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ABSTRACT

This study provides a comprehensive history of state education in England and Wales and asks why state education was delayed longer in these two countries than in other developed nations. Section 1 provides a history of early church and private schools and traces Britain's educational development up to the reforms of 1988. From the year 600 to 1988 the varied and complex school systems show that England and Wales educated their elites but delayed extending higher education to the working class until the 1960s and 1970s. Then the countries attempted to equalize educational opportunities largely through comprehensive schools. Section 2 explains school structure, organization, administration, and changes under the Education Reform Act of 1988 (ERA) and offers insight into education policy changes that show a change of direction from a child-centered, progressive, teacher-guided system to the conservative, differentiated, central government-directed, industry-serving school system of today. Section 3 provides a glossary of abbreviations, acronyms, and commonly used terms in education in England and Wales. (NL)

Education Reform in England and Wales

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His writings on education in England and Wales are based on field research done in British schools over the last two decades.

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INTRODUCTION

Brief Facts

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

The U.K.'s population of 57.1 million (estimated, 1990) lives on 94,251 square miles, about the size of Oregon. It is made up of England, population 50 million, or 83 percent of the U.K. population, living on 50,332 square miles; Wales, population 2,791,851, on 8,018 square miles; Scotland, population 5,130,"35, on 30,414 square miles; and Northern Ireland, population 1,490,228, on 5,452 square miles. The U.K. is highly urban (92.5 percent) and its population density is 601 per square mile.

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

[1] Adapted from Franklin Parker & Betty J. Parker, eds., *Education in England and Wales, Past and Present. Annotated Bibliography,* Garland Publishing, in press (1991).

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

OVERVIEW

Nineteenth Century World Power

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

Twentieth Century Decline

Britain's loss of world status after World War I was not generally apparent until the end of World War II. Britain lost many of its best young men in World War I, stood almost alone against Nazi Germany in 1940, and emerged from World War II victorious but exhausted. In wartime consensus, Parliament passed the 1944 Education Act, promising secondary education to all, previously available to few working class children. War sacrifices demanded more fairness in health, welfare, and education. The Labor (British spelling, Labour) Party in power extended social welfare programs, which benefited those at the bottom of the socioeconomic scale. With scarce resources and mounting welfare costs, the country could only repair, not rebuild, its ruined industrial plants. Unable to compete with the new, efficient industrial plants of western Europe and

Japan, Britain also faced postwar decolonization and loss of empire. It gave independence to India (1947) and soon after to most of its other territories. After 1947 the British Commonwealth of Nations, in existence since 1926, became more prominent, with Britain but one among its 50 member states.

Delayed State Education

Why was state education for all delayed longer in England and Wales than in most other advanced countries? Workers in the early Industrial Revolution cotton mills, in other factories, and in coal mines did not at first need to be literate. Only a few supervisors needed to read and write. The demand for child labor, in fact, discouraged parents from sending their children to school for long. The Factory Acts of 1802 and 1819 set the minimum working age at 9. The Factory Act of 1833 required working children ages 9 to 13 to attend school for 2 hours daily for 6 days a week, a provision not always enforced.[3]

Church Dominance in Education

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

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

State Grants 1833+ and Dual Education System

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

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

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

This overview leaves an unanswered historical question. Are historians right who attribute Britain's decline to late nineteenth and early twentieth century educational shortcomings caused by class division, denominational rivalry, church dominance in education, delayed state education, and giving arts prestige and precedence over industrial training and science? Whence, then, came the engineers, scientists, bankers, insurance leaders, craftsmen, and clerks who made Britain the first industrialized nation and the first major business nation? Still unanswered are the reasons for

Britain's decline, surely evident after World War II and likely attributable to human and material losses from both world wars, from inefficient industrial plants, from loss of empire, and from welfare state malaise.

BRIEF HISTORY: EARLY CHURCH AND PRIVATE SCHOOLS

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

Anglo-Saxon Beginnings, 600-1066

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

Early Medieval Period, 1066-1300

England absorbed Greek and Arabic learning in Latin translation. The Norman Conquest (1066) brought books and masters from France. Oxford (c. 1161), like Paris and Bologna, became a center of learning, with migrating students founding schools in Cambridge (1209), Salisbury (1238), and elsewhere. Clerics had some Latin learning, knights who fought had less, while peasants were mainly illiterate. Of England's population of 3 million in 1300, about 3 percent were variously literate in Latin, French, or English (about 1.5 percent clerics and 1.5 percent lay civil servants, lawyers, judges, knights, and merchants).[4]

Later Medieval Education, 1300-1530

Education centers were in monasteries, cathedrals, other great churches, and schools attached to chantries, where clerics and boys chanted intercessory prayers for the dead. Oxford and Cambridge Universities probably began as chantry foundations. In 1382 wealthy Bishop William of Wykeham founded Winchester College, originally for "poor and needy" boys, age 8 and up, who prepared to enter New College, Oxford University. Eton was founded by King Henry VI in 1440 to prepare boys for King's College, Cambridge University. These, along with Rugby (1567),

Harrow (1571), and others formed the prestigious private boarding schools, the 9 "Great Public Schools." They became the preserves of the upper class and had their greatest growth in the nineteenth century. Here boys were hardened physically and mentally by a system of competitive sports, caning, fagging (doing upperclassmen's bidding), and the study of classics.

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

Educational Expansion, 1530-1640

Henry VIII's break with Rome brought into being the Church of England (or Anglican Church) and the English-language Book of Common Prayer. Renaissance humanistic learning flourished during the time of Elizabeth I and Shakespeare. To Latin grammar schools as feeders to the universities were added English schools for merchants' sons and daughters (girls studied for a shorter time), and small fee-charging petty schools and dame schools for the poor. One account estimates that England's male literacy rate in larger towns and cities in 1640 was between 30 percent and 60 percent.[5]

Puritan Revolution, 1640-1660

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

Pre-Industrial Academies and Charity Schools, 1660-1780

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

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

NINETEENTH-TWENTIETH CENTURIES

Sunday Schools, Monitorial Schools, 1780-1830

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

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

The nondenominational (but Christian) Lancasterian Society, 1808, became the British and Foreign School Society, 1815, competing with Anglican Bell's larger National Society for

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

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

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

First State Grants for Church School Buildings, 1833

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

To their classical studies, Anglican-dominated Oxford and Cambridge Universities added mathematics examinations in 1800 and science much later. The nondenominational University College, London, opened in 1828 with a broader curriculum. Its rival, King's College, London, opened in 1831.

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

State Grants for Elementary Education 1833-1869

Annual grants to the two societies' church school buildings were administered by the Committee of the Privy Council on Education, established in 1839 under Secretary James Kay-Shuttleworth. Grants followed satisfactory inspection by Her Majesty's Inspectors (HMI), established in 1839. Anglicans charged the Committee with undermining their authority when in 1846 the Committee laid down conditions for the management of state-aided church schools. In the 1840s £500,000 was distributed by the Committee, four-fifths of it through the larger (Anglican) National Society. From 1843 grants were made for school buildings, furniture, and apparatus. In 1846 Kay-Shuttleworth started apprenticeship teacher training for bright pupil teachers over age 13 who passed an annual exam conducted by HMIs. Some received Queens Scholarships at 30 teacher training colleges which, by 1859, produced over 7,000 certified teachers. After 1853 maintenance grants went to rural district schools on the basis of attendance and the employment of certified teachers. The School Code of 1860 tacitly acknowledged the wary state-church collaboration in state-aided but low fee-charging church and private primary schools for working class children. State aid was based on HMI-approved school work in cooperating church and private schools whose leaders were administratively and religiously dominant. Yet, by 1850, only half of British children received any regular schooling.[6]

Two Nations: Rich and Poor

Prime Minister Disraeli asserted that "two nations" had developed: a small rich upper class and a large poor working class (in fact, an emerging middle class was growing). Those with economic power believed that state-aided primary schools, by teaching religion and morality, would keep the poor from radicalism and revolution, as had happened among Chartist rioters and Owenite socialists.[7] Some wealthy upper class leaders feared as subversive the state primary schools initiated and overseen by Kay-Shuttleworth's Committee of Council (which became the Education Department in 1856, still under the Privy Council), HMIs, and their published reports.

Newcastle Report, 1861

The Newcastle Commission, 1861, examined how (if at all) to extend "sound and cheap" primary education to all. It followed several education bills which failed because Anglicans mainly and Roman Catholics zealously guarded their educational monopoly despite nonconformist and secular urging to expand state education. The Commission found that most (2.5 million) of an estimated 2.6 million poor children attended school from 4 to 6 years until age 11, with about 5.4 percent remaining after age 13.[8] It rejected free and compulsory primary education, recommended continued voluntary church and private school initiative supplemented by state aid based on "Payment by Results"; i.e., grants based on students' academic ability shown through test results.

Payment by Results

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

Behind the 1870 Elementary Education Act

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

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

(Forster) 1870 Elementary Education Act

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

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

Primary School Expansion, 1870-1902

In 1870 voluntary church primary schools served 750,000 children. By 1900 the dual voluntary church and state primary schools enrolled 5.75 million children, 52 percent of them in voluntary church schools.[12] State primary education became compulsory in 1880 for ages 5 to 10 (ages 5 to 11 in 1893 and ages 5 to 12 in 1899) and free in 1891. Some working class parents preferred to pay fees for their children in the more respected and exclusive voluntary church schools. Payment by Results based on annual exams ended in the mid 1890s, freeing teachers to vary the curriculum. Grants were then based on attendance and satisfactory "general inspection" reports. The Education Department's annual elementary education expenditure rose from under £1 million in 1870, to over £5 million in 1899.[13]

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

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

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

Educational Overlap Before 1902

Before the 1902 Education Act brought some order, three separate, overlapping, class-divided, uncoordinated school "systems" existed.[15] First, most upper class children attended a private preparatory school to age 13 (a few had private tutors) before entering one of the 9 great endowed public schools, such as Winchester or Eton, or one of the 200 other less well known imitators. The Clarendon Commission, 1864, brought some uniformity to the 9 great public schools and preparatory schools, with closer association coordinated by the Headmasters' Conference after 1869. Second, children from the aspiring middle class attended fee-charging voluntary church or private primary schools, then entered less famous fee-required voluntary church or private secondary (grammar) schools. The 1868 Taunton Commission classified these less prestigious and more numerous private secondary (grammar) schools as follows: 705 endowed classical grammar schools, 2,200 nonclassical grammar schools, and 10,000 private for-profit secondary schools. In 1861 an estimated 974,258 upper and middle class students, ages 5 to 20, attended fee-charging secondary (grammar) schools.[16]

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

Councils became Local Education Authorities (LEAs) after 1902, vital basis for a full fledged national system of state education.

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

(Balfour) 1902 Education Act

The 1902 Education Act replaced existing School Boards, School Attendance Committees, and Technical Instruction Committees with some 300 LEAs. County Councils and County Borough Councils were designated as LEAs responsible for primary education, secondary education, teacher training, technical education, and adult education. Municipal borough LEAs in about 180 towns and cities with over 10,000 people each were responsible for primary education only. Local tax (rate) aid was given to voluntary church schools to pay all operating costs. Voluntary church primary schools, renamed "non-provided schools," were administered by the LEAs. LEAs could use state aid plus local taxes (rates) to support voluntary church grammar schools or to create new secondary schools, including technical secondary schools, and to establish and maintain teacher training colleges for primary school teachers. Some nonconformists, especially in Wales, who did not like this division of state aid between both state schools and state-aided voluntary church secondary schools, resisted by refusing to pay their taxes (rates).[17]

In introducing the 1902 Education Act, Conservative Party Prime Minister Arthur Balfour said that £18 million a year was spent on primary education, that over 3 million children were in 14,000 voluntary church schools, and 2.6 million children in 5,700 Board schools.[18] The dual

track system remained: most working class pupils attended state primary schools and went to work at about age 14; most upper class students went on to voluntary church or private secondary schools.[19]

One view is that the Conservative Party's purpose in the 1902 Education Act was not to advance working class children to secondary schools but to prevent "liberal-dominated school boards" from building more state schools, from encroaching on secondary education, and also to bolster voluntary church grammar schools. The 1902 Act distinguished between free primary schools for working class children to age 13 (a few able ones continued to age 15 and then went to work), and middle class children in fee-charging voluntary church secondary grammar schools to age 16 (often to age 18, who then went to a university or to a managerial or professional position).[20]

In 1908 the Board of Education, under Liberal Party direction, connected hitherto separate primary and secondary schools by requiring "free places" in voluntary church secondary grammar schools for tax-supported LEA students passing a qualifying exam taken at about age 11 (commonly called 11+). Although such "free" secondary school places increased from 25 percent in 1908, to 40 percent in 1919, to 57 percent in 1938, the ratio of those enrolled was 6 middle class children for every working class child.

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

(Fisher) 1918 Education Act

The 1918 Education Act, led by H.A.L. Fisher, president of the Board of Education, called for state-aided day nurseries to age 3 and nursery schools for ages 3 to 5 (not implemented because of the economic slump); raised the school leaving age to 14; retained the 1902 division between tax-supported free LEA primary schools and state-aided fee-charging voluntary church secondary grammar schools, but increased secondary school scholarships; and made larger grants to LEAs to

increase teachers' salaries. The requirement that LEAs give part-time education up to age 18 to those who left school at 14 was dropped for lack of funds.[22]

Hadow 1926, Spens 1938, and Norwood 1943 Reports

The 1926 Hadow Report, *The Education of the Adolescent*, recommended that after 6 years of primary school, ages 5 to 11, the age 11+ exam be used to separate all students into 3 types of secondary schools (British term, tripartitism): grammar school for bright students from all backgrounds heading for the university, ages 11 to 18 or 19; secondary technical schools for the technically inclined, also ages 11 to 18 or 19; and secondary modern schools for the average, ages 11 to 16, and below average, ages 11 to 14 or 15.[23] It recommended raising the school leaving age to 15 (delayed until 1947).[24]

The 1938 Spens Report endorsed the Hadow Report's 3 types of secondary schools, suggesting secondary grammar schools for the ablest 15 percent of student and the use of intelligence tests to make the separation at age 11+.[25] The 1943 Norwood Report also endorsed the 3 types of secondary schools; recommended as substitute for School Certificate Exams (age 15 or 16) a General Certificate of Education-Ordinary Level Exam (GCE-O, at age 16); and a School Leaving Exam at age 18 (later called GCE-A or Advanced Level Exam) for university entrance and professional qualification; and part-time education option to age 18 for those leaving school at ages 15 or 16.[26]

The Spens and Norwood committee members thought that the 3 types of secondary schools would have "parity of esteem" (still hotly debated). Later critics said that the 3-part secondary school system (tripartitism) delayed for 20 years equal secondary school opportunity for all.[27]

An Education Bill to raise the school leaving age to 15 did not pass in 1930. Another was discarded by the House of Lords in 1931. Another was passed in 1936 to take effect in September 1939, but World War II prevented its implementation.[28]

Toward the 1944 Education Act

World War II cooperation and sacrifice helped shift Britain's laissez-faire attitude about education as a private family matter to education as a state responsibility. The Fabian Society had

since 1883 urged a socialized democracy and education for all (members included playwright George Bernard Shaw, novelist H.G. Wells, economists Beatrice and Sidney Webb, and others). Its political descendant, the Labor Party won the 1945 election. Britain voted Conservative Winston Churchill out and voted in Labor Party leader Clement Attlee. The Labor Party, since 1906 and particularly since displacing the Liberal Party in 1918 as the chief rival to the Conservative Party, was determined to expand social welfare.

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

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

(Butler) 1944 Education Act

The 1944 Education Act retained public funds for the dual education system: LEA state schools and church-owned schools wanting public funds and willing to operate under government regulations. LEA state schools, called "provided" schools since 1902, were renamed county schools. Church-owned schools receiving public funds, called "nonprovided" schools since 1902, were renamed voluntary schools and were organized in 3 categories depending on the degree of

government control. In voluntary special agreement schools (mostly secondary modern schools). LEAs hired, paid, and dismissed teachers; paid operating costs; and church owners appointed a two-thirds majority of the governing body and paid half of exterior building repair costs. In voluntary controlled schools (which most Anglican schools became), LEAs hired, paid, and dismissed teachers; appointed a two-third majority of the governing body, paid operating costs; while religion was taught on an agreed-on nondenominational syllabus. In voluntary aided schools, church owners retained the most control, appointed a two-third majority of the governing body; hired and dismissed teachers (subject to approval by the LEA, which paid the teachers) and paid half of external building repair costs.The Ministry of Education had the power to inspect private schools and to close inefficient ones.[30]

The 1944 Act raised the school leaving age to 15 (occurred in 1947) and incorporated the 1926 Hadow Report's recommended 3 types of secondary schools (tripartitism). The age 11+ exam separated pupils into secondary grammar schools for the academically able (about 20 percent), secondary technical schools for the technically skilled (few of these were established), and secondary modern schools for the practical minded majority (about 70 percent). Secondary school fees were ended in both LEA schools and in tax-supported voluntary church schools. Parity of esteem was a catch phrase. Most "knew" (were convinced) that the secondary modern school was second best to the secondary grammar school. In fact, fee-required private secondary grammar schools boomed.[31] ("Grammar" and "secondary" were mutually exclusive terms; historically and currently, grammar school denotes academic preparation, usually for elites, but also for bright working class students; "secondary" school students were considered second best). Tax-supported voluntary church or private schools continued to get half and later more state aid for running costs.[32] At first and in practice the 1944 Education Act tended to perpetuate the division of "elite" grammar school and "ordinary" plebeian secondary modern school. It should be remembered that "tripartitism" or selectivity in secondary schools had Labor Party as well as Conservative Party approval.

Comprehensive Secondary School Reorganization, 1965+

By 1965 secondary school pupils after age 11 included: 6 percent students from more affluent families in fee-charging prestigious "great" public schools or their less famous counterparts; and in free LEA and tax supported voluntary church schools: 20 percent mainly middle class students in prestigious secondary grammar schools to ages 18 or 19; 3 percent mix of working class and middle class students in moderately reputable secondary technical schools, also to ages 18 or 19; and about 70 percent in less esteemed secondary modern schools to age 15 (roughly equivalent to U.S. tenth grade).[33]

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

Under the Labor Party, in office October 1964 to 1970, the Department of Education and Science, in Circular 10/65, asked LEAs for secondary school reorganization plans along comprehensive school lines. That year 65 out of 148 LEAs had plans to go comprehensive, another 55 LEAs considered going comprehensive, but only a handful of LEAs actually had comprehensive secondary schools.[34] In 1965, 262 comprehensive schools enrolled 239,000 students; in 1969, 962 comprehensive schools enrolled 772,000 students (25 percent of all secondary school students). In 1970, 31 percent of all secondary students were in comprehensive schools, with 22 out of the 163 LEAs refusing to go comprehensive.

In 1970 the Conservative government repealed Circular 10/65 but allowed LEAs to decide for themselves about going comprehensive. Comprehensive schools continued to grow (ironically under the then Secretary of State for Education and Science, Margaret Thatcher). Use of the age 11+

exam declined, although it is still used in a few LEAs that have retained grammar schools. Most caring secondary school teachers favored comprehensive schooling after 1965 because they thought it was fair and that it valued each student equally. Comprehensive schools in 1990 enrolled over 90 percent of all state-aided secondary school pupils.[35]

BETWEEN EDUCATION ACTS: 1944 TO 1988

School Control and Differentiation Within Comprehensive Schools

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

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

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

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

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

Recession and Education Cuts, 1973 to the 1980s

In the 1970s conservative reaction grew against alleged excessive progressive education, child-centeredness, expensive inner city Educational Priority Area grants, multicultural education, sex education, and other social education programs. In a time of youthful exuberance (Beatlemania and drug use) and government sex scandals, displeasure with education was expressed in the

charge of fallen standards and in demands for a return to basic education, especially in English, maths, science, foreign languages, and religious education.[38]

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

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

Concerned about the economic recession and disturbed about the charge of fallen school standards, Labor Prime Minister James Callaghan asked the DES for a report on the state of British education. Supposedly secret, this report was leaked to to the press in October 1976. The so-called "Yellow Book" report was critical of progressive education methods in primary schools and was biased against "undemanding" (i.e., comprehensive) secondary schools. Prime Minister Callaghan's October 18, 1976, Ruskin College, Oxford University, speech opened the so-called Great Debate on Education. On the defensive because of balance of loan payments, rising

unemployment, and government budget cuts, and genuinely concerned about educational quality, he called for a redirection of education to aid British industry and the economy. "You must satisfy parents and industry," he told teachers, "that what you are doing meets their requirements." The Great Debate on Education was sped along in 8 regional public conferences on educational issues in 1977. It marked central government's entry into school curriculum issues, hitherto left to teachers and other educators. It anticipated ERA 88's emphasis on more centralized government control, less LEA control, and more industry-school links to improve the national economy.

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

DES Gains Control

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

DES control over teachers came in the 1987 Education (Teachers' Pay and Conditions) Act, which followed annual disruptions over teachers' pay, from 1983 to 1987, and intermittent teacher strike action, from late 1986 to early 1987. The Burnham Committee (1919 to 1987), which had negotiated teacher salaries, was abolished (replaced by the Interim Advisory Committee, 1987 to

1990). LEAs did not participate in teacher pay negotiations, 1987 to 1990 (it was announced in 1990 that pay bargaining would be restored to teachers and their LEA employers). DES control over curriculum and exams came by abolishing the teacher-dominated Schools Council (1964 to 1981) and by establishing as advisory bodies the National Curriculum Council (NCC, since 1988) and the Schools Examination and Assessment Council (SEAC, since 1988).

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

Behind the Education Reform Act of 1988 (ERA 88)

Purporting to show motives and methods behind ERA 88, an article in *The Economist* called Britain "plainly the educational invalid of the advanced world."[39] It noted that 60 percent of students leave full time education at age 16 (45 percent without a successful age 16 school leaving certificate exam), compared to 10 percent in West Germany and the U.S. and 4 percent in Japan; and that only 15 percent of 18-year-olds entered higher education, compared to 48 percent in the U.S. and 38 percent in Japan.

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

lower class) children. Conservatives said that they wanted to help working class children become middle class by improving schools and the economy.

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

ERA 88 Key Provisions

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

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

2. National assessment (testing) to monitor student progress at ages 7, 11, 14, and 16. A School Examinations Assessment Council (SEAC) advises testing specialists who, using Standard

Assessment Tasks (SATs), formulate what pupils should know about national curriculum subjects at ages 7, 11, 14, and 16. Teachers were anxious about national assessment because it reflected on how well (or badly) they taught the national curriculum.

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

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

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

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

7. Britain's 46 tax-supported universities were funded through a Universities Funding Council (UFC replaced the University Grants Committee, 1919 to 1989), just over half of whose members are also from business, industry and commerce. Academic tenure was abolished for

faculty appointed after 1987 (faculty appointed earlier retained tenure unless they changed jobs). Higher education personnel had serious anxiety over this abrogation of long-standing rights.

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

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

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

ERA 88 Criticism

A critical view of ERA 88 which purports to show motives and currents at work is worth noting. After Prime Minister Thatcher's large election victory in 1987, she believed that passage of ERA 88 legislation and community charge legislation were vital for a hoped for fourth term election victory needed to complete her political agenda of reducing socialism and increasing private initiative.[40] Unlike the 1918 and 1944 Education Acts, which had political consensus and full consultation with all concerned, ERA 88's controversial provisions were pushed through hastily. Before final passage, reaction to ERA 88 was invited but little time was given to respond. Still, over 16,000 responses were received. Some claim that the criticism and advice in these responses were ignored.[41]

Critics believed ERA 88 was designed to break LEA power (especially LEAs in which the Labor Party consistently won elections), to differentiate among schools, to encourage competitive market practices, and to gain central government control to serve middle class interests. Rejecting LEAs' equality of opportunity, Thatcher won her desired variety and choice to serve upwardly

mobile Britons: LEA schools for those who want democratic education and, for emerging elites, DES-funded grant-maintained (GM) schools which opted out from LEAs, and (government) assisted places for bright but poor children whose parents of modest means want them to attend private schools.[42] Some pointed out that this position was a clear departure from Conservative Party education policy of the 1950s and 1960s.

Echoing Thatcher's "variety and choice," then Education Secretary Kenneth Baker (in office 1986 to 1989) said he wanted alternatives between the 7 percent of students in independent schools and the 93 percent in LEA and state-aided voluntary church and private schools, such alternatives as CTCs. Thatcher was angered by and determined to reduce the power of far left (so-called "looney left") LEAs where, she said, parents resented their children being taught political slogans and an offensive curriculum (gay rights and sex education were mentioned).[43] Some say that the few such instances were exaggerated in the Conservative press and were used shamelessly for Conservative Party propaganda purposes.

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

Critics charge that the Conservative government attempted to balance urban comprehensive secondary school influence by introducing the "Assisted Places Scheme" (government aid to parents of modest means wanting to transfer their children from free LEA to fee-charging private schools; or to similar parents with children already in fee-charging private schools). While Education Secretary Keith Joseph was in office (1981 to 1986), government policy, directed through the Secretary of State for the Environment, limited LEA expenditures by reducing LEA local taxing power (called at the time, "rate capping"). Central government control over the curriculum was increased by abolishing the Schools Council (abolished, critics said, because its teacher members and LEA members had undue progressive education influence over the

curriculum) and by bringing in such other government agencies as the Department of Employment's MSC to stimulate an industry-oriented vocational training curriculum (TVEI). Indeed, some say that the DES was for a time in rivalry with the MSC over educational direction.

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

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

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

Breakup of the Inner London Education Authority (ILEA) was politically motivated, said critics. ILEA generally provided good education and excellent research but as a Labor Party stronghold it had to go. Having a poor and diverse ethnic mix of children, ILEA's costs were necessarily higher than those in most other large city LEAs. Critics of the Conservative government point to London as a case study of ruthless class politics. Some also believed that

Conservatives' aim for further education (FE) was to hand it over to business interests. Thus, arguments for and against ERA 88 are countered point by point. Some believe it was motivated by a mistaken Conservative government competitive marketplace ideology. Others fear undue state domination of education through the national curriculum.

What ERA 88 Accomplished

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

Education Secretary Kenneth Baker charged on leaving office that the education system had become "producer dominated" (i.e., dominated by socialist Labor Party-oriented LEAs and teachers).[46] Diehard Conservatives believed that child-centered progressive schools and comprehensive secondary schools had harmed Britain economically and educationally; that it was time to scale back hitherto socialized health, welfare, and education; and to redirect education to serve better Britain's economic needs and rising middle class aspirations.

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

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

overrode local political power and that national election victories had precedence over local Labor Party election victories.

How Much Public Support for ERA 88?

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

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

Conservative think tank studies also drew attention to the need to improve vocational training and technology education. Correlli Barnett and others have documented a century-old weakness of Britain's academic curriculum as being remote from and hostile to technology education.[48] To advance vocational training and technical education, the Conservative government turned, not to the DES, but to the Department of Employment's industry-linked MSC (1973 to 1988) and its Training Agency successor. LEAs had little choice but to accept the new money that stressed

industry-linked programs: the Youth Training Scheme and the Technical and Vocational Education Initiative, which, with CTCs, while aimed at all students, in fact helped mainly inner city youth, partly in overcoming joblessness, partly to strengthen the industrial workforce.

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

1. Industrial training standards are low. Making employers responsible for industrial job training is questionable in light of industry's past failures.

2. Only 40 percent of 17-year-olds remain in school, fewer than half of the German and Japanese proportions.

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

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

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

Conclusion

Like most other countries, England and Wales successfully educated its elites but delayed extending higher educational opportunities to the working class after age 16. In the 1960s and 1970s it attempted to equalize educational opportunities largely through comprehensive schools. The evidence suggests that comprehensive school growth and attendant grammar school decline succeeded in giving more young people better qualifications at age 16. Still, the U.K. was surpassed industrially and economically by other major countries. Inflation and joblessness mounted and, by mid 1970s, the U.K. was labeled the "economically sick man of Europe." Fairly or unfairly, schools and the education system were blamed. The Thatcher-led Conservative government in the 1980s, or more specifically a group within the governing elite, determined to reform drastically the educational system. The spark that determined this drastic school reform, according to Hunt, was a little publicized 1984 report attributing the West German, Japanese, and

U.S. lead over British industry to their bett.. vocational education.[49] The reform decided on called for a return to educational differentiation and for improved vocational training, aided and mainly financed (it was hoped) by British industry. The rationale for this reform was expressed by the Secretary of State for Employment, "There can only be one future for this country. We must become a high productivity, high skilled economy."[50]

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

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

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

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23. Maclure, *op. cit.*, pp. 179-180

24. *Ibid.*

25. *Ibid.*, p.193.

26. *Ibid.*, p. 200.

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28. Lloyd, *op. cit.*, pp.162-163, 199.

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Chapter 2

Educational Structure and School Ladder under ERA 88

Introduction

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

Administration

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

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

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

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

Maintained (Tax Supported) Schools

All schools are registered and subject to inspection by the central government through HMIs and more often by the local government through LEA inspectors or advisors. The 4 kinds of schools (with statistics) in England and Wales are: (1) free maintained (tax supported) schools

enrolling about 93 percent of all students (25,458 LEA schools, 1987); (2) fee-charging independent schools, or private, nontax-supported schools, enrolling about 7 percent of all pupils (2,340 independent schools, 1987), described at the end of this section; (3) free new city technology colleges (CTC), 22 being planned for the 1990s; and (4) free grant-maintained (GM) schools, 29 approved by July 1990, adopted by parent vote under ERA 88 who opted out from LEA control to direct DES funding.

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

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

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

SCHOOL LADDER

Nursery Schools, Ages 3 to 5 (Noncompulsory)

Although not compulsory, 48 percent of all 3- and 4-year-olds in England and Wales are in day, half-day, or part of week coeducational preschool nursery schools or in nursery classes

attached to infant departments of primary schools. Central government funds and LEA funds (through a local community tax) pay for free nursery education in maintained (tax supported) schools. Some preschoolers also attend playgroups, many of which charge small fees, organized by parents and voluntary bodies, such as the Preschool Playgroups Association.

Statistics (1987): There were in England and Wales 558 maintained nursery schools, 4,295 primary schools with nursery classes, enrolling 49,502 pupils under age 5 in nursery and infant classes, with about 49 percent of these attending part-time. Spending on the "under fives" was £561 million in 1990.[2]

Primary Schools

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

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

Wales had 1,774 primary schools. In predominantly Welsh-speaking areas, Welsh is the principal language of instruction.[3]

Secondary Schools

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

Of students in maintained (tax-supported) secondary schools, 85.8 percent in England and 98.5 percent in Wales are in neighborhood comprehensive secondary schools which take pupils of all abilities and offer all programs in one school complex. Labor government policy (the Labor Party was in power from 1965 to 1970) was to close selective schools and reopen them as comprehensive schools. Conservative government policy since then has been to let LEAs decide for themselves. The result was that comprehensive schools grew, while grammar school and secondary modern school enrollments declined.[4]

Statistics (1987): England had 3,206 comprehensive schools enrolling just under 2.8 million pupils (some all-through schools for ages 11 to 18, and some for ages 11 to 16); 3,611 other secondary schools (some LEAs retained the 11+ exam for entry into LEA grammar schools, of which there were 152); a small number of technical schools; 234 secondary modern schools; and 106 sixth form colleges (covering ages 16 to 18).[5]

Wales had 650,000 secondary school pupils; 41 secondary schools in Wales used Welsh (for part of the curriculum) as the language of instruction, of which 16 were designated bilingual schools. England and Wales total maintained (tax-supported) secondary school enrollment was 3,450,000. Enrollment fell by 12 percent between 1987-91 and is projected to rise by 8.7 percent by 1998.[6]

SECONDARY SCHOOL EXAMS

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

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

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

Age 17 or 18 A (Advanced) Level Exam

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

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

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

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

Statistics (1990): There were 46,000 entrants to AS programs.[8]

International Baccalaureate (IB)

The IB began in 1975 as an internationally recognized secondary school leaving exam for children of diplomats and other families living abroad and attending international schools. The IB exams, still rare, were offered in 22 British secondary schools, sixth forms, and some colleges in

1989. They are taken at ages 17 or 18 in 6 subjects and are more broadly based than the A-level exams, which usually test in 3 subjects at comparable ages. Use of IB may increase as Britain, part of the European Community, drops trade and other barriers--including some education barriers--after 1992.

ERA 88

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

National Curriculum

ERA 88 initiated a national curriculum and national assessment for all students ages 5 to 16 in maintained (tax supported) schools. A National Curriculum Council for England and a Curriculum Council for Wales advises on this process. The national curriculum consists of 10 foundation subjects of which 3 are core subjects: maths, science, and English (plus Welsh in Welsh-speaking schools); and 7 are foundation subjects: history, geography, technology, art, music, physical education, and a modern foreign language in secondary schools (plus Welsh in non-Welsh speaking schools in Wales). Religious education, as in the 1944 Education Act, is required, based on an agreed syllabus in LEA schools and in maintained voluntary schools (church schools receiving government funds via the LEAs), with parents having the right to withdraw their child. The timetable calls for the national curriculum to be fully in place in September 1997; the first pupils will be fully educated under it in summer 2003.[9]

National Assessment

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

Choice (Open Enrollment)

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

Opting Out and Grant Maintained (GM) Schools

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

Which schools opt out and why? Schools considering opting out, one source said, were those being considered for closure. Some believe that in the future parents in relatively few eligible schools (all secondary schools and larger elementary schools enrolling over 300 students) will vote to opt out from LEA control. Conservative advocates favor GM schools because they allow parental choice of schools. They believe that school differentiation and competition lead to efficiency because better quality schools that attract more students and attendant funds force weaker schools to improve their quality or to close. Socialist-oriented critics say that GM schools are elitist and were created to reduce the influence of Labor Party-dominated LEAs, which are mainly in urban areas.[11] No procedure existed in 1990 for a GM school to return to LEA control.

City Technology Colleges (CTCs)

CTCs, planned before passage of ERA 88, were originally conceived of as mainly inner city secondary schools for ages 11-18, not under LEAs, but initiated, managed, and largely financed by local industry. CTCs were to emphasize technology, science, and maths; provide job training in inner cities where many school leavers have been jobless; link industry with schools to improve industrial output and the national economy; increase parents' choice; and help privatize education while reducing Labor Party influence over some urban LEAs. The first CTC opened in Solihull, West Midlands, 1988; 2 more were opened in 1989; and 11 others were planned (a total of 22 CTCs was projected). By 1990 more than 170 firms pledged over £40 million for CTCs. Some critics are wary, noting that vocational training by industry in the past has not always been successful.[12] It was hoped that industry would cover capital costs but central government has had to cover most of these costs (up to 80 percent in 1990, in some cases).

Records of Achievement

Keeping a record of pupils' learning achievement on subjects studied is a tradition in mainly secondary schools and was recommended in the 1943 Norwood and 1963 Newsom Reports. Legislation extended this practice to primary schools with a report required each year. After encouraging pilot projects in 22 LEAs during 1985-88, use of the Record of Achievement was officially initiated throughout England and Wales. It began in 1991 as a report to parents on their

children's school achievement in national curriculum subjects, using national assessment findings at ages 7, 11, 14, and 16. Besides informing parents how well their children are progressing, other expected benefits are to help monitor the national curriculum and national assessment; to establish sectional, national, and international norms; and also to let employers know the subjects taken and the grades earned by the school leavers they employ.[13]

VOCATIONAL TRAINING AND TECHNICAL EDUCATION

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

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

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

Shift from Arts to Science

Education leaders in the Conservative government believed that school academic programs gave the arts a higher status than science, particularly applied science, and that education became

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

Enterprise and Education Initiative

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

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

The Department of Trade and Industry allocated £12 million in 1988 to 1990 to finance a national network of 147 local enterprise and education advisors, including 1 per LEA, to help companies and schools provide places for work experience. The Confederation of British

Industries sponsored Understanding British Industry, which in turn organized a teacher placement service to promote school-industry cooperation.[15]

Compacts: Job Training for Inner City Students

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

Information Technology (IT)

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

School Governing Bodies

School governing bodies (i.e., U.S. school boards) and the curriculum have also been made more relevant to industry's needs. The 1986 Education (No. 2) Act changed the composition of primary and secondary school governing bodies. By 1990 over 40 percent of school governors were from business, industry, or the professions. As representatives from these fields rose, LEA, union, and teacher representatives decreased. ERA 88 similarly influenced higher education governing bodies favorably toward industry and commerce. Besides improving school efficiency

and strengthening school independence (i.e., allegedly from undue political influence on LEAs), the acts also helped promote such government priorities as vocational training and an industry oriented curriculum.[18] ERA 88, through its Local Management of Schools provision, also handed over financial and organizational powers to governing bodies. The shift of influence was toward individual school governing bodies, parents, and school heads, and away from LEA control

Business and Technician Education Council (BTEC)

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

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

BTEC programs are nationally recognized work-related vocational programs that lead to BTEC Certificates and Diplomas at 3 levels: First, Higher, and National, as follows: (1) the BTEC First Diploma for age 16+ students is a 1-year full-time or 2-year part-time course earning the equivalent passes in about 4 GCSE exam subjects; (2) the BTEC First Certificate is a 1-year part-time program; (3) the BTEC National Diploma for age 16+ students is a 2-year full-time or 3-year part-time program equivalent to passes in about 3 A-level exam subjects (BTEC National Certificate or Diploma with a high grade is accepted as an A-level exam subject for university entrance); and (4) the BTEC Higher National Certificate for age 18+ students (who have previously earned a BTEC National Certificate or suitable A-level exam equivalent) is a 2 year part time course nationally recognized for higher technician, managerial, and supervisory positions BTEC HNC is said to be generally accepted as equivalent to a first degree (B.A. or B.Sc. degree), with some industries preferring HNC to a first degree because of its work-related experience.[19]

Certificate of Pre-Vocational Education(CPVE)

CPVE, since 1986, is a 1-year full-time or 2-year part-time hands-on vocational training program. It was designed originally by the BTEC and the City and Guilds of London Institute (CGLI, since 1878) for 16-year-old school leavers who could not find jobs.This linking of school and work offered practical, vocational, and social skills in schools and colleges. Students work at their own pace, arrange programs with a tutor, can try several vocational fields, receive credit without formal exams, and have hands-on experiences in actual workplaces from which job offers frequently come. The vocational fields include business administration, IT (computers), construction, retail and wholesale stores, engineering, health and community care, beauty operators (hairdressers), and others. CPVE can also be taken as the first year of a 2-year Youth Training Scheme (called Youth Training, from 1990). Additional study can lead to age 16 GCSE subject exams and age 18 A-level and AS-level subject exams.[20] Still, despite the large government CPVE effort, one critic said that by 1990 CPVE had little appeal to students and had made little impact on industry or commerce.

Technical and Vocational Education Initiative (TVEI)

In pilot projects since 1983, and nationally since 1987, TVEI offers the 14 to 18 age group work-related learning programs and work experiences in industry. TVEI, funded and administered by the Training Agency, cooperates with DES, LEAs, and HMIs. Over 300,000 school and college students were involved by late 1989.[21] Although well established, TVEI still has to be incorporated into the ERA 88 national curriculum. But again, FE college principals say that schools are too busy with the national curriculum to do justice to the TVEI and that FE colleges remain the significant provider of age 16+ vocational training.

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

A 1984 Labor Force Survey showed that 40 percent of Britain's workforce had no recognized job qualifications. A government-appointed Review of Vocational Qualifications (RVQ) report confirmed this finding and stated that Britain, as part of the European Community's

expanding free trade market after 1992, had too few school leavers at age 16 in vocational education and training programs, that Britain's training programs did not fit actual job needs, that 80 percent of the workforce needed by the year 2000 were already at work, and that 90 percent of the expected increase in the workforce would be women returning to wo. .e RVQ report recommended establishing NCVQ (1) to rationalize (i.e., bring order) among such diverse vocational education and training bodies as RSA, BTEC, CNAA, CGLI, and several hundred other bodies awarding an estimated 4,000 vocational certificates annually; and (2) to establish a national system of transferable credit qualifications in vocational education and training for the 14 to 19 age group, known as NVQs. NVQs, devised by Lead Industries (i.e., major industrial, commercial, and business firms), are based on standardized industry-wide, on-the-job competencies gained by work experience or in training institutions. The 5 NVQ levels are: Level 1 (Basic), for entry into a job; Level 2 (Standard), for routine abilities on a job; Level 3 (Advanced), for difficult job routines; Level 4 (Higher), for specialized job skills; and Level 5 (Professional), planned for master job abilities. These NVQ vocational skill levels are broadly comparable to the following academic levels: Level 2, equivalent to passes in 5 GCSE subjects (A-C grades); Level 3, equivalent to passes in 2 A-level subjects; Level 4, equivalent to Higher National Diploma or Higher National Certificate; and Level 5, equivalent to a first degree (B.A. or B.Sc.).

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

FURTHER EDUCATION (FE) COLLEGES

As emphasized earlier, FE college remain the main providers of age 16+ vocational training. FE is often neglected because of the DES and the central government's concern first with compulsory education for ages 5 to 16 and finally with higher education. The 385 FE colleges in England and 40 in Wales, or a total of 425 FE colleges, range in enrollment from a few hundred to

over 20,000. They are widely dispersed, easy to reach, inexpensive, mainly LEA financed, and are diverse in offering full-time and part-time day and evening courses.

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

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

FE College Organization

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

One FE College's Offerings

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

Access to Higher Education (at Oxford Polytechnic), with or without O-level passes in maths and English;

GCSE, A-Level, and AS-Level Subjects;

BTEC National Diploma in Engineering (Aerospace);

Pre-Foundation Course in Art and Design;

BTEC First Diploma (leading to National Diploma) in Business Studies;

BTEC First Diploma (leading to National Diploma) in Caring (Nursery and Nursing);

BTEC National Diploma in Computer Science;

BTEC First Diploma (leading to National Diploma) in Engineering (Mechanical, Electrical and Electronics, Motor Vehicle, Mechanical and Production);

BTEC National Diploma in Science (Health Studies);

BTEC National Diploma in Information Technology Applications;

National Certificate in Management of Horses (Thoroughbreds);

BTEC National Diploma in Management of Thoroughbred Horses;

BTEC Higher National Diploma in Business and Finance (Stud & Stable Administration);

Pre-Vocational Opportunities Courses;

Secretarial Studies.

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

HIGHER EDUCATION (ABOVE SECONDARY SCHOOL A-LEVEL EXAMS)

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

institutions, which are government funded through the Polytechnics and Colleges Funding C ncil (PCFC). Each is described below.

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

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

Universities

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

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

or Science (M.Sc.), which are mostly taught postgraduate degree courses; and research degrees of Master of Philosophy (M.Phil.) and Doctor of Philosophy (Ph.D. or some D.Phil.).

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

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

Open University (OU)

OU, established in 1969 to make nonresidential university education available to all adults over age 21, is Britain's largest university. It enrolled (1987) 68,000 undergraduates (about 31,000 women and 37,000 men) and has awarded over 88,500 degrees since 1971. OU's distance teaching uses assigned readings (65 percent of study time), TV and radio (10 percent), contacts with tutors and other students (15 percent), and written assignments and exams (10 percent). Most OU students are employed full time, the majority as classroom teachers. Besides headquarters at Milton Keynes, OU has 13 regional centers and over 250 other centers in the U.K. OU offers, besides academic degree programs comparable to those of universities and polytechnics, many continuing education programs, its fastest growing segment. The estimated cost to an OU student for a B.A. general degree in 1989 was over £1,280. Funded directly by DES, OU has been a model for similar institutions in other countries.[27]

Council for National Academic Awards

Shortly after the binary (2-part) higher education system began about 1965, polytechnics and colleges or institutes of higher education became increasingly acceptable and successful as the

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

Polytechnics

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

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

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

Both UFC (universities) and PCFC (polytechnics and colleges of higher education) have 15 board members each, appointed by the Secretary of State for Education and Science, just under half of whom are from higher education, and just over half (including the chairperson) from

business, industry, or commerce. UFC and PCFC institutions are encouraged to increase their income from contracted research and royalties from inventions.

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

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

Statistics (1989-90): The PCFC-funded sector of higher education enrolled 352,328 students, of whom 228,193 were full time or "sandwich" students (alternating study and work).[29]

Professional, Industrial and Commercial Updating Program (PICKUP)

PICKUP was launched by central government in 1982 to help colleges, polytechnics, and universities upgrade midcareer workers' skills in industry, commerce, and the professions. The intent by 1992 is for one in 10 of Britain's workforce to participate in job-skill updating. REPLAN was launched in 1984 to aid and train unemployed adults.[30]

Science Parks

Britain has developed since the 1970s some 40 science parks, where research organizations are concentrated near universities and other higher education institutions. They provide a research-enriched environment, stimulating inventions, improvements, and new products for industry, business, and commerce.[31]

Teachers and Teacher Education

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

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

Inservice teacher education (INSET) is a long standing and recently enlarged enterprise An LEA Training Grant Scheme, launched in 1987, replaced the earlier Grant-Related In-Service Training. LEAs allotted £280 million for INSET in 1988 to 1989. ERA 88 has burdened teachers with many rapid changes and new duties. To implement ERA 88, especially the national curriculum, central government allotted ~214 million and LEAs allotted £80 million in 1989-1990.[32] Teacher pay scales, governed by the 1987 Education (Teachers Pay and Conditions) Act, were determined by the Interim Advisory Committee, from 1987 to 1990. A 1990 announcement stated that the right to negotiate salaries and conditions of service will be restored to teachers and their LEA employers. (FE college teacher salaries are negotiated by the Joint Council for Lecturers in Further Education.)

Statistics (1986-87): There were 619,000 full-time teachers in U.K. public sector schools, of whom 502,000 were in maintained (tax-supported) schools, and 117,000 in further education (FE). There were 203,000 full-time teachers in primary schools, 260,000 in secondary schools, and 19,000 in special schools.[33]

INDEPENDENT SCHOOLS

Independent (Non Tax-Supported) Schools

Of all primary school and secondary school pupils in England and Wales, 93 percent are enrolled in maintained (tax supported) LEA and voluntary church schools. The remaining 7 percent are enrolled in independent schools, or private non tax-supported schools. These range from nursery schools to senior secondary boarding schools, many of which offer bursaries (U.S. scholarships). Independent schools for older students ages 11 to 18 or 19 include about 550 "public" schools (called "public" because their founders originally left funds for poor bright boys to attend free), which are members of one or more of the following organizations: the Headmasters' Conference, the Governing Bodies Association, the Society of Headmasters and Headmistresses of Independent Schools, the Girls' Schools Association, and the Governing Bodies of Girls' Schools Association.[34]

Statistics (1989): There were about 2,500 independent fee-charging schools in the U.K., educating 580,000 students.[35]

Assisted Places Scheme (at Independent Schools)

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

Statistics (1988-89): Some 34,000 places were offered in England and Wales in the school year 1988-89.[37]

CONCLUSION

Education Policy Shift

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

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

Education Aims for the 1990s

Economics more than social circumstances forced England and Wales to restructure its schools. Rethinking the purpose of schools, some said: education should enlarge and enrich life chances for all. Others said: without a strong economy, few prosper and those on the bottom prosper least of all. Prime Minister Thatcher's replacement as Conservative Party leader or a Labor Party victory in the next general election might well modify controversial education goals. to

improve the economy, build job security, and advance British industry. Similar educational goals were urged by Labor Prime Minister James Callaghan in his October 18, 1976, Ruskin College, Oxford University, speech.

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

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Chapter 3

Abbreviations, Acronyms, and Commonly Used Terms

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

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

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

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

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

APU Assessment of Performance Unit is an educator group initially within DES, now within the School Examinations and Assessment Council (SEAC), which assesses (tests) students on subjects studied.

AS Advanced Supplementary exams, begun in 1987, are usually taken at ages 17 or 18 to allow sixth formers to study a wider range of subjects. Equivalent to half an A-level exam score but with the same academic standards, AS adds breadth of knowledge, while the older A-level has depth of knowledge.

Assisted Places Scheme

Government financial aid to parents on a sliding scale according to income to cover whole or partial tuition costs for their academically able children to transfer from a free local

education authority (LEA) school to a fee-charging independent (private) school. Some 40 percent of the places are awarded to students already attending fee-charging schools. Authorized by the 1980 Education Act.

BEd (or B.Ed), Hons.

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

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

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

Burnham Committees

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

Bursary Scholarship; financial aid.

BYC British Youth Council.

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

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

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

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

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

Colleges of Further Education

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

Command Paper

Official government report normally published by Her Majesty's Stationery Office (HMSO). See also Green Paper and White Paper.

Community charge

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

Comprehensive schools

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

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

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

CTC City Technology Colleges are secondary schools for ages 11 to 18, with academic and vocational programs. They were originally intended for inner cities and were to be initiated by, linked to, and financed jointly by industry and central government (central government paid over 80 percent of capital costs in 1990).

Day Release Employee released from work for the day or part of the day for study in a further education (FE) college or polytechnic offering nonadvanced FE courses (NAFE) or advanced FE courses (AFE).

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Governors (Governing body)

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

Grammar schools

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

Grant maintained (GM) school

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

Green Paper

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

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

Headmaster/Headmistress

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

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

Higher Education (HE)

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

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

HMSO Her Majesty's Stationery Office, London, publishes official government documents and is equivalent to the U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, DC.

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

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

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

Independent schools

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

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

IT Information Technology is a term used since the early 1980s to indicate computer use in schools and to train teachers in computer use in their school subjects. The National Council

for Educational Technology (NCET) was established to evaluate and promote the use of new technologies, hardware and software, in education.

Junior school Upper primary school for ages 7 to 11 (schools for ages 8 to 12 or 9 to 13 are called middle schools).

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

Maintained schools

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

Managers, Board of

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

Ministry of Education

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Association of Teachers in Further and Higher Education, the Association of Polytechnic and College Teachers, and the Association of University Teachers.

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

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

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

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

OU Open University, founded in 1969; uses television, radio, assigned readings, and tests to offer higher education to degree-level for students over age 21. Its delivery system is referred to as Distance Learning. The first degrees were awarded in 1971; it had about 191,000 graduates, 1971 to 1990.

Oxbridge Refers collectively to Oxford and Cambridge, the 2 oldest and still most prestigious universities in England.

Pastoral care Comparable to U.S. public school guidance and counseling.

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

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

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

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

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

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

Primary schools

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

"Public" schools

Independent schools is the term now preferred for private, fee-charging nongovernment secondary schools. The best known are members of the Headmasters Conference, founded in 1869; or the Society of Headmasters of Independent Schools, founded in 1961; or the Girls' Schools Association, founded in 1872. Some have junior departments. The older and more prestigious are Eton, Harrow, Winchester, and Rugby, whose students very often attend

connected Oxbridge colleges. Earlier called the "great public schools," Independent schools in the U.K. enroll about 7 percent of all secondary school students (including some in junior departments). See also Independent schools.

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

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

Record of Achievement

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

Redbrick universities

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

REPLAN Central government training program for unemployed adults

RSA (EB) Royal Society of Arts, since the eighteenth century; designs and accredits courses and qualifications in business, administration, and commercial subjects. Its Examining Board (EB) is now a separate body.

Sandwich courses

Vocational or other training for students who alternate periods of work with periods of study.

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

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

Schools Council

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

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

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

SRHE Society for Research into Higher Education, Guildford, founded in 1964.

State-aided schools

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

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

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

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

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

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

Tertiary College

Post secondary (age 16+) non advanced FE college which does not overlap polytechnics or universities.

Three-tier system

A school complex consisting of first schools, ages 5 to 8 or 9; middle schools, ages 8 to 12 or 13; and upper schools, ages 12 or 13 to 16 or 18.

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

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

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

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

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

UGC University Grants Committee (1919 to 1989), a government-appointed body which allocated government funds to universities. Replaced in 1989 by the smaller, more industry-oriented Universities Funding Council (UFC).

UK United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland (includes England, Wales, Scotland, Northern Ireland, the Isle of Man, the Channel Islands, and other islands).

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

Voluntary schools

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

WAB Wales Advisory Body.

WEA Workers' Educational Association, founded in 1903.

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

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

YTS Youth Training Scheme, 1983 to 1990, under MSC; run by employers for job training: 2 years for 16-year-olds; 1 year for 17-year-olds. YTS was replaced by Youth Train. ~ in May 1990, which allows employers more flexibility in programs.