee to press for research support.


Government White Paper announced new policies in higher education: enrolling more students to produce skilled people for Britain's economic needs, removing polytechnics and other colleges from local education authority (LEA) supervision, strengthening their finances and management, and reforming UGC along Croham Report lines (DES. Review of the University Grants Committee. Command 81. London: HMSO, 1987), which recommended
replacing the UGC with a new, smaller, industry-oriented Universities Funding Council (UFC).


Discussed the Secretary of State for Education and Science's comments on more direct government administrative and funding control over university teaching and research.


Controversial attempt, despite money cutbacks, to bring new young faculty and researchers into universities.


Proposed changing university financing by basing allocations on "academic units."


Dons (in 1850 essentially a clerical society of Anglicans) in 1900 were professional teachers who had no science and research funding and also had no prescribed route up the academic ladder.


Oxford dons helped professionalize university teaching. The movement toward specialization affected other developing professions.

More research was needed on the internal history of higher education, on educational ideals, and on universities' relation to society.


Discussed the effects of traditional efforts to maintain university autonomy while keeping state intervention at a minimum.


Probed recent important reports for key elements of ideal university governance: equality, democracy, self-validation, academic (not lay) control, and autonomy (non-society and non-state interference). Author noted that there was no sustained intellectual rationale for this ideal.


To make up for lagging government support, universities raised foreign students' fees and sought private donations.


Higher education must include more part-time and mid-career training courses, must form partnerships with industry, and must make the system attractive to potential students.

Recommended better administrative methods, planning, and financial management techniques.


With central government pressure for research to fit national needs, universities would likely rely on external research funding.


Higher education staff development (teaching and nonteaching staff), including inservice training, was analyzed, using data from 46 universities and 20 polytechnics.


Government cuts in university research funds threatened fundamental research, as data for the Merrison Report (Command 8567, 1982) showed.


Universities were intended to serve general civilizing purposes, not merely to promote national economic goals.


Oxford continued to draw the best students, attract strong faculty, and provide excellent career opportunities for its graduates.


Applied Weber's theory of leadership and authority to a study of power, leadership, and academic/administrative influence at Oxford.

Predicted dramatic university changes as emphasis shifted to costly equipment, larger enrollments, and capital-intensive teaching.


Sociological analysis of higher education faculty views after the 1963 Robbins Report found that most feared rapid expansion and preferred traditional, elitist universities. Has historical section. Foresaw growth of parallel higher education for the masses.


Faculty mobility was small; 94 percent stayed in the same university in 1937 and 1938; 92 percent in 1967 and 1968. The preferred universities were Oxbridge, London, Redbricks, with little interest in the new universities.


Views of highly regarded professors on university reform and government influence and control.


Researchers on short-term contracts contributed much to universities (more than half surveyed at Bristol University also teach) but had little job security.


Criticism of the government's 1985 Green Paper, The Development of Higher Education into the 1990's (Command 9524), urging more efficient expenditure on higher education.
research in view of a 13 percent fall in full-time students to the mid-1990s. Some mergers and closings might result. See entries 1196, 1222, 1253, and 1316.


Cuts in government grants (announced in 1981 for 1983-84) would require universities to reduce their staff and programs and to seek funds from business, overseas students, and other sources.


Examined universities' responses to a November 1983 UGC questionnaire calling for emphasis on a scientific and technical curriculum, for more research (despite heavier teaching loads), and for closer ties to industry.


Criticized the government's Green Paper, *The Development of Higher Education into the 1990's* (Command 9524), which recommended that universities become the training arm of industry in return for more funding from industry. See entries 1196, 1219, 1222, 1253, and 1316.


European studies courses grew, mainly at new universities and polytechnics, where business and political personnel were trained for work on the continent.


To survive, universities must serve older and part-time students, previously ignored.

Compared student life, 1930s and 1960s; the need to understand university-society relationships; and the need for appropriate counseling for students.


Administrative history of nineteenth and twentieth century urban universities.


History of higher education governance, from late medieval to early modern periods.


Universities' role in transmitting and expanding knowledge was threatened by government interference, a consequence of government's providing most university funding. Called for a new system of higher education finance that would reduce government interference.


Physics professor Tyndall attracted funding and staff to raise Bristol University's physics department to international stature.


Followup study (1960-66) of *Six Years After*. Of the men and women who earned a first degree in universities and colleges, few at the top were of working class origin. Women had limited opportunities for jobs and professional achievement.

Photos and descriptions of ancient buildings and the architecture of 22 ancient colleges.


Academic experts described subjects offered, institutions where these could be studied, course content, each institution's entrance requirements, and the careers each degree might lead to.


Described universities and all other higher education institutions offering graduate study and their programs in all fields.


General overview of policy changes in grant-awarding bodies. Listed institutions and courses available in the humanities; social sciences; biological, health, and agricultural sciences; physical sciences; and engineering and applied sciences.


Britain, whose university entrants must score high on secondary school leaving exams, can learn to offer wider access opportunity from the longer experience of U.S. urban universities.

Statistical study of city and university economic and social interaction.


Chapters on university organization, goals, governance, performance, control, and effectiveness.


Background since 1913 and current operation of this major retirement plan for all higher education teachers and related staff.


Architectural style changes before and after 1914, especially among "redbrick" (i.e., newer) universities.


After 1870 elite institutions continued to serve relatively few students; other institutions served a hierarchy of higher education needs that paralleled the social strata.


Overview of universities' history, organization, courses, and the impact of the political climate.

Fifteenth century Oxford University continued medieval preference for theology, law, and medicine; more of lower classes seeking gentry status began to enroll.


Universities Statistical Record substantiated the extent of regional bias in awarding university places.


Cambridge graduates in the natural sciences and mathematics played a major role in pre-World War I public life.


Oxford trained most of Britain's philosophy faculties, giving only one approach to the field. Universities should not specialize in a few disciplines because bias can dominate.


Faculty decisions about public affairs constituted a collective policy for universities.


Money, trade unions, and academic staff pressures would likely cause future problems.

Surveyed research, 1960-75, on the social composition of sixteenth and seventeenth century university students. Also on the relationship of university education to intellectual movements of the time.


How to cope with prospective reduction in the rate of university expansion in the 1970s.


Daily life, history, and famous students, Middle Ages to 1945.


Experimental Keele University, conceived by Lord Lindsay, included a compulsory "common core" year. Evaluation of its accomplishments, weaknesses (incompetent administrators, competitive faculty), and the influence of the UGC.


Summarized the new universities' history and programs.


Critical of the government's 1985 Green Paper, *Development of Higher Education into the 1990's* (Command 9524), for ignoring the large 16-19 age group and for favoring the status quo. Proposed a new postsecondary framework, increased funding, and emphasis on developing individuals for a more egalitarian society. Sections on Choice and Entitlement, Control and Accountability, and Content and Standards. See entries 1219 and 1222.

Grants seemed proportional to the amount requested in research proposals.


Universities should teach humanities and produce well-rounded individuals, not merely experts.


The DES funded 312 new positions, most of them in information technology, physical sciences, engineering, and medicine. Modern universities received few new positions; Oxford received 21 and Cambridge, 24.

1257. Paulson, Stanley F. "The Struggle to Broaden Liberal Education in English Universities." *Liberal Education*, 68, 3 (Fall 1982), 201-09.

History of higher education curriculum and recent efforts to end overspecialization.


Ways universities were responding to changing demands and possibility that polytechnics might outdo universities.


Six technical colleges used centralized decisionmaking and hierarchies of authority over areas of work.

University philosophy department teachers fell from 400 in 1980 to 320 in 1986. Only 13 were appointed to first-time university philosophy posts, 1980-85. Budget cuts were destroying philosophy departments.


Account of a U.S. student at Trinity College, Cambridge University.


Early nineteenth century curricular emphases at Oxford and Cambridge universities were contrasted: Oxford, classics; Cambridge, mathematics. By 1850 pressure grew for broader offerings and more specialization.


Relations between higher education and the state were not orderly nor codified. The many types of higher education required various methods of control and administration. LEAs maintained or aided over 500 further education centers, including polytechnics and colleges of education. The UGC provided state funds for universities.


Cambridge resisted teaching economics because of inertia, low academic standards, and the fear of partisanship and change.

Higher Education. A. Universities


The General Certificate of Education-Advanced (GCE-A) level exam measured student performance but not aptitude and was but one tool universities, all of them independent, used to select students for admission.


Although class-ridden education lost the country much potential talent, universities enrolled a higher proportion of working class students than did French or West German universities.


University administration relied on consensus and few written rules.


More conventional students than adults gained university admission.


Personal view of changes since 1930s--students, buildings, the Bodleian Library, Clarendon Press, and Blackwell's Bookshop.


Women received a lower percentage of both top and "weakest" honors degrees than men (1967 and 1978-79); findings attributed to sex differences and to women's lower scores on I.Q. tests.

Characteristics of graduate students; a graduate loan program was likely to be needed.


Reasons offered why fewer working class and adult applicants entered universities.


On getting university research funds and staff as demand for new knowledge grew.


Urban universities (Birmingham, Bristol, and Manchester) educated middle class students as workers and managers in local industry and commerce. Discussed how university-industrial collaboration had strengthened higher education.


Compared adult education development and current trends.


Oxford would become increasingly like other British universities as demographics and socioeconomic changes alter higher education.

After 1973, universities were demoralized by cuts in funds, by fewer student places, and by government demands for efficiency and economic relevance.


As universities changed from transmitting elitist, cultural, and intellectual values to teaching technological and scientific vocationalism, their disparate functions caused their decline. Recommended a new synthesis that recaptured traditional values while promoting social and educational needs.


The relationship between exam scores and academic success was statistically significant but weak (perhaps a scoring error).


First history professors at Oxford (William Camden, 1622) and Cambridge (Fulke Greville, 1627) were appointed more to help reform government and society than to enlighten students.


Universities having expanded and then retrenched, author combined short-term planning with longer term strategic objectives.


Assessed end of growth, budget cuts, and new management priorities at 13 universities.

Found in introducing 2 new courses for medical and engineering students that acceptance of the innovations required complex faculty bargaining, negotiation, and compromise.


First attempted in 1844; after opposition, the first professor of modern languages taught Russian in 1848. This course lapsed until 1870, and a modern languages school was established in 1903, with Russian taught after 1904.


On changes in the social class of students.


Ph.D. programs (first begun at Oxford) were German and U.S. imports. Reasons for the delay in Britain was explored.


Examined 9 universities' responses to UGC's 1981-82 cuts, considered policy implications for DES and UGC, and stressed leadership and managerial roles of vice chancellors and other administrators.

Higher Education. A. Universities

On their history, internal and external organization, finance, student access, academic programs, faculty and staff, statistics, current situation, first degree subjects; has names of officers, departments heads, and professors.


Conceptual model of an administrator's concerns; included influence of European, Australian, and North American university expansion.


First 50 years of a college started for "men of moderate means" by Anglican evangelicals.


Older students who lacked recognized qualifications but were admitted to universities through a special-entry scheme did well. Recommended offering them more financial and other encouragement.


Included colleges of education and local education authorities (LEAs) in a list of research in progress after November 1972 on administration, teaching methods, specific subject areas, student recruitment and advisement, further and adult education, and medical education.


Abstracts of papers on various aspects of higher education in the U.K. and a few other countries.

Research done by the Nuffield Group for Research and Innovation in Higher Education on student selection, university teaching methods, and other topics.


University faculty attitudes about research and pressures to do research.


Universities of Nottingham and Manchester adult education programs, degrees, and teaching staffs were described.


Examined college administration proposals in government circular 77/70: roles of chief administrative officers and department heads. Compared with French higher education administration.


Social milieu at Oxbridge; also student subcultures, curriculum, and the emergence of the academic profession.


Best size of U.K. and U.S. universities discussed, along with considerations of reputation, academic standing, student concern for community and environmental values, and administrator's concern for cost. Appropriate maximum size, 12,000.

Arabic chairs were established in the seventeenth century. Government funds began at Oxford in 1699, and at Cambridge in 1714, for training translators of official documents.


Few universities except Lancaster, Hull, and the Open University (OU) welcomed part-time students, mainly for lack of funds. Author urged acceptance of more adult part-time students, especially at universities linked to industry.


Explained demographic and academic reasons for the University of Bath's unpopular planning and policy decisions.


Universities must forge strong links with industry and hire more young scientists if research is to continue.


Education helps create elites. Those elites who influence allocation of university funds also have more influence on university policy.

Studied shared educational and social backgrounds of members of 18 elite groups, their contribution, and their relationship to all other elites.


Used Aston University to illustrate internal restructuring and decisionmaking processes since 1981. Despite cuts in funding, enrollment, staff, and programs, Aston made such major innovations as a Science Park, an Extension Education Center, and campus redevelopment.


Most 1987 university graduates took banking and finance jobs. Applicants for civil engineering and electronics declined 15 percent and 7 percent respectively; government's efforts to recruit more into science and technology failed.


Parliament limited degree granting to 49 institutions approved by DES, only one of which (the private University of Buckingham) did not receive government funds.


Doubling enrollment (and adding more women and minorities), raising local colleges to university status, and increasing private funding were recommended in the Secretary for Education and Science's 25-year higher education plan.

Possible requirements were that higher education students pay tuition costs (until now free) and, if necessary, obtain loans.


Government wanted to end tenure so that faculty could be laid off for poor performance or to save money.


Academic reaction was mixed to *A Strategy for the Science Base*, prepared by the Advisory Board for the Research Councils for the Thatcher government. It recommended funding selected centers of excellence to produce major scientific research.


Secretary of State for Education and Science Kenneth Baker promised increased funds and expanded admissions (including nontraditional students) but called for more money from business for more higher education students.


Rumored shifts away from government subsidies toward 10-year loans to higher education students evoked Labor Party and student organizations' opposition.

Using the Stanford University-"Silicon Valley" model, half of Britain's universities planned to open research parks to link faculty expertise with the needs of high technology companies.


The Thatcher government's 1985 Green Paper, *The Development of Higher Education into the 1990s* (Command 9524), called for curricular shift toward natural sciences and technology, cuts in faculty and students, and stress on positive attitudes toward work. See entries 1219, 1222, and 1253.


Abolition of tenure in the Education Reform Act of 1988 (ERA 88) prompted the House of Lords to demand a new law to guarantee academic freedom, and protect faculty from dismissal because of their views.


Association of University Teachers' statement: salary levels were "now too low to retain the quality of staff needed to produce the number and quality of graduates the country needs."


Bristol University's court order banning 18 students from disrupting a history professor's classes was one of several incidents behind Parliament's demand for a ban on student disruptions.

A university management report for the Committee of Vice Chancellors recommended setting faculty evaluation criteria, having governing councils plan efficient use of funds, putting a lay majority on governing boards, and perhaps abolishing the UGC.


Provisions in ERA 88 to abolish tenure and the UGC, regarded by universities as threats to academic freedom, provoked intense lobbying.


New admissions policies would favor students from government-supported secondary schools, previously a minority at Oxford and Cambridge.


The Association of University Teachers, representing some 30,000 faculty, won a salary increase for 1985-86; average professor's salary, about $19,600 annually.


Using unspecified criteria that seemed to emphasize success in winning research grants, the UGC ranked universities and set plans for government aid to 1990.

Agreeing to tighten tenure, eliminate small departments, and strengthen science research, universities would get a 7 percent increase in 1987, nearly $2.05 billion.


"Employers will strip out our best academics, the people we need to train the next generation," said a university spokesman, attributing the shortage to low pay and poor prospects. By 2000 retiring professors would outnumber candidates to replace them.


Before the University of London took over its work (1901), the London Society organized extension teaching.


Wanting higher education efficiency, government ended tenure. Budget cuts threatened Oxford's tutorial system and spurred a financial campaign among the 116,000 living graduates (10,000 in the U.S.).


After 10 years of government higher education cuts, students opposed government's proposal to end state grants for student room and board in 1990 and to offer interest-free loans.

The effect of the 1980 government ruling that overseas students, formerly subsidized, must pay tuition fees based on the full cost of their university education.


As research funding declined, universities would become less important as research centers; teaching and research might be separated.
CHAPTER 8
Higher Education. B. General


Powerful plea for scholarly autonomy, self validation (U.S., certification of programs), and polytechnic independence.


Background, changes, characteristics, aspirations, program selection, and academic experiences of students who entered 3 colleges in 1976.


Projected higher education enrollment and suggested that the Department of Education and Science (DES) projections might be off by 50,000 students in 1980.

Described college and university expansion, 1957-67, attributed to Britain's need for technologists and applied scientists.


"Management by objective" view of local education authority (LEA)-maintained further education and higher education colleges.


Papers on higher education: history, growth, structure, international comparisons, engineering, colleges of education, graduate education, finance, and planning.


Among the 32 papers about higher education at the national level, about institutional evaluation, and about assessment of staff and students: M.C. Davis, "The CNAA as a Validating Agency"; E.G. Edwards and I.J. Roberts, "Significance and Limitations of the Robbins Principle"; Donald Bligh et al., "'A' Level Scores and Degree Classifications as Functions of University Type and Subject"; A. Hindmarch and Tom Bourner, "Examination Results: Universities and the CNAA"; John Sizer, "Indicators in Times of Financial Stringency, Contraction, and Changing Needs"; M.S. Burnip et al, "Indicators in Polytechnics"; Paul Ramsden, "Evaluating the Quality of Learning Environments"; and W.D. Furneaux, "Validity of Indicators of Performance."

Annotated bibliography of studies of students already selected for higher education and their predicted success based on General Certificate of Education-Advanced (GCE-A) level exams.


Papers on curriculum and teaching from Leverhulme seminar.


Listed Britain's higher education institutions by their subject specialties.


Reasons for recent growth and characteristics of part-time business students.


Accreditation, admission, costs, student life, and courses in colleges, polytechnics, and universities.


Essays on enrollment projections, cost restraints, the binary policy, and relationship between universities and polytechnics.


Reprint of 16 journal articles.

Papers (27) based on research into teaching methods, student life and unrest, selection and academic performance, staffing and governance, and economic and manpower studies.


Historical background and description of all levels of higher education, including the legal basis, types of institutions, relationship to secondary education, administration and control, programs and degrees, finance, teaching staff, research, current problems and trends, and relations with industry.


Problems of evaluating cooperative university-industrial firm programs. Example: linking Brunel University and Henley Management College with Molins Ltd.


Purposes, structure, and methods of higher education, including the nonuniversity sector; proposed changes in finance, governance, and other aspects.


Evaluated the proposal made to solve higher education problems (fiscal and others) by substituting competition and market mechanisms for existing free higher education.

Called for higher education to serve the economy, pursue basic scientific research, and forge links with industry and commerce.


Case studies included university teaching, curriculum labs, biology teaching, architecture, and medical education technologies.


Likely demand for part-time, full-time, adult, graduate, and foreign student education was projected for each year.


Enrollment statistics since 1970. Demographic projections for full-time, sandwich, and part-time enrollments to the year 2000.


Government Green Paper on intent to link higher education and industry, produce more technical graduates, and reduce costs because of a declining 18-19-year-old population during 1984-96.

Despite slowed growth and declining enrollments, higher education innovation continued, as seen in the Open University (OU) and the multiplying number of institutions and subjects taught.


   Looked at the trends and philosophy accompanying expansion.


   Discussed alternative models of organizational structure.


   Listed obstacles to higher education reform in government, institutions, politics, economics, and other areas.


   Explored ways to expand demand for and improve access to higher education.


   Papers (7) on such issues as characteristics of students qualifying for admission, Britain/U.S. comparisons, factors affecting choices by those aged 15-18, choices faced by mature students, access for overseas students, and demand for and access to graduate, full-time, and part-time study.

Described U.K. higher education structure.


Believed that academic freedom would decline as England approximated U.S. higher education organizational structure.


Review of Leverhulme Foundation, *Excellence in Diversity* (Guildford: Society for Research into Higher Education, University of Surrey, 1983), a major plan for higher education, whose main recommendation was for a new 2-year general studies degree, followed by honors degree or vocational diploma, and master's degree and doctorate. Teaching and research would be partly separated and polytechnics would do much applied research.


Analyzed the findings on curriculum innovation at universities and polytechnics during 1972-76. Concluded that the changes were not substantial and that autonomy and academic freedom have both negative and positive effects on innovation.


Found that British scientists working in the U.S. were attracted as much by "opportunity for enterprise" as by money and by strong support for translating science into profitable products.

Secondary education structure limited potential college applicants. Oxford should admit more students from state-run schools.


Essays on teacher education after the 1972 James Report, the relation of teacher education departments to the new polytechnics, the OU interdisciplinary courses, and universities' adult education responsibilities.


Saw continuing conflict between universities and polytechnics as the latter insisted on leveling upward.


Argued that structural change in the economy between World Wars I and II underlay the postwar debates among politicians, civil servants, and pressure groups on higher technological education.


Papers (11) on the effect of public funding and/or private funding on present and future success of higher education and other topics.


Argued that higher education remained elitist, partly because of the lower status of polytechnics. Social class differences among students were growing, and government was strengthening control over higher education finance.

Sections on English and Welsh polytechnics, the OU, Britain's planning for higher education innovation, and what Britain can learn from European higher education developments.


Viewed the 1963 Robbins Report on higher education in terms of the worsened national economic condition and from a less elitist-more utilitarian outlook.


Papers (9) on universities, colleges of education, professors, finance, and related topics.


Universities and polytechnics must become more responsive to national needs.


Papers (10) on biases in higher education: by class, geography, race, age, sex, religion, disability, and language.

Examined the effects of Hegelian philosophy, the rise of science, and the influence of Matthew Arnold, T.H. Green, and R.B. Haldane on higher education reform.


Looked at the relationship between secondary schools and higher education. Professionalism was needed in higher education to influence administrative reforms.


Broadening higher education's academic, social, and cultural reach undermined its previous (and considerable) solidarity, autonomy, values, and privileges—more so than in European countries.


Pressures since 1979, such as loss of political support, budget cuts, and enrollment decline, led to reform and new structures.


The decline of full-time students reflected the disillusionment of parents, students, and politicians over higher education benefits to the individual and to society.


Papers (10) include the future relationship of government and higher education institutions, evaluation of the binary system, and value of Council for National Academic Awards (CNAA) certificates.

Student and employer expectations and attitudes have not received sufficient attention in the history of higher education.


In reviewing of higher education, the author suggested that more attention be paid to both manpower needs and professional needs.


The curriculum and research issues discussed included course content, vocational education, relations with industry, technological change, science research support, academic freedom, and institutional management.


Educational quality, cost effectiveness, and relevance needed attention. Found good indications for cooperation between the government and institution.


Found a low demand for part-time higher education and no way to predict the level and nature of that demand. Recommended regional centers to improve communication among employers, employees, and institutions.

Problems of part-time students: lack of time for study, library use, and faculty conferences; and cost of books. Recommended ways better management could reduce student and faculty problems.


Suggested ways to overcome barriers to admitting more older students.


Profile of higher education structure, degrees, diplomas, and certificates granted. Has a glossary.


Derek Ager's review of the report [in *New Scientist*, 104, 1435/36 (December 20/27, 1984), 63.] noted a shift to more science and technology, suggested broadening of sixth form courses, showed concern about a shortage of young teaching staff, and hoped for more graduate fellowships. Ager said financial expediency caused the report to criticize small departments.


Conference papers on the politics of higher education change in Britain and other countries. Assessed institutional performance, finance, planning, academic tenure, review of courses, and student credit transfer.

Declining numbers of overseas students attributed to decision that all but European Economic Community students pay full costs. Some partial subsidies introduced for third world students.


Summarized findings from higher education surveys, explored secondary school students' images of selected higher education institutions, compared how Britain and the U.S. matched students to available higher education institutions, and concluded that student choice remained limited by social-class distinctions.


Analyzed the slowdown of higher education growth.


Traced changed patterns of higher education student supply and labor demands.


Need for innovation; obstacles to innovation.


Explored themes, issues, and recommendations of the Leverhulme study.

Covered the 1963 Robbins Report and subsequent changes in higher education over the last 20 years, including autonomy, teacher tenure, and management.


Comprehensive view of expense, benefits, foreign policy implications, and problems accompanying Britain’s 1980 change from subsidizing to requiring full cost from overseas students.


Massive higher education growth since the 1960s altered student social composition. New inequalities appeared. Greater access led to more limited student expression.


While impressive in exploring higher education’s future, the Leverhulme Study was faulted for not outlining available options and implications.


Covered access, kinds of studies, costs and support, underrepresentation of women, and other aspects of adults in first degree programs at a time of shrinking government resources.
CHAPTER 8
Higher Education. C. Open University (OU)


Four surveys, 1977-79, on employers' attitudes toward the Open University (OU), its graduates as employees, status of OU degrees in relation to standard degrees, and vocational courses needed.


Having survived early hurdles, OU needed to refine internal decisionmaking. Praised the OU "course team" concept.


Entire issue is on the British OU, its adaptations in the U.S., and its impact on libraries.


On the development of computer education and computer-aided learning during the OU's first 10 years.


Why videotape equipment instruction program for Yorkshire OU extension students resulted in an unusually high rate of equipment use.


Argued that OU failed and was not a technical college. For Martin Trow’s response, see entry 1484.


Described the OU and its instructional components; short-cycle inservice teacher education courses; and courses in health, social welfare, and adult and community education.


Academic advising and tutoring needs of OU students in Scotland.


Described OU as the largest university (founded 1969). Students were mostly employed teachers or other adults who read assigned texts, listened to radio and TV lectures, attended local study centers, and wrote papers for undergraduate and graduate degrees. Nondegree continuing education was the OU’s fastest growing sector.

Described advisory (counseling) support for OU associate students not necessarily taking a degree program (might be taking professional continuing education or undergraduate courses).


Described OU as an open admissions university that had not lowered academic standards and approximated the tutorial relationships of older British universities.


Reviewed 5 research papers on the credibility of distance education, administration, methods in adult basic education, and OU programs in Britain, Costa Rica, and the Canary Islands.

1419. Dallos, Rudi. "Active Learning and Television." *Teaching at a Distance*, 17 (Spring 1980), 39-44.

Traditional television broadcasts dominated OU. Use of video replay had not reached full potential.


Questioned raising OU student fees and examined Minister of Education Rhodes Boyson's arguments for such an increase.


Described several formats of OU educational TV programs.


OU Dean and Director of Studies told how its curriculum and organizational structure developed. He discussed the working class enrollment and the acceptability of OU degrees.

How students used in-text questions. The findings suggested negligible benefits from them.


Papers on the effectiveness of higher education, educational technology, the OU, and assessment.


Practical problems of OU's Humanities Foundation Course in History taught by Arthur Marwick. Straight lecture rather than mixed audiovisual sequences was preferred.


Traced OU's very first course in curriculum design, mentioning faculty interpersonal relationships and time pressures in producing study materials and television presentations.


Evaluated Britain's OU methods and materials after a year's use at Rutgers University and the universities of Houston and Maryland.


On the OU role in continuing education, professional and in-service training, and in community education.

Types of evaluations used at OU included access, needs, courses, student progress, tutors and counselors, instructional media, and the academic staff.


Successes, cost effectiveness, and application to the U.S. of Britain's OU.


Brief history of the OU: its conception, organization, successes, and disappointments. Explained the budget process, government involvement, and controversies.


Concluded that developmental testing for credit (i.e., trying out draft learning materials for student feedback before actual use) resulted in useful course modification at low cost.


Compared aims and methods of various other open universities with those of the OU.


Concluded after comparing earnings and costs that studying at the OU was a worthwhile private investment for men and women secondary school teachers, and even the middle aged.

1435. Hodgson, B.K., and P.J. Murphy. "A CAL-Based Distance Education Project in Evolution: 2. Evaluation of the CAL-Based

Compared a computer-assisted learning (CAL) project with 3 conventional projects in an OU course on evolution.


Identified what the content of distance education as an academic discipline should be.


OU's teaching system was faulted for too much didactic presentation of knowledge and student memorization.


The OU's Regional Tutorial Services Unit, which linked regional and central offices, counseled students, and maintained enrollment: its structure, operation, and problems during the first 10 years.


Discussed the importance of the OU's success in solving the dropout problem in external degree programs.

1440. Kirk, Pauline. "Local Support Services in Continuing Education: New Opportunities?" Teaching at a Distance, 21 (Summer 1982), 45-51.

OU programs for women (mothers and homemakers) in 2 geographic areas indicated a need for regional counseling and regional scheduling.

Campus universities should use more existing OU course materials because per-student cost is usually lower.


OU learning quality required, besides recall of information, a knowledge of the structure of the subject matter studied.


Evaluated the OU staff-developed computer program to aid research methods in education and the social sciences.


In economics, OU and conventional university (CU) students were equally good in microeconomics while OU students were better than CU students in macroeconomics.


Evidence did not substantiate that OU was more cost effective and more "open" than conventional universities. Proposed an alternative way of evaluating OU costs.


A typical OU student was male; in his 30s; a white-collar worker; mainly middle class; had previously done full or part-time
study; read *The Daily Telegraph*; and spent leisure time on TV, gardening, and do-it-yourself chores.


Younger (18-year-old) OU students did less well in their first year than older (age 21+) OU students because of instability, money problems, time pressures, and attitudes. Policy implications.


OU student needs, progress, and dropouts compared with those at conventional institutions.


OU students who entered in 1971 were asked their educational and occupational background, work and leisure patterns, and future plans.

1450. McIntosh, Naomi E. et al. "Student Demand and Progress at the Open University--the First Eight Years." *Distance Education, 1*, 1 (March 1980), 37-60.

Evaluated OU, student progress, and graduation patterns. Found high student demand, higher student survival rate than first thought, and concluded OU was still not as open as it should be.


Described OU's early problems and prospects as the "first serious effort to adapt higher education to the electronic age."
1452. Millard, Jeremy. "Supporting Students in the Fernuniversitat." Teaching at a Distance, 22 (Fall 1982), 4-9.

Compared West Germany's Fernuniversitat and Britain's OU in financial and other support services, and in program problems and successes.

1453. Moore, Michael G. "Continuing Education and the Assessment of Learner Needs." Teaching at a Distance, 17 (Spring 1980), 26-29.

Ways OU could meet its objectives in adult education and community needs.


Background, current developments, enrollment projections, student and faculty composition, effectiveness of audiovisual materials on the nature of knowledge covered, distance education trends, and 4 new courses were presented.


OU students' (30) progress evaluated for 2 years; their growing confidence and selective pattern of study observed.


Administrative problems cited: faculty required to work as team teachers; and the tenuous balance among excellence, equality, and
cost benefit. Because achievement standards were high, open admissions might not benefit the most disadvantaged students.


OU teaching staff influence on other higher education institutions was reported and discussed.


Discussed the underlying philosophy of the OU "Living with Technology" foundation course.


An external consultant brought in to resolve OU course team interpersonal difficulties painfully uncovered the problem for all to help resolve.


OU instructional team dynamics and their relations with BBC staff were discussed.


Rede Lecture described and evaluated the OU and its role in part-time higher education. Examined current issues.


Recounted the OU's rise to assured status and its success in developing written and broadcast teaching materials.

The OU's history and place in higher education.

1464. Phillips, Estelle M. "Supervising Postgraduates at a Distance." Teaching at a Distance, 26 (Fall 1985), 23-31.

To judge OU graduate students' need for supervision, author looked at student characteristics, supervisors' role, student attitudes, admissions criteria, and related issues.

1465. Phyhtian, Ted, and Margaret Clements. "Dropout from Third Level Maths Courses." Teaching at a Distance, 21 (Summer 1982), 35-45.

Why OU students in 6 advanced maths courses dropped out, with counseling and course improvement suggestions made to prevent future dropouts.


Criticized the OU for its entry restrictions, which made it not truly open; failure to recruit enough working class people, which prevented its being a university of first chance and its mass media techniques, which might be based on irrelevant research.

1467. Riley, Judith. "The Problems of Drafting Distance Education Materials; The Problems of Revising Drafts of Distance Education Materials; and Drafting Behaviours in the Production of Distance Education Material." British Journal of Educational Technology, 15, 3 (October 1984), 192-238.

How and why OU faculty prepared their particular distance education materials.


Reviewed and evaluated telephone communications between tutors and undergraduates.

Examined the functions of OU's Institute of Educational Technology: to improve courses and textbooks, to seek student evaluations of new courses, and in general to create courses that develop minds.


Showed how average cost per student changed at the OU in proportion to the enrollment and the number of courses offered.


Discussed OU's origin, intent, objectives, academic programs, degrees, continual self-evaluation, student populations, cost effectiveness in relation to other British universities, and its importance as a model for other countries.

1472. Rumble, Greville. "Why Distance Education Can be Cheaper than Conventional Education." *Distance Education*, 8, 1 (March 1987), 72-94.

Compared the cost of attending the OU with conventional university education costs. Found that the OU's cost effectiveness promised future growth of home-based education.


Developed an improved tutor feedback form over 3 years which showed that OU course tutors could best identify and help solve student problems.
Higher Education. C. Open University


The OU instructional team approach, as against the traditional university lecturers who are free from interference, caused some conflict but also strengthened co-leadership. The course team chairman, often a younger staff member, was an important leader. For OU staff, good teaching was more important than research.


A visiting professor's views of the OU's goals, instructional materials, and student evaluation in teaching undergraduate science.

1476. Sewart, David. "Creating an Information Base for an Individualized Support System in Distance Education." Distance Education, 1, 2 (September 1980), 171-87.

Discussed the OU data system, which allowed tutor-counselors to work more efficiently with individual students.


The OU's 1980s growth in professional education, community education, and continuing education would require low fees through subsidies and local student support facilities.


Identified such OU student problems as competing home relationships, responsibilities, and study techniques. Compared U.S.-British broadcasting and postal service differences in relation to OU's teaching approach.

1479. Stevenson, Jim. "Media in the Open University: A Look Toward the 1980's." Teaching at a Distance, 19 (Summer 1981), 19-23
Challenges and possibilities for OU's use of broadcast media, especially cassettes, for greater independent learning.


OU's role in recruitment and retention of women in technology.


Surveyed public awareness during 1971-75 of the OU programs and opportunities.


Why OU students enrolled in the social sciences foundation course; their backgrounds compared with those of students in a conventional university.


Aims and expectations of an OU course. Some students had more interest in getting a degree and a better job. OU students had a more personal orientation; comparable Surrey University students had a more academic orientation.


Rejected Burgess' charge that the OU had failed its purpose. (See entry 1412). Said that OU had enormous potential to serve motivated students and to reduce educational inequalities.

Editor's introduction is on OU's purpose, programs, students, and teaching staff (compared to other British universities); whether or not it was as open as intended; and the problems of failure, dropouts, student inequalities, and expensive science and technology courses with small enrollments. Faculty and student essays are on the OU's history; economic implications; admissions policy; student and course evaluation; OU publishing; and music, mathematics, technology, education, and arts teaching.


OU's teaching methods made its student costs considerably cheaper than conventional university student cost.


Author confirmed his earlier significantly lower estimate of OU cost advantage over conventional universities. Since 1973, average OU costs dropped little, mainly because of the OU's increased course options for students.


Conservative government leaders' recent praise for OU business and technology programs, badly needed by Britain, won additional funding and other support. Enrollment was 70,000 in degree programs and 80,000 in nondegree programs.


The OU, using new technology found in commercial publishing, became one of Britain's largest publishers and pioneered in producing high level current material.

Called OU the world’s most successful distance learning operation and the most important higher education innovation since the land grant college.

1491. "When College is Open to All--The Experiment in Britain." *U.S. News and World Report*, 70, 9 (March 1, 1971), 63-64.

Described international interest in OU goals, policies, and programs and New York State’s plan for 2 similar off-campus degree programs.


Said OU introductory courses were too passive and failed to promote student understanding of the dynamic structure of knowledge.


Constructed a multivariate model for identifying high-risk students. Found that older students were more likely than under-21-year-olds to continue OU studies.


Assessed OU’s openness in terms of administrative, educational, and informational policy and the success of its graduates. Called for a more open admission policy.


Reviewed the OU’s history, successes, and failure to meet such goals as equality of opportunity.

Reasons nonaccepters gave for declining a place at OU included financial problems, time commitment, family, work responsibilities, moving, unemployment, and other reasons.


Presented statistics and dropout characteristics to explain OU's dropout problem.


Suitability of an OU program for 18 to 20 year olds.
CHAPTER 8
Higher Education. D. Polytechnics


Analyzed such success factors of polytechnics as cost effectiveness, course development, corporate reputation, and public responsibility.


Those educated in the nonuniversity higher education sector earned as much as did university graduates.


Despite sharing with some polytechnics certain decisions about research degree programs, the Council for National Academic Awards (CNAA) and government policy prohibited polytechnics from awarding degrees and exercising autonomy.

Libraries at polytechnics (most were formed by joining existing colleges on scattered sites) lacked staff and space (1 place for every 8 students).


Polytechnics and other nonuniversity higher education, funded from the central government's Advanced Further Education Pool, in 1980-81 asked for grants without showing their need or relating their requests to past expenditure.


Explained the student role in governance as members of academic boards of 30 polytechnics.


Favored more political science instruction at secondary schools, universities, and polytechnics, and described the Nuffield Foundation political science emphasis on developing political literacy.


Operation and growth of the CNAA's role in monitoring standards at polytechnics and other nonuniversity higher education.

Outlined the administration of the 30 polytechnics and the over 350 other nonuniversity higher education institutions, most of them maintained by LEAs.


Concluded that polytechnics were becoming more like universities.


Analysis of social class representation in all higher education, including polytechnics, showed that professional groups were disproportionately enrolled.


Traced the formation of the Association of Polytechnic Teachers and concluded that it was inappropriate for faculty needs and the needs of higher education in general.


Her Majesty Inspectorate (HMI) report found that government 3-year plan to merge information technology (IT) in engineering courses was not succeeding in 9 polytechnical colleges visited.


Discussed political issues in policy formation, funding decision processes, and the history of the National Advisory Board for local authority in higher education.

Examined the social culture of students in a 3-year degree course in surveying.


A North East London Polytechnic faculty self-evaluation of institutional goal statements.


Most polytechnics studied were committed to teaching science from a humanist viewpoint, but a trend toward a mixture of viewpoints was also evident.


Treated post-1945 debates on higher technological education as a 'critical case' of attempts by the state to influence the development of higher education in England.


Loughborough College of Technology in 1957 became the eleventh College of Advanced Technology. In 1967 it became a university.


Polytechnics, set up as less expensive than universities, with students living at home and less costly research done, might be as expensive as universities.


Characteristics, histories, and qualifications of polytechnic directors.


Government's recent grants for research at 21 polytechnics showed the absence of a research policy and an absence of planning for higher education's future growth.


Criticized the lack of planning for polytechnics; described their growth, and presented financial data.


Doubting that polytechnics and universities could be equal, a university student sample supported the widely held view of polytechnics as practical while universities had better standards, higher reputations, more autonomy, and better research capabilities.


Danusia Trotman-Dickenson's major study found that industry placed little importance on academic qualifications and did not encourage employees to do further study. Recommended that universities and polytechnics seek to convince industry that part-time programs could help.

Examined the growing use of modules (i.e., courses) as part of an extended study for specified qualifications; cited 5 case studies (University of London, City of London Polytechnic, Oxford Polytechnic, Hatfield Polytechnic, and Scottish Action Plan); and showed the role of modularization in the emerging relationship between education and marketing.


Applied or problem-solving sociology was best studied in polytechnics, established to be socially responsive institutions.


Plans urged for new institutions of technology, linked to industry, to speed training of information technology specialists.


Nonuniversity postsecondary institutions (30 polytechnics, 36 others), formerly funded and regulated by LEAs, under the 1988 Education Act became responsible for their own management, purchases, and employment practices. Expected to seek more government funds, their national funds will be channeled through a government-appointed council.


The Thatcher government's takeover of the 28 polytechnic institutes and colleges, as well as 28 other undergraduate colleges, was aimed at weakening the Labor Party's power base in cities and counties.

Students and others protested government budget cuts which led to talk of merging Keele University's 2,700 students with North Staffordshire Polytechnic's 6,000 students. Keele's innovative double majors won praise from educators but cost more than other university programs.


National survey concluded that, despite insufficient facilities, polytechnics were attaining their 1966 objectives in high calibre staff, research, and in expanding student opportunities. They needed more facilities to maintain separate but equal status with universities.
CHAPTER 8
Higher Education. E. Finance


The history, politics, and government agencies' roles in higher education budget reductions as part of national policy changes.


The University Grants Committee (UGC), formerly an independent link between government and universities, was placed under the Department of Education and Science (DES), which set national goals and gave funds to UGC. UGC then allocated funds to universities.


Evolution of government policies for universities and the financial role of the UGC in preserving university autonomy.


Academic salary differences reflected market pressures despite uniform salary scales throughout British universities.

Explained funding for various types of higher education [universities, Open University (OU), and local education authority (LEA)-maintained institutions] and for students and student unions.


Anticipated a higher return from university education investment as enrollments grew and staff and buildings were used more efficiently (likely average rate of return, 10 percent). Included a "Comment" by Donald Verry, *Higher Education*, 3 (April 1974), 231-33; and a "Reply" by Dunworth and Bottomley, *Higher Education*, 3 (November 1974), 469-71.


Explored average cost per student and incremental costs as affected by changing the structure of courses, by increasing the teaching load, and by the intensive use of buildings.


Examined the financing of British Advanced Further Education colleges.

Universities would be managed more effectively if the UGC had more power and the Committee of Vice-Chancellors and Principals had less power.


Described the 2 higher education funding bodies: UGC for universities; and the national Advisory Body for Local Authority Higher Education for nonuniversity institutions.


To reform higher education in line with conservative "new right" economic views, quality measures and uniform productivity were needed.


Government accepted the recommendation to replace the UGC with a smaller, industry-oriented Universities Funding Council (UFC). UFC would replace UGC grants with individual university contracts, as was done with polytechnics and other former colleges of higher education for particular purposes. The UFC would have an equal number of academic and nonacademic members; the chairman would likely be an expert in industry and/or business.

Data on the social and economic rate of return of higher education expenditure.


Economic uncertainty and depression before World War I stirred interest in finding outside funding.


Found that costs per student could be cut without losing quality.


Concerned with the University of Bradford. Attacked the use of staff-student ratio to determine the staff allocations at British universities.


Criticized DES cuts as a threat to higher education. Cuts would sharply reduce the number of students entering higher education. Glad that UGC would set up a new body to coordinate the needs of higher education.


Outlined the budgeting system at an institute with university-like objectives. Discussed general management, the role of committees and central administration, department and institute budgets, capital development, and the sources of support.

Found that very large institutions were less effective than small ones in stimulating student-staff morale and motivation.


Compared British/U.S. student financial aid. British proposals would reduce the numbers receiving grants (now over 90 percent), offer loans, and impose tuition.


Listed most UGC recommendations for expenditure and enrollment reductions (and some increases) in teaching specific sciences and in teaching mathematics at specific universities.


Urged opening a private university that charged fees to cover costs and made loans to students.


A year after the UGC ordered a 44 percent cutback, Salford University had strengthened its ties with industry, cut enrollment, urged early retirement, and examined its role.


Explained why estimating enrollment elasticity was impossible when judged in relation to prospective income in various fields (used Cornmarket Careers Surveys data).

The Advanced Further Education Pool funded nonuniversity higher education from the 1950s. In 1980-81 for the first time it gave a fixed amount to LEAs without considering institutional needs.


Analyzed econometrically the recurrent costs of undergraduate and graduate teaching and research, by subject area.

Lofthouse, S. "Thoughts on 'Publish or Perish.'" *Higher Education*, 3, 1 (February 1974), 59-80.

After reviewing U.S. and British evidence, author doubted that university salaries depended ultimately and critically on faculty members' publications.


Feared that university and other higher education institution "disaster committees," formed to deal with budget cuts, might make staff reduction and other irreparably damaging decisions.


Concluded that lifetime earnings from university teaching did not differ significantly from earnings in several other fields.


Calculated the private and social rate of return of a doctorate to a university teacher.

Explained uniform salary scales, uniform staffing ratios, and tenure arrangements; developed a model to show faculty salary differentials.

1564. Moodie, Graeme C. "Buffer, Coupling, and Broker: Reflections on 60 Years of the UGC." *Higher Education*, 12, 3 (June 1983), 331-47.

Despite economic and political pressures on the UGC, it had secured maximum autonomy for universities.


Blueprint on how to allocate and manage financial resources if higher education was to meet 1980s needs. Chapters on: DES and Treasury, privatization and market mechanism, and student financial support and funding universities.


Rate of return of 15,000 students who attended higher education in 1968.


Reasons why the Burnham Committee was not effective in its statutory responsibility of negotiating further education faculty salaries.


Oxford, having depended on government grants and allowed its 36 colleges to raise funds, hired its first director of development, to seek private funds for current operations.

Chair of 1963 Robbins Report favored a student loan scheme.


Shifting rising higher education costs to parents burdened the middle class and increased class differentiation.


Examined choices universities had to make to implement UGC cuts: reduce teaching staff, technicians, supplies, and/or equipment.


Government and UGC decision making; described the ways universities handled 1981 financial cuts.


Reviewed the history, changing role, and criticism of the UGC.


First government funds went to universities in 1889; UGC was established in 1919 as part of post-World War I reconstruction.


UGC history is here related to higher education autonomy and accountability.

Universities grew increasingly dependent on government funds; they and the UGC were ill-prepared for the Thatcher government's commitment to cutting expenditure.


DES-funded study of 9 universities found that financial cuts threatened teaching, research, and the capacity to respond to changing social needs.


The Conservative government's higher education policy called for cuts and industrial training but had no vision of education's role in society.


Suggested changes in national higher education policy and in the UGC's structure and operation.


Explained and illustrated a budget analysis approach used by British universities.


A Conservative member of parliament joined others supporting the report criticizing government cuts to universities: cuts sharply
reduced prospects for sixth formers entering higher education and threatened to bankrupt universities.


Explained the impact of budget cuts, higher student fees, and the decision to spend for research rather than for student recruitment.


On the economic impact of universities and on how to measure the productivity of higher education.


Universities needed to investigate the link between teaching and research and to find a rational basis for deciding the size of the research base.


Because of declining government funding, normally 75 percent of their budgets, Cambridge and Oxford planned major fund raising drives, coordinated with similar drives by their constituent colleges.


The UGC, which managed universities' funding, would not be dropped, as proposed in 1985.

For diplomatic reasons, the government stopped charging full-cost tuition to foreign students; it voted funds so that 6,000 foreign students could pay about the same as British students paid.


The Conservative government's proposal to end students' living expense grants and to pay tuition for those from low income families only was protested by the National Union of Students and by middle and upper income families.


The UGC warned the government that further cuts in university funds would damage the national interest; it called for more graduate places, more jobs for new Ph.D.s, and new laboratory and classroom equipment.


University heads (vice chancellors) and Secretary for Education and Science Kenneth Baker were considering vouchers and student loans in the aftermath of the 1988 Reform Bill, which replaced the UGC with a more powerful Universities Funding Council.


Wide opposition to the conservative government's proposal to substitute student loans for grants was based on fear of limiting access to higher education.

Prime Minister Thatcher promised to replace student grants with government-subsidized loans, if re-elected.


Theories behind economic value to recipients and employers of higher education, vocational and nonvocational.


Between 1938 and 1962 pressures for higher staff-student ratios and for smaller classes led to a decrease in university graduates. Efforts to increase the number of students through programmed learning and TV were still small scale. Reprinted from Maureen Woodhall and Mark Blaug, "Productivity Trends in British University Education," Minerva, 3, 4 (1965), 482-98.


Calculated the average and marginal private rates of return of higher education graduates from 1968 earnings.
CHAPTER 9
Post School (Age 16+) Further and Adult Education


A government report titled A Basis for Choice (ABC) initiated further education (FE) courses at some 20 colleges to teach job-specific skills to age 16 school leavers with few job prospects.


The Council was established in 1977 to assess adult education needs and to promote courses and programs.


The 1973 report ignored rural needs. It threatened the Workers' Educational Association (WEA) use of voluntary rural staff and its flexible ties with rural local education authorities (LEAs).

Papers (7) on the library's role in meeting FE curriculum development and course needs.


Gave data from 40 universities about residential adult education courses, policies, and practices.


Examined the premise that people should be trained at all school levels, including FE, for technical and other skills.


History, changing role, and financial and other challenges facing FE in preparing school leavers for work when jobs are hard to find.


How projects at 11 FE colleges shaped information technology computer courses to benefit industrial and commercial firms.


A French view of a model of British adult education.


Conference papers on higher education courses and other needs of students who are mature, jobless, and have a physical handicap.

Effect of the Education Reform Act of 1988 on FE budgetmaking, funding, and governance; possible problems in enrollments, institutional costs, program areas, and evaluation.


Open learning applied to FE colleges: learning materials, tutorials, fees, teachers, salaries, costs, and other aspects.


Part-time study for jobs and careers--who uses this alternative route, why, how, and with what results?


Explored problems in attracting the working class into adult education programs.


Under WEA auspices, R.H. Tawney began in 1908 rigorous working class adult university education along Balliol College (Oxford) lines: the intellectually elite teaching the underprivileged poor--a long lasting and well meaning but patronizing policy. Described competition between the WEA and university extramural departments; replacement of working class students with leisure-oriented middle class teachers, clerks, and housewives; and the 1950s policy differences between university extramural directors Sidney Raybould (at Leeds) and Robert Peers (at Nottingham).

Reviewed recommendations on adult education in the 1973 Russell Report and reported that progress to 1985 was minor.


Explored six ways of organizing FE courses and programs for disabled 16-19-year-olds.


Described adult education structure, defined continuing education, and compared these with adult education experience in Australia.


Described the entrance requirements, courses, qualifications gained, and careers to prepare for in over 600 FE colleges. Traced their origin to the nineteenth century mechanics' institutes.


Confirmed the stereotype of British adult education as more qualitative and the U.S. adult education as more quantitative.


Related the activities of the Council, created by WEA to advance educational opportunity.

Movement toward training of adult educators was seen in 47 LEA responses to a questionnaire on training and staffing needs.


Examined the role of the Council for National Academic Awards (CNAA), LEAs, the University Grants Committee (UGC), and the government in educating those over age 16 for their own and society's needs. Comparisons made with other countries.


Urged that trade union education focus on social reform, change, and justice; traditional adult education had stressed personal development and the cultural use of leisure.


Analyzed the major aspects of FE, laws affecting it during 1944-64, and FE prospects for the 1970s.


Traced the origin of the recent FE surge. In 1919 Germany began day release instruction to upgrade young workers' skills. Georg Kerschensteiner introduced the idea in Munich. Britain's 1944 Education Act proposed county colleges to revive day continuation schools, first encouraged in the 1918 Education Act. The day continuation schools and the 1944 county college plans were scrapped in economy moves. Only 30 percent of working men and 10 percent of working women aged 16-19 received day release instruction: hence the recent effort to enlarge FE opportunities.

1622. Charnley, A.H. et al. *Adult Education and the Local Community: Volume XII. Review of Existing Research in Adult and*

Summarized earlier research in adult education. Focused on LEA and community adult education practices and needs. Urged increased working class and Asian immigrant participation. Explored the role of the media and the research needed.


Discussed Manpower Services Commission (MSC)-sponsored courses (which had grown) and the Professional, Industrial and Commercial Updating (PICKUP) program. Compared expenditures for higher education and vocational education in the U.K. with those of 8 other countries.


Too little education was provided for physically, mentally, and socially disadvantaged adults because the formal school system left such service to voluntary and welfare agencies.


Critical of the 1973 Russell Report and the report of the 1974 Vice-Chancellor's Committee and University Council for Adult Education for their short-sightedness and bemoaned the absence of a long-term adult education strategy.


Guide to all U.K. colleges and polytechnics providing vocational education, from agriculture to welfare work, full- and part-time, day release, and block release.

Correspondence education was overseen by the Association of British Correspondence Colleges (about 20 members). Quality was enhanced by the National Extension College (begun 1963) and by the highly successful Open University (OU, since 1969).


Students in "the new sixth form" were not suited for General Certificate of Education-Advanced (GCE-A) level exams or for vocational education but were continuing full-time education beyond age 16.


A model to train teachers to use computer-based learning in their teaching.


Five colleges, which were inefficient and uncoordinated in attracting and enrolling FE students, needed to target potential students and to fit them for jobs in local industry.


On business and office occupation curriculum. Included information processing, microelectronics, and tasks in different business contexts.

Nonadvanced further education (NAFE) was defined as full- or part-time study up to GCE-A level. Gave NAFE enrollment, curriculum, and other trends. Described NAFE in relation to school, adult education, and advanced further education (AFE, or study beyond GCE-A level). Sixteen percent of all students took GCE courses; the rest took various other courses, some for professional qualifications, diplomas, and/or certificates.


Most of the 17 FE bodies which responded to a January 1982 statement on FE issues agreed that lack of government policy hindered progress on vocational training.


Proposed and urged support for an age 14 to 16 core curriculum for successful transition from leaving school (age 16) to adult life.


On demographic changes and student participation rates; wider opportunities and courses; cooperation between schools and colleges; student financial support; teacher training, supply, and pay; and educational opportunities for those over age 18.


Hill College, Coventry, pilot project used clear objectives to fit the education and training needs of jobless adults.

Surveyed the best curriculum for those preparing to work in robotics (automated machinery), based on advice from technicians and supervisors in 9 robotics companies and existing robotics curriculum programs.


Reviewed concerned agencies, students serviced, and current and likely future education needs.


Curriculum plan included topics, activities, and the best use of class time and free time. Concluded with 4 case studies.


Guide to help responsible bodies implement the MSC's Youth Training Scheme, which awarded the new age 17+ Certificate of Prevocational Education (CPVE).


Curriculum and other needs from a survey of 20 college programs teaching the use of information technology (computers).

Recommended reforms to keep pace with cultural, social, industrial, and technological changes. Major needs: new assessment methods (replacing the GCE and Certificate of Secondary Education [CSE] exams), a radically revised primary and secondary school curriculum, and lifelong accessibility to training and retraining.


University-level adult education, traditionally nonvocational, was moving toward offering vocational programs.


Effects on personal leisure, community development, arts, social services, sports, and recreation. A small investment in skilled manpower would bring a large social and economic output.


Examined government proposals for the education, training, and employment of 16-19-year-olds.


Described withholding financial aid and other successful attempts by the Board of Education and the LEAs to get WEA to withdraw its support for the left-wing Trades Union Congress' educational scheme, which lapsed after the 1926 general strike.


Origin, founding principles, and history of the WEA, with suggestions for priorities and future effectiveness.

Described an Inner London Education Authority skill-based and job-oriented program for dropout-prone jobless urban youth.


Showed the growth of university extramural programs and of adult education as a field of study.


Despite the moves to increase educational opportunity for nonuniversity students, Britain did not adopt a broadly based recurrent education system. The major goals were for education appropriate to individual needs, paid education leave, and appropriate accreditation based on fairly distributed power and control.


Describe MSC's Open Tech Program, begun in 1982 to upgrade technical and supervisory skills.


Expected greater demand for higher education than previously assumed despite fewer 18-20-year-olds.
British adult education was generally noncredit, financed by small government grants, and focused on social studies as a guide to a better national future. U.S. adult education had more comprehensive courses, larger enrollment, erratic financing, and was intended for economic self-improvement.

Britain's approach to teaching literacy placed high value on student's self concept, responsibility, and participation.

How vocational and technical education teachers saw their roles in relation to the needs in their trades and occupations.

The disillusionment with FE evaluation was brought on by massive youth joblessness, school-leaving exams (GCE-0 [Ordinary] level and CSE) being combined into a General Certificate of Secondary Education (GCSE, from 1986), by the new age 17+ CPVE exam, and new use of cumulative student records.

Most students and tutors in literacy programs were satisfied with their rate of progress.

Despite its dynamic response to school leavers' needs, FE was little appreciated because it reflected a class-conscious society's penchant for limiting educational opportunity.


Examined the roles of the NCLC, the Chartist movement, and Ruskin College in the history of higher education for workers.


History of adult education in prisons.


Listed public and private adult literacy programs. Showed major trends in administration, teaching methods and materials, and financing. Recommended future literacy program priorities.


Reviewed WEA history and activities.


How education as "preparation for living" developed from ancient Greece; availability in the 1970s, access, and relevance.

Articles (12) exploring the kinds of learning needed by adults.


Reviewed curriculum research findings and dissemination by Blackpool and Fylde College teachers.


Because the curriculum was constantly changing, dissemination of these changes needed to be systematized.


Explored the need for curriculum planning, better access and aids, and training staff for handicapped students.


The "Fresh Horizons" course at the City Literary Institute was the kind of nonresidential liberal studies instruction needed by many underqualified mature students, especially women.


Community development goals that included extending adult education to more working class and minority groups.


Explored the efforts of teachers and others to promote media use (films, radio, TV, others) in FE courses and programs. Included a chronology of vocational education policy events, 1851 to 1982.


Papers (1.) on the needs of older learners, pre- and post-retired.


Described as: OU study which examined combining mass media, distance education, and local resources to reach the disadvantaged who needed adult education.


Cornish adults usually studied general subjects rather than mining skills. Their learning helped many who emigrated win recognition and success.


Background of university extension, the WEA (since 1903) partnership with universities, LEA, FE, OU, and other colleges offering adult education. In 1969-70 8,200 WEA courses enrolled 159,000 students. The 1973 Russell Committee studied nonvocational adult education.

University-level courses for workers were urged by WEA (1903). WEA and the Marxist National Council of Labor Colleges (1909) merged financially in 1963 under the Trade Union Council.


Compared different kinds of institutions offering full-time education for 16-19-year-olds and students' perceptions of their differences.


Wide-ranging pre-election views on adult higher education. Attacked the Conservative government's education policy. Contains sections on comprehensive education after age 18, failure to fulfill the 1963 Robbins Report goals, the adverse effects of budget cuts, and other needed adult education reforms.


Mechanics' Institutes, to satisfy working class interests, taught such nonvocational subjects as geology and physiology and aided the spread of evolutionary socialism.


Some of the motives and fears behind mechanics' and similar institutes were to acquaint the working class with new industrial needs, to aid technical innovation, to transform workers into middle class voters for conservative and liberal parties, and to combat atheism.

Geographic areas of economic decline were sending talented young people to London and Southeast England. Looked at FE trends in various geographic areas.


Described for Americans the British educational program for underprepared adults: their characteristics, admissions, and university/polytechnic cooperation.

1682. Lewis, Roger. "Do Correspondence Students Need Counselling?" *Distance Education*, 1, 2 (September 1980), 142-62.

Leeds Counseling Project of the National Extension College, Cambridge, studied adult correspondence student needs outside OU and considered ways local counseling might be provided.


University admission concerns and procedures for mature students and for unqualified students.


The British Association of Settlements' major adult literacy campaign (begun in 1974), supported by the 3-year BBC series of programs and publications and by other agencies, made a marked impact despite little government commitment or funding.


Discussed the characteristics of an adult education program in a Liverpool Educational Priority Area, 1967 to 1972, which caused participants to confront their institutions, way of life, and socioeconomic and political problems.

Described Liverpool Educational Priority Area adult education programs which encouraged participants to confront bad housing, lack of recreational facilities, vandalism, and other problems.


WEA adult education work done in cooperation with the Liverpool Educational Priority Area Research Project was a model for future community development.


On student recruitment and access, courses offered, counseling service, funding, teacher training and the use of volunteers, and the positive effect of such vocational training.


This article in an entire issue on adult literacy reviewed the role of public libraries, bookstores, and publishing.


Gave examples of successful adult education programs for jobless people, explored their educational needs, and included helpful comments from adult education tutors and students.


Reviewed WEA and trade union adult education trends and priorities.

Trade union education needs and problems.


Twentieth century workers' education overview, important "because of backwardness" of mainstream education. Covered (1) 1890-1920: class consciousness, socialist ideas; origins of the Labor Party and Trades Union Congress (TUC), Ruskin College (1899), and WEA (since 1903). (2) 1920-40: the General Strike (1926) and the Great Depression. (3) 1940-64: workers' education divided, adult education for middle class (WEA), and TUC for training union officials. (4) 1964-79: Britain's economic decline and state aided TUC education in universities and technical colleges. (5) state aided and controlled TUC education; workers' education was small scale and underfinanced compared to Britain's needs and to accomplishments in other countries.


WEA's purposes were variously viewed: to promote general education, union-related education, and further industrial training. Author assessed workers' needs in order to focus WEA efforts.


Called for a student-centered approach based on the education needs of adults. Considered barriers to adult education: geography, finance, educational qualifications, and structure. Expected that the decline in the postsecondary population in the 1990s would affect adult education planning.


Continuing education, more acceptable than comprehensive education was in the 1960s, still needed more access and financing.

Begun by J.H. Muirhead and excluded by the University of London (1901), the new school foundered because of lack of funds.


Reexamined WEA-Oxford University collaboration, 1904 to 1909; called the WEA's view of its own success inaccurate.


Rise of evening classes and adult education in Bristol, culminating in the WEA (since 1903).


Despite Britain's decentralized, fragmented approach, acute economic and education problems among adults would ultimately produce substantially different patterns of adult education.


Characterized various types of FE, compared British and West German FE, and concluded that, while not equalizing unequal chances, FE helped the upward mobility of the working class.

Endorsed and commented on, from viewpoint of a large teachers' union, the DES paper: *Providing Educational Opportunities for 16-18 Year Olds* (London: DES, 1978). See entry 1635.


Some 2 million to 2.5 million people were enrolled in adult education, taught in makeshift classrooms by professionals and amateurs in special fields.


On the finance, degrees, diplomas, other awards, and the role of university adult education departments.


Administrators and teachers noted the substantive changes which FE absorbed in the 1970s in its curriculum, lecturers, college administration and organization, and students (many of whom moved from part-time vocational to full-time nonvocational studies).


Founded in 1891 for working class students, Goldsmiths' College (owned by London University) was denied full status. Recent debate concerned standards and its tradition of enrolling marginal students.


Comprehensive listing of adult education and training courses.

Case study of a Business Education Council national certificate course at an FE college.

1709. Percy, Keith, and Murray Saunders. "The Open College of the North West, Distance Learning, and the 'Open Tech' Programme." *Teaching at a Distance*, 21 (Summer 1982), 10-17.

Complexities and potential costs of a regional adult program using some distance learning techniques.


Probed reasons for variations in the growth of numbers of 16-year-olds seeking post-compulsory education from 1955 to 1978.


Almost half of the 16-19-year-olds were in full-time adult FE, mostly in vocational programs under the Youth Training Scheme, which resulted from the 1983 merger of the Unified Vocational Preparation with the Youth Opportunity Program.


Focused on the democratic control and financial accountability of the Advanced Further Education Pool, established in 1958.


Analyzed the economic, financial, and administrative basis of nonuniversity postsecondary education.

Factors affecting low status: the myth of the 1973 Russell Report's preference for an integrated education serving both school age youth and adults; and conflict between the interests of adult teachers as a professional group and the wants of adult students.


Compared the views expressed in 1908 by worker-students, university chancellor, and WEA representatives on worker education at Ruskin College, Oxford University.


Part-time education and upward occupational mobility were strongest among middle class students.


Schools as adult learning centers, open evenings and year-round for the whole community, raised management questions about the community role in decision making, staff assignments, and provision and control of extra facilities.


Looked at low cost study and job preparation opportunities for those over age 16 in colleges offering vocational and nonvocational, full and part-time education, and sandwich courses.

Compared unqualified mature students admitted to the universities of Sheffield, Birmingham, Leeds, Liverpool, and Manchester; described dropouts, other problems, and successes.


Histories of and contributions to adult education made by the universities of London, Liverpool, Manchester, Swansea, and Cornwall.


Reports (3) on the philosophy and development of vocational education, the role and influence of the DES, and projects in Coventry for jobless youths.


Papers (4) on maintaining program quality, staff development, accountability, and the new changes in industry affecting FE.


James Stuart started university extension at Cambridge University in 1873 for all social classes, not especially for workers. The movement succeeded with workers in small industrial towns. Considered the attempt to graft university extension onto
organized labor with the founding of WEA (since 1903). Stated that the working class did not benefit from university extension because the movement did not grasp workers' values and traditions.


Described the nature and scope of FE and industrial training, touching on funding, school-government relationships, school inspections, curriculum, examinations, the DES FE Unit, the university system, and teacher qualifications.


Curriculum influence and other work of the national FE examining and validating councils.


On FE in England, U.S., and France. Increasingly, governments were planning all post-secondary education as a whole.


Stressed OU programs for unemployed adults.


Described degree courses, policies (policy favored increased resources), admissions, counseling, evaluation, costs, financing, and the attitude of employers. Also on the influence of LEAs, universities, OU, MSC training programs, and broadcasting.

Historical review of adult education: reports, documents, and laws; showed how policy and structure evolved.


Predicted expansion of part-time adult education in the next 20 years because of demographic, economic, financial, and social pressures. Argued for and against university adult education.


Analyzed the position and described the aims and intentions, expressed or implied, of government, society, and adult educators.


The Royal Institution offered vocational subjects to working class adults and liberal arts to the middle and upper classes.


The 1973 Russell Report's 5-year plan for adult education stressed government-institutional cooperation and student and national needs.

On nonvocational liberal arts courses for the retired, women, and the unemployed.


Reasons for the failure to implement the 1918 Education Act's compulsory part-time day continuation classes for 14-16-year-old workers: business interests were opposed, public concern declined, and educational expenditures were reduced.


Examined the background, training, qualifications, research interests, publications, satisfactions, and dissatisfactions of the teaching staff in an FE technical college.


Looked at an FE college in terms of its production, maintenance, adoption, boundaries, and management.


Papers (?) on confusions inherent in the day release system, changes in engineering departments, student difficulties in maths, and whether or not FE was a good alternate route.

Follow-up study of 646 students, then over age 21, who took FE engineering courses in 1966; examined their later jobs, careers, satisfactions, and their ideas about their children's education.


Despite great effort (some as long as 12 years to earn Higher National Certificates [HNC] in part-time day release engineering courses), the HNC route provided a higher rate of return to society than full-time university courses. Most (77 percent) of those unqualified school leavers who earned the HNC wanted their children to have longer regular schooling and university degrees.


Summarized the OU 1976 Committee on Continuing Education report and its recommendations. Urged broad support for continuing education in the face of its very inadequate level and other adverse factors.


Discussed regional management centers that coordinate and advise on FE.


Success of programs for unemployed adults at Leeds University and Wayne State University, U.S., resulted from interagency cooperation, outreach, and flexibility at no cost to students.

Explored issues, weaknesses, and problems of community education, which was increasingly urban. Looked at ways the schools shared facilities. Concluded with the need for community participation and management.


Similarities and differences in existing services for adults, including counseling by phone or mail.


Governors, staff, students, parents, and critics commented on the first 7 years (1970 to 1976) of Countesthorpe College, Leicestershire, an innovative community college.


On student characteristics, academic achievement, tutor/student relationship, financial arrangements, and administrative organization of the innovative adult education plan at Runnymede Adult Education Institute.


The size and nature of independent (private) vocational institutions, their importance, and their likelihood of survival.

The organization and funding of adult and continuing education; the roles of universities, polytechnics, LEAs, voluntary bodies, and distance education; and comparisons with West Germany and Scandinavia.


Characterized by exclusiveness and cultural segregation, higher education and its adult forms were being changed by such social forces as shifts in cultural influence, altered labor market needs, and a transformed definition of education.
CHAPTER 10
Vocational Training and Technical Education


Traced the roots of twentieth century technical education to the nineteenth century regional polytechnic societies and work-based societies. Concepts from France and the USSR influenced the twentieth century polytechnics, a major part of England's further education (FE) system.


Blamed Britain's fall from great power status on educational complacency and self-delusion. Education failed to provide enough trained personnel. In 1942 only 10 percent of young Britons received vocational education; only 20 percent of the 14 year olds moved from primary school to secondary school.


The unit's task was to change young people's attitudes toward industry.

Faulted the Manpower Services Commission (MSC since 1973) for not meeting working class youth needs in a time of change and for training them to be docile workers. Recommended a more progressive education to teach changing social and life skills and vocational education that included transferable skills.


Vocational education (nonadvanced further education) for women ages 16-19 assumed that women's first duty was to marry, rear children, and to work only temporarily in jobs requiring little training.


Described available engineering education from craft level through the universities, the qualifications granted, and special courses for overseas students.


The choices available were explained simply for post-16-year-old school leavers wanting to go to work and also to consider more education and training: higher education, Youth Training Scheme (YTS), and further education (FE); new certificate and other exams and qualifications; and addresses for additional information.


Described the Technical and Vocational Education Initiative (TVEI), a pilot proposal for a national vocational qualifications framework to raise vocational education standards.

Guidelines for and patterns of work experience in the Youth Opportunities Program.


List of Council for National Academic Awards (CNAA) courses by subjects (44), names and addresses of higher education colleges (including polytechnics) where offered, and degree and certificate qualifications earned. Vocational/technical subjects included: art and design, civil engineering, technology, computing and informatics, nautical studies, and transport.


Described proposed nonprofitmaking independent secondary schools (CTCs) to serve urban areas, getting some government grants and teaching 11 to 18-year-olds technical and practical skills.


Described Craft, Design and Technology (CDT) as a new part of the curriculum to prepare primary and secondary school students for life in a technological society.


Six examples of ways primary and secondary school students could experience how industry works.


How industry and business could help improve school-industry connections through schools' governing bodies, local management, curriculum, books and equipment, and city technology colleges.

Called for a new framework of qualifications for vocational education.


Government White Paper stated that vocational education and technical training must be strengthened beyond the MSC's Youth Training Scheme (YTS, since 1983) by making the pilot TVEI a national scheme, linking schools, colleges, and industry.


Explored the place of vocational studies in secondary education, the need for FE changes, and the relationships between liberal and technical education.


To compete economically, Britain needed to improve vocational training for unskilled school leavers and also to provide massive midcareer retraining to keep pace with technological changes.


Succinct overview of the educational system with focus in perspective on vocational training, apprenticeship, and adult education; with mainly 1976-77 statistics.


British economists urged improved vocational education after 1850, but serious expansion began only shortly before 1939.

Of employed 16 to 18-year-olds, one-fifth were enrolled in day release, 1977-78. Most took art, agriculture, commercial, or technological courses. Although it met employers' needs, day release was weak in serving the disadvantaged and in job placement.


Evaluated trades education (TRADEC) for jobs requiring much less training than was offered by conventional FE. Explained relations among employers, colleges, and trade unions.


Evaluated trades education (TRADEC) effectiveness, distinctive features, benefits to learners, employer involvement, assessment, costs, and viability. Included 5 case studies and recommended improvements.


For research into the trades education (TRADEC) scheme, developed working hypotheses, collected empirical data, and compared trades education with other vocational preparation, including day release.

History of the 1880s-90s relationship between the Liverpool labor movement and the Technical Instruction Committee, when the latter began technical education outside the apprenticeship system.


Critical account of working class vocational education from 1973 to the introduction of the YTS (since 1983). Described the institutional and political changes, the effects of mass unemployment, and the influence of the MSC.


The Open Tech Program provided technical training and refresher courses to any interested adult.


Probed social and other frictions between apprenticeship-trained shop workers and FE-trained technicians.


Economic needs since the 1960s spurred greater emphasis on science and technology in secondary schools and FE. Suggested curricular changes in small business management courses.


History of the ensuing debate when social reformers tried but failed to get government backing for compulsory part-time post-primary education to train young workers for new industries.
Observed nonadvanced courses at 41 technical colleges and their links with industry.

Found courses underutilized. Larger enrollments would add little to costs. Needed strong links with industry.

Course structure, content and subject-matter organization; based on data from 90 schools and 170 courses.

Although government initiatives in technology education were helpful, the U.K. needed more managerial training. Interest was great in distance learning for practical training at the workplace.

The origins, support centers, and testing methods of Southtek, a group of 14 colleges and 14 companies linked with local education authorities (LEAs) to produce materials for extension vocational education.

Reviewed changes in higher technical education. Called for reshaping upper secondary school curriculum to meet individual needs while providing skills to meet technological advances.

Discussed vocational education available to those who did not enter higher education.


Listed weaknesses of adult vocational education, which included teachers with out-of-date background and long courses leading to academic credentials when a shorter course would also meet employers' needs.


Examined the role of educational background in the prestige, authority, control, and earnings in one's occupation.


Papers (10) on the secondary school science curriculum, the history (1930 to 1980) of state centralism and higher technical education, the Crowther concept, technology in schools, the implications of unemployment for education and training, what industry wants, and the LEA perspective.


Described vocational education at all levels, how financed, and the qualifications granted.

Insightful history of the long neglect of and recent initiatives for preparing youths for vocational, industrial, and commercial work: the 1959 Carr Report on confusion in engineering training; the 1964 Industrial Training Act, and the consequent 26 Industrial Training Boards (ITB) for major industries; the 1973 MSC; and the many subsequent MSC-initiated vocational training plans.


MSC (since 1973), part of the Department of Employment, was assigned to combat youth unemployment. In 1983 it became a leading body in providing courses and funds for vocational education and thus challenged the roles of the DES and LEAs in FE.


Though technical students had lower verbal skills than did university students, teachers and society did not appreciate nor value the abilities required in technical fields.


Recommended a national framework for establishing vocational education qualifications under a National Council for Vocational Qualifications.


Recommended that a common vocational education curriculum for all replace the three types being used: college-based, unemployment-based, and employment-based.

Tolley, head of MSC's Open Tech Unit, expected to enroll 50,000 by 1985 in courses to meet employment needs in fast developing technologies.

1799. Marsh, Peter. "Open Tech Opens Its Doors This Year." New Scientist, 93, 1289 (January 21, 1982), 141.

Using Open University (OU) techniques, Open Tech was an MSC project begun in 1982 to teach new technology to engineers and business people. Government provided the equipment and set up the courses. Student grants and/or LEA/industry grants helped cover the costs.


Why the MSC announced the TVEI without consulting the education policy community. Established education interests were to play a major role in implementing the TVEI.


Evaluation during 1979-83 of the effectiveness of a job training project (Technician Education Council programs) in meeting student and employer needs. Employers were generally satisfied.


The YTS (since 1983) paid government subsidies to employers who hired and gave work-related training to more than their usual number of unemployed 16 to 19-year-olds.


Britain must catch up with the more successful vocational education and consequent greater industrial success in West
Germany, Japan, and the U.S. These findings provided the rationale for transforming British education along vocational education lines by using financial and training aid from industry, led by the Department of Employment's MSC (in 1988 became the Training Agency). J.F. Hunt compared this report's influence in Britain with that of A Nation at Risk, Washington, DC, 1983, in the U.S.


Explanation of the YTS, proposed 1981, the 1973 MSC, and the possible role of schools in YTS.


Similar criticisms were made by business and industry involved with secondary education students in Britain (mixed model), West Germany (industry-based), and France (school-based); recommended a more practical curriculum, more appreciation of the world of work, and more efficient school management.


Urged that the MSC do more research into the feasibility of the Open Tech. Cautioned MSC to help existing centers do the job before spending large sums on the Open Tech.


Implementation of curriculum changes at 78 colleges as mandated by the Technician Education Council caused administrative and other problems. Needed to trial-test and supportively evaluate future curriculum change.

Surveyed the developments in industry and government-sponsored vocational education and the reaction of Humberside firms to the levy-grant system.


Data from the Youth Opportunities Program, which gave training to school dropouts, showed the relationship between education and employment and the school's role in creating desirable employees.


Discussed the Open Tech's funding and quality control and compared its aims and methods with those of the Open University.


At 20 diverse FE colleges studied staff attitudes toward the government's YTS, its effect on curriculum and teaching methods, likely needs for inservice training, and related problems.


Industrial schools' history, student characteristics, students' later careers, and influence on 1980s vocational education.


Principals and their advisory and governing bodies led in curriculum innovation at London technical colleges. As employers required more qualifications, influence of examining bodies grew.

History of day technical schools, which during 1919-39 prepared a modest number of post-primary school students for entry into engineering, construction, and commerce.


Described MSC's training program, which guaranteed a place for every unemployed 16-year-old. Problems: too little government money for the many employers needed, too few jobs for trainees, and too little emphasis on new technologies.


On the Open Tech program (since 1982) for training technicians, intended for adults wanting to enter, return to, or continue their training; and on the 1982 DES PICKUP program, intended to persuade institutions to design and market short updating courses for industrial needs. Two other network agencies to support vocational training needs were the 1986 Training Access Points and the 1987 Open College of the Air.


Opened in 1987 to provide mass vocational education through TV and other distance learning techniques, the Open College (modeled after the OU) failed to get adequate business support and to attract as many students as expected.


Explored effects of mass youth unemployment, race, and gender on politics, government policy, and schooling. Showed conflicting interests of politicians, teachers, and school administrators.

Brief history of recent government vocational education and training initiatives. Also on the extension of the YTS.


Liberals, especially A.J. Mundella, from 1865 onward urged post-primary school technical training but gained little support, even in their own party. The 1884 Report of the Royal Commission on Technical Education, a watershed, again connected technical and secondary education. The 1889 Technical Instruction Bill was passed more in haste and apathy than from commitment. Not until World War I did technical education gain credence.


Conference papers on the role of education, computers, and other technologies in future career patterns. Career guidance and computers were panel topics.


Papers (10) from Sociological Review, introduced by Cyril Sofer, applied sociological theory to job-related decisions.


Survey of the literature on the 1964 Industrial Training Act, with cost estimates of all forms of employee inservice training.

Found, in a cost-benefit analysis, that government training centers had high rates of return.
CHAPTER 11
Science, Mathematics, and Engineering Education


Discussed the movement for a national curriculum with mathematics, English, and science as core subjects.


Excluded from the curriculum, nineteenth century natural science was developed by amateurs.


In urging U.S. school reform, author wrote that neglect of science and technology education in school and the workforce led to
Britain's decline, citing Correlli Barnett, *The Pride and the Fall: The Dream and Illusion of Britain as a Great Nation*. See entry 1834.


Traced the history of technology, its hold on such nineteenth century theorists as Thomas Carlyle and Karl Marx, and the ever growing need for professional men to assess the applications and uses of invention.


Policy about the place of science in the curriculum and how science should be taught.


Suggestions for teachers on the best classroom use of 12 readers for Science in Society Project.


Listed the aims of the Science in Society Project and included supplementary materials about the course content.


Summarized the 1982 DES Cockcroft Report on mathematics education, chapter by chapter.


Attributed Britain's economic decline mainly to the pre- and post-World War II failure to educate students and to retrain the workforce in science and technology. See entry 1828.


University College of Cardiff's biennial Science Week (begun in 1973) in 1983 attracted 9,500 primary and secondary school students and 2,500 adults to science-related activities and lectures.


Provided practical tips and a checklist to guide educators in organizing science and technology fairs.


Classical Euclidian textbooks were used until the early twentieth century despite the modernizing reform efforts of the Association for the Improvement of Geometric Teaching.


A chemist, Armstrong urged reforms in science teaching and the use of laboratory methods despite discouragement from the policy of "payment by results," utilitarianism, class structure, and primary school practices.


With little formal higher education available, nineteenth century engineers learned mainly on the job.

Report on projects, 1980 to 1984, many of which involved a diagnostic teaching approach, use of computers and calculators, and effective ways to promote large scale curriculum change in mathematics.


Criticized the 1982 Cockcroft Report's failure to recognize children's psychological differences and to suggest ways to change teacher attitudes toward teaching mathematics.


A national survey of science achievement done in the early 1970s by the National Foundation for Educational Research assessed the effects of biology, chemistry, and physics curricula designed by the Nuffield Foundation Science Teaching Project (started in 1962).


The 1982 Cockcroft Report, *Mathematics Counts*, wanted teachers to train students both to grasp mathematics principles and to solve problems in real situations. Students reaching examination age were unable to understand maths concepts.


Commented 3 years later on the effects of the 1982 Cockcroft Report, *Mathematics Counts*. Although computers were introduced and the age 16+ exam was revised as recommended, momentum was maintained by continued emphasis on teaching everyday practical maths needs and on inservice training of maths teachers.


Examined maths teaching, particularly in further and higher education, on the job, and in adult life generally; recommended improvements.


Showed the pressure from the British Association for the Advancement of Science (founded in 1831) for science education at all levels.


Analyzed the effects of the 1950s and 1960s curriculum change projects on secondary school mathematics and science teaching.


Presented areas of concentration, special notes, and sources of further information about higher education physics courses.


Evaluated the successes and failures of various post-1950s mathematics teaching innovations. Preferred student comprehension over imitation (memorization) and Piagetian learning of building "frames" (concepts) based on earlier simpler "frames" or concepts.

Explained the controversy over human biology as a secondary school subject at the General Certificate of Education (GCE) level.


The main concern was whether the science curriculum met students' attitudinal and skills needs for modern life.


A plea for better science education from primary school onwards, citing the rapid growth of knowledge about earth sciences in the author's field of geology.


Reviewed the expansion of biology teaching (1965 to 1975) at polytechnics and universities and made international comparisons. Contended that Britain was slow to see biology education as important to the nation's future.


Papers (11) on the social meaning of modern science and technology and the challenge of emerging social control processes.


Offered selected practical tips for primary and secondary school mathematics teachers.

Reviewed the history of the British Association for the Advancement of Science, called "the oldest parliament of science," which grew from Charles Babbage's 1820s visit to a new German scientific society. The British Association provided a forum for new ideas and instigated many scientific developments.


Gave reasons why mathematics teaching methods in English primary schools were not easily transferable to the U.S.


Presented results of the assessment of geometry achievement of pupils aged 11 and 15.


Examples of problem solving items from maths test used to assess achievement of pupils aged 11 and 15.


Examined the status of British engineering and the profession's social and historical background. Argued that engineers, while pivotal to manufacturing, were often marginal to economic and political decisionmaking. Engineering's low status reflected the longstanding preference for intellectual over skills learning.

In her Wilkins Lecture (Notes and Records of the Royal Society of London, 32, 1 [1977], 71-90), the author examined the 1870 Samuelson and Devonshire reports on industrial and technological change. She gave reasons for and consequences of Britain’s slowness in including science in the curriculum.


Described Saturday enrichment physics classes in Sussex: topics taught, format, and student involvement.


Examined how 2 books focused on teaching practical maths: The Mathematical Experience and Mathematics Tomorrow.


Told of the Council’s success in expanding education for scientists and technologists, 1947-63, before being replaced by the Advisory Board for the Research Councils.


A House of Lords report urged a cabinet minister as science adviser, a Council on Science and Technology to advance science research, and more science and technology-trained civil servants.


A University of Lancaster case study, 1965-70, of a modern physics course for nonphysics majors showed the interdependence of arts and science at secondary school and higher education levels.

The Association for Science Education, for its Science and Technology in Society project, prepared an initial 100 teaching units to help secondary school teachers and students learn the relevance of science to everyday life and how to use a problem-solving approach.


A mechanical engineering professor at Southampton University told why Ph.D.-trained engineers (who tackle a tough research problem in depth) were preferred to more rounded D.Sc.-prepared engineers. Some comparisons of British and West German engineering education.


Sir Andrew Huxley's Royal Society speech bemoaned University Grants Committee (UGC) cuts to university scientific research and cited the problems intrinsic in expecting research councils to take up the slack.


Described the development of the Nuffield chemistry curriculum, its reception and use by teachers, and its use outside of Britain.


Despite lectures arranged by mechanics' institutes and other groups, the most important adult science education arose from middle class determination to meet their own industrial and professional needs.

Not until the 1930s was biology given an established place in the curriculum, as recommended in relevant reports. Biology's usefulness was seen for health education and citizenship.


A carefully documented analysis of laboratory use, textbooks, administration, teacher supply, teaching methods, and exams as related to twentieth century science teaching.


Primary school nature study, inspired by romantic and revolutionary views of nature, was intended to prepare pupils for secondary school physical science courses.


A bibliographical survey of twentieth century secondary school science education on such topics as primary curriculum, nature study movement, general science movement, girls' science education, teaching methods, textbooks, laboratories, and medical education.


The prestigious Thomson Committee, named to quiet wartime unrest over poor science teaching, reasserted the humanizing influence of the study of science. Its 1918 report and three others on specific school subjects influenced the overall review of secondary school curriculum that led to the Regulations of 1926.

Explained the attitudes and sex differences of pupils aged 11 and 15 whose maths achievement was assessed.


Through ship captains and other travelers, the Royal Society from its founding in 1660 had links with Asian natural science and mathematics. Author surveyed those links, 1660 to 1984.


The first of a series of brief histories of science education. Described why science came late to the school curriculum. Mentioned the Technical Instruction Act of 1887, Henry Moseley (first scientific inspector of schools and teacher training colleges), Cambridge botany Professor J.S. Henslow (Charles Darwin's mentor), scientist T.H. Huxley, mechanics' institutes (1820s-'30s), and the Department of Science and Art (1853). Not until about 1900 did science become a valued school and university subject.


The influence on science education of John Henry Pepper (1821-1900), director of the Royal Polytechnic Institution.


After over 20 years at Cambridge as student and bursar of Downing College, Dawes became rector at King's Somborne, Hampshire. Influenced by the scientific enthusiasm at Cambridge, he became a powerful advocate of science after the 1842 opening of the National Society Schools. He also urged studying the English
language through secular literature. All knowledge, he stressed, should be relevant to the needs and interests of the learner. Dawes, who championed education for poor children, influenced primary school science education throughout England and Wales.


Examined major events and important leaders in university science education during 1850 to 1914.


Surveyed science education between two landmarks years: 1892, when a 5-year medical curriculum was introduced; and 1911, when the General Medical Council approved science study in independent (private) schools.


The basic sciences were declining in quality and quantity just when new technologies depended most on basic research. Japan in 1979 had 4 times as many academic researchers and in 1983 registered 4 times as many patents as Britain.


The shortage of qualified science and maths teachers was one cause of declining enrollments in university and polytechnic programs intended to train scientific and technical personnel.


F.W. Sanderson expanded facilities for teaching mathematics, physics, and engineering, and stressed the use of individual laboratory experiments.


Education failed to help England compete with other nations because it required specialization at too early an age, failed to recruit women, and long depreciated science.


An independent science research center, the Royal Institution (founded in 1799) provided laboratories for University College, London, students and had enrichment lectures for secondary school students.


As a result of the Royal Society's 1982 report on science education for 11-18-year-olds, this syllabus was prepared to suggest an essential minimum core in physics for all ability levels.


Analyzed and assessed science education in Britain. Included such curricular approaches as the Oxford Primary Science Project, Nuffield Junior Science, and Science 5-13.

Explored the relationship between nineteenth century science education and industry. Analyzed the scientific content of primary, secondary, technical, and university education. Compared Britain's lack of central planning for science education with provisions made by the U.S., France, and especially Germany.


Eight of the 9 articles were about scientific institutions or societies in Liverpool and Cornwall; the ninth article was about post-1860 secondary school science teaching.


Pressures for more science education mounted, with Oxford slower than Cambridge to respond. In the early 1900s, city universities arose, emphasizing science and engineering for technological development.


Contended that setting maths achievement targets in primary schools, as recommended in *The National Curriculum 5-16,* was helpful but that designing reliable national tests to measure such achievement was impossible. If the goal was to promote political control over teachers and schools, then education standards were destined to deteriorate. See entry 41.


Criticized science teaching in primary school as poorly planned and superficial.

Found that the pending shortage in mathematics and physics teachers posed a national threat. Offered recommendations to the government, LEAs, industry, and to sponsors of the study.


Extensive report of findings about teacher shortages in maths and physics, demand and supply, teacher training, international comparisons, vacancies and wastage, LEAs, and reactions to DES initiatives. Included 15 recommendations.


The Finniston study, though weak on statistical data, urged that the engineering profession be redirected to serve better the national economy and to take new initiatives to recruit and train young people.


Cited trends and likely improvements in environmental education as awareness of problems heightened.


Not until the 1950s did the sciences gain major time in secondary and higher education curricula, a trend threatened by 1970s funding cutbacks.

Evaluated available biology syllabi and summarized the main features of assessment schemes used in the different options.


Relatively few scientists and engineers left Britain after the mid 1970s. Those who left were offset by qualified scientists who entered Britain despite the weakened career structure within academia.


Asserted that the Nuffield General Certificate of Education-Ordinary level chemistry course project allowed teachers too much flexibility with instructional materials and failed to provide adequate inservice teacher training in the use of these materials.


Government-backed School Council study, *Science Education 11-16* (London: Secondary Science Curriculum Review, Hartford House, 1983), wanted a more scientific and technological society, urged that all students ages 11-16 have 7 science lessons a week, that astronomy and earth sciences be included, and that science be linked to other subjects in the curriculum.


Argued that political changes, institutionalization of knowledge in the educational system, and the ideological content of certain scientific ideas affected the boundaries of seventeenth century science. Gave as an example the founding of the Royal Society.
CHAPTER 12
Wales and Welsh Language


The need to study politics in relation to the status of a minority language was seen in Wales, where the long dominance of Welsh made its use central to the ideology of the Welsh nationalist movement.


Those teaching Welsh-speaking learning disabled pupils gave first priority to reading, used graded reading books, and preferred that language materials reflect reality.


Ability, school size, and class size—but not sex—were related to behavior problems in Gwynedd.

Compared programs for teaching Welsh in Wales with programs for teaching French in Canada. Described Welsh medium schools, Welsh as a second language, and the Schools Council Bilingual Project which used Welsh as the medium of instruction for part of the day.


In trying to establish British schools in Wales, Roberts faced denominational conflict, opposition of religious bodies to government aid, teacher shortages, and low attendance.


About the role of the Welsh National Center for Children's Literature in saving the Welsh language.


Experience in Wales showed that survival of bilingual education depended on local parents, teachers, and the education system rather than on public support.


Those bilingual schools begun in 1939 in Welsh anglicized areas used Welsh as the language of instruction to age 7.

The 1880 Aberdare Report and religious nonconformity, rather than social class, greatly influenced the intermediate schools. The curricula of intermediate schools, significantly different from grammar and independent school curricula, stressed practical subjects and nondenominational teaching but did not favor teaching Welsh or using it as the medium of instruction.


Founded after the 1889 Welsh Intermediate Education Act, the Narbeth County Intermediate School had a broad curriculum and paid teachers well but did not teach or use Welsh and did not emphasize practical subjects, as the 1889 act intended.


The Carmarthenshire Intermediate School's progress was hindered by conflict among local interests, the local education authority (LEA), and the Board of Education Welsh Department over the school's cost and its technical emphasis.


Policy for implementing the national curriculum included specific provisions for the Welsh language and separate consultation machinery for Wales.


Compared bilingual education techniques used in Canada and Wales, especially applying first language learning techniques to second language learning.

The Welsh language media and Welsh language teaching at all levels helped keep the language alive. Establishing a Welsh-medium university would also help.


Owens supported the growth of secondary education, the opening of the University College of Wales, the use of tax funds for education, and challenged the dominance in education of the Anglican Church.


Characterized 3 policymaking periods: 1944 to 1957, when there were no partisan political struggles and education officers dominated; 1957 to 1966, when officers' influence declined as the Department of Education and Science (DES) grew stronger and the Labor Party pushed for comprehensive schools; and 1966 to 1970, when Cardiff's Conservative Party-controlled LEA was compelled to comply with the government's comprehensive school policy.


Examined factors which hindered Cardiff's attempts to open central or secondary modern schools.


Nonconformists tried unsuccessfully to have the 1870 Education Act assign religious education to Sunday schools and make state-aided schools secular. Most Welsh school boards adopted fully secular policies.

Discussion paper on assessment practices used in schools as a tool to improve learning. One trend was the declining use of grades and the rising use of profiles on student performance.


A general look at life and work in primary schools, external influences, social and individual needs, and the ways the teachers and curriculum could assure pupil development while serving society's long-range goals.


Secondary school-level geography was influenced by external exam requirements, new materials, and learning strategies. Most schools needed to vary teaching methods and learning experiences, especially to give pupils a more active role.


Volume I traced government efforts since 1939 to provide recreational and social services for youth; appraised LEA services and their relations with other youth service agencies. Volume II, Appendix, has 50 tables about LEA and other youth services.


Despite efforts to save the Celtic languages, most young people were assimilating the majority culture, including the language.

Adolescent values in 3 language groups (bilingual, English-only-speaking Welsh, and English-only-speaking English) differed little. But bilingual Welsh adolescents imagined that their own values differed significantly from those of English adolescents.


Growth of Welsh-medium schools, their role in building Welsh identity, and the relationship between education and rising elites.


Attitudes were extreme toward accepting or rejecting the Welsh language. Acceptance of Welsh correlated directly to length of residence in Wales. Acceptance of English was greatest among males and increased with age. Fragmented community relationships, rapid urbanization, and the historic struggle between England and Wales aggravated Welsh-English language problems.


Traced the history of planning Welsh orthography, lexicography, and oral standards; ways to assure Welsh a place in daily life; and its status in the media, the workplace, and in cultural activities.


Compared bilingual education in the USSR, the U.S., and Celtic countries: Wales, Ireland, Scotland, and Brittany in France. Appendix outlined bilingual education in Welsh primary schools.

Wales and Welsh Language


Compared bilingualism in Wales and parts of the USSR, bilingualism's relationship to social change and modernization, the potential for conflict, and the role of education.


Few schools surveyed in Wales were planning to mainstream (integrate) pupils who had learning problems. Teachers preferred not to teach the learning disabled; but nondisabled pupils, their teachers, and parents were not hostile to slow learners.


Amid declining industries and unemployment, the Welsh Office needed to raise the quality of its further education (FE) courses and enroll more 16 to 19-year-olds. Wales has 1 university with 7 constituent colleges, 6 institutes of higher education, 1 polytechnic, 37 colleges of FE and technical education, 1,250 evening institutes, and 9 teacher training centers.


About the place of the Welsh language in schools, 1940 to 1985; bilingual education problems in Wales's secondary schools; and adaptability as the key to the survival of the Welsh language.


Methods for teaching reading in Welsh, when Welsh is the mother tongue of some and a second language for others.

The proportion of Welsh speakers in Wales dropped from 50 percent in 1901 to 20 percent in 1981. To reverse the decline, the author proposed ways to create a Welsh-only economy and revitalize the language.


Life and influence of William Rees, a specialist in Welsh social and economic history at the University College, Cardiff. He showed how land tenure and other factors changed the structure of late medieval and early modern Wales.


Implementation of bilingual education was left to LEA discretion. Support for Welsh-medium schools came mainly from those who stressed a link with the Welsh heritage and from middle class and professional parents. Bilingual skills were believed important for working with a Welsh-speaking clientele.


Described the development of standardized tests to measure the language skills of pupils for whom Welsh was a first language and for those for whom it was a second language.


Traced the spread of the English language by industrialization and by state education.

Parliament in 1907 created the separate Welsh Department, which, though not totally independent, was a step toward the creation of a Secretary of State for Wales (since 1964) and the decentralization of education.


In response to the growth of Welsh national consciousness since the late nineteenth century and to uniquely Welsh educational, health, and agricultural problems, Parliament in 1964 created the Welsh Office and the post of Secretary of State for Wales. The author explained the Secretary's role in regional government and in the policymaking process.


Examined in historic and administrative context the conflicts over language use in education in 2 nearby Welsh regions. Education decisions by policymakers in London did not meet the specific needs of people in Wales.


Cotton (1780-1862) supported education, the Welsh language, and the Poor Law; he sought improvements for Bangor Cathedral and aided many other humanitarian projects.


Tensions over efforts to establish one bilingual secondary school showed that such conflicts are locally based.

Teachers (250) in Wales identified the influence of the Welsh language on English spelling and sentence structure. The teachers' greatest problem was to maintain students' oral language standards.


Discussed several issues: linguistic options that face each individual, goals and techniques in first and second language learning and teaching, and the social status of dominant and minority languages.


Found that linguistic background (English/Welsh) was the most important determinant of attitude toward the English and Welsh languages and that English proficiency was similar in Welsh and non-Welsh areas. Other findings were about the extent of Welsh-medium instruction and about teaching methods for Welsh as a first and second language.


At a Welsh Roman Catholic comprehensive school, religious uncertainty increased with age, older and more intelligent girls remained firm in their beliefs, and intelligence influenced some beliefs more than others.


Historically, no single standard for spoken Welsh existed. The major contemporary model came from 1960s-1970s language planning. Expanding Welsh media also influenced spoken Welsh.

Described the increasing cultural and governmental use of the Welsh language and its legal, conversational, scientific, and literary purposes.


Use of spoken Welsh declined between 1961 and 1979, despite its increased use in Welsh-speaking schools.


Described the students and faculty of the day training college founded in 1891 and its eventual development into the Department of Education, University College, Cardiff.


How English speakers who studied spoken Welsh were affected by the association of the language with Welsh cultural identity and how their own ethnic identity affected the learning process.


Academic achievement in the English language was only slightly affected by the pupils' home language and language of instruction.


Polarization of ethnic groups in Wales was declining. In areas using both Welsh and English, attitudes favored the supremacy of English. If the Welsh language is to survive, it should be used in government.

With fewer and smaller areas using the Welsh language, the author considered the relationship between language planning and language rights. Cited the experiences of Finland and Canada with bilingual districts. Discussed the pros and cons of adopting bilingual districts in Wales.


Ironically, the 1980s revival of Welsh culture and of teaching Welsh language in schools coincided with socioeconomic pressures to abandon the Welsh language and culture.


Historic use in religion and in newspapers kept the Welsh language alive. But massive nineteenth century English immigration, aided by the railroad, made Wales bilingual.


Despite the belief that the Welsh Language Act (1967) would help preserve and spread Welsh, the accompanying power struggles have displeased the Welsh people.


In 1947, the first state-controlled Welsh-medium primary school opened. After 1947, teaching in Welsh spread into secondary schools and higher education. Class fragmentation heightened the conflict over bilingual education.
CHAPTER 13
Women's and Girls' Education

Examined the problems of women academics in balancing home and work, in relating to male colleagues, and in overcoming bias against their professional competence.

Considered women's education in discussing the role and position of women from social, political, and economic perspectives.

Analyzed ways that sociology of education researchers treated the effect of male hegemony on girls' and women's education.

Half (5) of the papers in this Open University (OU) course reader dealt with girls' and women's education and sex discrimination. Included Margherita Rendel on the Sex Discrimination Act; Eileen
M. Byrne on European comparisons; Gaby Weiner on Schools Council and curriculum policy; Hazel Taylor on a local education authority (LEA) initiative; and Alison Kelly on Girls into Science and Technology Project.


History of women's education from medieval times to the 1970s.


Providing a broad classical education for upperclass women became acceptable in sixteenth century England because of humanism, the Protestant Reformation, and the ideals of Elizabeth I. But in the seventeenth century Puritan period, women's education was intended merely to teach them to read the Bible and perhaps be able to teach the Bible to their children.


Articles on women's secondary education, women's higher education, and women's studies, with fear that funds for women's studies would be cut because of economic constraints.


Examined women's economic, social, and educational disadvantages and the effect of proposed sex discrimination legislation on women's chances for equality.

Problems and benefits to researchers of using the Fawcett Library's famed women's studies collection.


About the conflicts that planning a part-time master's degree program in women studies created at a polytechnic.


Used novels and poetry to show the role of women in nineteenth century government, religion, and education.


Identified social and educational factors that predisposed women to become scientists.


The education and role of women from 1838 to 1901.


Reviewed works published between 1970 and 1976 on all aspects of women's role and influence in education and the effect of their changing attitudes.

Contended that teacher-student interaction in a working-class comprehensive secondary school tended to reinforce and reproduce the same sexual inequality that existed in society at large.


Showed that sex discrimination increased as women moved upward in many curriculum areas. Called for such positive steps as increasing funding and lowering social and cultural barriers that confront women students.


Authors surveyed the history of the women's liberation phase of the women's movement. The chapter on "Learning," pp. 185-203, blamed schools for perpetuating sex stereotyping but praised the Inner London Education Authority's pioneering Anti-Sexist Statement and its Equal Opportunities Unit.


Families, schools, and family-school interactions reinforced one another in showing that expectations for men and women were not the same in the adult world.


Concluded that laws have had limited impact on sex discrimination and that women's status can be improved only by challenging capitalist and patriarchal social relations.


Reported on several studies on women and education. Editor contended that schooling and job practices perpetuated sex discrimination.

Studied the role of schoolgirls' magazines after World War I when more lower class girls began attending secondary schools. Analyzed magazine content and the appeal of the content to readers.


History of curriculum for girls showed the movement to increase and widen the scope of homemaking subjects.


Examined the tension between intellectual and homemaking curricula for girls from the perspective of social Darwinism.


Traced historically the various pressures on girls' schools to prepare girls for homemaking and motherhood.


Indicted the education establishment, employers, and women themselves for the small number of women working in science and technology.

Student attitudes toward science in mixed and single-sex classes suggested that some science subjects should be taught in separate-sex classes.


An anthology and bibliography on girlhood, adulthood, and old age showed that nineteenth century England, France, and the U.S. offered females little education and few career opportunities.


Bodichon (1827-91), a feminist reformer, founded Girton College, Cambridge University, in 1869. Described nineteenth century women's education in the context of Bodichon's career.


Central government encouraged women's courses at London's City Literary Institute, Richmond Adult and Community College, Swarthmore Education Center (Leeds), East Anglia YWCA, Open Colleges Federation of the Northwest, and elsewhere. Author included statistical data and questionnaire responses were included.


A differentiated curriculum for boys and girls was reinforced by the 1895 Bryce Commission. As a result, girls had limited opportunity to study science.


Suggested reasons for girls' poor science achievement and ways to improve their performance and to reduce sexism in the classroom.

To encourage more girls to study science and become professional scientists, author suggested more relevant courses, later choices, and better advice about possible scientific careers.


Five papers on the reasons why women have not entered science, sex differences in attitudes and scientific ability, and ways to encourage more women to become scientists.


Re-examined the effects of sex and social class on education, observing changes since the author's 1971 study of sex differences in educational achievement. Concluded that, if studies are to be accurate, they should link social class and sex differences.


Women's studies in Britain, begun in the 1970s, were usually in adult education and other nondegree settings.


Extensive introduction to gender and education (prepared for an OU course). Readings and statistics showed sex-differentiated outcomes in British education.

The rapid spread of boarding schools and other schools for young women in the late eighteenth century aroused concern about attracting the "unsuitable" lower classes. Aspiring parents saw such schools as a route to a good marriage or, failing that, to work as a teacher or governess. Disdain of state-aided girls' schools adversely affected the nineteenth century movement for a national system of education.


Benjamin Jowett (1817-93), professor of Greek, Master of Balliol College, and Vice Chancellor of Oxford, inspired the tutorial system and favored the admission and education of women.


Mary Ward, a Renaissance nun, adapted Jesuit methods for women's education


Not until the 1944 Education Act were LEAs required not to discriminate against married women teachers. Equal pay came in 1961, and the 1975 Sex Discrimination Act ended overt sex bias.


Concluded that reformed secondary school and higher education institutions advanced the feminist movement because they responded to women's social needs and cultural values.

Independent (private) school teachers, themselves upper class, trained girls for a leisurely life. As professional teachers, headmistresses stressed academic subjects for public usefulness.


Dedicated headmistresses in the nineteenth century believed that schooling should prepare women for a subordinate role.


The lives and writings of Mary Astell, Mary Wollstonecraft, and Virginia Woolf showed that, as they became increasingly aware of sex bias in society, their criticism of education became increasingly radicalized.


Origins and accomplishments of women's educational associations and their role in gaining women's entrance into higher education.


Discussed the inequalities between working class men and women. A Working Women's College (founded in 1864) admitted men in 1874, but another rival women-only college was opened.

In a study of educational aspirations of 2,133 girls, found that grammar school girls were most likely to be high aspirers, secondary modern school girls were low aspirers, and comprehensive school girls were in between.


Compared historically the growth of women's education for motherhood, for teaching, for other careers, and for its own sake.


Brief history of girls' education, followed by the comments of white, West Indian, and Asian working class London school girls on their lives and education.


Overview of different experiences of males and females at the compulsory, further education, and higher education levels.


The historical background and modern developments in girls' education, including coeducation; the impact of the women's liberation movement; and Britain compared with other countries.


Described "Girls into Science and Technology" (GIST), a north of England research project concerned with subject choices in the first three years of secondary school and strengthening backgrounds for scientific or technological study.

Conference papers about girls' and women's education in Britain: such problems as gender role discrimination in mathematics and science and such solutions as science clubs for girls.
Journals Used

ADE Bulletin (New York)
Administrative Science Quarterly (Ithaca, NY)
Adult Education (Leicester, England)
Adult Literacy and Basic Education (Orlando, FL)
AEP (Association of Educational Psychologists) Journal. Now:
   Educational Psychology in Practice (Harlow, Essex, England)
Alberta Modern Language Journal (Edmonton, Alberta, Canada)
Albion (Boone, NC)
American Journal of Education (Chicago, IL)
American Scholar (Washington, DC)
American Sociological Review (Washington, DC)
Applied Economics (London)
Arizona Republic (Phoenix, AZ)
Asian Affairs (London)
Assessment and Evaluation in Higher Education (Bath, England)
Assistant Librarian (Edinburgh, Scotland)
Australian Journal of Education (Hawthorn, Victoria, Australia)
Australian Science Teachers' Journal (Perth, Australia)
Australian University (Carlton, Victoria, Australia)

BEE (Bulletin of Environmental Education) (London)
Bodleian Library Record (Oxford, England)
British History Illustrated. Now: British Heritage (Harrisburg, PA)
British Journal of Developmental Psychology (Leicester, England)
British Journal of Educational Psychology (Edinburgh, Scotland)
British Journal of Educational Research
British Journal of Educational Studies (Oxford, England)
British Journal of Educational Technology (London)
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