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ABSTRACT

This document reports the impressions of members of the Educational Leadership Seminar concerning education in Great Britain. Articles cover education in England (decisionmaking), the National Union of Teachers, community schools in England, the Schools Council for curriculum and examinations, the College of Further Education, the British polytechnic, Berkshire College of Education, universities in the United Kingdom, the University grants committee, the Open University, and the Council on National Academic Awards. (MJM)

Impressions of Education in GREAT BRITAIN

January 1974

THE GEORGE WASHINGTON UNIVERSITY INSTITUTE FOR EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP

EDUCATIONAL STAFF SEMINAR

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IMPRESSIONS OF EDUCATION IN GREAT BRITAIN

A Report of the Educational Staff Seminar Study Mission
January 7-21, 1974
Edited by George Lane

INSTITUTE FOR EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP

- **Washington Internships in Education**
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PREFACE FROM THE DIRECTOR OF ESS

As one who believes passionately in the importance of informed adult education, I wish to express my appreciation to the participants in the 1974 ESS study mission to England. This report of your educational visit provides convincing evidence once again that it is possible for well-motivated travelers to learn a great deal in a foreign culture, even if one's time is short and the attractions many.

When ESS began its series of overseas study missions in 1971, there were the inevitable cynics who labeled them "junkets" and "boondoggles." Over time, these field trips have proven themselves invaluable in stimulating federal education officials to think more deeply about the meaning and purpose of education, about the trade-offs implicit in various types of educational structures and programs, and about governmental responsibility to promote educational change. Moreover, we have seen that the intensity of ESS field trips enables members of the federal education establishment to develop new and better ways of communication among themselves, a benefit which remains long after the study mission has ended.

Finally, the immersion in an alien educational environment induces a provocative culture shock for ESS visitors. Their perspective on American education is never the same again. The dimensions of their thinking are expanded so that insoluble problems loosen somewhat and new options present themselves. Models of excellence abroad are identified for adaptation or further research. I believe that the best justification for ESS study missions in cost-benefit terms is the multiplier effect of heightened awareness on the part of committed people.

Samuel Halperin

Samuel Halperin
Director, Educational
Staff Seminar

EDUCATIONAL STAFF SEMINAR

FIELD TRIP ITINERARY: EDUCATION IN ENGLAND
January 7-20, 1974

January 7, Monday

Morning: Early morning arrival at Heathrow Airport. Met by Miss H. M. Graham on behalf of the Educational Interchange Council and accompanied by private coach to the Imperial Hotel, Russell Square. Met at hotel by Mr. C. R. Hewer, OBE, of the Council.

Afternoon/ Evening: Late afternoon reception at the Embassy of the United States of America, Grosvenor Square. Received by Mr. Michael Pistor, Counselor for Public Affairs. Others present included embassy education adviser, cultural affairs officers, and British educational officers, notably Lord Sandford and Sir Norman Lindop.

January 8, Tuesday

Morning: Visit to the Department of Education and Science, Elizabeth House. Received by the Parliamentary Under-Secretary of State, the Rt. Hon. The Reverend Lord Sandford, DSC. The Senior Chief Inspector Mr. H. W. French, CBE, and Her Majesty's Inspector Mr. A. J. Legge conducted a lecture and discussion on the educational system of England and Wales, including the work of the Inspectorate. Lunch in the restaurant of the Royal Festival Hall.

Afternoon: Visit to the Schools Council on Curriculum and Examinations. Received by Mr. Andre Farrant for tour of the Information Centre. Met with Mr. Ian Parry, B.A., and Mr. John Hipkin, B.Sc., for a discussion on the work of the Council.

January 9, Wednesday

Morning: Visit to the University Grants Committee. Received by the Secretary, Mr. L. R. Fletcher, C.B.

Afternoon: Visit to Hatfield Polytechnic, Hertsfordshire. Received by Sir Norman Lindop, M.Sc., F.R.I.C. Met with faculty and administration, and toured the Polytechnic.

January 10, Thursday	
Morning:	Departed by private coach for Reading. Visited the Berkshire College of Education in Reading. Met with the Principal, Mr. J. F. Porter, M.A., B.Sc. and his staff. Toured the campus, after which the Principal spoke on "The Changing Role of Colleges of Education." Lunch at the College.
Afternoon:	Travelled by private coach to Oxford. Received in the foyer of the Randolph Hotel by Mr. L. F. Cowan, B.Sc., M.L.E.E., Vice-Principal, The College of Further Education. Visit to the College of Further Education for presentation by Mr. Cowan and tour of the College.
January 11, Friday	
Morning:	Tour of Oxford University. Departed by private coach for Stratford-upon-Avon. Lunch at the Festival Club, Halls Croft, Stratford-upon-Avon. Visit to Shakespeare properties by courtesy of Mr. A. Keene, F.R.S.A.
Afternoon:	Travelled to Coventry, Leofric Hotel.
Evening:	Dinner at the Coventry College of Education. Received by Miss J. D. Browne, CBE, JP, MA, Principal of the College. Attended the Colloquy, "The Curriculum and the Community", featuring Eric Midwinter and John Hipkin.
January 12, Saturday	
Morning:	Sightseeing in Coventry, including new Cathedral and ruins of old cathedral destroyed in World War II bombing.
Afternoon:	Travelled by private coach to Birmingham, Strathallan Hotel.
January 13, Sunday	
Morning:	Free time.
Afternoon:	Visit to Dudley Teachers' Centre, Himley Hall, Dudley. Met by the Warden, Mr. A. S. Hill, Dip.Ed. Attended seminar on role of teachers' centres. Mr. Hill arranged visit to Museum of Glass and Arts in Dudley, guided by the Keeper, Mr. A. W. Woodward, A.L.A.

January 14, Monday

Morning: Travelled by private coach to Telford. Visit to Madeley Court Comprehensive School at Telford. Received by the Headmaster, Mr. Hugh Cunningham. Toured the School and participated in discussion with Mr. Cunningham and faculty on the Open School. Lunch at the School.

Afternoon: Travelled to Brindley Heath Junior School, Kinver. Received by the Headmistress, Mrs. J. C. Watson. Visited classrooms and attended class assembly for "summing-up" of week's studies. Discussion and showing of in-service teacher training film followed by English high tea. Travelled to Manchester, Midland Hotel.

January 15, Tuesday

Morning: Visit to Abraham Moss Centre, Manchester. Received by the Principal, Mr. R. A. Mitson, B.A. (The Centre was not fully operational, but visit arranged by Chief Education Officer, Mr. D. A. Fiske, M.A.) Another group visited University of Manchester at the same time. Toured library, art gallery, and campus.

Afternoon: Returned by private coach to London, Imperial Hotel.

January 16, Wednesday

Morning: One group visited the National Union of Teachers, Hamilton House. Received by Mrs. V. Trelfer, Assistant Secretary, the Education Committee. Another group visited the Council for National Academic Awards. Received by the Chief Officer, Dr. E. Kerr, Ph.D., B.Sc., F.I.M.A.

Afternoon: Travelled by private coach to the Open University, Walton Hall, Bletchley, Buckinghamshire. Received by Miss R. J. Seymour, Visits Officer. Addressed by Mr. George Kiloh, Assistant Secretary, and Mr. McDonald Ross, Senior Lecturer in the Institute of Educational Technology.

January 17, Thursday

Morning: Visit to the House of Commons as guests of Parliament to hear Prime Minister Edward Heath respond to queries from Members of the opposition.

Afternoon: Free time. By special arrangement of Mr. Hewer, one group visited Danebury Primary School, London. Received by the Headmistress, Mrs. Cassell.

January 18, Friday

Morning: Visit to Department of Education and Science for round-up session with the Senior Chief Inspector, Mr. H. W. French, and Her Majesty's Inspector, Mr. A. J. Legge on the study tour as a whole.

Afternoon: Free time for sightseeing and shopping in London.

January 19, Saturday

Free day. Visits individually on tours of Parliament, Westminster Abbey, Changing of the Guard at St. James Palace and Buckingham Palace, #10 Downing Street. One group took motor tour to Stonehenge.

January 20, Sunday

Free day. Visits individually to Chinese exhibit at Royal Academy of Art and British Museum. Commercial tours optional to Windsor Castle, Canterbury Cathedral. During all periods in London, free evenings allowed visits to famed restaurants, theaters, pubs, and clubs. These included Sadler's Wells, Old Vic, D'Oyly Carte, and the National Shakespeare Company.

tours option

January 21, Monday

Morning: Depart Heathrow Airport for United States.

INTRODUCTION
(by George B. Lane)

> Titles shall enoble, then,
> All the Common Councilmen:
> Peers shall teem in Christendom,
> and a Duke's exalted station
> Be attainable by Competitive Examination!
>
> Gilbert and Sullivan, Iolanthe

Gilbert and Sullivan caught the essence of traditional British values with regard to education by the suggestion that one might become a peer by competitive examination. These two values shone through in the succession of interviews, site visits, and discussions with English educators which were crowded into our two weeks by the Educational Interchange Council--that is, elitism and exams.

Although perhaps overgeneralized, reliance upon standards of excellence as determined by upper class values and rigorous written tests was everywhere in evidence. And nowhere more in evidence than in higher education, of course, which is highly restricted to the academically gifted. While no one--particularly an American--would deny the superb quality of almost everything the English people do, the relevance of class and classicism to the social and economic stress of contemporary times in Great Britain is being closely examined in many quarters.

The stark drama of the problem was contained in an interview conducted in 1974 by a New York University professor with David Storey, a young British playwright whose themes deal with social stress (In Celebration, Life Class, Home, The Changing Room). Storey said:

> In my own life, I found that education very much took me away from my origins. Both in a good and in a destructive way. Unfortunately, the destructive side gets out of hand. Largely because of the context of education. It was--is--essentially a competitive thing, not an enlightening one. Thus, the impulse of ones parents was ambiguous. They said they wanted you to have a better life, but what they really meant was they wanted you to be better off. Richer. More immune to life.
>
> Instead of being thrust into a world of enlightenment, you are thrust into a world of competition. The English system, at least in my time, was different from yours in America in that it was so fiercely competitive. There was a severely

> limited number of places at a few universities. Only the top three to five percent would get into the university. The rest were left behind. You became a workman.
>
> In a working class area, this became a kind of nightmare that hung in the air all the time. So one had terrible emotional pressures as well as social pressures. Caught between workers' society and an elitist society which still thinks that some people are better than others intellectually, and that therefore they deserve the best. You Americans think everyone is equal, and all should have the same opportunities, even if some are a bit thicker than others. Well, that's only just catching on in England. But the competition completely overwhelms the possible enlightenment. For me, it was totally destructive.

Because of the growing social stratification and economic distress in the United States, Americans need to look closely at our cherished myths of egalitarianism in educational practice. The old cliché that one studies others to understand himself may be directly applicable. So in England as in America, the cogent question is, "Education for what?"

The classic dichotomy between education as a mark of the cultivated man and vocational training as a mark of the skilled worker is sharply drawn in England, and the strides made in the United States toward attenuating the gulf between them come clear. But the gulf remains in both countries, and the other half of the old cliché is that one studies himself to understand others. England is now grappling with the fundamental issue which has preoccupied American educational theorists for more than a decade, and that is to relate the eternal concerns of humane letters to the near-subsistence cultures in which most industrial workers live.

Our group consisted of 22 persons broadly interested in English education. Geographically disparate, we represented the Florida and Ohio legislatures, national educational journalism, Federal bureaucracy, and several levels of the American school system. We visited London, Oxford, Coventry, Birmingham, and Manchester as well as numerous points between. We were treated to a well orchestrated array of British educational institutions, administrative structures, and policy officials.

It was a smashing instructional experience, enlivened on the side by visits to Parliament, Stratford-on-Avon, Coventry Cathedral, British Museum, assorted theaters, pubs, and a reception in our honor at the American Embassy in Grosnevor Square. Despite minor inconveniences caused by the National Emergency in Great Britain, which stemmed from grave economic and political issues, our tour was an extremely successful and ambitious undertaking.

One of the most rewarding experiences of the ESS visit to England was an evening colloquium on "The Curriculum and The Community" at the Coventry College of Education in which two outstanding young English educators squared off against one another. A report of that crucial evening is a part of this collection. The colloquium provided the basis for heated debate among our group throughout the rest of our tour.

The two educators were John Hipkin of the quasi-public Schools Council for Curriculum and Examinations in London, a curriculum reform agency devoted to enriching and liberalizing the traditional academic offerings of primary and secondary schools, and Eric Midwinter of Liverpool, Director of the Liverpool Teachers Center, whose objective is to make the curriculum relevant to the mundane concerns of Working-class life. It appeared that both men represent the finest of English educational values, but they were diametrically opposed in their thinking about educational goals.

Hipkin seemed to epitomize English educational excellence, while Midwinter exhibited more concern for the urban subcultures with which we are so sadly familiar here in the United States. They were unable to reconcile their viewpoints, but we learned at least that recognition of the problem is far advanced in the industrial midlands where it exists most severely. The Principal of the Coventry College, Miss J. D. Browne, arose during discussion following the colloquy to make a telling point--that education should give an individual control over his own life.

The warm response generated among the audience of schoolmen and women at the colloquy was a clear indication that the communities in which they served were sorely in need of an educational approach which would give students control over their own lives. Liberal arts study alone may or may not be conducive to that end, depending upon social need. Eric Midwinter, a renowned author of British studies on educational priorities, is a prime exponent of the theory that the process of democratizing education hinges on relevance.

It hinges also on human dignity and self-respect. British society has been notable for the wide degree of toleration exhibited toward the unconventional, but the control of that society has always rested firmly on an implicit code of conduct by gentlemen. The British genius for self-government has flourished because the rules of the game were universally accepted. Challenges to the incremental development of the society were contained within "old boy nets" and deep-rooted traditions of civility.

There are some indications that this social consensus may no longer hold. We arrived in London to find Heathrow Airport surrounded by armored cars and troops. While the ostensible cause was an Arab terrorist group which planned to attack an American or Israeli plane with rockets, Irish terrorists had been bombing London restaurants and monuments for some time.

The locomotive engineers were on strike, and the coal miners were engaged in a work slowdown. The Arabian oil shortage was in full swing, and the effects were evident in dark streets and shop windows, chilly buildings, and unlighted government offices. The British pound sterling hit its lowest point in history shortly after our arrival, and the Conservative government of Edward Heath fell shortly after our departure. This is not to mention the rate of inflation which was unparalleled in any other nation of the West.

This litany of problems is not entirely unique to Great Britain, since all Western industrial nations have come upon evil days. But the need to recognize the new ballgame in which we are all engaged does have ramifications for educational systems. Education serves primarily to transmit social values and secondarily to inculcate skills (both mental and physical) by which to implement those values. The fact is that values are changing in England, and in order to keep pace, education is changing, too.

The great English conservative political theorist, Edmund Burke (1729-1797), counseled the need to accept change in order to control it--to retain the best of the past by fusing it with the new--rather than to risk the loss of everything by a futile effort to stop the clock. This, too, is an aspect of the British genius for self-government which may, in the end, be England's greatest contribution to world history.

The stumbling block is the speed with which change takes place. From our perspective, Burke could counsel moderation in the eighteenth century, which may seem quite impossible to implement with the swift pace of forces loosed in the mid-twentieth. We recall that Karl Marx wrote Das Kapital while sitting in the dim recesses of the British Museum, and one of his children starved to death at home as he did so. Every age contains the seeds of greatness as well as the source of its own destruction. The test of wisdom is to distinguish between them and build upon the strength of the culture.

The strength of the British culture is clearly that hallowed tradition of humanistic studies, broad tolerance, and civil law. The problem is to make that tradition relevant to a democratic society

increasingly dependent upon a consensus by those workers whom Marx championed. It is this challenge which posed the hidden agenda of that colloquy between Hipkin and Midwinter on a chill January night in Coventry.

Liston Pose of the Yale Divinity School once likened democracy to a duck with one foot labelled "liberty" and the other, "equality." The two must be kept in tandem, he contended, or the society like the duck will fall on its face. With each advance in liberty, the democratic society must make a counterpart advance in equality. If we apply the analogy to education, we might say that for each step forward in essentially elite artistic or intellectual achievement, a step forward in basically democratic implementation of the achievement is required to preserve it.

In England, one is faced on every side with intellectual achievement and, conversely, growing movements to relate this great culture to the communities where the average man lives. It is an exciting race between education and catastrophe, as H. G. Wells wrote, filled with peaks of success and troughs of failure. We saw neighborhood schools in London, oppressive with static, rigid, didactic method and rote learning. On the other hand, we saw Polytechnics alive with eager students preparing for careers in applied science and technology, and visited the staff of the Open University where behavioral psychologists are probing motivational theory in designing BBC instructional programs.

A living example of English educational excellence was John Coope, Assistant Educational Attache of the British Embassy in Washington, who briefed us before our departure. A product of the "Ox-Bridge Elite"--those finely honed graduates of Oxford and Cambridge--which dominates the British government, especially the Foreign Office, Coope noted the educational transition of English schools from institutions of excellence to institutions of equity. He frankly pointed out that problems of social structure and the British class system are manifest in education. This extends even to relations between the school system and the militant National Union of Teachers, which reflect social rigidity and elitism in the strife between workers and management.

On the egalitarian side, Mr. Coope stressed the student maintenance grants which are provided to more than 90% of British college students, stemming from the landmark recommendations of the Robbins Report in 1963 that higher education should be entirely free (including living costs) to all qualified applicants. These grants are based upon parental income and are actually made by local education authorities. This equity factor must, however, be balanced by the fact that only 8% of the 18 year age group went on to higher education in 1970, indicating rigorously high standards for qualification.

Arriving in England, we were welcomed at the Department of Education and Science by the Right Honorable Lord Sandford, DSC, Parliamentary Under-Secretary of State for Education and Science. Although honored by the greeting from such a distinguished nobleman, we were pleased to learn later that Lord Sandford's superior, the cabinet Secretary of State for Education and Science, was a woman, Miss Margaret Thatcher. (We were unaware then that the next U.S. Assistant Secretary for Education at HEW was also to be a woman, Dr. Virginia Y. Trotter.)

We surmised quickly that something like a controlled revolution is underway in the planning processes of English education with strategic points resting upon policy papers which bear illustrious names of titled Lords. In a society graced by an hereditary aristocracy, study commissions are invariably chaired by someone from the peerage. A spate of policy research papers had initiated reform movements during the 1960's and early 1970's then, with names like these: Higher Education--(Lord) Robbins Report, 1963; Children and Their Primary Schools--(Lady) Plowden Report, 1967; Medical Education--(Lord) Todd Report, 1968; Teacher Education and Training--(Lord) James Report, 1972. A recently knighted commoner, Sir Lionel Russell, chaired the Committee on Adult Education whose report was published in 1973.

Such august committee reports were supplemented by equally important official White Papers which set forth administrative policy. The postwar democratization tide was started by the white paper, Educational Reconstruction, published during World War II (1943) which led to the watershed Education Act of 1944. Two white papers in technical education were produced in the 1960's: Better Opportunities in Technical Education and Plans for Polytechnics and Other Colleges which led to creation of the Polytechnic institutions after 1966.

The latest white paper was published in 1972, Education: A Framework for Expansion. This document is a ten-year policy projection which in 49 pages outlines an impressive national campaign for educational development. A major new thrust is in nursery school education (the "under-fives") which Lord Sandford acknowledged was generally inferior to other European countries; the goal is therefore to surpass them in five years.

A second major goal is continued progress in substituting comprehensive secondary schools (essentially multifaceted American high schools) for the strictly academic grammar schools but with some elite institutions maintained for "academic high flyers." And finally, there is the objective of providing another year of secondary education through age 16, which was first stipulated in the Education Act of 1944.

A third major effort will be growth in higher education, expanding scientific and technical education in the Polytechnics and the liberal arts in Colleges of Education. The traditional apprenticeship system for training skilled workers is being supplemented institutionally by the postsecondary vocational Colleges of Further Education which also offer the last two years of traditional secondary education for those who left without attaining a diploma. Moreover, the entire subject of human resources is now the responsibility of a new Department of Employment and Productivity which is directed by a high level Manpower Commission.

In other words, the last decade has been a period of intense educational development in England. It has seen the establishment of the system of 30 new Polytechnic institutions, nine new chartered U.K. (United Kingdom) universities, the Open University, the National Extension College (essentially a secondary school counterpart of the Open University), the Youth Service Development Council (to foster coherent programs of voluntary community service), the Schools Council for Curriculum and Examinations (to reform the secondary schools), and the Council on National Academic Awards (to validate college-level work accomplished outside the U.K. universities), among others. It has also seen rapid growth in the locally-supported Colleges of Further Education which were initiated about 1950. Moreover, the system of local Teachers Centers (inservice training) has been vigorously expanded since 1964 under leadership of the Schools Council.

The most advanced experimental project now underway is the so-called community school which will serve working-class districts as both educational park and social service center. The laboratory model is the Abraham Moss Center, now being constructed in Manchester. The ESS group visited the Center and found it mind-boggling. There is nothing like it in the United States. A report on the visit is included in this collection.

Enormously expensive to build and operate, the Moss Center was scheduled to open in mid-1974. This approach to education as an integral part of comprehensive social services is more nearly akin to Scandinavian precedents than American practice. It owes its origin more to the National Health Service in concept than to traditional British educational theory, but its breathtaking assault on the entire spectrum of social needs may be more productive than the piecemeal approach followed elsewhere. It is a fascinating experiment that certainly bears watching.

British democracy began as an aristocratic club--the gentry sharing power with the monarch--and the history of England has been marked by the progressive expansion of that franchize to ever larger sectors

of the population. The general outlines should be familiar to Americans because this pattern of progressive enfranchizement characterizes our country as well (only landholders were eligible to vote under the first U.S. constitution). The process continues in both nations since it is generally true that the cure for the ills of democracy is more democracy.

British society, however, still retains the hereditary peerage which sets the standard for a highly stratified social structure reinforced by economics. In the United States, economics alone largely determines social status, but both cultures place inordinate store by status symbols which are education-based. The practical result is an obsessive credentialism which serves to restrict social mobility and exhalts academic achievement out of all proportion to its social utility.

In England, minute distinctions in accent, vocabulary, and initials of rank behind ones name assume grave proportions in determining status. Whereas in the United States only physicians, clergy, and commissioned military make their professional rank a mandatory part of their names, the British have a panoply of ascending orders and badges which affect their identities. For the average man or woman, the most likely place to acquire badges by which to compete with inherited titles and wealth is in an educational institution.

This competition for status begins early in a child's schooling. Although since 1964, children are no longer judged by written examinations taken at age 11, the examinations are still taken but now at age 16 or 18. In England, students do not graduate from high school; they "leave". The critical issue is whether, at the "school leaving age", they do or do not take the battery of comprehensive national examinations which qualifies them for higher education.

We were told by a faculty member at Hatfield Polytechnic that upwards of 40% of adolescents leave school without passing the examinations. These students lack opportunities of any kind for higher education because admission is based entirely upon those examination scores. These same students are also usually unable to afford fulltime study at one of the Colleges of Further Education to prepare for the examinations. As the Hatfield man said, "We are missing out on the education of 16 to 18 year olds." This sector of English youth apparently constitutes the next major challenge for educational policy in England.

In fairness, it must be pointed out that prior to World War II, the highly developed apprenticeship system of craft guilds offered an alternative route for youngsters without academic aptitude or interest. As in the United States, however, the postwar importance

of newly emerging technical specialties has dwarfed the contribution of craft training. The burgeoning mass society looks increasingly to the education system to resolve such social issues, but the alliance of education and credentials is a serious obstacle.

The hallowed examinations confronting the school leaver in England constitute the General Certificate of Education (GCE). These tests are conducted by eight independent examining bodies nationwide, most of them connected with universities. The examinations are set at two levels, Ordinary ("O") and Advanced ("A"). The O-level papers are usually written at the end of a five-year course in secondary school, and the A-level after two additional years in the sixth form (the highest class in secondary education). There are no compulsory subjects at either level, and candidates may take as many or as few subjects as many times as they wish.

Admission to the U.K. university requires passing two or more A-level exams and several O-level. Even study in a technical vocation at a community College of Further Education requires passing one A-level and two or more O-level exams. The GCE is the control point for access to middle-class respectability in England. It is a first step on the staircase of academic achievement and social mobility.

Under the Labor government in 1965, an alternative set of examinations was introduced at a lower level of ability than that required for the GCE. These are the Certificate of Secondary Education (CSE) and are administered by regional councils of secondary education boards. They are taken after five years of secondary education. The top grade corresponds to a GCE O-level pass. The CSE has had no appreciable impact on higher education admissions standards so far.

The decade of the 1960's opened several new avenues to British youth, therefore, but the tradition of fierce competition for honors dies hard. It is a tradition built primarily upon academic aptitude and skill in written expression. Rewards for practical skills and pragmatic aptitudes are only now being devised as a matter of public policy in the realization that England no longer manages an empire but must earn its way in international commerce and industry.

At the College of Further Education (CFE) we visited, which was located ironically in the town of Oxford adjacent to the University, we were told that "postgraduate" courses in secretarial and office skills were offered to women with university degrees so they could get jobs "where their university education will prove useful." There are some 430 CFE's in England. A description of our experience is included in this collection.

The CFE in Oxford had run out of fuel oil more than a week before our visit. A cold rain was lashed against the windows by winter wind as we sat in a dimly lit seminar room, bundled against the chill. We were informed that students had been coming to school for assignments and returning home to study during the energy shortage. A tour of the facilities was impressive, however. The newly completed buildings were beautifully equipped with hair-dressing laboratories, butcher shops, carpentry classrooms, bakeries and kitchens--all for vocational training which provided the coveted certificate of the City and Guilds of London Institute with access to journeyman status in the crafts.

We were told by the Vice-Principal, Mr. L. F. Cowan, that "long apprenticeships are a waste of time" and that CFE training was much more efficient. As an indicator of the job market, he responded to a query that, "If I wanted an engineer with industrial experience" for the faculty, "it might take some time to find him. If I wanted a physicist, my advertisement would draw a couple of Ph.D's and four or five Masters of Science." He also told us proudly that 53 of his graduates entered universities; some of them went across town to Oxford University itself.

Support for the CFE's comes from local education authorities, like its higher education counterpart, the Polytechnic. The government has also established National Training Boards which tax industries for vocational training but return it to those who provide training opportunities for their employees through the CFE.

The National Emergency in effect nationwide during our visit to England was the most enduring peacetime crisis in 50 years, Mr. Cowan said. It had occasioned the closing of 90 classes in the CFE, all of them academic rather than vocational. The National Emergency was our constant companion along with reduced heat and dark classrooms (electric light was illegal until 3:00 P.M. each day in public buildings). Lord Sandford indicated that the national educational plan for the next decade would have to be amended because of crisis budget cuts; Dr. Fletcher at the University Grants Committee also referred to pending reductions and the need for supplementary grants to retard the effect of inflation. An air of controlled crisis was clearly evident, yet life moved on in accustomed patterns.

It was the contrast between the troubled times and the cultural riches of England that provided a dramatic backdrop for our inspection tour. Travelling in a bus chartered for us by the Educational Interchange Council in London, we were hardly aware of the railroad strike except for newspaper headlines. And although the streets, shop windows and theater marquees were dark, we found sales brisk in the stores, subways crowded, and popular theater tickets hard to buy.

BBC television closed down at 10:30 every evening ostensibly to encourage people to retire early and save electricity. That was unfortunate for us Americans who feasted on the commercial-free treasures of BBC--both its two TV channels and its two radio stations. It was even piped into the London hotel elevators, and I was once obliged to ride several complete trips in order to hear the conclusion of a BBC interview with the University of Chicago economist, Milton Friedman, which I walked into by accident.

BBC is a prime educational vehicle of consummately democratic proportions which we Americans have every reason to envy. The Electric Company will be shown on it next year, but the greater commerce flows our way with our Corporation for Public Broadcast buying the entire production of Masterpiece Theater (The Churchills, The Civilization series, Elizabeth R, The Forsythe Saga, Upstairs and Downstairs, to mention a few). As a matter of fact, BBC is actually turning a profit this year because of its sales to American TV, including both CBS and NBC as well.

Open University programs from BBC may also be seen on the National Educational Television station in the Washington, D.C. area since the University of Maryland (along with Rutgers and Houston) has begun offering Open University courses. One of the highlights of English educational life is the Open University, and a comprehensive report on it is included in this collection. It is hailed in Britain as the greatest advance in British education in this century. It is assuredly a Rolls Royce product of instructional media, albeit based essentially on traditional academic curricula and therefore aimed at an exceedingly intellectual audience.

For those who are willing and able to strive within the system, indeed, and compete in an exceeding y intellectual atmosphere, the rewards of British life are inestimable. The British Golden Age lasted for some 300 years, and the cultural wealth amassed during that extended period undergirds what is probably the greatest civilization on earth. For the initiated and discriminating, there is an active cultural life in most communities revolving around the performing arts, the libraries, and the schools. Every village is rich in historical lore, and middle-class children are steeped in a sense of their English heritage.

Even in the smoky industrial midlands, far from the swank theaters of Piccadilly or grandeur of Whitehall, we were taken to fertile centers of educational creativity which served to awaken in students an awe of life in England. One of these was the Teachers' Center in Dudley, a local curriculum research and development service which helped teachers share their syllabi relating academic subjects to

the places where the students lived. The nineteenth century migration of workers from that district to America thus became a series of case studies in minerals mining, manufacturing trends, transportation, and history.

At a working-class comprehensive secondary school in the nearby commuter community of Telford serving industrial Birmingham, we were privileged to tour an entirely open classroom institution. The Madeley Court Comprehensive School is located in a drab "new town" of entirely rented row-houses ("estates") constructed by the public authority for workingmen and their families. The gifted Headmaster, Hugh Cunningham, had attended the Coventry Colloquium we visited the previous week and was dedicated to the concept of the school as a community institution.

The seeming welter of independent projects, constant movement, and free association which characterize the open classroom was vigorously in evidence throughout the school, but Cunningham and his faculty were clearly in command. The eager expressions on the students' faces testified to their enthusiastic response, and they were self-possessed in their chance conversations with us.

Mr. Cunningham was articulate and brilliantly forthright: "We English are obsessed with examinations.... One of the problems we have in England is that we have always decried the crafts" with the result that university admission emphasizes the academic. "Yet some of our most creative teachers are our craft teachers, and children find a great deal of satisfaction in crafts." When queried about the goals of the academic reform movement undertaken by the Schools Council in London which is intended to enrich the traditional curriculum, Mr. Cunningham quipped, "Fine words butter no parsnips."

As evidence for his proposition that an exclusively academic regimen was destructive, Mr. Cunningham cited the 25% attrition rate at U.K. universities and said, "When my son was at Oxford, the largest number of 'firsts' in honors were in the psychiatric ward of the local hospital." The stress induced by competition for honors is intolerable, he felt. "The English school system prepares students to work under strong supervision up to age 16, then throws them into universities where everything is tutorial and independent study."

Cunningham's school, Madeley Court, is a trailblazer--one of only a dozen or so in all of England out of some 6,000 secondary institutions. He started it from scratch a few years ago and recruited mostly young, highly innovative faculty. Located in Shropshire which was the most rural county in England before the new towns were established, the school consists entirely of working-class youngsters with little prior inclination for esoteric studies.

In this setting, Cunningham thrives by allowing the student's personal interests and natural curiosity to lead him into learning. Cunningham told us that the objectives of education should be social skills, discrimination, and an awareness of the socio-economic environment. He rejected the contention that working-class students do poorly on the national CGE and CSE examinations because they lack cognitive skills. In his opinion, the problem is communication--the written word. "The English they encounter on the exams is virtually a second language" to students without middle-class backgrounds.

The challenge to educators like Cunningham is to relate learning directly to life so that students gradually acquire skills to compete outside the industrial ghettos of Liverpool, Manchester, and Birmingham. The fact is that George Bernard Shaw's story of Henry Higgins and Eliza Doolittle is being reenacted daily by Hugh Cunningham and his faculty, equipping their students with the social and communications skills essential to full citizenship. Madeley Court is a monument to one man's devotion to education as a social change agent.

"The major objective of schools should be socialization," Cunningham believes, "and the success of the open school is to instill confidence in the teachers that they can do it." In the process, the arts and affective learning are more important even than sports which tend to emphasize competition and aggressive leadership, he said.

In England, incremental change in schools is much easier to implement than fundamental change, Cunningham admitted, because the nation is basically such a consensus society. "It's a very nice society for radicals, though, because you can talk a lot about change without anyone fearing you will implement it quickly." Unlike Americans, the English do not approach social questions as an "either/or process", he said. The search for compromise is dominant rather than hard and fast choice between two alternatives. This is possible because English society is so stable. Hugh Cunningham is making an outstanding contribution to building a new consensus in English education.

After leaving Madeley Court, we were driven over back country lanes through meadows and fields lush with green. At one point, the road narrowed to a passageway between the high hedges just wide enough for our bus to pass. We were clearly moving deep into a Camelot setting. Sure enough, the quiet village of Kinver we reached was right out of Mrs. Miniver but within rail commuting distance of Birmingham. Middle-class families had sought it out for much the same reason that middle-class Americans move to the suburbs. The air was clear, the environment tranquil, and one was struck by a sense of repose.

None of us is ever likely to forget the exquisite jewel of Brindley Heath Junior School on the outskirts of the village. Located in a verdant glen, Brindley Heath is an example of the best in traditional British educational development. Far removed from the blight of industrial life and social malaise, this modern, spotless school was filled with 330 healthy, bright-eyed youngsters (7 to 11 years of age).

Mrs. Watson, the headmistress, was a warm and pleasant middle-aged woman who was graciously proud that we had come to visit her institution. Half of her 11 teachers were men, all competent, devoted professionals. After we spent an hour visiting classrooms in operation, a school assembly was held in the common room where we were treated to a summing-up of the week's activities. Students from each grade made presentations on their studies, concluding with a "2001" space odyssey replete with background music from the movie.

We learned to our surprise that no other foreign visitors had ever found their way to Brindley Heath. The fact that the students had never laid eyes on an American before was a source of singular pleasure. They were completely unaffected and fascinated to hear us talk ("you use the same words we do, but you say them differently"), to tell us about their lovely village, compare dollars and pounds, and explain their studies. Although this was assuredly no open classroom school, the students were enthusiastic. They had never known economic deprivation.

After the students were dismissed, the teachers served us tea which turned into a fabulous banquet. Each faculty member had brought in a favorite dish or dessert. It was easily the best English food most of us ate during our entire visit. The hospitality was infectious, and our group was overcome by the generosity of these beautiful people. Removed though they were from the pressing realities of the distant metropolitan community where the fathers of these children worked, the teachers of Brindley Heath set high standards as educators and human beings.

Our last official day of the ESS tour featured a round-up session back at the Department of Education and Science in London. Lord Sandford was engaged elsewhere, but the two outstanding civil servants who had briefed us two weeks earlier were back to answer our questions. They were Her Majesty's Senior Chief Inspector, Mr. H. W. French, CBE, and Her Majesty's Inspector, Mr. A. J. Legge.

These able gentlemen were self-made men educationally, and their personal as well as professional stories were instructive. Both men attained the Ph.D. through evening courses of study at London

University. Mr. Legge was the son of a Welsh coal miner whose parents determined he would get education, but he found it "like climbing a greasy pole" in the prewar period. And when he returned to the village in Wales, he found it difficult to communica because of the distance between the two worlds.

Her Majesty's Inspectorate is an organization of 478 ex-teachers, specialists in educational practice, who act as educational extension agents and advisers for the national government; 405 of the HMI's are constantly in the field supervising, advising, assisting the 400,000 British school teachers. Yet despite this centralized service, English schools are extremely autonomous, and Mr. Legge could say, "Telling a teacher how to teach is impertinent." Mr. French summed it up by telling us that England has "the most complicated educational system in the world" and the most highly decentralized.

His words reminded us of young, bearded John Hipkin at the Schools Council briefing, whose invigorated curricular offerings constitute a substantial revision of traditional methods. Hipkin had concluded his remarks: "We are offering a revolution" to English teachers, "but they do not have to accept it. You must keep in mind the autonomous character of the English school."

Hipkin also said, "The American educational system aspires to be democratic. The British educational system is reluctant to be democratic and is largely elitist. The education provided for the top quarter of students is the best in the world, but that provided for the lowest is the worst." Nonetheless, he warned, parental choice of schools is "a very hot potato" in England and especially in London. The comprehensive school and community education movements have not displaced the elite grammar schools but rather augmented them because "parents insist on it in the name of choice." Middle-class parents, that is.

Mr. French, too, was cautious in his judgments about the community school movement. "We believe the community school is a very difficult concept to administer and requires someone extraordinary like Mr. Cunningham to operate it. We have our doubts about the practicability of the Midwinter concept, except for extremely able people like Cunningham. But perhaps we could scale it down for the average headmaster."

One thing British educators are agreed upon. They do not want to follow the American mass patterns, becoming "merely counters of herds" in Mr. French's terms. The favorable teacher student ratio is sacred in Britain. The ratios are 1 to 26 in primary school, 1 to 17 in secondary and 1 to 9 in special education. Lord Sandford told us they intend to improve them further, too.

Programmed learning is especially unattractive to the British. As Mr. French observed, "Any teacher that can be replaced by a machine deserves to be." The real danger which French, Cunningham, Hipkin, and Midwinter all recognized was bureaucratization of education in which management destroys the ends of learning. Peaceful change and growth through encouragement of the individual teacher and institution represent the consensus of British educators at every point on the spectrum. Self-government is the genius of the English, after all.

In conclusion, special tribute is due to two persons without whom the ESS tour would not have been possible. Virginia and Harry Hogan were our tour leaders whose performance under the multiple stresses of travel abroad was exceptional. They are two of the finest people in the Washington educational establishment, and we were incredibly fortunate to have them accept the responsibility of command. Their constant concern for our welfare and their breadth of vision in decisionmaking enhanced the quality of all our perceptions immeasurably.

And finally, a word for Charles R. Hewer, Senior Assistant at the Educational Interchange Council, Inc., in London, who was our guiding spirit in England. Mr. Hewer was at our hotel early and late, constantly attending to the needs and wishes of our party. The management of our tour on his behalf was little short of remarkable in view of the energy shortage, railroad strike, short work week, and other hurdles he faced. Mr. Hewer is a notable example of Englishmen: a dedicated, honorable man whose integrity is rooted in the excellence of his craft. We salute Mr. Hewer, EIC, and their tireless efforts in our behalf.

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EDUCATION IN ENGLAND: DECISION-MAKING
(by Harry J. Hogan)

The English proceed by consensus. Yet the ability to produce a consensus is now threatened by resource shortages and ideological differences which rock the basic equilibrium of British society.

The English have the best or the worst epistemologic system in the world. It is distrustful of reason, illogical, non-ideological, and non-systematic. It is based both on a great respect for reality and on a view of reality as being so diverse as to be beyond man's ability to conceptualize it accurately. In the great 12th Century epistemological debates, it was the position known as nominalism.

In this framework, the English constantly try to reconcile their concepts to reality rather than to treat their ideas as real. They attempt constantly to break down generalizations into fragments that fit diverse realities. Their intellectual climate is hostile to idealisms, i.e. ideologies which true believers are willing to force on reality.

By contrast, the English enforce empiric consideration by a variety of techniques, including a number of rhetorical and social conventions. In rhetoric, they use words in ways which obviously contradict reality, thereby forcing the listener himself to translate into a meaning that copes with reality.

For example, "public" school means "private" school in a variegated historic context. A "standing committee" in the House of Commons is a special committee with ad hoc jurisdiction over a particular bill and a life of 30 days or so. The use of misnomers has two epistemologic results: (1) it forces a sense of history and, with it, a sense of English community; and (2) it forces a sense of particularity, i.e. a sense of ontic diversity.

In social conventions, the English accomplish the same ends by a constant exchange of personal courtesies. They are extraordinarily and sensitively gracious, expressing an intense awareness of individual differences and respect for the individual person.

The extreme nominalist epistemology is based, of course, on an ontology that accepts constant change. The English technique to accommodate change is fascinating. Basically, it is to reject conceptualization and to proceed on a touch-feel system with

individual decision-making. The effort is not to force acceptance of change but to allow change through social instruments and arrangements that encourage constant interplay among individuals so that a consensus will emerge.

The system is rigged to prevent arbitrary ideologic decisions. Every generalization is riddled with exceptions and conditions. No one ever forces anything on anyone. Minorities, no matter how small, are treated with the greatest consideration. England would be Calhoun's idea of heaven.

Their system lacks the diverse political instruments present in our American one that favor ideologic change. Our national bureaucracy is protected from popular pressures by a relatively invulnerable and nationally elected President. Our independent judiciary is protected in its exercise of ideological authority. In their system, the national bureaucrary is headed by independently strong political leaders, rather than dependent appointees. Their Supreme Court is the House of Lords, and it has no legislative authority.

Therefore, in England there is no declared national education policy and no self-conscious apparatus to produce one. If one selects a Departmental statement that we would describe as a policy, a bureaucrat would deny that it is a policy in the sense of a directive, because it is beyond belief that the bureaucracy would compel anyone to obey it.

Every political agency or office (e.g., Department of Education and Science, University Grants Council, Council for National Academic Awards) is really an instrument to obtain and express consensus. Every institution or interest group affected is represented, and its viewpoint carefully respected. The University Grants Council, for example, is the conduit through which government support is conveyed to the universities. Its existence effectively permits the government to escape decision-making regarding the purpose of higher education and allows the universities to divide up the support as they wish. The Council for National Academic Awards is the English accrediting body for higher education institutions without royal charters. It serves similar purposes. The academic standard, consistent with this analysis, is not one of arbitrary quality but one of "comparability."

In England, everyones livelihood is the subject of state concern. Universities receive 90% of their support from the state; students are supported by a grant system that takes care of room, board, miscellaneous living expenses, and tuition. Correspondingly, faculty salaries are set by state regulations, and so are tuition charges. Every institution and interest group is a member of a cartel which uses state regulation to give association agreements legal validation and enforceability and to obtain the necessary allocation of state resources.

In education, the consensus system works so well, even in regard to resource allocation, that at no level in the administrative structure of the educational system was there any real awareness of how it worked. No one was able to articulate where the funding decisions were definitively made, or how.

Obviously, in terms of social priorities or reconciliation of funding demands exceeding the total of resources available, decisions had to be made in the Treasury Department. That Department performs in the English system the roles of both the Office of Management and Budget and the Congress in our system. The Treasury Department receives the recommended budget proposals from the executive departments (including the Department of Education and Science), makes the priority decisions, and expresses them in legislative form. Its work is done in secrecy as is that of OMB in the United States. Unfortunately, our group had no access to it.

To appreciate the importance of the Treasury Department, it is necessary to understand that the Parliament is not a legislative body. I was amazed to discover the extent to which that statement is true. Parliament, i.e., the House of Commons, performs two functions: (1) that of recording the national election results (the function of the electoral college in our system); and (2) that of a dramatic forum for announcing the Administration's decisions (the function that would be performed in our country by a continuing Presidential press conference).

Since the English party system is impregnably strong, and the majority party in the House of Commons is the Administration, the Administration already has the votes on its legislation before it introduces its bills. The important legislative decisions and compromises have already been made. Therefore, upon introduction, a bill is referred for consideration to a committee specially formed for that purpose, and its members selected so as to provide the bill a compliant majority. That committee hears no witnesses

and reports the bill out within days. There is no Parliamentary way by which an interest group, such as education, can protect its interest in a legislative forum independently of the Administration. It must follow the consensus route layer-by-layer up through the Administration structure to the Treasury Department.

In regard to the two problems of operational regulation and resource allocation, the consensus system observably works well, in the sense that its results are accepted equably. The only failure - and it is of such spectacular dimensions that it may precipitate a crisis of breakdown proportions - was front page news while we were in the country. It was posed by uncompromising stands of the mining union and the transport workers' union. They refused to accept the allocation of state resources provided them by the consensus system. Their philosophy is grounded on different premises, possibly those of Marxist class conflict.

One can only speculate that, as the peoples on the planet enter an ideologic age, the English consensus system will break down, and the English will accept the pattern, increasingly dominant elsewhere, of ideologically based arbitrary authority.

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NATIONAL UNION OF TEACHERS
(by Virginia E. Hogan)

On Wednesday, January 16, 1974 at 10:00 a.m., interested members of the Educational Staff Seminar met with Mr. Fred Jarvis, Deputy General Secretary, and Mrs. Vera Trelfer, Assistant Secretary of the Education Committee of the National Union of Teachers (NUT) at Hamilton House, Mabledon Place, London, WC1.

Mr. Jarvis discussed the structure and functions of the National Union of Teachers which is, by far, the largest organization of teachers in Great Britain and includes some 320,000 members, comprising roughly 75% of teachers who belong to teacher organizations. Other teacher associations include the Joint Four Secondary Association, composed of headmasters and now an anachronism but historically based on an educational system, "The Joint Four", which has been phased out by the Elementary and Secondary Reform Act of 1944. Still others are the National Association of School Masters, a group organized in opposition to the equal pay for women issue; The Union of Women Teachers; The National Association of Head Teachers, and lastly, The

Association of Teachers in Technical Institutions. These associations are not mutually exclusive with the National Union of Teachers, and so many teachers belong to two organizations.

The National Union of Teachers is an umbrella organization, including--in addition to faculty--school psychologists, head teachers, and so forth. It is a federation of teachers who join the local union but identify more with the national union, probably due to the centralized system of education in Great Britain. This contrasts with the American decentralized system and the resulting identification of the teacher in the United States with the local union.

Teachers in the National Union of Teachers cannot strike without the permission of the National Board. Only then is their pay guaranteed by the Union's Sustenation Fund. A proposed strike requires a 2/3 majority of the membership to secure pay from the Fund, and there is therefore little chance of a wildcat strike. There is also little likelihood of mounting a national strike. The teachers have neither the weapons nor the strength of the industrial unions.

A national Negotiation Board acts as bargaining agent for salary increases because the smaller county and local units do not have the clout. Also, there is one set scale for teacher salaries (which incidentally are far lower than those in the United States). Only one area, Greater London, has a pay differential. This is due to the steep cost of living there.

The National Union of Teachers is not tied to any particular political party and maintains an effective lobby. It watches carefully the voting records of the MP's and supports those in Parliament who are union members. The rules prevent NUT from dealing with strictly political matters. For example, we were told that the Union would not levy an assessment on its members for a defense fund of a highly controversial ex-professor charged with murder, as has happened in the United States.

A local union might pass a resolution of a strictly political nature, but if the national union considered it to be outside the realm of union activity, the national organization would not implement it. NUT is not anxious to get involved in outside activities. Its activity is concentrated instead on teacher welfare measures like salaries, curriculum, and working conditions.

NUT is nonetheless frequently consulted by the government and may suggest changes in government policy concerned with teacher affairs. Currently, NUT is becoming increasingly involved with the University

Grants Committee and teacher certification requirements. In other words, NUT's interests lie essentially in professional issues rather than in political ideologies.

At the moment, NUT is deeply involved in negotiations on teacher salaries. In comparison with the beginning salary of a coal miner of 1872 pounds ($4600) annually, the beginning teacher receives 1300 pounds ($3250). NUT is trying to get 1800 pounds for the first-year teacher but does not expect success.

Unlike industrial workers, teachers are tied to the salary scale or norm. There is no way to supplement their income by working overtime. Many unpaid extra duties, such as coaching and sponsorship of clubs, are also assumed by teachers on a strictly voluntary basis. Teachers have asked for a 25% increase over the current norm, since they feel that the 7% offered by the government would put teachers further and further behind. London authorities have offered an increase of 100 pounds but the national government would allow only 15 pounds. There is also no opportunity for teachers to teach in a summer school as the United States offers. The English have only school journeys (field trips) or school camps during the summer. The teachers' summer work is therefore voluntary; at best they would receive only a free trip. The tendency now among young teachers is not to offer their services free. The general feeling now seems to be to confine ones activities to teaching only. Though the teachers have widespread public support for increased salaries, according to Mr. Jarvis, there is a small controlling group in government which makes these decisions without much regard to popular sentiment.

In Great Britain, there are some ancillaries--comparable to the American paraprofessionals--but not nearly equal to the need. An attempt was made to introduce a professional category between teacher and ancillary, but NUT opposed it on the ground that more teachers and ancillaries were needed, rather than a new category. A substantial amount of time is spent by teachers on non-teaching duties. The teachers, reported Mr. Jarvis of NUT, have assumed more and more burdens, and the number of teachers has not been increased.

Secondary teachers are better off than lower grade teachers, due to a prorated point system of assignment which seems curious to an American teacher. Secondary school teachers are proportionately more numerous because the older children count for more points, and therefore classes are smaller than at the lower level. This is in direct contrast to the American system where younger children are in the smaller classes. Moreover, with the trend toward

comprehensive schools, it is now more difficult to get "headships" (principal posts) for professional advancement.

There is some diversity among teachers on the same longevity step of the salary scale, since university graduates are given a higher salary. An Honors graduate can expect still more. (Few, if any, teachers in the American system are not college graduates now, and no attention is paid to the grades received by teachers in their undergraduate courses except for the initial screening. Also the American teacher receives no credit for graduate work done below a B grade.) All in all, the average teacher's prospects for salary increase in Great Britain seem very poor.

Another interest of NUT is the establishment of a four-year degree requirement for all teachers. Currently, some have three-year degrees and some four. There is little opportunity to get a headship, furthermore, without a degree. The continuing tendency is to equate a degree from a College of Education with a University degree for teacher placement. The salary differential between the two teachers is negligible, for example.

Until recently, an individual with a University degree could teach without professional Education courses, except in Mathematics and Science. By contrast, the prospective teacher with university training only must now take additional courses in educational methods at a College of Education. The strongest criticism of this procedure is that the courses in Education are poor and bear little relation to reality. They could be and are described as "airy-fairy". It might be noted many American teachers offer the same criticism of their own Education courses. Incidentally, it must be kept in mind that all higher education in Great Britain is paid for by the government, as opposed to the American system where both preservice and inservice teachers must pay for their own graduate and undergraduate work. (I might add that I calculated the amount of time it would take to reimburse me for money spent on my graduate degree. Due to my small yearly salary increment, it would take me eight years just to break even, and this does not take into consideration the higher income tax paid on the salary increase. My graduate work was done at a state-supported institution, so those teachers who did graduate work at a more expensive private university did not even fare that well.)

Mrs. Vera Trelfer next addressed the group. She spoke particularly on the changes in education for the below-5 year age group. Previously, there have been Playgroups, but these were run by parents who lacked professional expertise, and were therefore not of much educational value.

Since recent research indicates that the most rapid learning occurs between eighteen and thirty-six months, schools for children at three years of age were instituted last September. They are optional, however. These infant schools are staffed by teachers, nursery nurses, and ancillaries. The pupils go half-day and will engage in structured play and development of language skills as well as free play. The schools will be open-planned schools without the traditional locked-in classroom for each group.

We were provided with an organization chart for NUT. Essentially, the union is structured as follows: Local units, approximately 40 in number, elect a member to the National Executive Board yearly. These members meet every two weeks in London to decide policy which is, in turn, carried out by a paid staff. The General Secretary supervises the various departments (Legal, Salaries and Superannuation, Education and Library, Executive, Membership and Field Officers, General Purposes, and lastly, Finances and Accounts). Recently, a Women's Department has been established. Mr. Jarvis and Mrs. Trelfer are in the Education Department.

NUT, it appears, has a much closer tie to governmental bodies than either the American Federation of Teachers or the National Education Association in the United States. NUT is always represented on the higher education Board of Examinations, although the Universities themselves prepar the examinations with advice from the Schools Council.

The British union prepares some excellent booklets for its members. I have seen nothing similar issued by the American associations. An example of these would be Insurance for You and Your Property, which describes a collective plan giving automatic coverage for death or bodily injury and for real and personal property as well as a wide range of other types of insurance offered on an optional basis to teachers. Another is Union Services and Benefits which describes services available to the teacher through the union; still another is This is Your Union, a complete and informative booklet prepared for students entering colleges and universities, who plan a career in education. The booklet gives union services and policies; Why Join the NUT is used for recruitment, while First Class: The Guide to Your New Profession acquaints the beginning teacher with the problems she will face.

In addition to these booklets designed to help teachers as individuals, there are also policy statements in booklet form which detail the position of NUT on current major problems in education. These Policy Statements include the following: The Reform of Teacher Education; London Area Addition (Area allowances in salary and other conditions of service); The Certificate of Extended Service; The NUT View on the Education of Severely Sub-normal Children; An Executive Statement on the James Report on Teacher Education; The NUT View on Comprehensive Education, and lastly, The Bitter Lesson: The Decline in Teachers' Pay.

The quality and quantity of assistance offered by NUT is surprising in view of the fact that it has a near-monopoly on teacher support in Great Britain. My judgment, admittedly based on a single talk with its leaders and an examination of its literature, is that the British union may be more effective overall than its American counterparts. This may be due, in part, to its attention to public relations. NUT seems to enjoy a much better relationship than does the American union with government. Although it must be added that teachers salaries are proportionately much higher in the U.S., the British union displays a greater sensitivity to divergent points of view.

The visit to NUT was most enjoyable and informative.

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COMMUNITY SCHOOLS IN ENGLAND
(by Betty Demarest)

Our itinerary provided an excellent opportunity to learn about the English community school movement on both the theoretical and practical levels. We attended a colloquy at the Coventry College of Education where the concept was discussed in some depth. Later we visited two community schools: Madeley Court Comprehensive School in Telford and the Abraham Moss Centre in Manchester. This report covers both the colloquy entitled, "The Curriculum and the Community", and the visit to the Abraham Moss Centre.

I. "The Curriculum and the Community," A Colloquy

Mr. Eric Midwinter, Principal of Liverpool Teacher Centre
Mr. John Hipkin, Schools Council
(Mr. Ian Parry, Schools Council, Moderator)

January 11, 1974

We were warmly welcomed at the Coventry College of Education by Miss J. D. Browne, Principal. After a good dinner in the College dining room, we attended the colloquy which was the windup of a larger three day meeting on community schools. Midwinter spoke in support of community education. Miss Browne and most of the audience also appeared to be strong advocates of the idea. Hipkin did not really present himself as an opponent of community schools but rather as a voice of caution urging the "let's think it over before we jump in" approach.

Theories of Learning

Midwinter views the "educative community"--which he defined to include a child's total living environment--as the source of learning. He maintained that the function of the school is to extend the child's experiences. To do so, the school must use the community.

Traditional schools don't do this, according to Midwinter. At best, the influence of the school is less than that of the community. School experiences constitute only a small part of the child's life. This is an extremely limiting factor when the child comes from a disadvantaged background. At their worst, the schools are irrelevant: Children fail, turn off, drop out. Thus, traditional methods do not reach the culturally deprived in any real sense of the word.

Proponents of community education aim to "plot roots that reach into the child's real life," said Midwinter. These roots would reach not only the typical upper and middle class child but the disadvantaged and the immigrant child as well. Midwinter maintained that there are several different but equally valid modes of education. New approaches are necessary if educators desire to reach all children, he declared.

Hipkin, in contrast, was disturbed by what he considered a lack of clarity in the rhetoric of community school proponents. He began by making a distinction between three terms--learning, socialization, and education--which, he said, are commonly confused.

He defined learning as an essentially irrational, neutral process that occurs all the time. Babies learn to walk. Small children learn not to touch a hot stove. It is something that naturally occurs as the individual interacts with the environment.

Socialization, on the other hand, is the process by which individuals are inducted into approved ways of behaving. It takes place in group situations such as the family and the larger community. Socialization, like learning, is an irrational process in Hipkin's construct.

Education, finally, is distinguished from both learning and socialization by the fact that it is a deliberately rational process. Hipkin stated that the goal of education is to discover enduring truths which must be rationally described and rationally conducted. Education is what should take place in the schools, primarily intellectual and devoted to academic excellence.

Hipkin argued that Midwinter's concept of the educative community could not be equated with his own definition of learning. As such, he did not consider it a proper function of the schools. In his terms of reference, the Midwinter thesis destroyed the integrity of high academic standards.

The Curriculum

Midwinter maintained that the present curriculum is a series of historical accidents. For example, Latin was an integral part of medieval culture and justifiably a part of the curriculum at that time. Now, although it is no longer culturally functional, it continues to be taught in the schools.

If the traditional curriculum is in many ways unsuitable, where would a new curriculum come from? In a community school, according to Midwinter, the curriculum would be gleaned from the common culture. It could conceivably encompass anything a child experiences. Such topics as consumer education and media education were mentioned as possible additions to the curriculum. Great attention would be paid to motivating the child by stressing subjects that are of obvious use in his everyday life.

Proponents of community education feel strongly that parents should be involved in curriculum development. They believe this would help insure that the curriculum is relevant to the needs and wishes of all sectors of society.

Hipkin did not think that everything a child experiences could or should be included in the curriculum. He maintained that topics such as media education are already learned adequately outside the classroom. The curriculum, according to Hipkin, is essentially

a statement of choice. Decisions must be made on what should be brought to the attention of the students. Subjects belong in the curriculum if they embody enduring truths and provide students with a basis for further development.

Although Hipkin did not state his views on parent involvement in any detail, he implied that curriculum development should be the province of professional educators. Experts who have mastered the body of knowledge and the skills of reason and communication would transmit these to the next generation. Outside influences, such as parents, would introduce essentially irrational pressures for spurious topics.

The Objectives of Education

While asking a question, Miss Browne cut at the heart of the elitist English system and stated succinctly what appears to be the primary issue in the community school movement. How are people, other than those now considered "fit to govern", going to get the confidence and competence in social skills needed to deal with their social, economic, and political situation? Assuming that "knowledge is power", she would use the schools as a wedge to open up the larger system.

Hipkin said community school advocates wrongly assumed that since the communities are bad, it is the responsibility of the schools to make them better. This approach presents political problems in a pluralist society. Various people can look at the same social phenomena and have different interpretations. In operational program terms, this means that the schools could become agents for particular political ideologies. Hipkin said he favored the objective study of society and politics in the schools, but he doubted that this is what the community schools advocates had in mind. The way to make students critically aware of their social and political situation, according to Hipkin, is to make the community an object of study rather than establish a system of community schools.

II. Visit to the Abraham Moss Centre
Manchester, England

Mr. R. A. Mitson, Principal

January 15, 1974

The Abraham Moss Centre is a "dream" school and more. It was specially planned and built to be an educational park, i.e. a

combined school complex and community centre. At the time of our visit, the Centre was still about five months from completion. Mitson guided us around the unfinished facilities.

Development of the Centre

Interest in an educational park/community centre began in Manchester with one local Council deputy. He sold the idea to the local government Council under whose jurisdiction fall all the relevant education, social service, and recreation functions. Mitson felt it was the support of a solid majority on the local Council that enabled the Centre's advocates to put all the pieces together and overcome interdepartmental rivalries.

The launching of a project of this size and scope required the support of the national Department of Education and Science (DES) in London. Some people in the Department were also interested in experimenting with the educational park/community centre idea. The DES people were looking for a community where facilities for all the basic services either needed to be rebuilt or were non-existent. The area of Manchester with a population of about 50,000, where the Abraham Moss Centre is now located, fits this description. Thus, the Centre resulted from a congruence of national/local needs and interests.

The Abraham Moss Centre was developed jointly by the DES and the Manchester Corporation. Planning began six years ago; construction was in progress for three years prior to our visit. The Centre is scheduled to be fully operational by May, 1974. Our host estimated that the Centre cost approximately two and a half million pounds sterling ($6.25 million) to develop and build.

The local citizenry was not directly involved in the development of the Centre. However, now that the Centre is nearing completion, its administrators are extremely anxious to involve the population-at-large to insure that it is a community centre in the true sense of the word. Regular meetings have begun with parents to discuss the community concept of the schools.

The Facilities

As we were shown around, Mitson asked us to visualize in the still empty and incomplete rooms the array of facilities that will be housed in this one superstructure. He felt that there were only two major ommissions: a primary school and a health centre. These facilities did not need to be rebuilt when the Abraham Moss centre was designed.

THE COMMUNITY SCHOOLS. There is a self-contained lower school for 480 children ages 11-13; a middle school for 480 children ages 13-15; a secondary school; and a college of further education. All the schools together will serve 1,250 persons, including 100 full-time and 100 part-time adult education students.

THE LIBRARIES. The large library at the Centre will serve as both the main lending library for the community and the school/college library. Mitson said that pooling the amount of money that would have been spent on two separate facilities resulted in substantial economies without sacrificing quality. The combined library has more books and services than either separate facility would have included. In addition to the big "serious" library, the Centre also will have a "junior" library with an adjacent nursery. This smaller library will house popular, general interest books and magazines. The idea is to attract parents by providing a setting where they can read quietly while their children are cared for at the nursery. Also, they plan to teach parents to provide stimulating play for children by involving them with the trained child care experts in the operation of the nursery.

THE PERFORMING ARTS CENTRE. An impressive 275 seat theater is the heart of the performing arts wing. There will also be a small drama studio for practice work. Mitson hopes to start a theater workshop drawing on talent from both inside and outside the community.

SPORTS. The Centre will be very well equipped for various sports activities. We saw a large gymnasium, a swimming pool, and facilities for such games as squash and table tennis. Outside, they plan to invest approximately 90,000 pounds ($225,000) in landscaping and construction of additional sports facilities, i.e. tennis courts, soccer and rugby fields, and perhaps even an artificial ski slope. Mitson said they expect the sports facilities to be used primarily by school children during the day and by the community at night, but they will not have strict rules regulating usage.

FOOD AND DRINK. Various dining areas are scattered around the Centre with different themes, but all are open to both the school children and the public. There will be a central blast freezing area where up to 42,000 meals can be stored and prepared later at various "regeneration" kitchens. In addition to large cafeterias and dining areas, there are small tea bars, ice cream parlours, and snack bars intended as convenient hang-outs for the kids. There is a licensed bar serving beer and liquor, intended for community use.

CLUBS. Mitson said they plan to form clubs around various public needs and interests. For example, there are plans for several different types of youth clubs, a club for the handicapped, and a club for senior citizens.

OTHER "EXTRAS". After a strenuous day at the Centre, people will be able to relax at the sauna baths. In case anyone gets hurt, there will be a nurse on duty at a small medical room. There will be a shopping area and a post office. A dance activity area will feature live music from the community.

Administration and Financing

The British, we discovered throughout our trip, have an exceedingly casual attitude towards certain issues that Americans tend to consider crucial. How is it financed? Who is in charge? How are decisions made? These questions rarely evoked precise answers from our hosts.

Although the administration of the Abraham Moss Centre will be integrated under Mitson, he could not accurately estimate yearly operating costs. After we pressed him on the point, he guessed perhaps 150,000 pounds ($375,000) per year in an attempt to satisfy our American craving for facts and figures. Incredible as it may seem, although the Centre is virtually completed and almost ready to start full operations, the details of who will pay its ongoing operating costs apparently have yet to be worked out. Financing for the academic schools is arranged, but Mitson did not know how money to cover operating costs for the rest of the Centre would be raised. He assumed that the local authorities and various groups would all kick in a share and the Abraham Moss Centre would somehow muddle through.

The Centre's Philosophy

Mitson said they are committed to involving the community not just in using the Centre but also in determining its policy, planning its programs, and helping in its operation.

The goals of instilling confidence and competence in young people that we heard earlier at the colloquy were echoed by Mitson as he described the Centre's philosophy of education. He also stressed the value of teaching children how to pursue independent study. It is essential to cut down the dependence of children on teachers in a world where constant change makes education a lifelong occupation, he said. One method used to encourage student initiative is allowing free access to audio-visual and other learning materials without supervision.

Many teachers are being asked to do a kind of teaching they haven't done before. New, experimental methods are encouraged. Extensive inservice teacher training is planned. It will be "experience" training--teachers will be given a chance, with help and support, to explore their new ideas at a practical level. Also, teams will work up experimental presentations.

A curriculum plan has been worked out for the lower school. Course work will be divided into four areas: humanities, arts and crafts, science and math, languages and communication.

Mitson did not think they had answers yet to key educational problems, but he wanted to inspire his staff to seek them. One ESS tour member summed up the sentiment of our group as he said when we left, "I'd like to come back in five years and see what's happening then!"

III. Conclusion

After listening to the exchange between Midwinter and Hipkin, then discussing the community school movement with various people at the schools we visited, I could not escape the feeling that the community education debate in England is related to deeper social, economic, and political cleavages.

Community school advocates seem to be located at the liberal to radical end of the political spectrum. They are identified with the working class, the poor, and the immigrant groups. Anxious to use the educational system as a change agent, they seek to democratize the class-oriented English way of life. They want major and immediate changes in the schools.

Opponents of community schools appear to be, for the most part, politically moderate or conservative. Their emphasis is on the strong points of the traditional English "Oxbridge"-oriented school system and would tend to preserve the status quo with, perhaps, some incremental changes and improvements.

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THE SCHOOLS COUNCIL FOR CURRICULUM AND EXAMINATIONS
(by Katherine Montgomery)

The Schools Council for Curriculum and Examinations is an independent teacher-based organization in London which has no counterpart in the United States. Formally established in 1964, it is an outgrowth of the Secondary School Examinations Council which was created in 1917 to look at the secondary school examinations system. The Schools Council enlarged this scope to include the school curriculum. Its two-fold purpose, therefore, is 1) to research the examinations system, and 2) to keep the school curriculum under review.

The main administrative policy body in the organization is the Governing Council, which has 75 members representing various teacher groups, educational administrators, churches, industry, and the government. Its committees carry out the main work of the organization. The major one is the Programme Committee which determines priorities, oversees work programs, and makes appointments to specific subject committees. By way of funding, the Department of Education and Science and local education authorities provide equal amounts of money to the Council.

The teacher is at the center of all the Schools Council work. At the inception, it was decided that the membership of the Governing Council and its major committees should consist of a majority of teachers. The Council determines its priorities based on teacher demand with a view, of course, to government education policy. For example, when the Council was initiated, the government was about to raise the school-leaving age from 15 to 16, and so many of the Council's projects focused on secondary curriculum and how it should meet the new demands of a larger and more diverse student body. Now that the government is extending nursery education, the Council is directing some of its efforts at the 3- and 4-year old population.

The Council does not consider itself a pure research organization like the National Foundation on Educational Research. Rather it exists primarily to identify and try to meet educational needs for teachers and thus help them do a better job in their classrooms. Projects generally arise from teacher demand. A Schools Council committee will develop a project plan and go to a school or a group of schools to ask for help with the project.

The outcome of the project may be curricular aids, such as printed pamphlets on a particular subject, films, or reports with suggested development of a specific aspect of school life, such as examinations. Topics of projects have covered a wide range, including curriculums in English, Humanities, Languages, Creative Studies, Mathematics, and Science, lasting anywhere from one to ten years.

The Schools Council has no prescriptive power. In fact, to avoid any kind of identification as a government body pushing curriculum designs on local education authorities, it has refrained from widespread dissemination campaigns. There are Schools Council officers in various regions throughout the country, however, whose job it is to carry on two-way communication with local authorities and schools both in collecting teacher demands and in disseminating Council projects.

In addition, the Council circulates a newsletter, Dialogue, to each school as well as a list of its publications. In our discussions with teachers and administrators at the local level, it seemed as if the results of this dissemination method were uneven at best. One teacher mentioned that she had barely heard of the Schools Council when teaching at a fairly traditional rural school, yet others highly praised the Council's work and made great use of the material. As the Council spokesman said, those teachers who participated in a project frequently became quite enthusiastic, and the Council relied on them to spread the word to other teachers and other schools. One person we talked with indicated that dissemination of Schools Council material largely depended on local education authority inspectors. Those who were acquainted with and enthusiastic about the materials worked hard to get them into their schools.

The concept of the Schools Council as a curriculum development organization is an exciting one to American teachers who have no similar body for assistance. Yet one might well ask whether the Council exists as an agent of change in the British education

system, and if so, how effective is it? In answer to the first question, one of Her Majesty's Inspectors indicated that the Council indeed can be viewed as an agent of change, but its effectiveness thus far has been limited. Not being a prescriptive body, it must rely on support from a wide variety of teachers in all parts of the country as well as government officials. It is difficult to determine how widespread this support is. One teacher indicated that many teachers were disillusioned initially with the Council when on one project it acquired curricular materials from individual teachers and then published them for its own profit. Another person mentioned that some see the Council as a front for professional teachers organizations hoping to raise teaching standards.

The Schools Council can take a stand on an issue and present its view to the Government for consideration. In July, 1971, for example, the Governing Council decided that changes were needed in the grading system of A-level exams. Proposed changes were submitted to the Secretary of State for Education and Science, who decided not to adopt them but instead to make minor modifications to parts of the existing system.

In some respects, then, it would appear that the Schools Council is indeed, or at least has the capacity to be, an agent of change in the British education system. Through greater dissemination of information and further participation at the local level, however, it needs to win the confidence of greater numbers of teachers in order to become a more effective organization.

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THE COLLEGE OF FURTHER EDUCATION
(by Irene R. Chernock)

It was misting, and darkness had already set in when we arrived at the Oxford College of Further Education, a veritable stone's throw from the renowned Oxford University. We were met earlier in the lobby of the Randolph Hotel (where we would be staying) by Mr. L. F. Cowan, the affable Vice-Principal of the College, and were promptly whisked away for an inspection of the school and its environs.

Mr. Cowan outlined for us the structure of the school and the significant role it plays in the community. It is a comprehensive vocational and secondary school, implementing a broad range of courses running the gamut from hotel catering to scientific subjects. The College, headed by Mr. Frank Candlin, occupies at the present

time many sites scattered throughout the City, but further expansion at its main site on Oxpens Road will ultimately result in the eventual shift of all courses to its main location.

Vital to any society and its central structure is a school which fulfills the needs in the lives of those persons who are not necessarily oriented to the traditional academic college program. Wherever access to further education exists, there one should surely find a higher standard of living together with a better quality of life so essential and meaningful in these demanding and complex times. The Oxford College of Further Education is endeavoring to do just that and sums up concisely its philosophy in its brochure by stating that, "The Oxford College of Further Education exists to help young people who are setting their foot on the first rungs of the ladder to a successful career, and also to provide a center at which adult students may follow up educational and cultural interest by part-time study." The Liberal Studies staff and the various departments organize a wide variety of leisure courses and cultural activities, including public readings by contemporary writers, talks by eminent visiting speakers, and preparatory courses for the Open University.

From its inception fourteen years ago as part of the Oxford College of Technology, it has grown to its present size. The original College of Technology has since become a Polytechnic. At the present time, there are 7,500 to 8,000 students enrolled in the College of Further Education, about 1,000 of which are full-time. There are a faculty and staff of 860. The students range in age from 16 to 85, the majority being in the 16 to 24 age group. School leavers who had no formal educational credentials upon leaving school can enroll here and find many choices for educational or vocational pursuit.

As Mr. Cowan pointed out, the College of Further Education does not compete with the secondary schools but rather supplements them, providing a wide spectrum of one-year and two-year full-time courses leading to the General Certificate of Education at both the Advanced and Ordinary levels. At the Advanced level, three subjects are usually studied in depth. For example, for premed study, chemistry, physics and biology would be incorporated into the preparatory curriculum. Typical A-level courses would comprise economics, geology, history or maybe two languages and economics. It is possible for a student to leave school at the age of 16 and enroll here directly for A-level preparatory, perhaps working part-time as well.

The school meets very real needs and recognizes the areas in which these needs must be met. As we were duly informed by Mr. Cowan, good academicians as well as good craftsmen are needed. For example, there is a need for those who can teach science to hair dressers in order to impart to them a fundamental knowledge necessary to their chosen craft.

Since no national funds are contributed, the College is funded by the local educational authority which is, in turn, heavily supported by the local government. The full-time students come from the immediate area of Oxford. Students coming from outside the county pay a county fee.

Students enrolled in the College who have left school at the age of 16 generally take employment and are released one day a week to come to classes. A day-release student pays fees of 12 pounds a year, while the full-time courses will be 54 pounds per year. Foreign students pay 150 pounds and Polytechnic students 250 pounds. Of the 1,000 full-time students, approximately 100 will be from overseas. Also, one of the features in the College program is the one designated as Thin Sandwich, which encompasses six months' work and six months' study.

The College of Further Education cooperates closely with the Polytechnic at Headington so that successful students may readily progress from one to the other if they wish to pursue more advanced studies. Close collaboration also exists with the Open University.

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THE BRITISH POLYTECHNIC
(Rose K. Weiner)

Perhaps the most successful innovation in British higher education in the past decade is the development of a new system of Polytechnics, which provide university quality programs to students seeking higher education that is clearly professional or preprofessional in focus, rather than academic. Our introduction to the Polytechnic was provided by Sir Norman Lindop, Director of the Hatfield Polytechnic, situated in a beautiful rural setting, about 20 miles from London.

We visited Hatfield on a wet, chilly winter afternoon and found rooms and corridors dimly lit in compliance with the need to reduce electricity usage because of the energy crisis already all too evident in Britain in early January, 1974. But a gracious welcome from Sir Norman and his staff quickly dispelled the gloom, and we were soon listening to a remarkably lucid and comprehensive description of both the Hatfield Polytechnic and the polytechnic system in general.

Sir Norman explained that the Polytechnics were initiated in the mid-1960's as a new category of higher education institutions, limited by law to no more than 30 and dispersed among population centers of the nation. Hatfield, he noted, is the only rural institution, but its location is explained by proximity to London and a nearby aircraft plant which is drawing population to the area.

Each large city in Britain has at least one Polytechnic. There are five in London and another four in its environs. Several are located in small but growing towns. Many of them were created by merging previously existing colleges of technology, and institutes of art, music, science or commerce.

For a rare insight into educational politics, Sir Norman told us that the Robbins Report in 1963 had recommended an enormous increase in university education. This was understandable since the Robbins Committee largely represented the U.K. university sector. But by the time the Robbins Report came to be implemented, however, a Labor government had been elected to office. The new Secretary of State for Education and Science, Anthony Crossland, stated his strong dissent in a famous speech, "Declaration of Discontent" in 1965. Crossland contended that the U.K. universities were unresponsive to social needs and proposed that greater public attention was deserved by the less prestigious Colleges of Further Education and Colleges of Advanced Technology.

Under Crossland's Labor Party leadership, nine Colleges of Advanced Technology were given royal charters as U.K. universities, and the 30 Polytechnics were established as intermediate collegiate institutions in 1966. As implied by the name, the Polytechnic emphasizes applied science but is not restricted to it. In many respects, they resemble small State colleges in the United States. Enrollment averages 2,500 students, with virtually all degree candidates on government stipends.

The Polytechnics are community-based institutions and supported financially by the local education authority (LEA). Part of the LEA funds, however, emanate from the national government through a pooling system based on a formula of local tax rates and school age population. Although there is no standard per capita support figure, therefore, students may move freely among the Polytechnic regions and institutions as space permits. They may be denied stipends at a distant institution if the courses are available in their own community, however.

Designed as commuter campuses, the Polytechnics have grown up without residential facilities. Because of its more isolated location, however, Hatfield has constructed dormitories for

about 300 students and is now building spaces for another 200. Enrollment is approximately 2,000 fulltime and 1,000 parttime.

Most other Polytechnics average 2,500 enrollment, but unlike Hatfield, they have more parttime than fulltime students. To this extent, the Polytechnics constitute a genuine revolution in British higher education which, until 1964, had been restricted mostly to chartered U.K. universities and Colleges of Education which are exclusively fulltime. Parttime study (essentially work-study) in Britain is much more highly organized than in the United States, so higher education institutions design course schedules to conform with various schemes of released time for workers.

The terms we learned for British parttime study are day release, block release, and sandwich (both thick and thin). These schemes apply for both Polytechnics and their vocational school counterparts, the Colleges of Further Education. Day release obligates the employer to allow a worker one day a week with pay off the job for classes. Block release means an extended period up to 14 weeks away from the job for fulltime study. Sandwich study is intermittent work and study which may take several forms. "Thin sandwich" is customarily six months at school, and six months on the job; "thick sandwich" is a four-year arrangement with the first and third years of fulltime study, the second and fourth years on the job. The thick sandwich is mostly restricted to Polytechnics, but the most popular parttime study is day release supplemented by some evening study.

Released time study is entirely voluntary on the part of employers, varying from 100% in nationalized industries to nothing at all in most private shops. Large technical industry finds the training opportunity useful, of course, and sends workers up to age 25 or 30 to participate. Industry staff are frequently on the campus to review student progress as well as to consult curriculum offerings.

Social demand for coursework keeps changing, according to Sir Norman. The predominance of engineering and technology programs is being challenged by growth in the arts, business management, and social science. Two years ago, engineering enrollment dropped to 45%--the first time in Hatfield history for it to constitute less than half of the students. The Director was especially proud of his successful new creative arts programs in graphic arts, fashion, and textiles which were introduced over some protest.

The status of the Polytechnic in the higher education community is a developing one, primarily a struggle to achieve recognition as an equal partner. University degree status conferred by the Council on National Academic Awards on some programs (including the Master of Arts in five fields and the Ph.D. in ten) is a mark of distinction at Hatfield. In other ways, progress is slower. Salaries for faculty are 20% less than the U.K. university. The titles of professor, dean, chancellor, and president are deliberately avoided. Sir Norman is the Director; his faculty are readers, lecturers, and senior lecturers.

We were told elsewhere that Sir Norman was elevated to knighthood a year or so ago in recognition of his contribution as an outstanding Polytechnic leader, and he has just been appointed to the Scientific Research Council. That should improve the competitive advantage of Polytechnics for research funds--less than 5% now goes to them. Some 12% of Hatfield's staff resources inhouse is devoted to research, but it seeks funds for that purpose from both industry and government resources.

Polytechnics are primarily teaching institutions, although research is considered important as an expression of the inquiring mind and essential to the growing graduate enrollment. There are currently 50 doctoral candidates. The M.A. is offered in such fields as Operations Research and Computer Science, the Ph.D. in such wide-ranging disciplines as Communications Engineering, Biology, Thermodynamics, Physics, Economics, English, and Linguistics.

The majority of the faculty is industry-oriented with a background in either commerce or manufacturing. They are expected to return to industry on sabbatical for renewing experience, being granted up to a year's leave of absence with pay for this purpose. Liaison with professional societies is also maintained to insure preparation of students for certification boards and examinations (e.g., accounting).

Polytechnics offer courses for technicians which lead to a variety of national diplomas or certificates. Their certificates are recognized by the City and Guilds of London Institute. Unlike the U.K. universities, Polytechnic students may transfer among the various streams. Students also move easily from Colleges of Further Education into the Polytechnics. Unfortunately as in the United States, transfers from a two-year diploma track into a four-year degree program may entail appreciable loss of credit.

The desire of Anthony Crossland to provide access to higher education for workingclass students who could not qualify for the U.K. universities does not seem to have been entirely fulfilled by the Polytechnics. (This is true of Crossland's Open University, too, for similar reasons.) While admission requirements are somewhat less rigorous and an extra dimension was added by diploma courses, student caliber is much the same as the universities. The fact is that the number of academically qualified students is simply so great that they overwhelm all institutions of higher education, both old and new.

There is little transfer from one institution to another in England because the system remains so academically bound. Sir Norman said, "I envy the flexibility enjoyed by yours and the Canadians' systems. That is the direction in which we will be moving, of course." A consortium has been established which includes Hatfield and three neighboring Colleges of Education to offer an inservice degree program for non-certified teachers. About 200 teachers are already enrolled; a university degree qualifies a teacher for higher pay. Hatfield also maintains a special library service and industrial information service and joint computer center for the Colleges of Further Education in its province of Hertfordshire.

In contrasting English and American higher education systems, Sir Norman characterized the British lockstep as "like riding a bus for three years" in which everyone comes out together whereas the American style is "like riding taxiis" with diverse routes to destinations. He maintained that the British system was handicapped by its heavy reliance on examinations and grading, evidenced by the fact that honors degrees have been retained even in Polytechnics, although the "big bang" of final exams is being tempered.

Student-teacher ratio at Hatfield, as in higher education generally, is astonishingly favorable: 7 to 1, evidence of the British tutorial tradition in U.K. universities (now 8 to 1). The new requirement by the Department of Education and Science that ratios at all institutions be stabilized at 10 to 1 (now in place at Colleges of Education) provoked the same consternation at Hatfield as we saw at the University Grants Committee. Quality of teaching is very important to them; teaching load is 12 to 14 hours. New faculty pass the first year at Hatfield in the status of interns, spending half the day in a methods course and half in a supervised teaching situation.

After being served tea and biscuits, the ESS visitors were given a tour of the Hatfield library which is housed in a four-story block with the computer center. The library is remarkably well planned to serve staff, students, and industry in the area. It

can readily provide a variety of contemporary media materials, including microfische and films. Micro-readers are readily available as well as reproduction facilities for documents and books. Because of the energy shortage, the computer center was not in operation.

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BERKSHIRE COLLEGE OF EDUCATION
(by Marion Johnson)

On the morning of January 10, 1974, the group departed by private coach for Reading, England to visit the Berkshire College of Education. Upon arrival at Bulmers Court, the party was met by the principal, Mr. J. F. Porter, Mr. Farmer, Deputy Director of the College, and Mr. Harmon, Department of International Education.

Located approximately two miles east of the Town Centre, Berkshire College incorporates some of the old and the new in terms of architecture. Several of its buildings reflect rapid growth and expansion in the 1970's.

Established in 1969, Berkshire merged part of two previous colleges of education in the Royal County of Berkshire, Bulmershire and Easthampstead Park. The College is now completely established within the Bulmershire Campus which contains, in addition to a college, a comprehensive school, a primary school, and sports center (including swimming pool). The first building was opened in 1965, and a student social center (including a bar), was completed in 1970. Another interesting feature of the campus includes six student hostels of single study-bedrooms. A new library and resource center, music center, TV studio, restaurant, sports hall (with ski slope), student health center, and additional teaching accommodations completes the physical facilities picture of the Berkshire College.

Once inside, the interior includes large halls and workshops, language laboratories, spacious art and sculpture studios, science laboratories, and a drama complex. This structure seems to reflect the strong interest and need of meeting a student's complete learning environment.

We began our discussion with a general understanding of the teacher education program in England. It appears that after the James Report and the recent government white paper on education, Berkshire, like most other colleges in England, was faced with new challenges and opportunities for establishing wideranging programs of liberal arts studies.

In 1973, responding to the charge of the white paper and the James Report, Berkshire shared its problems with an advisory study commission comprised of members from local administration (1), primary school principal (1), and technical educators (3). The commission focused its concerns primarily upon four major areas. These were:

-The public concern over the state of affairs with respect to teacher education, reflecting the ever-pressing need for a strengthening of curriculum content as it relates to teachers, students, and administrators.

-90% of the colleges where teachers were trained were Monotechnological, i.e., focused on professional education, the school/college/school syndrome, and students became tracked into one system or another. Mr. Porter described it as a "closed loop", isolated from other intellectual currents.

-Colleges were in a nebulous position with respect to a "total fit" in the system of higher education. The colleges were financed by public funds, but the degree was awarded by the university. The College of Education belonged neither to the public sector or completely under the aegis of the universities, causing a type of "binary gap", according to Mr. Porter.

-Continual pressure from interest groups for teacher in-service training programs.

Mr. Porter, well versed in the literature of Jerome Brunner, Bob Fischer, and others in the United States, was convinced that part of the problem of teacher education must, itself, evolve from the perceptions of practitioners in the field, i.e., the teachers' themselves. The fact remained, according to Mr. Porter, that teacher supply was far exceeding teacher demand, increasing at the rate of fifty percent since the 1960's over needs of probable replacements. Therefore, it was his contention that the

need no longer focused on quantity but quality. The present picture, as he sees it, reflects the following:

-Recommendations for quality education.

-Recommendation for one term full-time release on salary for in-service teacher training at regular intervals during a teacher's career.

-Real teacher shortages in the areas of math and science.

Mr. Porter reported to us on a manuscript he had just completed, which constituted his response to the James' Report. Some of the conclusions he made are:

-Since Colleges of Education are really independent from universities, they should focus more to meeting needs of the public sector and local community where they exist.

-Universities really do not concern themselves with the problems of teacher training in England; this is an area of acknowledged expertise in the Colleges of Education alone.

-Schools of education really are not academically sophisticated; they require intellectual enrichment and increasing rigor.

-Colleges of Education are facing ever-decreasing student enrollments and must appeal to a larger clientele or perish.

-University Grants Committee really is not yet devoted to concerns of Colleges of Education. (Mr. Porter is a member of this body).

Mr. Porter, speaking most candidly, did not hesitate to express some personal dissatisfaction, particularly with the white paper report. Oftentimes, he emphasized, the paper made excuses for lack of action instead of proposing affirmative alternative plans that are workable. It is obvious that Berkshire, like other institutions of learning, is suffering from financial stress. Porter proposed a type of amalgamation either with other colleges or Polytechnics for survival.

Beginning in 1975, Berkshire will be able to award its own diplomas and graduate degrees through the Council on National Academic Awards (CNAA). Moving towards diversification, avenues will be available for business and industrial course pursuit, various fields of social work, as well as programs for the part-time student. Berkshire's current enrollment is approximately 1,300 students, more than in any of the other 150 teacher colleges. But because of the rise of the Polytechnics, this number is expected to decrease rapidly, emphasizing greatly the necessity for a type of merger with other educational institutions.

There has been some concern expressed by the CNAA regarding Colleges of Education like Berkshire. Needs are noticed in areas of pre-school or nursery school education. However, Mr. Porter felt that this was more a plot to try and absorb the surplus of teachers than a genuine concern for the welfare of young children.

Presently, only 20 Colleges of Education are large enough to remain autonomous, and the remaining ones must be subsumed under the Polytechnics. Berkshire, however, appears to be capable of weathering the educational system storm, providing courses and curriculum in Bachelor of Education (Honours) Degree, teacher's certification, postgraduate teachers of music, in-service diploma in biology, in-service B.Ed. (Honours) Degree, in-service course in mathematics, in-service course for nursery teachers, and in-service course in third world studies. The college also provides students with the opportunity to study abroad under reciprocal arrangements with universities and colleges in North America and Europe. Through the staff/student exchange committee, exchange programs are operated with Eastern Michigan and Temple Universities and with Ecoles Normales in France and A Padagogische Hochschule in Germany.

There still remain many obvious problems, especially disparaties in obtaining public support funds. However, Mr. Porter's frank and honest perceptions provided answers to many questions posed by the group. After generous serving of various wines, the group enjoyed a delectable lunch at the college.

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UNIVERSITIES IN THE UNITED KINGDOM
(by George B. Lane)

British universities emerged historically in direct line of development with the medieval centers of learning in Italy and France. Oxford and Cambridge, Britain's oldest universities, were founded in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries based on the model of the University of Paris. Oxford, in fact, is closely associated with the expulsion of foreign-born scholars from the University of Paris in 1167. Cambridge probably owes its origins to a migration of scholars, possibly from Oxford, in 1209.

These ancient educational citadels are imposing monuments to English history and civilization. The ESS group spent a night and morning in Oxford during which time we were treated to a walking tour of the university. Although the university was not in session, Peggy and I stopped a student at night on the street who directed us to a venerable pub off a back alley where we feasted with young scholars on ale and kidney pie. To our great surprise, one of them was from Indiana University. In that regard, it is interesting to note that 25% of the 45,000 postgraduate students in British universities in 1971-2 were foreign.

The next morning, we were shown through the original library of Merton College at Oxford which was founded in 1249. One of the original hand-lettered manuscripts studied by students through the centuries remained in its place, chained by the monks to the bookshelf to prevent loss. No artificial light was ever allowed in the library, a fact which undoubtedly accounted for its continued existence throughout the extended period when open flames of candle, gas, or kerosene provided illumination and ultimate destruction of libraries. A stroll through the quadrangles of Oxford is a step into the most ancient traditions of England educational history, a living link with the origins of the greatest civilization on earth.

Today, Oxford has 34 colleges and Cambridge 29. Each university enrolls over 10,500 students. Heavily endowed, they are virtually autonomous institutions and independent of government financing. To that extent, they are unique in the English university community. They set their own tuition and fees irrespective of costs, which are largely paid by public student subventions, and can afford to supplement national salary scales for faculty in order to recruit distinguished scholars.

The Scottish universities of St. Andrews, Glasgow, and Aberdeen were founded in the fifteenth century. The University of Edinburgh was established as a college by the town council in 1583. For several centuries, the two English and four Scottish universities were able to meet the educational needs of a small population. They were closely associated with the established church, and their chief purpose was training for the learned professions.

Until the nineteenth century, only a small proportion of the population had any academic education; but the industrial revolution, transforming Britain from an agricultural into a largely manufacturing nation, created an entirely new situation. Urban population grew rapidly; political power was diffused by progressive enfranchisement of the people, and a coordinated system of primary and secondary education administered largely through local education authorities was developed during the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries.

There are now 44 universities in the United Kingdom plus the Open University which was established in 1969. Each of these U.K. universities bears a royal charter authorizing it to grant degrees. Most of these institutions have appeared in the postwar period; there were only 17 in 1945. The largest is the University of London with 33,000 students, chartered in 1836. Other nineteenth century universities are Durham (founded by Parliament in 1832 and chartered in 1837), Wales (1893), and Queens in Belfast (opened in 1849 and chartered in 1908).

The rise of urban universities accompanied the establishment of industrial cities. These new institutions were uniformly non-sectarian, created to provide local needs for professional manpower, and therefore mainly commuter campuses supported by local public and private resources. They tended to be interested in local industries and placed particular emphasis upon science and technology. These institutions all passed through an early stage of development as university colleges, granting not their own degrees but the external degrees of the University of London before receiving royal charters as full degree-granting U.K. universities.

The "red brick universities", as they came to be called, include those at Manchester, Birmingham, Liverpool, Leeds, Sheffield, and Bristol. Founded in late nineteenth century, they received charters in early 20th. They enroll between 6,000 and 9,000 students each. A second generation of urban "red bricks" were denied royal charters until after World War II: Reading, Nottingham, Southampton, Hull, Exeter, and Leicester. Somewhat smaller, they enroll 3,000 to 6,000 students apiece.

Following the war, demand for higher education increased enormously as a result of the Education Act of 1944 which made secondary education free to all who qualified, creating a new clientele. A new round of universities was therefore established during the 1950's and 1960's. These were Keele, Sussex, York, East Anglia, Essex, Lancaster, Kent, and Warwick, which enroll between 2,000 and 4,000 students each. The two latest are Stirling and the New University in Northern Ireland.

These universities represented a new departure in that most of them were created as full universities with charters to grant first and higher degrees. This has provided them with a flexibility in curriculum design and organization at the outset which was not possible for the "red brick" generation tied to University of London external degree programs.

A far-reaching policy paper, the report on Higher Education in Great Britain, was produced in 1963 by a committee of Parliament chaired by Lord Robbins. One of its recommendations was that no qualified student should be denied higher education by lack of money. The result is that over 90% of all college students in Britain receive grants for full or partial payment of fees and subsistence, depending upon family income.

Another recommendation of the Robbins Report was to improve the production of technologically trained manpower. As a result, eight technical institutes in England and one in Scotland were raised to university status between 1964 and 1966. These universities are Ashton, Bath, Bradford, Brunel, City (in London), Loughborough, Salford, Strathclyde (in Scotland), and Surrey. Enrollments vary between 1,500 and 3,500.

The last university to receive a royal charter was the Open University. An entire essay is devoted to that institution whose headquarters were visited by the ESS group. Essentially a correspondence university but based on use of electronic media, intermittent seminars and tutorials, the Open University was chartered in 1969. It began courses in January 1971. No formal entrance qualifications are required, and the fees are lower than the prevailing level in the traditional universities.

In December 1972, a white paper entitled, Education: A Framework for Expansion, was published by the Government of Edward Heath outlining a ten-year program of growth at all levels of education. In higher education, the goal was 375,000 fulltime students in the universities by 1981. This compares with 236,000 in 1971-2. To achieve this growth without expanding the physical plant, the white

paper sets a teacher-student ratio of 10 to 1, which contrasts with the current 8 to 1. Such a favorable ratio is startling to Americans, accustomed to freshmen lecture courses enrolling 300 students. To the British, however, the new ratio constitutes a grave challenge.

Until 1914, the universities were virtually self-supporting. Their financial difficulties after World War I led to the creation of the University Grants Committee in 1919 as a standing committee of the Treasury. Its original function was to advise the government of the financial needs of the universities, and then to administer block grants to the institutions. In 1946, its function was expanded to include policy development on national needs for higher education. The UGC was transferred from Treasury to the Department of Education and Science in 1964. A discussion on the operation of the UGC is included in this ESS report, based on a morning's session at that headquarters.

Beyond the world of chartered universities in Britain lie the lands of academic institutions offering college-level studies but lacking royal authority to grant degrees. In an attempt to incorporate these disparate educational entities into a regular developmental pattern, the Robbins Report recommended creating the Council on National Academic Awards (CNAA). The CNAA was visited by the ESS group, and a report on its activities follows.

* * *

THE UNIVERSITY GRANTS COMMITTEE
(by M. Frances Kelly)

As one looks at the educational structure of any particular country in reference to what is available in the United States, it is appropriate if not productive to delineate those characteristics which suggest distinct patterns, different value orientations, and a unique relationship between educational opportunity and the national government.

The Educational Staff Seminar's field trip to England in January 1974 presented an opportunity to test out some previous conceptions about the comparability of educational systems. At the same time, it provided hard evidence that simple and general equations are not easy to make. As an example, the following distinctions come to mind:

1. In the general context of systematizing education, England's national Department of Education and Science appears to have a much more direct educational influence on the field than the U.S. Office of Education. Her Majesty's Inspectors

utilize the services of approximately 400 personnel in the field who provide face to face technical assistance to teachers from the Infant School to the Comprehensive Secondary School.

2. There appears to be nothing comparable in the United States to the concept and implementation of the local Teacher's Center as developed by the national Schools Council. While many English Teacher's Colleges (now the haven of the liberal arts) have supportive training programs for practicing teachers, there is nothing in our country like the giant in-service and professional upgrading strategy which the Teacher's Center program represents.

3. The Schools Council acts as a national catalyst for identifying, codifying, and disseminating information about what is going on in the classroom. It is strongly supported by the national government and supplies some seed money for individual faculty to explore curriculum experiments.

4. Few young people (by comparison with the United States) go on to college. Approximately 15% of those of college age do continue. Most go from the Comprehensive Secondary School directly to work. Fewer than 10% of those going on to further education attend one of the 45 chartered universities.

5. Also, by comparison, little attention has or is being given to the needs of the under-prepared or lower-achieving learner. It is only in a selected number of enlightened Comprehensive Schools (like Madeley Court) that this is being dealt with.

6. England has a unique national adult education model in the Open University concept. While it is apparent that this structure, currently serving 40,000 people, responds primarily to the needs of working teachers and housewives, it is a most dramatic example of educational accessibility.*

7. Every large city has a Polytechnic institution. These 30 four-year community colleges were initiated partially to complement the universities and to provide another option (more technically oriented), particularly when the universities were attacked by Anthony Crossland back in the mid-60's

*It is interesting to note that a study just reported by ETS confirms our first observation that the educational requirements of the Open University courses are not really compatible with the needs of the working class student.

for being socially unresponsive. Unfortunately, the Polytechnics do little more than offer an alternative stream for those who could meet any admissions criteria. As Sir Norman Lindop, the Director of Hatfield Polytechnic told us, there is still little class impact by the Polytechnics because much the same admissions criteria hold for them as for universities.

8. There is considerable overlapping of function between the various categories of education available to people beyond the school-leaving age. The Polytechnics overlap in function with the Colleges of Education. The Colleges of Further Education cross purposes and are, in fact, in competition with the Comprehensive Secondary School as well as the Polytechnic. The concept of articulation is not nearly so defined as it may need to be.

9. In general, the educational framework in England is no more systematic than that available in the United States. It does provide many more options than one might believe. There would appear to be more opportunities for changing course after one leaves high school--without loosing time or credits on the way--than American education provides.

10. There is more of a nationally funded student support system for postsecondary education in England. All fulltime degree candidates may receive at least $120 in subsistence money, and many receive up to $1450, depending upon family income

11. Atop this mix of educational resources stands the British university. Here there is less confusion of function or question of role. The 44 British chartered universities are almost fully supported by the national government. Eighty five to ninety percent of their operating funds are allocated by the University Grants Committee--an august body of 20 academics. The rest of their support money comes from tuition. Only the ancient colleges at Oxford and Cambridge have any appreciable income from endowment.

The University Grants Committee (UGC) is a unique fixture in British Higher Education. It was established in 1919 by the British Treasury to act as an advisory group to the government on anything that affects universities. In essence, the philosophical basis for the UGC's conditions of support have remained unchanged since then, although it was transferred from Treasury to the Department of Education and Science after 1964. At the present time, the Department of Education and Science (The Higher and Further Education Branch IV) decides on an aggregate amount of money for

universities, but no governmental interference is made in the distribution pattern of total funds by the University Grants Committee. Moreover, while tight outer bounds are determined by the UGC for how much money a particular institution is to receive, there is limitless discretion of monies provided for within those boundaries at the university.

Committee sessions are very business-like are are never open to the public. Grants are made for a five year period or quinquennium, but adjustments are possible within that time. The total annual expenditure is approximately 320 million pounds ($800 million) allocated to the 44 universities bearing royal charters. Of this amount, some 250 million pounds represents recurrent or operating funds (about half goes for salaries), 40 million pounds for capital construction, and 20 million pounds for equipment. There were 249,000 full time equivalent students enrolled in 1971-2 (45,000 of these postgraduate).

The quinquennial application forms are basically concerned with the recurrent block grants which are then paid in equal monthly installments. A staff of one hundred people administers the decisions made by the UGC. Only 12 staff people are directly involved with the direct implementation of recurrent grants, however. The rest of the UGC support staff deals with capital and equipment grants which are more closely supervised in detail.

The UGC has enjoyed little publicity abroad as the distributer of government funds for higher education. Periodically it has been investigated by American Higher Educationists--but without revealing much. It remains an "old boys club" where reasonable agreements are made among gentlemen, and detailed scrutiny is not appreciated.

During the past five years, however, the UGC's relaxed situation has been infringed upon by a government increasingly concerned with accountability. In 1967-1968, a series of conditions were placed upon the committee. These conditions have to do with access and provide that government auditors may visit the universities and inspect their books. As noted in a briefing session we attended, the situation for university autonomy is certainly less cozy than it was--no question about that.

The recurrent grant becomes the whole of the universities' operating income (aside from tuition which accounts for 10%-15%). Essentially, the university describes in its proposal what its current costs are, and the add-on is for expansion. The result has been that needs are broadly reflected but not necessarily realistic over a full five year period. British universities are therefore expanding very little. Furthermore, inflation has drained whatever elasticity

there was in this procedure. The universities are facing an austere period which suggests that new support resources will have to be identified.

The UGC's role is still critical, however. A good deal of "guidance" accompanys the delivery of funds.

The encroaching governmental access to university business affairs has given rise to a unique defense strategy by the national educational bureaucracy. When public accountants ask the kinds of questions that UGC representatives are not accustomed to having to answer, they respond by saying, "That is a matter of policy", and no interference is acceptable in so-called policy affairs. The British respect for such gentlemen's agreements allows tacit evasion in this way, but the tide is turning as economic stress grows heavier.

The University Grants Committee still does not explain how its allocations are determined. While the UGC represents the interests of a sector of higher education which is not as sacred as it once was, it still is on top on the situation for now.

As a quasi-bureaucratic unit with no explicit legal base, the UGC is in an increasingly strained position. Its preeminence holds, however, due very much to its ability to refrain from confrontations, upon the informal contacts of its members, and their ability to draw upon the crucial needs of their constituency.

Traditional British university education has, however, been affected by the growing influence of newer structures like the Polytechnics and the more ambitious Colleges of Further Education. The universities, guided and protected by the University Grants Committee, need to reevaluate their role. Whether they will or not is a moot question. The Niblett Committee has just released a report which aptly states that the universities face a new crisis.

That report contends:

> "If their value as servicing institutions is greatly reduced by the growth and influence of the public sector, they could become a dwindling elite on the periphery of society, cut off from much of contemporary life and with a lessening impact on it. For them to drift into the position of being little enclaves of scholarship would be a disaster, not only for them but also for the nation: for the universities, because out-of-touchness spells sterility; for the nation, because intellectual vitality, from whatever source, is its life-blood".

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THE OPEN UNIVERSITY
(by M. Joan Callanan)

The first and larger part of this article is factual and is based largely on promotional material distributed prior to our departure for the United Kingdom and received during our visit to the Open University headquarters. The second part is an attempt to be evaluative and draws on more critical printed material and on information provided during our visit by Dr. George Kiloh of the Open University central staff and by Dr. MacDonald Ross of the Institute of Educational Technology, a branch of the Open University.

HISTORY

The origin of the idea of the Open University is obscure, according to Peter J. Smith, a senior lecturer in earth sciences at the Open University. In an article which appeared in the April 29, 1972 issue of Saturday Review, Smith pointed out that "during the mid-1960's the British intellectual climate was ripe for a move against the traditionally elitist conception of higher education." Between 1900 and 1962 the percentage of the relevant age group who entered a university in Britain had risen from 0.8 percent to only 4 percent (plus another 2.5 percent in teacher training). The movement against this elitism corresponded in time with an end to 13 years of Conservative government and with worry about a "technology gap" between Europe and the United States. It was not surprising, according to Smith, that the new Labour government looked for additional technical manpower to come from the underprivileged, undereducated working class, many of whom would have been willing and able to benefit from higher education.

The first public discussion of the idea took place in 1963 in a speech by Harold Wilson in Glasgow, in which he talked about "a university of the air," stressing the use of the broadcasting media as an integral part of the teaching system. In 1966 a Government White Paper was published reporting the decisions of a Parliamentary Committee under the Chairmanship of Miss Jennie Lee, wife of the late Aneurin Bevan and now Baroness Lee of Asheridge. The White Paper recommended the establishment of a planning committee to examine the idea in detail. This was set up in 1967 under the chairmanship of Sir Peter Venables, Vice Chancellor of the University of Aston, and its report, published in 1969, was immediately accepted by the Government. In that same year a Charter for the University was approved and recruiting of an academic staff began. When the Labour government fell in June 1970, there were fears that the plans for the Open University would not go forward, but these fears were not realized and teaching began in January 1971.

The University headquarters is now located 50 miles from London near Bletchley in Buckinghamshire. At present it stands amid rolling countryside, but it is sited within the area of Milton Keynes, a planned new city for 250,000 people. Development, however, is not expected to encroach too closely on the University, which lies next to the projected area of a large park. Broadcast production presently is done at BBC studios at Alexandra Palace in North London.

General Features of the Undergraduate System

The University awards a B.A. degree on a credit accumulation system. A student who has six credits receives an ordinary degree; an additional two credits translate this into an honors degree. A credit is awarded to a student for one year of part-time study with the University, on the basis of continual assessment including examinations.

Students can take a maximum of two courses each year and can thus accumulate two credits each year. A system of credit exemptions operates, allowing students who have completed other forms of study at the higher education level to take Open University degree courses more quickly. The maximum number of exemptions possible is three, so the University had its first graduates at the end of 1972. The Open University year starts in January, and lasts for thirty-four teaching weeks. Students may break for as long as they wish between years.

Credits are awarded at four levels: foundation, 2nd, 3rd, and 4th. Students without any credit exemptions must take two courses at the foundation level; those with two or three exemptions take only one. The two extra credits needed for an honors degree must be at third or fourth level.

Foundation courses are offered by five of the six University faculties: Arts (which would be called Humanities in the United States and which brings together philosophy, history, literature, music, art history, and religion), Mathematics, Social Sciences, Science, and Technology. The sixth faculty, Educational Studies, has no foundation-level courses.

The system is designed to give freedom of choice to the students. No student is restricted to one particular course when he enrolls with the Open University. He can, if he wants to tailor his degree course to well defined preferences or professional requirements,

take most of his courses in one faculty. Alternatively he can mix his course as much as he likes, and his opportunities for doing so are increased by the existence of half-credit courses and in the Science faculty by even one-third and one-sixth credit courses. This freedom is in marked contrast to the arrangements in most British universities where a student enrolls for a three-year course in a particular discipline or at most in two disciplines. Moreover many students in traditional universities read for honors degrees, which entail a great deal of specialization.

In selecting students the University observes the principle of "first come, first served," modified in three main ways: first, by regional quotas to ensure a fair distribution of students throughout Britain; second, by occupational quotas, with workers from semi-skilled and unskilled occupations being given more places than their number of applications warrants; and third, by quotas for courses, to spread the students over the five foundation courses. No account is taken of applicants' ages except that they are 21 or more. (In 1974 a pilot project is being carried out in which five hundred 18 to 21-year old students are carrying a normal Open University course load. One-half of this group has qualifications for entrance into a regular university, and one-half does not.)

The Instructional System

Correspondence Package. The most important element in the instructional system is the correspondence package, which most students receive every week. There are 34 or 36 study units in a full credit course, each representing one week's work. The correspondence package for a unit is a bound booklet containing printed exposition, diagrams, charts, and illustrations. Usually the units are sent out week by week; sometimes several units are bound together.

Assessment of Students. To assist the student in assimilating the content, there are self-assessment exercises in which the student works out the answers to questions and checks his own success rate. There are also unit tests or assignments, which are completed by the student and then returned to the University. Some are machine-marked by a document reader linked to the computer and are usually made up of multiple-choice questions. Others go to correspondence tutors to be marked and commented on before being returned to the student. The marks attained in assignments are used to give the University a continuous assessment of a student's progress.

The number of tutor-marked assignments varies from course to course. There are nine in the mathematics foundation course and thirteen in the arts course. The marks of the six best assignments are used for examination purposes. There is also a monitoring procedure whereby each correspondence tutor's work is sampled by a staff tutor who is able to identify cases where assessments are too severe or too generous. An annual written examination in each course is held during November at various centers throughout Britain. This examination is graded by the central academic staff and external examiners.

Radio and Television. These are important elements in the instructional system, and are without doubt the most widely known aspect of the Open University. But radio and television, in fact, occupy only a small amount of the student's time. Foundation-level courses have a television and radio program linked to each unit. Above foundation level the number of broadcasts per course varies, but is consistently less than one a week. Essentially, the television and radio programs supplement the written part of the course. The degree of integration between the printed matter and the broadcasts varies considerably from course to course. A typical television program will ask students to turn to a particular page in the correspondence booklet and enter readings from instruments shown on the screen. In the humanities and social science courses television serves more to enrich than to provide essential information.

Study Centers, Tutors, and Counsellors. The University has 13 regional offices, and about 300 study centers. The study centers are located in existing educational institutions, and are open in the evenings. They are almost all equipped with television and radio receivers, and in areas where reception is bad or impossible they have film and audio-tape replay facilities for some courses so that students can still see and hear programs. Some study centers are even equipped with computer terminals for the use of mathematics students. Use of the centers is optional for the students. The centers are also the place where students meet other students, their tutors, and their counsellors.

The tutors are part-time and their work is co-ordinated by full-time staff tutors based at the regional offices. They come from a number of backgrounds. Many teach in other universities, polytechnics, and institutions of adult education; some are school teachers; a few are professional people with appropriate practical experience. Tutors conduct regular tutorial sessions at the study centers, and grade the tutor-marked assignments in the correspondence materials.

The counsellors (also part-time) meet students to discuss problems connected with studying. In essence, they are supposed to help the students re-enter school. Senior Counsellors work full time and are based at the regional offices.

Summer Schools. These are another essential part of the instructional system. During the summer all foundation course students are required to attend one-week residential schools, held on the premises of conventional universities. Courses at higher levels do not always include summer schools. The schools have proved very popular with the students, providing them with an opportunity for concentrated study. The schools also provide opportunities for types of work that are not possible by correspondence. For example, science students can take advantage of fully equipped laboratories.

Home Experiment Kits. At home, experimental work for science and technology students is provided by kits which are sent out to students at the start of the academic year. The kits include over 50 chemicals, glassware, and a variety of instruments, many of which are designed especially for the Open University. Examples of these are a colorimeter, a tachistoscope, a "noise meter", a binary computing device, a cathode ray oscilloscope, and a microscope developed especially for the University. Students pay a refundable deposit for use of the kits.

Course Development. The courses are prepared by course teams. These include all the academics who are involved with the course, producers of the BBC radio and television programs, a representative from the Institute of Educational Technology, and a course co-ordinator whose task is to act as a link with other groups in the University, such as the publishing office, the media library, and the graphic designers. The style varies from course to course. For example, for the science foundation course the correspondence material is prepared by the team as a whole, with the team including physicists, chemists, biologists and geologists. In the arts foundation course each disciplinary component is prepared separately by an expert in that discipline. In general, the advanced courses are less interdisciplinary than the foundation courses.

The Guide for Applicants for Undergraduate Courses for 1975 listed the following numbers of courses existing or expected to be available by 1976: foundation - 5, second - 55, third - 48, fourth - 2.

Library Facilities and Set Books. The University does not provide library facilities for the students, although there is one at the headquarters for the use of the academic staff. Students are expected to buy the set books of each course, many of which are made available at reduced prices following negotiations between publishers and the University publishing division. Some 350 set books are prescribed for current courses. Set books are obtainable from booksellers registered by the Booksellers Association as Open University "set book stocklists," and over 600 booksellers are so registered. Local libraries are important to the students, and many have purchased additional copies of works used in the courses and hold them in their reference sections.

Post-Experience and Post-Graduate Courses

The University was not conceived simply as an institute for undergraduate studies. The Planning Committee originally suggested three areas of work for the university: undergraduate, post-graduate, and post-experience.

Initially it was possible to get only the undergraduate courses underway, but in 1973 the post-experience courses started, offering short (generally six months or a year) courses for people with experience in industry, public service, and the professions who want to update or refresh their knowledge.

In the area of post-graduate studies, the University does not yet offer course work at higher-degree level, but it does award higher degrees for the submission of a dissertation or a thesis after successful completion of programs of supervised reading or research. The degrees awarded are Bachelor of Philosophy, Master of Philosophy, and Doctor of Philosophy. The University also has a limited number of places for full-time higher degree students, who are involved in research programs going on at the home campus and financed by the University or by research councils.

The Institute of Educational Technology

The Planning Committee foresaw the importance of educational technology, and in April 1970 an Institute of Educational Technology was established. This Institute pretests and evaluates various teaching methods, participates in the activities of the course teams, and closely monitors and evaluates the results of the University's activities. Through a comprehensive feedback network students provide, on a voluntary basis, details on the amount of time spent, methods used, and their opinions of each individual unit throughout their course.

Marketing

Course units are published in bound book form, and are sold to bookshops throughout Great Britain, Sweden, Norway, Australia, the Republic of Ireland, Canada, the U.S.A., and Latin America. The University also sells films and tapes of its television and radio programs. It is impossible to assess the Division's financial contribution to the university at this stage, but it is hoped that it will be a very significant one.

A new aspect of the marketing operation is the sale of complete courses to American universities on a trial basis. Three universities--Rutgers, Maryland and Houston--are experimenting with Open University courses, complete with tapes and films of the programs. The courses were sold at cost price.

Translation rights into Spanish for two entire courses have been negotiated, and individual books have been translated into several different languages. The Spanish translation rights have opened up a large and expanding market for the sale of Open University material in Latin America, where developments in higher education are taking place rapidly, and there is a lot of interest in Open University teaching methods.

Students

In 1971, its first year of operation, the University had about 19,000 students; this figure grew to about 38,000 in 1973. The following table shows the full application - admission cycle:

	1971	1972	1973	1974
Applications	43,444	35,182	32,046	35,011
Final Figure Processed for Allocation	40,817	34,222	30,414	33,220
places Available	25,000	20,500	17,000	15,000
Initial Offers	25,000	21,065	21,306	15,921
Topping Up	No Figure Available	6,892	2,239	Minimal Topping Up
Provisionally Registered Students	24,191	20,498	17,004	Not known until Jan. 1974
Finally Registered Students	19,033	15,564	12,405	Not known until Apr. 1974

Detailed research--financed by the Social Science Research Council--is being made into the occupational and educational background of the student population, but broad occupational groupings of students are known.

Approximately 30% of all Open University students are teachers; professional people, laboratory technicians, scientists, engineers and housewives are also well represented. The University has enrolled disabled students (including blind, deaf, and spastics)--for whom special arrangements for summer school and examinations can be made--and a small number of students in prisons. There is also a special scheme for men serving abroad with the armed forces and for merchant seaman.

A Students' Association has been formed, the objectives of which are to promote a corporate identity, to coordinate the organization of social and welfare activities, and to promote the broad education interests of the students. In practice, the association is an apolitical body which organizes student trips, social events, and child-care facilities for mothers at summer schools, and protects the rights of minority groups within the student body. It also works as a pressure group on behalf of students to persuade local authorities to be more generous with grants, to contact and meet MP's, to ask employers to allow students time to attend summer school and, in some cases, to help with students' fees. Membership is voluntary, and a subscription of one pound a year is charged.

The Open University has its own newspaper, SESAME, which in addition to reporting events and developments in the University also provides a platform for students (and staff) to air their views. The association and the newspaper are believed to contribute significantly to a sense of identity among Open University students. One common complaint is that the teaching methods used do not encourage them to feel part of the institution. But it is in turn significant that such a diverse student population--united initially only by the desire to get a degree--should want to be identified with the institution.

Graduates

Nine hundred students graduated two years after the start of the Open University, all of them students with either two or three credit exemptions. All of them, therefore, were teachers or lecturers, housewives with teaching qualifications, students with degrees from other universities, or people with professional qualifications. The number of graduates will increase each year until about the fifth or sixth year of the University's teaching. About 3000 are expected to graduate in 1974.

The degree is recognized by the teaching profession, and other professional bodies have indicated that they will accept it as comparable to a degree from any other university. Some traditional universities are using Open University credits as entrance qualifications.

Size of Staff

As of 1972 the full-time staff numbered about 1100 including 270 academics (175 central and 95 regional), 237 administrators (165 central and 72 regional), 60 technicians, 488 secretarial/clerical (330 central and 158 regional), and 68 in auxiliary positions. The part-time staff numbered about 4400 including 1483 counsellors and 2947 course tutors. More recent figures, not broken down, are about 1500 full-time and 6000 part-time staff.

Governance

The Open University's structure of government is in many ways similar to that of other universities, but there are differences to take account of its organization. The main executive bodies are the council and the senate. The council is largely concerned with the administration of the university's finances and business affairs. Its members include representatives of the academic staff, the BBC, local education authorities, and institutions of further and higher education. The council is assisted by a number of advisory committees representative of a wide variety of educational interests, and there are also liaison committees concerned with local education authorities and the disabled. In the University's early years an Academic Advisory Committee, appointed by the Privy Council, will ensure that academic standards are maintained (as has been the case with all other new universities in recent years).

The senate is responsible for academic work. It directs the teaching and research and controls all matters connected with examinations and degree awards. It consists of all members of the academic staff, certain ex-officio members, and some appointed members. Two smaller committees have been formed to bridge the gap between council and senate. These are the Vice Chancellor's committee, charged with taking urgent policy decisions, and a planning board, representative of both council and senate whose task is to plan and allocate resources.

Part-time staff and students are involved in the government of the University through a consultative committee structure. There are consultative committees in each study center, and these elect members to one of 13 Regional Consultative Committees comprising part-time staff and students. These in turn report to a Central Consultative Committee which includes representatives of both part-time and full-time regional staff, central academic staff, and students drawn from the Regional Consultative Committees. Apart from this, a General Assembly meets once a year, and representatives of students and part-time tutors are elected by the regions.

Financing

The University is financed by direct grants from the Department of Education and Science and, unlike other British universities, does not receive financial aid from the University Grants Committee. The University's governing bodies are fully responsible for managing the University's financial affairs, within the total block grant allocated, subject only to scrutiny by the Controller and Auditor General and by Parliament through its appropriate committees. The same terms and conditions pertain as for other universities except that the planning cycle is based on a triennium rather than on the quinquennium adopted for other United Kingdom universities.

As indicated earlier, additional income to the University is derived from the sale of course material. Students also contribute to the income through the payment of fees. These vary from course to course, with Foundation-level courses usually costing less than subsequent levels. Foundation students pay an initial registration fee of 10 pounds and a final registration fee of 15 pounds. Summer schools cost an average of 35 pounds, but most students find that local education authorities will give grants to cover this amount. There is a Student Hardship Fund to help students who are unable to meet the fees. The minimum cost to a student for an ordinary BA degree is about 200 pounds and for an honors degree about 250 pounds (not including the cost of additional books).

By the end of 1972 the capital cost of the University amounted to approximately 4.4 million pounds. Of this amount nearly 1 million pounds was for BBC expenditures. The total cost at the end of the next phase of building (1973/74) is expected to total approximately 6.2 million pounds. An analysis of recurrent and direct student costs for 1971 and 1973 is given in the table below. (Direct student costs include printed material, visual aids, tutorial and counselling, home experiment kits, and summer school teaching and services.)

	1971	1973 (estimated)
Recurrent costs	4.8 million pounds (inc. 2.0 million pounds for the BBC)	8.5 million pounds
Direct student costs	2.2 million pounds	3.8 million pounds
	7.0 million pounds	12.3 million pounds
Less fees from students and other income	1.0 million pounds	2.8 million pounds
	6.0 million pounds	9.5 million pounds

Achievements and Problems

By now a number of articles and at least one book have appeared which have attempted to evaluate the British Open University. In an article appearing in the January 18, 1974 issue of The Guardian, Jeremy Tunstall, a former Open University staff member, describes the following achievements (among others):

> (1) It has established itself as a university with a quality of academic staff that "falls well within the range found at other British universities."
>
> (2) It is "indeed much more open in its entrance procedures than any 'conventional' British University ... OU students in terms of parental origin are much more working class than students in either other British universities or Polytechnics ... a large minority of all OU entrants lack normal university entry qualifications."
>
> (3) "The Open University can claim to have been a stimulus to change not only in the colleges of education but in the polytechnics and technical colleges. OU teaching materials are being widely used in these areas of education."

Among the problems discussed by Tunstall are:

> (1) The "bland assumption that 'most' starting students would get degrees must be rejected... By assuming a cumulative drop-out rate of 30 percent over six years one ends up with a figure of only 12 percent getting degrees." (Tunstall points out, however, that this figure is too gloomy for a variety of reasons.)
>
> (2) The "failure of the system to locate failing students is astonishing because the OU has an elaborate and expensive regional apparatus..."
>
> (3) The students are isolated, and "compared with what has happened in other British universities especially since 1968, students play almost no part in OU committee work or policy making; students are not even systematically consulted about what courses they would like to see put on in the future."

(4) "While the Foundation courses and some of the higher level arts and social sciences courses seem cost effective, this is less true of science and technology courses. Open University science and technology staffing has been increased beyond that in other faculties; these courses involve experimental kits which cost 400,000 pounds a year. These courses require technicians, and they use much more of the very expensive resource of television. Finally science, technology, and mathematics attract fewer students, have less qualified applicants, and have higher drop out and fail rates."

During our visit to the Open University headquarters several other problems were discussed. Dr. Kiloh said there are now some doubts about the value of the Study Centers. Dr. Ross indicated that course development teams have had some difficulties because British academics are not so used to working together, and most have never used broadcast media before. He does not feel the TV producers and academics have learned much from each other. Also, according to Ross, many have criticized OU courses as being too avant garde.

Kiloh was questioned by our group about how "open" the OU really is. He admitted that some applicants may be advised to go to a College of Further Education rather than to enroll in the OU, but the final decision is made by the applicants.

Ross said that the OU has no Nobel Prize winners or Fellows of the Royal Society on its staff, but a number have good research reputations. The OU staff tends to be younger than those at traditional British universities, and many have been attracted by the idea of the OU for idealistic reasons.

The Open University was also discussed briefly, during our final wrap-up session for the whole field trip, with Senior Chief Inspector H. W. French and Her Majesty's Inspector A. J. Legge. In their words, the OU might better be described as "half-open", because there is not enough money to admit all who apply. On the other hand, Tunstall in the previously cited article states that "full economies of scale [for the OU] could be reaped much better with say, 70,000 students. But in the present climate of higher education it is not at all obvious that the OU could attract enough applicants to fill so many places."

Opinions vary about the overall quality and value of the TV programs. Michael Green, a sports writer who recently graduated from the OU, in an article in the January 20, 1974 Sunday Times writes that "excellent though some programmes are, one feels the money could be used in better ways. Some TV broadcasts, for instance (e.g. philosophy), consist merely of three or four people talking. Others are more dramatic (as in Arts), but can involve expenditure of thousands of pounds for a broadcast watched by only a few hundred people."

The December 1973 issue of SESAME, the student newspaper, provides a look at a spectrum of problems: an inter-faculty dispute over resource allocation, which began with a Planning Board decision to allocate proportionately more funds to Science and Technology than to Arts and Social Sciences; the growing concern being felt among some academic staff about their lack of opportunity for research work; the need to study the Study Centers to determine what they are for, whom they should serve, and who should pay; the special difficulties of disabled students; the high drop-out rate among merchant seaman; and the fact that in 1974 for the first time the OU was able to accept less than half of those who applied for admission.

It is clear that the Open University has problems, a few of them similar to those of traditional universities but others that are caused entirely by the nature of the beast. But it has had its own peculiar successes too. I found the successes and failures nicely summarized--not as a cost-benefit analyst would do it--by John Izbicki in a book review of The Open University Opens, a collection of articles written by students, lecturers, and other sympathizers and edited by Jeremy Tunstall. The following quotation is taken from that book review which appeared in The Times during our visit:

> "Some of /the book/ like the account of Barbara Abraham, who had to trek several miles from her remote country home to catch a bus for a further 7 mile journey to the nearest library to borrow essential books for her course, makes exceptionally moving reading.
>
> "Unlike students at our conventional universities, the OU participants get no statutory grants. There are no rent strikes, no sit-ins, no noisy demos. Just will-power, pride and hard graft. In that, at least, the Open University has been a success.

"Where it has failed is in its ambitious dream to bring about a social revolution. Its students are still mainly middle-class professionals--teachers, lecturers and housewives. That is not what Harold Wilson had in mind, nor J. C. Stobart who first mooted the idea of a university of the air in 1926, nor, indeed, Jennie (now Baroness) Lee, who acted as midwife to this controversial baby. But at least most students are the children of working-class parents, according to this book. They, too, deserve a second educational chance. For the sake of all concerned, I hope they succeed."

* * *

COUNCIL ON NATIONAL ACADEMIC AWARDS
(by George B. Lane)

The Council on National Academic Awards is essentially an accreditation agency for collegiate institutions which have not been granted the essential royal charter to award academic degrees. Established in 1964 on recommendation of the Robbins Report (1963), the CNAA was the culmination of a long-standing debate in Britain about the status of academic studies in applied science and technology.

The British university tradition is rooted in classicism and humane studies. The relevance of science and technology to the industrial revolution and modern economic development in the twentieth century was obvious, but its legitimacy in traditional academic terms was a matter of heated debate since the 1940's. Increasingly dependent upon the expertise of applied scientists and technologists, the British government recognized the necessity of according them status appropriate to their contribution. A second issue was devising a mechanism for orderly development of emerging institutions of higher education and fields of study.

Yet, devoted to academic excellence and the highest standards of quality, British academicians were unwilling to accord royal charters to new institutions of higher education or recognition to new disciplines without rigorous review. The compromise decision was to grant a royal charter to the CNAA and authorize it to approve study programs of diverse collegiate institutions as recognized university degree programs.

This practice had been conducted historically through the aegis of external degree programs offered under the authority of a chartered university. None of the Colleges of Education in England holds a royal charter, for example, but most of them offered their degrees under a neighboring university umbrella. Accreditation of technical colleges had been accomplished by a previous National Council on Technological Awards, but that Council had no power to grant degrees, only diplomas in technology. The Robbins Report recommended that these colleges of technology be granted royal charters as full-fledged universities and that the Council itself receive a royal charter but based on a new and broader academic identity. The resulting CNAA has been in operation for a decade now.

The CNAA charter is shared, in a sense, with the community of academic institutions which constitute its clientele. We were told by Dr. E. Kerr, Chief Officer of the CNAA that the royal charter is that of a U.K. (United Kingdom) university with full degree authority which may be conferred in full or in part upon the academic programs of its component institutions. The actual degree parchment is countersigned by both the Principal of the college and Dr. Kerr on behalf of the CNAA.

In our visit to the Berkshire College of Education, for example, we were told that its degrees had been offered in conjunction with the University of Reading but that this tie was being severed. Berkshire will commence offering its university degree program next year through the CNAA.

The heart of the CNAA operation, of course, is the review process by which it accepts academic programs for university degree status. Standards must be comparable to those in U.K. universities, and that assessment is made on the basis of academic peer review and approval by panels of scholars. This is a process which is very familiar to U.S. Federal educational program officers who have administered institutional grant application reviews.

The CNAA has no authority over any U.K. universities, over the finances of its constituent institutions, nor over new course offerings or institutional planning. Its purview is restricted entirely to those programs which are proposed to it for university degree standing. Dr. Kerr noted that planners are naturally influenced by the fiscal implications of managing degree programs which are customarily more capital intensive and usually require an additional year of study beyond diploma or certificate programs.

The process of selection begins with approval by the cabinet Department of Education and Science (DES) for a new course in terms of national student demand and local fiscal feasibility. Next, a written proposal of some 100 pages is submitted to the CNAA with a description of physical facilities, faculty, curriculum, and student competence. The proposal is prepared by an interdisciplinary faculty team and endorsed by the college administration and trustees.

Review of the proposal at CNAA occurs at three levels. The initial consideration is by the Council itself--composed of 25 people chosen from colleges, U.K. universities, and professional societies--which passes on the application. Next, a faculty board review is involved, representing the five academic sectors (Arts and Sciences, Science and Technology, Education, Graduate Study and Research, Art and Design).

The most searching inquiry, however, occurs at the level of discipline panels. There are 60 of these, representing either single fields of study (e.g., mathematics) or broad spectra (e.g., humanities). Finally, a site visit is made by a team of academic, professional, and governmental representatives. The entire review may take from one to nine months, depending on the problems encountered.

Rejection of a proposal is accompanied by evaluative comment, usually a critique of specific weaknesses and suggestions regarding resubmission in future. Toward the future, Dr. Kerr pointed out that the Colleges of Education are now in the midst of dramatic change, moving from normal schools to liberal arts institutions in much the same way as occurred in the United States over the last decade. The diploma programs for teachers are therefore in process of development toward degree status, and the CNAA will probably be deeply involved in advice and counsel for these developing programs.

The major work of the CNAA since its inception has been with relation to the developing community-based Polytechnics which combine both terminal technician training and university degree programs. The official white paper on education published in 1972, however, decrees a three-fold expansion of the regional colleges of education by 1980 along with a rising proportion of higher education opportunity for the college-age population. Government policy over the last decade has emphasized growth in the CNAA institutions rather than expanding the U.K. university community, so the clear future of CNAA is growth-oriented and based upon the two developing institutional models.

No appeal against decisions of the CNAA is provided by law. Its charter is granted by the Privy Council and endorsed by the Queen, which lends weight to its deliberations. Moreover, decisionmaking is so widely shared by members of the academic and professional communities that Dr. Kerr doubted any institution would contest these decisions. Once again, the ESS members sensed the implicit force of consensus and shared values which were apparent in the University Grants Committee and elsewhere.

There are now no proprietary institutions with degree-granting authority in the United Kingdom, although such schools do prepare accountants and others for the professional examinations and do grant diplomas or certificates. Some sectarian colleges offer theological degrees which are approved by the CNAA, however.

Course approvals are reviewed every five years for renewal. Although rejections are rare, counseling on improvement is not. Such stimulus for maintenance of effort has, in fact, been proposed for the entire U.K. university community by an interparty Parliamentary committee of education specialists. The outlook for that is dim at present, however.

Another peer review of academic quality is the well-developed system of external exams for university degrees which prevails in Britain. All examinations are conducted by regional examining boards which draw up the questions and grade the quality of response. This has provided an objective appraisal of student competence and standards in the U.K. universities since the 12th century.

The Council staff consists of 60 persons with 20 of them academicians, largely from Polytechnics, who serve as officers and secretaries to the various committees. Dr. Kerr's position is equivalent to a university vice-chancellor, and his subordinates are arrayed like a college administration into an organization of deans and department heads.

Unlike the University Grants Council, the professional staff is not composed of civil servants but rather are Polytechnic faculty who serve on temporary rotational appointments. Since the charter gives the CNAA a corporate legal identity as a university, salary scales and terms of appointment are identical to the U.K. universities. No compensation is paid to members of the academic review panels beyond expenses. The budget of CNAA is currently about $1 million annually (or 400,000 pounds).

Dr. Kerr stated that the Council meets four times a year as do the subject matter boards, although ad hoc consultations are arranged more frequently as required. The Council now has an even split between representatives of U.K. universities and colleges, although the mix will change when representatives of the new Art and Design sector join shortly. The objective is one-third representation from the colleges, the universities, and the professional or industrial associations.

Medical education is beyond the purview of the CNAA and restricted entirely to the established schools in U.K. universities. Because the National Health Service dominates the practice of medicine, Parliament establishes independent review committees to supervise medical education. Paramedical and technician programs, however, are offered in Polytechnics under CNAA auspices.

In response to a question, Dr. Kerr declared that students are not officially involved in CNAA decisionmaking. The Council requested an amendment to its charter to include student representatives, but it was refused. Students are consulted in the reapproval process, however, and there are regular meetings between the Council and the National Union of Students to exchange views or resolve problems.

With regard to innovations, the NCAA is cautious. It has decreed that minimum time for earning a degree is three years (or six semesters) which is standard practice. One college has requested permission to offer a degree in 2½ years, but this will occasion a top policy decision by the Council. On the other hand, the CNAA approved a degree plan for Computer Science before any university had such a program, based upon the proposal of a constituent institution.

In conclusion, Dr. Kerr noted that the CNAA constitutes a higher education constituency group as an interface with the government. Rather like the University Grants Committee which speaks for the U.K. universities, the NCAA advises policy officials concerning collegiate educational matters. It was involved, for example, in the 1972 report, Teacher Education and Training, produced by a government committee chaired by Lord James.

THE GEORGE WASHINGTON UNIVERSITY INSTITUTE FOR EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP

EDUCATIONAL STAFF SEMINAR

Suite 310, 1001 Connecticut Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036

A STUDY MISSION: EDUCATION IN GREAT BRITAIN

January 6-21, 1974

(PARTICIPANTS FROM WASHINGTON, FLORIDA, OHIO AND NEW YORK)

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DESCRIPTION OF ESS

The Educational Staff Seminar is a professional development program designed for staff members employed by the Executive and Legislative branches of the Federal Government in the field of education. The goals of ESS are to provide an open forum in which participants can improve their professional capabilities and personal fulfillment on the job by:

a) being exposed to new ideas and perspectives;

b) increasing their knowledge of particular subjects and their understanding of how things actually operate in the field, and who is operating them;

c) meeting with other professionals involved in the legislative and policy formulation processes, but in other than a work environment so that personal relationships can be established and enhanced.

ESS supplements the Washington work experience with a variety of in-service training seminars and in-the-field personal observations. Emphasis in these voluntary and supplementary learning experiences is upon developing broad educational understanding and perspective and a wide exposure to current educational problems. ESS advocates no particular educational policies, nor does it take positions on pending legislative controversies.

Stated another way, ESS provides educational experiences to help overcome the gap discussed by John W. Gardner in Self-Renewal:

> "As organizations (and societies) become larger and more complex, the men at the top (whether managers or analysts) depend less and less on firsthand experience, more and more on heavily "processed" data. Before reaching them, the raw data--what actually goes on "out there"-- have been sampled, screened, condensed, compiled, coded, expressed in statistical form, spun into generalizations and crystallized into recommendations.
>
> "It is characteristic of the information processing system that it systematically filters out certain kinds of data so that these never reach the men who depend on the system..... It filters out all sensory impressions not readily expressed in words and numbers. It filters out emotion, feeling, sentiment, mood and almost all of the irrational nuances of human situations. It filters out those intuitive judgements that are just below the level of consciousness.
>
> "So that the picture of reality that sifts to the top of our great organizations and our society is sometimes a dangerous mismatch with the real world.....

> "That is why every top executive and every analyst sitting at the center of a communications network should periodically emerge from his world of abstractions and take a long unflinching look at unprocessed reality."

ESS's goal, in short, is to enable its participants to be generally more effective in their professional staff duties and of greater service to the Congress and the Executive Branch in the development and enactment of sound educational policies.

SUMMARY OF ESS ACTIVITIES IN FISCAL YEAR 1973

4 - one-day site visits or field trips

12 - multiple-day field trips, domestic

2 - overseas field trips (U.S.S.R. and Japan)

6 - all-day seminars

7 - discussions, demonstrations, films

28 - dinner (or lunch) discussion meetings with speakers

4 - Executive Policy Seminars, chaired by the Assistant Secretary for Education (HEW)

2 - meetings of Federal Interagency Committee on Education

65 PROGRAMS conducted for over 1,800 ESS participants

PARTICIPANTS

ESS participants are varied in their political affiliations and persuasions; they are Republicans, Democrats, and independents. The major criterion for participation in ESS activities is occupational: the individual must perform in a Federal Professional staff role involving the development or implementation of Federal policy in the field of education. Hence, ESS activities typically bring together Federal aides from four areas:

Congressional: Majority and minority counsels and professional staff members of the Senate Committee on Labor and Public Welfare, the House Committee on Education and Labor, the House and Senate Committees on Appropriations; as well as legislative assistants to Members of the House and Senate who serve on the Congressional committees on education. In addition, professional staff of the Congressional Research Service, and the General Accounting Office.

Executive Offices: Professionals from the Office of Management and Budget (Human Resources Programs Division, Office of Legislative Reference, Office of Program Coordination, Federal Executive Board Secretariat) and special assistants to the President.

Departments: The Secretary and Assistant Secretaries of HEW, Commissioner of Education, Director of the National Institute of Education, Deputy Assistant Secretaries for program planning and evaluation, legislation, budget, research, and intra-departmental educational affairs. In addition, senior program specialists, public information officers, special assistants to bureau chiefs, etc.

Agencies: Professional staff members of other Federal education agencies: National Science Foundation, Office of Economic Opportunity, National Endowment for the Humanities, Smithsonian Institution, etc.

OPERATIONS

ESS activities generally take the form of either dinner-discussion meetings with prominent personalities in the field of education or site visits to notable educational programs.

Travelling seminars typically consist of 15-25 senior, bipartisan staff members from Congress and the Executive departments whose primary responsibilities are for the development and implementation of Federal educational policy. Dinner meetings serve a wider spectrum of educational staff personnel drawn from Capitol Hill and various Federal agencies.

The general format of ESS activities is as follows:

A. ESS participants obtain the written approval and/or encouragement of their congressional or agency principals (ESS has been endorsed by Senators and Representatives of both political parties, as well as Executive Branch agency heads.

B. ESS participants suggest an agenda of educational topics (e.g. "preschool," "disadvantaged," "educational technology"). The ESS project staff (in cooperation with an outside consultant-expert in the particular topic or locale) then plans the visit to worthwhile educational programs and makes the logistical arrangements.

C. The group travels together, sometimes under the leadership of the outside consultant, in short trips from Washington to educational projects. (Eight-ten trips during the course of a calendar year are planned in accordance with the congressional workload and the budgetary cycle.) In the field, ESS participants discuss educational operations with persons they would not normally meet in Washington (e.g. classroom teachers, community leaders, administrators, researchers, students, parents, etc.

SPONSORSHIP AND CONTROL

Educational Staff Seminar began in February, 1969. One of a series

of leadership development programs of The George Washington University's Institute for Educational Leadership, ESS is funded by a grant to the Institute from The Ford Foundation and by a contract for partial reimbursement of training expenses from the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare and the U.S. General Accounting Office. An evaluation of ESS, conducted by the U.S. Office of Education, is available from ESS. A Steering Committee composed of participants representing various agency affiliations gives advice and counsel to the program.

ESS's Director is Dr. Samuel Halperin, formerly a college professor of political science, Assistant U.S. Commissioner of Education for Legislation, and Deputy Assistant Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare. Assistant Director Sharon Enright has worked in the Congressional Research Service of the Library of Congress and has taught in D.C. and California public schools.

--January 1974