



IN EDUCATION



Trends and Issues in British Education

Articles by:

**Anderson
Courtney
Jones
Kersey
Lanning**

**Moss
Olberg
Pourchot
Singer
West**

Trends and Issues in British Education

Editorial: An Overview	James H. Moss and Leonard L. Pourchot	1
A Letter to the Editor: Random Thoughts on British Education	Robert O. Singer	2
Inadequacies of a Decentralized System of Lower Public Education in Great Britain	Arthur W. Anderson	3
Becoming Comprehensive: Promises & Problems	Frank W. Lanning	10
British Higher Education and the Challenge of Lifelong Learning	Sean Courtney	14
The British Post Graduate Certificate in Education: Some Implications for U.S. Colleges of Education	Harry A. Kersey, Jr.	19
Significant Research Studies in British Education: A First Hand Impression	James H. Moss	22
Education in Great Britain Today: A Personal Impression	Robert Olberg	27
Learning About English Education Through Travel Study Programs	Orville Jones	30
Media Corner	Peter C. West	32
Update		33
Messages & Markets		33

THRESHOLDS IN EDUCATION FOUNDATION

BOARD OF DIRECTORS 1982-1983

Chairman
Dr. Byron F. Radebaugh

Vice-Chairman
Dr. Roberta Starkey

Dr. Joseph R. Ellis
Dr. Donald E. Heilman
Dr. Frank W. Lanning
Dr. Joan Peterson

Alternate
Dr. Leonard L. Pourchot
Dr. Weldon G. Bradtmueller
Dr. Robert J. Maple

Treasurer
Dr. Roy L. Bragg

ISSUE EDITORS
James H. Moss
Leonard L. Pourchot

CONTRIBUTING MEMBERS

Township High School District 214
Mt. Prospect, Illinois 60055
Superintendent: Edward H. Gilbert

Romeoville High School
Valley View Community Unit
District 364-U
Principal: John W. Sini

College of Education
Northern Illinois University
DeKalb, Illinois 60115
Dean: John H. Johansen

EXECUTIVE EDITORS
Joseph R. Ellis
Byron F. Radebaugh

TECHNICAL PUBLICATIONS
EDITOR
Thomas L. Erikson

EDITORIAL BOARD

Roger Bardwell
University of Illinois—
Circle Campus, Chicago

James Boyer
Kansas State University
Gloria Kinney
Palatine, Illinois

Patricia Krus
Arizona State University
Wilma Longstreet
DePaul University

Donald Potter
University of Nevada
William W. Purkey
University of North Carolina,
Greensboro

Galen Saylor
University of Nebraska

Gary Taylor
University of Arkansas
Robert Wendel
Miami University

Views expressed do not necessarily reflect the views of the editors or the editorial board of *Thresholds*.

Manuscripts. Submit manuscripts to Editor. *Thresholds in Education*, P.O. Box 771, DeKalb, Illinois 60115. Suggested length — 900-5,000 words. Typed double spaced include author's vita.

The *Publications Manual of the American Psychological Association* (Sec. Ed. 1974) should be followed in preparing manuscripts.

Advertising rates: 1 page ad \$200; half page ads \$110.00 classified ads: up to 50 words, \$8.00, 51-100 words, \$15.00. Address: Business Manager *Thresholds in Education*, P.O. Box 771, DeKalb, IL 60115.

Thresholds is entered as Third Class mail at the Post Office in DeKalb, Illinois under permit number 265 and under provisions of Part 144. Postal Manual Authorization for mailing as a non-profit organization was secured on February 8, 1975.

Copyright: 1982 by *Thresholds in Education Foundation*. All rights reserved.

Subscription Information. Subscription rates are as follows: one year \$8.00, two years \$15.00, three years \$21.00. For foreign subscriptions other than Canadian add \$3.50 more per year. Send to Editor. *Thresholds in Education*, P.O. Box 771, DeKalb, IL 60115.

Thresholds is a refereed journal published quarterly in February, May, August and November.

Editorial: An Overview

By James H. Moss and Leonard L. Pourchot

The English-speaking countries of the world share far more than their linguistic similarities. In addition to their general orientation toward democratic governance, toward progress in scientific achievement, and toward concern for justice and human values, is found a belief in the power of education. In England and the United States there are both similarities and differences in the educational structures, vocabularies, expectations, and issues. Historical, political, social, and geographical realities account for the principal differences in the directions of education development in the two major English-speaking countries. Such an illustration is noted by Frank Lanning in the realitive recency of British education adopting the concept of comprehensive education.

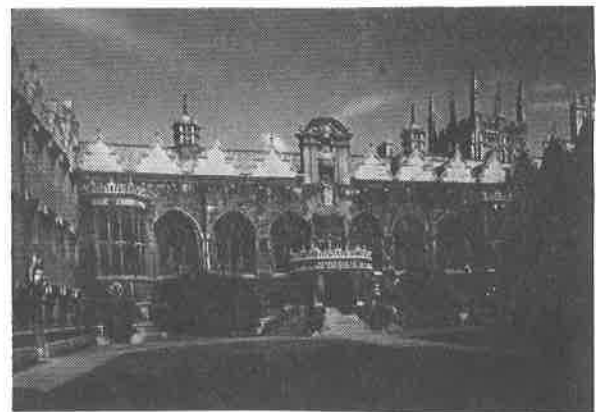
Of what importance is it that the American and English achieve better understanding of both educational system? The partial isolation of the two systems proves to be a strength in that independent development assures innovative creativity and less copying of styles and substance. However, some models have been adapted from one country to another. The editors take the stance that because of the cultural similarities of England and America, the comparisons and contrasts in the educational systems should prove broadening to educators of both countries as is illustrated by the remarks made by Robert Olberg during his interview.

Further, we believe that a certain smugness (which we sometimes attribute to the English) exists among Americans to a remarkable degree. When we encounter an independent-minded people (who said anything about the French?) who have vested interest in their culture, we may be amused or chagrined that they think **their** institutions are superior to **ours**. How do we learn to respect the achievements of other people? How do we learn processes and concepts which work as well or

better than our own? How do we achieve breadth in outlook and tolerance for cultural differences? Similar questions are addressed by Arthur Anderson as he responds to Britain's movement toward a more decentralized system of education.

We believe that rich dividends accrue to those educators and citizens who travel, study, and investigate the achievements of others. The English educational system makes a fascinating study--particularly when comparisons can be intelligently made. A sample of the opportunities available at Northern Illinois University have been provided by Orville Jones.

As the 1980's bring certain problems to both the United States and to Britain, it will be instinctive to see what coping devices will emerge in education. What will be the responses to unemployment? What will be the responses to having large numbers of non-English speaking immigrants? What, if anything, can education do about economic problems? What will the educational response be to the need for human services such as care of the ill and aged? In one sense each country could be viewed as an independent research center, and cross-fertilization of ideas would always be possible.



The front quadrangle of Oriel College, Oxford.

James H. Moss is an Associate Professor of Reading Education at Northern Illinois University, DeKalb, Illinois. He has participated in various exchange teacher programs abroad, as well as conducted comparative education tours to Great Britain. Dr. Moss has frequently presented papers at professional conferences concerning contrasting features found in education in England and the United States.

Leonard L. Pourchot is a Professor of Education at Northern Illinois University, DeKalb, Illinois. He has traveled abroad extensively and has written in various professional journals concerning comparative education topics.

A Letter to the Editor:

Random Thoughts on British Education

By Robert O. Singer

Having resided in Britain for seven years, and since then visited that country several times, I find the formal and informal education level of its mythical "average" citizens a continuing source of amazement. The Britishers' sophisticated knowledge, whether political, technical, or professional, in my opinion far exceeds that of their American cousins and continental counterparts. Not being an expert in British education or teacher preparation, I am not sure of the reason for this phenomenon, but I feel certain that it exists.

If the reader will permit, I would like to cite admittedly unscientific examples to bolster my case. Not once, but many times I had occasion to enter pubs in working class areas, sit down for a glass of ale (accompanied by Cheddar cheese and pickled onions) and have a grimy workman, on his way home from work, join me. Within five minutes of getting acquainted, we were in a free-wheeling deep discussion on geopolitics. Two topics discussed, that I particularly remember, concerned agricultural policies of the Common Market and their effects on the British GNP, and birthrates in former British colonies no longer members of the Empire and how this affects the industrialization of these Third World countries. Having spent part of my life on the Continent, and another part in the United States, I cannot remember one instance in either place of such an occurrence. In these places talk centered on football, soccer, local issues of immediate impact, or social trivia—yes; but geopolitics—never!

The British technician's high repute is not grounded in myth, but then his or her opportunities for acquiring and perfecting skills are bountiously supported by trade schools, polytechnics, and institutes. Emerging from one of these, well grounded in the basics—and enriched by the humanities—the apprentice technician spends a number of years under expert tutelage of practitioners before becoming licensed to practice. And, somehow, there is an innate curiosity and ambition in these people to spend many evenings at night schools honing already sharp acumens to even more advanced states of art. All this, students can accom-

plish at either very low or no expense, financed by state, county, or municipal grants. A curious phenomenon in a country which is thought to be at the very brink of bankruptcy due to its many social programs. Again, at the risk of being accused of drawing conclusions from a sample of one, in seven years of residency, I never had to return my car or appliance for re-repair or readjustment once it was fixed.

What is there about an educational system where a college-bound senior is generally the academic equal or superior to our college sophomores, especially in the areas of humanities and quantitative skills? Why is it that such superior students can receive their basic preparations from teachers who graduate from the three year certification program at a time when we in the United States are striving to increase our teacher preparation program from four to five years? You may say, "Good questions, what are the answers?" Frankly, I do not have any good answers, but I do have some suspicions.

Is it possible that the cultural ethos of the British home not only gives lip service to the idea of education, but reinforces it with role modeling? Is it possible that reinforced by home and administrative attitudes, teacher expectations of students are high and social promotion is simply "not cricket?" Is it possible that British societal expectations of schools are basic and not diffused? In addition, may it be said that in the British Isles the syndrome of instant gratification among the young has not yet dislodged the notion of the work ethic? Education in the schools, wherever they are located, mirrors the society which supports them. Does my idea of solid British education reveal my simplistic anglophile bias? Maybe so, but the answers to some very complex questions may sometimes be rooted in simple answers.



Robert O. Singer is a Professor of Education at Northern Colorado University, Greeley, Colorado. Presently, he is serving as Executive Director of Continuing Education at the university.

Inadequacies of a Decentralized System of Lower Public Education in Great Britain

By Arthur W. Anderson

Introduction

The original objective of the British educational system was to produce an intellectual elite. As such a voluntary system of education emerged that was designed to reinforce the social class values of society. The English people have historically been reluctant to accept a national system of education, although a different trend is developing of late. Consequently, a decentralized system of education emerged. Foster's Education Act of 1870 created a local administrative unit, called a School Board, whose responsibility would be to "fill the gaps" in the voluntary system (May & Greer, 1973). The Act also divided the country into school districts with certain responsibilities for the provision of educational services. In districts where adequate facilities could not be provided by the voluntary societies, the authorities were compelled to elect a School Board to supervise the erection and maintenance of the required schools. Fees were to be continued, as in voluntary schools, but the Board was given powers to pay fees for children of poor families at either board or voluntary schools (May & Greer, 1973).

County and county borough councils were created in the Local Government Act of 1888. The Board of Education Act of 1899 brought the various educational bodies under a single central authority. County Councils, County borough Councils, and Boroughs with populations of 20,000 plus became Local Education Authorities and took over the work of the School Boards under proviso of Balfour's Education Act of 1902 (2,568 School Boards supplanted by 328 LEA's). Furthermore, after survey, the County and County Borough Councils were required to provide secondary education and teacher training in addition to elementary (May & Greer, 1973). Local Education Authorities have continued and primarily control education in the United Kingdom today.

The HAL Fisher Education Act of 1918 established the compulsory full time attendance age for British

students at five to fourteen. However, the Local Authority could raise the leaving age to fifteen (increased to sixteen in 1973). All fees in elementary schools were abolished and no child under twelve was to be employed (May & Greer). A Ministry of Education replaced the Board of Education under the Education Act of 1944. "From 1st April, 1955, the system of education was organized as a continuous process conducted in three stages--primary, secondary, and further. Each LEA was required to secure the provision of efficient education at all stages--primary, secondary, and further. Each LEA was required to secure the provision of efficient education at all stages" (May & Greer, 1973).

It is the author's belief that the lack of "central control" in English education clouded by the residuals of an elitist origin has rendered the system minimally effective in providing an equal educational opportunity to all citizens.

It is the author's belief that the lack of "central control" in English education clouded by the residuals of an elitist origin has rendered the system minimally effective in providing an equal educational opportunity to all citizens. Furthermore, the decentralized nature of control has prevented the development of universal policies necessary to provide for the most effective delivery system to prepare the masses to compete in an everchanging technological society. In order to analyze this situation, the author will examine pertinent developments in the primary and secondary systems of education in the United Kingdom as well as present and future trends. It was this writer's privilege to spend two weeks at Cambridge University during the Summer of 1982 in study of the British educational system. The program of study combined seminar activities and field visitations. These experiences will be drawn upon in the course of discussion.

Primary Education

A most significant stage in the development of the national system of elementary education in Great Britain was achieved with the Elementary Education Act of 1870.

Arthur W. Anderson is Assistant Dean and Professor of Education at Florida Atlantic University, Boca Raton, Florida. Dr. Anderson has served as a consultant to higher education in the state of Michigan as well as Program Director for the Competency-based Teacher Training Program, Department of Education, State of New York.

The Act mapped out the country into school districts, each of which might have a school board separately chargeable with the duty of providing elementary education within its own borders, which was to be boroughs or parishes or groups of parishes, London being constituted a district by itself (Silver, 1973).

The law created school boards to ensure suitable provisions for education where they did not exist on a voluntary basis. The Board was empowered to frame by-laws calling for mandatory school attendance for children ages five to thirteen. A considerable increase in the number of children who remained in school up to and beyond the age of thirteen was facilitated by provisions in the Education Acts of 1876 and 1880 as regards to attendance by-laws and the like. A seventh standard was added to the existing six to meet the needs of these students in 1882. As the number of children remaining in school pass the seventh standard increased significantly a higher grade school offering ex-standard courses developed. These schools became very popular due to the opportunity for advanced study and it became the practice to begin teaching elementary mathematics and languages at the fifth or sixth standard. An adequate system of secondary education was facilitated in the principality by the Welsh Intermediate Education Act of 1889, but in England the public provision of secondary schools was retarded during the last two decades of the nineteenth century by the absence of larger local authorities vested with educational powers (Silver, 1973).

As previously indicated, compulsory school attendance in England currently exists for children ages five to sixteen. The primary school consists of the Infant School for Children of ages five to seven, sometimes containing a nursery class of four-year-olds, and a Junior School for children seven to eleven plus. The Infant School may exist as a separate school or simply part of a Junior School. It has been suggested by the Plowden Council that this level of education be termed the First School. The Council has also recommended that children spend an additional year in the First School and remain in the Junior School until age twelve. The Junior School would thus become a Middle School. These transformations initiated by the Plowden Council are slowly occurring (Blackie, 1974).

The purpose of the primary school is to equip students with the first tools of learning. Short-term pedagogical aims include the following:

1. Children are to be taught to read, fluently and with understanding, matter suitable to their age.
2. Children are to be taught to add, subtract, multiply, and divide with speed and accuracy.
3. Children are to learn how to think.
4. Children should be initiated into worthwhile activities (Blackie, 1974).

These aims find general acceptance as the main content of the primary school curriculum. Additional components might vary on a district or regional basis to include such matters as religious and moral training, the acquisition of a second language, political beliefs, etc. (Blackie, 1974). At age eleven or thereabouts, children sit for a selection examination popularly called the eleven-plus, in which the most successful are then transferred to Grammar Schools with a more or less academic curriculum, while the remainder originally attended Senior Elementary Schools, later renamed Secondary Modern Schools, where the curriculum is more varied, practical, and intellectually less demanding. This latter school form is also now disappearing, at varied speeds in different locations, and is being replaced by a nonselective transfer to Comprehensive Schools (Blackie, 1974). The "all through" Comprehensive School is designed for students ages eleven to eighteen.

As a participant in the University of Cambridge Board of Extra-Mural Studies' course entitled "Contemporary Issues in British Education" offered for Florida International University, Summer, 1982, the author was privileged to make some personal observations of the British educational system at work. Although these experiences were limited in scope, they did provide an opportunity to associate the theoretical and factual information provided in seminar with practical application. In the context of our present discussion, visits were made to the Upwood Primary School, Cambs, on June 22, and to a primary school in Peterborough on June 28. Since no significant points of departure were observed in Peterborough, the experiences acquired at the Upwood Primary School will be shared. The group of American Educators were greeted by the Assistant Headmaster of the Upwood School, the Headmaster being away on business. Coffee and tea were served as the Assistant Headmaster explained the Upwood system.

Upwood Primary School has an Infant and Junior Department and is officially designated a County Primary School. Children are admitted in the beginning of the term in which they are five years of age, resulting in three admissions during the school year. An advantage in this procedure lies in the fact that each group entering is small in number and can receive individual assistance. Furthermore, there are no distractions from having four-year-olds in the same class who might have a different set of needs (Cambridgeshire County Council, 1981).

Throughout the year, Upwood School has earned a reputation as a lively and progressive school. Outstanding work has been achieved in the field of mathematics, creative writing, environmental studies, art, and music. The Upwood School aims to encourage children to think for themselves, to stand on their own two feet, and to believe in themselves as individuals. This is done as a natural progression from the processes of basic

learning. The school is also future-oriented, because it sees its task as preparing its children for tomorrow's world" (Cambridgeshire County Council, 1981).

Basic Learning is provided at Upwood in communication skills and mathematics. Advanced Learning activities are designed to equip the student with a cadre of Life Skills that will enable him/her to assume a meaningful role in life. Systematic efforts are made to facilitate student acquisition of the skills of thinking, decision making, perceiving, valuing, caring, patterning and organizing, knowing, and creating (Cambridgeshire County Council, 1981).

As the author moved from class to class at the Upwood School, it became apparent that in the main the school was achieving its aim and objectives. The conducive atmosphere for learning made an immediate impact. The building was warm and inviting and reflected the products of enthusiastic and energetic learning activities. It was obvious by way of the excellent learning products and communication with students that they were being most successful in acquiring their basic learning skills. The level of responsibility that students assumed for themselves in moving throughout a variety of learning activities, including the computer, with minimal direction was indicative of success in Advanced Learning. Even the sharing of lunch with the students was a most memorable experience in this respect. Guests were seated at separate tables with children representative of each grade level. A senior level boy and girl were responsible for bringing the food to their tables and serving. Each child waited patiently until the guests were served and their turn came. No teacher supervision was required at any table. The unanimity of concept found among teachers of their aims, objective, and acceptable procedures was impressive. Consistency in the philosophy of teaching the whole child was evidenced.

In England there are approximately eight million children within the state maintained system in twenty-six thousand schools.

In the way of illustration, the Upwood Primary School represents a successful application of the British elementary school system. The main course content is consistent with the four pedagogical aims previously indicated as generally existing in primary schools in England. Provision for religious education is made in the school's statement of policy as follows:

Religious education is provided in accordance with the Cambridgeshire agreed syllabus. Parents are advised that it is their right to withdraw their children from such religious education and worship. Parents wishing to exercise this right

should state so to the Headteacher in writing (Blackie, 1981).

In England there are approximately eight million children within the state maintained system in twenty-six thousand schools. Four and one-half million are in twenty-one thousand Primary or Middle Schools; three and one-half million are in four thousand five hundred Secondary Schools (expected to decline to two million by the end of the decade). About four thousand pupils are educated within the independent system (the public schools and others) in two thousand schools. The rate of teacher to pupils is 1:24 in Primary Schools; 1:17 in Secondary Schools (Walford, 1982). As previously indicated, students have traditionally moved into the secondary level of public education upon completion of the Eleven Plus Examination which serves a placement function. Let us now examine this level.

Secondary Education

The initial role of the Welsh Intermediate Act in facilitating a system of secondary education in England was previously mentioned. In 1895 the Royal Commission on Secondary Education reported in favor of a state system of secondary schools, including arrangements for transferring to them the more intelligent pupils from elementary schools who desire their education. A central education authority was created via the Board of Education Act of 1899 which merged the powers of the Education Department, the Science and Art Department and the Charity Commission in the newly constituted Board of Education, which was authorized to inspect secondary schools. The Board's powers over secondary education were increased by the Education Act of 1902, which empowered the local education authorities to provide new secondary schools (Equal opportunity in Education). The subsequent direction of secondary education in Great Britain was significantly influenced by the Secondary School Regulations for 1905-06 which prescribed secondary schools as

schools which offered to each of their scholars up to and beyond the age of sixteen, a general education, physical, mental, and moral, given through a complete grade of instruction of wider scope and more advanced degree than given in Elementary Schools (Silver, 1973).

The present structure of secondary education in England received its form as a consequence of the Education Act of 1944.

This Act organized the statutory system of public education in three progressive stages, and by requiring that the first, the Primary stage, be concluded not later than the twelfth birthday, made a period of full-time Secondary education compulsory for all children attending maintained

and grant-aided schools. By raising the upper age limit for compulsory full-time education from fourteen to fifteen (with provision for a later raising to sixteen) it ensured that the period of Secondary education should not be less than three

By raising the upper age limit for compulsory full-time education from fourteen to fifteen (with provision for a later raising to sixteen) it ensured that the period of Secondary education should not be less than three years, and by permitting the education of 'senior pupils' to continue until the nineteenth birthday made it possible for any child to stay in a Secondary school for seven years, or even rather more (Dent, 1977).

years, and by permitting the education of 'senior pupils' to continue until the nineteenth birthday made it possible for any child to stay in a Secondary school for seven years, or even rather more (Dent, 1977).

This legislation also imposed upon the Local Education Authorities a statutory obligation to secure the provision of different kinds of secondary education. The forms that emerged as facilitated by the Norwood Report of 1943 include:

1. Grammar School--caters to all-round development of pupils and for special interests and aptitudes. Such studies as economics, social studies, citizenship, catered for incidently through the traditional subjects.
2. Secondary Technical--general education, from thirteen to be orientated to special technical courses, broadly conceived. To meet the needs of local industry.
3. Secondary Modern--general education, centre, practical methods, pursuing topics related to immediate interests and environment (A student's guide to the development of education in England and Wales).

As previously stated, a gradual trend towards a comprehensive school format in place of the grammar and secondary modern schools currently exists.

A student's opportunities to participate in higher education in England is most commonly contingent upon his/her ability to successfully compete in the national examination system. The "Ordinary Examination" is administered to aspirants sixteen years of age. Successful participants in the Ordinary Examination, generally the top twenty percent, may participate in the Advanced Examination at eighteen years after successful completion of the Sixth Form College. Both examinations are administered as components of the General Certificate of Education program. Students unable to pass into the Sixth Form College by way of the Ordinary Examination and those unable to succeed at

the Advanced level may qualify for a variety of Institutions of 'Further' Education.

Included are technical education, senior and junior; adult education of a more systematic and continuous kind than that given in evening institutes; day continuation schools; art schools; and some other varieties (Silver, 1973). education).

By way of the University of Cambridge Board of Extra-Mural Studies Program, the author visited two secondary schools in England. On June 23 a visit was made to the Fearnhill School, a comprehensive school in Letchworth, and on June 25, King's School, Ely. In that King's School is independent or private, the discussion here will focus upon impressions gained at Fearnhill.

Comprehensive Schools represent an egalitarian approach that moves counter to the tracking of students that commonly exists in conjunction with the Eleven-Plus Examination previously discussed.

The comprehensive school developed in England in the 1950's. This concept required that upon completion of primary school, all children proceed to the same secondary school regardless of ability, on the model of the United States high school system. Comprehensive Schools represent an egalitarian approach that moves counter to the tracking of students that commonly exists in conjunction with the Eleven-Plus Examination previously discussed. The Fearnhill School curriculum as described in its brochure to parents is indicative of the comprehensive philosophy:

The Curriculum

The school provides courses for pupils of all levels of ability, and regards the education of all pupils as equally important. Pupils follow a common curriculum for the first three years, after which they select courses appropriate to their needs under the guidance of parents and teaching staff.

Year 1. Humanities (an integrated English/History/Geography/Religious Education course) comprises about a fifth of the time-table, taught by one teacher; Mathematics, French, Science, Art, Music, Design (Woodwork, Metalwork, Home Economics, Needlework); Personal and Social Education, Physical Education. Special attention is given to a supervised Reading Scheme for all pupils, to promote reading for pleasure. All subjects are taught initially in mixed ability groups; setting by ability is introduced in Mathematics during the year.

Year 2. As first year, but English, Geography, History and Religious Education are taught as separate subjects, and setting is introduced in French. A

choice of Design subjects is offered, each being available to both boys and girls.

Year 3. As second year, but with Science taught as separate Biology, Chemistry and Physics, and German or Latin available as a second language to more able pupils. All pupils take a Graphic Communications course in addition to a choice of Design subjects.

Years 4 and 5. All pupils take courses in English, Mathematics, Social Studies, Personal and Social Education (including careers) and Physical Education. In addition, each pupil must choose five optional subjects, of which one must be a Science subject, and the remainder must provide a balanced programme covering Humanities, Languages, and Creative subjects. A parents evening is held during the Spring term for parents of Third Year pupils to explain the procedures for subject choice, and a booklet published for the guidance of pupils and parents.

The following subjects are offered to GCE 'O' level and CSE:

English Language, English Literature, Integrated Humanities, History, Geography, Religious Studies, French, German, Latin.

Mathematics, Computer Studies, Biology, Chemistry, Physics, Physics with Chemistry, Integrated Science, Art, Pottery, Music, Food and Nutrition, Home Economics, Child Development, Needlework, Design Technology, Engineering Experience, Technical Drawing, Woodwork.

A City and Guilds Foundation Course in Engineering is available as an integrated course covering three of the five options for some pupils.

Careers Education. This is provided within the context of the Personal and Social Education course, and commenced in Year Three. In the Fifth Year, a programme of careers lessons is arranged by the Schools Careers staff in consultation with the County Careers Officers. All fifth year students are interviewed by the school's careers staff, and by the County Careers staff on request. Visiting speakers, films and visits are arranged, and a comprehensive careers library is available to all pupils. An important part of the careers education programme is the placing of all fifth year students in a week's work experience during the Autumn Term. Continuing guidance on careers and further and higher education opportunities is provided in the Sixth form (Information for parents 1981-82, Fearnhill School).

As was the case at the Upwood Primary School, the positive learning atmosphere maintained by the Fearnhill teachers and students was most impressive. Equally impressive was the obvious degree of self discipline displayed by students as they sought our different learning activities. Of particular interest was the extensive emphasis placed upon the examination system as an indicator of student and school success, the Fearnhill administration publishes its examination results for parental and public information. Again,

the description of the Fearnhill experience is for information purposes pertinent to general concept and the specifics of implementation are not generalizable to the universe of comprehensive schools in Great Britain.

The discussion thus far has pertained to the development of a compulsory system of lower education in England and the author's personal observations of some relatively successful applications of that system. However, the system appears to possess some inherent flaws that will be discussed next.

Problems

An official system of schools did not originate in England until the nineteenth century. This is rather late compared with comparable developments in such countries as the United States, France, and Prussia (Wardle, 1976). Historically, England had manifested the elitist view that education was the responsibility of the individual. "The history of popular abandonment of individualism and the corresponding acceptance of collectivism" (Wardle, 1976). However, the vestiges of the individualistic philosophy has contributed to the slow evolution of an educational system that has not traditionally proven egalitarian in nature, and lacks strong central or national coordination. The potential of this system to respond effectively to the needs of a rapidly changing society in its present form is questionable.

Foster's Education Act of 1870 facilitated the emergence of a decentralized system of instruction eventually governed by a Local Education Authority. "Administratively, England and Wales are divided into one hundred four local education authorities" (Wardle, 1976). "The authorities own the maintained schools and have charge of their running, subject to certain general restraints imposed by central government" (Wilkinson, 1977). Such restraints receive questionable enforcement under the auspices of Her Majesty's Inspector of Schools (HMIs).

The strength of the local inspectors varies considerably. In Inner London, a large inspectorate is maintained so that the HMIs seldom venture into the city's schools. In July, 1968, the inspectorate admitted to the Parliamentary Select Committee on Education that regular five year full inspections by HMIs were being phased out. Since then, they have concentrated more on fact-gathering, collating and advising on good practice and directing support towards weak teachers or bad schools (Wilkinson, 1977).

This corps of men and women first came into existence in 1839 (Changing the primary school).

The decentralized system of British education clouded by the legacy of an elitist philosophy is incapable of providing an equal educational opportunity

to all citizens. Presumably, such a privilege constitutes a human right. Among problems inherent in the decentralized approach are the following:

1. It is difficult to identify and monitor a program of common objectives.
2. It is difficult to develop educational policy of a universal nature, i.e., developments of national concern such as programs for immigrants and the organizing of teachers.
3. Extensive variations in quality of instruction and services exist.
4. Extensive variations exist in curriculum content.
5. Lack of unanimity in qualifications for teachers.
6. The optimum utilization of resources is difficult; actually impossible.
7. It is difficult to respond unilaterally to the changing needs of society, i.e., new technological advances.

The magnitude of seriousness of this situation is implicit in the words of GAN Lowndes who states

It is unfortunately necessary to admit that there are still many hundreds of dreary little primary schools both in town and country where the atmosphere still appears to be as impervious to new ideas as the Managers are to the need for structural improvements (Lowndes, 1963).

A comparable analysis of secondary schools is applicable.

The British philosophy of educating the best gave rise to a discriminatory system of lower education that is extremely examination oriented.

The British philosophy of educating the best gave rise to a discriminatory system of lower education that is extremely examination oriented. It was previously indicated that a system of free compulsory education developed in England that presently exists for children ages five to sixteen. At the primary level the Eleven-Plus Examination is utilized to "track" children into various secondary schools according to ability. This procedure effectively programs a child for life by placement into a secondary curriculum that emphasizes college preparation, vocational-technical training, or general education. As such, eighty-three percent of the children of England and Wales are so affected at the early age of eleven years (Lowndes, 1963). Provision is generally not made for the fact that individuals develop at different rates, and one who is judged intellectually deficient at age eleven might rapidly accelerate at age twelve, too late. In addition to the selective admission of students into pro-

grams at the secondary level, additional screening "for life" occurs via the Ordinary Level Examination at age sixteen and the Advanced Level at eighteen.

It appears that the extensive emphasis upon the examination system makes a structured impact upon the curriculum and might sometimes work at detriment to the total development of both the primary and secondary student. A school's reputation is intricately interwoven into the success rates of its students upon the various examinations. The resulting implications for curriculum development are obvious. One insight into this situation is provided by Lowndes, who states,

Any teacher who has worked in a junior school in one of the few areas where there is no common entrance test will know how the whole educational atmosphere of the school can be uplifted by the freedom it enjoys to let its activities burgeon unshadowed by an approaching examination (Lowndes, 1963).

The foregoing discussion of problems inherent in the structure of the British educational system is by no means exhaustive. However, it does represent those of greatest interest to the author. Hopefully, valid conclusions will be drawn.

Conclusions

The public elementary and secondary school systems in England originally developed within an elitist atmosphere that emphasized education for the best or the most intelligent. This general attitude on the part of Englishmen has greatly inhibited the provision of an equal educational opportunity to all students. The tracking of students from the primary level by way of the Eleven-Plus Examination, and from the secondary level into farther or higher education by way of the O-Level and A-Level examinations, has served to reinforce this process of human wastage.

Historically, the State has exercised minimal direction and control of education in Great Britain, transferring primary responsibility for the maintenance and operation of schools to the local authorities. This organizational approach has resulted in a situation of vast disparities in the quality of educational services rendered.

The result of the above circumstances is that England maintains a system of lower education that is minimally effective in meeting the needs of its citizenry. However, recent developments indicate a growing trend of activities designed to remediate the situation. For example, the raising of the age for compulsory school attendance to sixteen years in 1973, is one indication of England's growing awareness that the country is entrapped in a situation of national human wastage. Also, of late central government is assuming more initiative in assuming the posture of educational leader. An example of this is reflected in

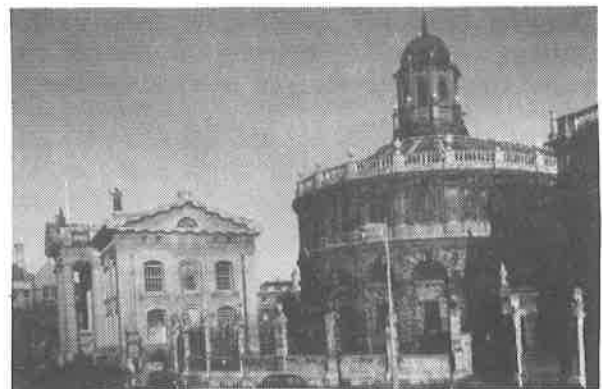
the current situation in which the dispute over comprehensivisation has resulted in open conflict with certain localities who refuse to submit plans for the abolition of selection (Wardle, 1976). Furthermore, the central government has begun to promote the issue of control of educational policy at all levels as a matter of public concern (Wardle, 1976).

Recent developments have also occurred pertinent to school organization. As previously indicated, the middle school concept is being adapted to some primary schools in an effort to provide a system that is more compatible to children's growth and development. It is noteworthy to reiterate the trend towards the comprehensive secondary school based upon the United States model instead of selective placement. Pressures to provide for consideration of a broader range of students for advanced educational opportunities beyond the twentieth percentile accommodated by the O-Level Examination has resulted in the occasional utilization of the Certificate of Secondary Education Examination (CSE) that tests down to the sixtieth percentile of ability. Also, a flourish of educational research is occurring relative to such matters as easing pupil's transfer from primary to middle and middle to high school, developing a new sixth form to accommodate young people who wish to continue their full time education beyond the school-leaving age but who are neither suited to A-Level nor sufficiently committed to a particular occupation to embark on vocational training, etc. Institutions of farther and higher education are also being requested to modify their procedures to cope with the major fluctuations in the numbers and types of students desiring their services (Educational Research News, 1982).

It is possible that the changes in British education discussed here, among others, have resulted more from increased demands for additional trained personnel by the industrial sector and technological changes than a sincere commitment by government to provide an equal educational opportunity to all. Nevertheless, the general public stands to profit from such developments should they continue.

References

- Blackie, J. **Changing the primary school.** London: Macmillan Education, Ltd., 1974.
- Dent, H. C. **Education in England and Wales.** London: Hodder & Stoughton, 1977.
- Educational Research News.** National Foundation for Educational Research in England and Wales, 36, Spring, 1982, 3.
- Information for Parents 1981-82, Fearnhill School,** Icknield Way Lechworth Hrts, 2.
- Lowndes, G. A. N. **The English educational system.** Hutchinson & Co., Ltd., 1963.
- May, J. & Greer, A. **A student's guide to the development of education in England and Wales.** Reigate, Surrey: Reigate Press, Ltd., 1973.
- Silver, H. (Ed.) **Equal opportunity in education. The Education of the Adolescent (Hadow Report).** Reprinted from **The Education of the Adolescent.** London: Methuen & Co., Ltd., 1973.
- Upwood County Primary School, Supplement to the Upwood School information booklet.** Cambridgeshire County Council, Huntingdon Area, 1981.
- Walford, R. A. (MA) **Some basic facts about the English educational system** (presented in seminar). Sidney Succex College, University Lecturer in Education, 1982.
- Wardle, D. **English popular education 1780-1975.** Cambridge University Press, 1976.
- Wilkinson, M. **Lessons from Europe.** London: Centre for Policy Studies, 1977.



The Sheldonian Theatre in Oxford.

By 1976 the number of comprehensive schools in England and Wales had grown to 2,878 with over 3 million pupils. The numbers of publicly maintained grammar schools and secondary modern schools greatly declined. The pattern of educational organization in England and Wales was "becoming comprehensive."

Becoming Comprehensive: Promises & Problems

By Frank W. Lanning

The promise of becoming comprehensive required some significant changes in curricular thought and organization. One important concern was the nature of the distinctive educational contributions of the subject, *per se*, in the comprehensive school. Subject specialists had to consider how their specific contributions could best assist the overall purposes of the comprehensive school. The promise of making the curriculum relevant to the pupil's life experiences challenged the subject specialists to be aware of both the individual and subject of a learning *gestalt*.

Four major guidelines (Bailey, 1974) were suggested to achieve new subject goals within the comprehensive framework:

New Subject Organization

It is important to recognize as early as possible the constraints within which course planning has to take place. It may be, for example, necessary to teach pupils how to learn for themselves, how to independently express themselves in acceptable English, how to use library research skills and other learning skills. The more objectively a teaching learning situation can be analyzed in terms of potentials and limitations, the more realistic and effective curriculum planning can be.

Better Teaching Methods

When comprehensive reorganization takes place, teachers may take the time to realize just how closely teaching methods are related to the organization of teaching groups. In an increasing number of schools subject specialists must now decide how to group their pupils within a flexible timetable. When working with a mixed-ability group the teacher becomes important as

a designer and a manager of teaching-learning situations. Ultimately effective teaching in the comprehensive schools must consist of exchanges between people who know each other, and to achieve these relationships can be far more important than developing novel

The departure from the traditional academic "streaming" that emphasized an academic hierarchy with elitist undertones to the promise of meeting the educational needs of pupils with a wide range of abilities and skills was another promise of the comprehensive schools.

teaching strategies which involve so many teachers that the pupils may not get to know any of them.

Better Consultation

Good communications and regular consultation between staff are an essential basis for effective reorganization. Large "all-through" comprehensives are often divided into Lower, Middle and Upper or Sixth Form sections, each under the leadership of a senior staff member with some degree of curricular autonomy. The subject teacher in a Lower or Middle school should recognize the legitimate requirements of his or her upper-tier colleagues.

Improved Staff Development

Comprehensive reorganization for the continuous appraisal of all staff members is needed. The purpose of the evaluation should be to find out how well the subject staff are equipped to meet the needs of the reorganization in terms of working with unfamiliar kinds of pupils, teaching new courses and using a wider variety of teaching methods than may have formerly been used. All members of a department should become involved in the full range of work so that they become familiar with the individuality of pupils, courses and teaching methods.

Frank W. Lanning is a Professor of Education at Northern Illinois University, DeKalb, Illinois. Dr. Lanning has been a frequent contributor to professional journals concerning topics of interest in the field of education.

Meeting Student Needs

The departure from the traditional academic "streaming" that emphasized an academic hierarchy with elitist undertones to the promise of meeting the educational needs of pupils with a wide range of abilities and skills was another promise of the comprehensive schools. Roberts, a former Geography Master (Roberts, 1974) described the goals of a comprehensive school that he played a part in organizing.

Academic excellence and generally raising academic standards were still important but I absorbed enough of Albert Row's teaching to believe that a school must provide the opportunity for every child to achieve specific excellence. The School was to be a school for every child rather than a place which distilled the essence for a group which was internally selected and favoured. We accepted that children's abilities on all manner of functions and processes would differ but hoped we could avoid judgment on children based upon our school masterly regard to certain academic abilities. If selection at eleven did not make sense between schools then there was a compelling logic to reject it within the school; if individuality had any virtue, we had to foster it; if expectation was a powerful motivating force for both children and staff we had to develop an atmosphere which made it positive and all pervasive. . . (Bailey, 1974)

The comprehensive schools were not going to disregard academic excellence and, in fact, did have a very respectable record of placement in colleges. The schools, however, were to recognize the dynamics of the individual child in relation to his/her relevant social, psychological, and intellectual needs.

Organic Organization

Another significant promise of the comprehensive school was an organic form of school organization. The concept guiding this kind of organization is that faculty have the responsibility for directing and guiding groups of pupils within a framework of learning experiences provided by a number of broadly based and cooperating faculties. This was described as follows:

To this end, the 360 or so pupils in each year are divided into three mixed-ability "mini-schools" or Houses, each of which is a community of about 120 pupils and seven staff, with a House Head as leader. The House teams have the task of designing and modifying a learning programme, appropriate to their pupils' needs, in consultation with the Faculty staff. A Deputy Head, who has

the title of Director of Personal Development, coordinates the work of the Houses. His task is to lead and advise upon the complicated process of steering the House groups through learning facilities provided, and to suggest modifications of those facilities to Faculty Heads (Bailey, 1974).

The organic organization goals are designed to have staff members in a position to identify curriculum requirements from the pupil's point of view and to

The organic organization goals are designed to have staff members in a position to identify curriculum requirements from the pupil's point of view and to discuss curriculum design and implementation from the demands of the subject and potentials of the resources.

discuss curriculum design and implementation from the demands of the subject and potentials of the resources. The organic organization also attempts to give as many staff members as possible the opportunity to plan and implement an important part of the curriculum. Each team member of the faculty will take leadership responsibility to plan a unit of work. Thus, the organic orientation is further emphasized by this rotating leadership which provides for more leadership responsibilities than found in conventional organizations.

Autonomous Learning

The promise of more autonomous learning was and is important to the comprehensive school. Many comprehensive schools planned to develop more units so that the available work for autonomous learning will increase. The teacher's role is not lessened but will more often be working with pupils helping them to know how to deal with the work they need to do (Mitson, 1974).

Communal Resources

The promise of communal resources becomes important to undergrid the instructional goals of the comprehensive schools. To provide a learning resource environment to meet the needs of the wide range of courses and individual interests can be a difficult task. One solution where comprehensive education is within a community center is that their wide range of resources can be found centralized in a district library incorporated within the Center because the individual comprehensive schools, colleges, and adult education do not have separate libraries. However, to make centralization work, it must encourage the users of the Center to pool their resources so they become available to all. A kind of added bonus from using the communal resources within a community center is the awareness of an educational continuum that enhances the opportunities for more relevant integration of individual and educational goals (Mitson, 1974).

Choices for Students

There is a promise of nonstreaming. Fourth and fifth year pupils of the comprehensive schools can follow their own choices on an option program for almost two-thirds of the school week. Groups may now self-select for individual subjects and generally the choice would reflect the pupil's own recognition of strengths and weaknesses. There should be no emphasis of prestige courses or a hierarchy of courses. This should help to avoid negative distinctions of superior and inferior pupils. Perhaps this final statement by Roberts (1974) sums up the hoped for general purpose or philosophy of the comprehensive school:

If we can teach without competitive marks and orders of merit, without confusing evaluation with selection, then we stand a better chance of convincing children that they all matter in our class. We are more likely to be believed when we try to emphasize cooperation, tolerance, sympathy and good neighborliness in our communal life (Roberts, 1974).

Problems

In the world of reality, there seem to be no promises fulfilled without attending problems. The comprehensive schools called for changes in the organization of subject centered courses. However, two major positions to bring about changes have presented a problem. The first position is that of Bruner who recognized the pedagogical problem of how to represent knowledge in a form appropriate to young learners. Hawkins' position, however, found questions which transcend pedagogy and becomes concerned about the structure of knowledge itself (Comprehensive Education and Reconstruction of Knowledge, 1975). Michael Armstrong points out the importance of Hawkins' position when he states:

What is required is not a rejection of the school or the schoolmen's knowledge, however bourgeois in origin, nor even of the scholastic tradition itself, but a reconstruction of the relationship between knowledge and individual experience, must necessarily respect his social background and tradition. But the reconstruction works both ways. The child's experience, too, is transformed, and that in the light of traditions of thought and knowledge and culture which will not all be intimate aspects of his own particular background or tradition (Comprehensive Education and Reconstruction of Knowledge, 1975).

The problem that many subject teachers face is that their theoretical knowledge and imagination may suggest to them to abandon structure but their profes-

sional conscience is probably still more secure with a structure.

Was there a problem of the comprehensive school keeping their promise of being concerned with academic excellence as well as for social and emotional dimensions of the individual? This statement from a recent study by the National Children's Bureau gives an interesting answer:

A lot of the myths about comprehensive schools are not held up by this evidence. If anything, the picture we get is that more able children do as well in comprehensive schools as they do in the grammar schools. The least able children do slightly better in the comprehensive. The area of worry .pa is for children of middle ability where children don't do as well in comprehensives as in the grammars (Lister, 1980).

While the above findings seem, at first glance, to be rather surprising it may well confirm that the traditional academic structure of grammar/secondary modern schools are geared toward a mean of expected academic achievement which is not as sensitive to the broad ranges of academic ability as the comprehensives (Passmore, 1981).

A major problem inherent in an organizational change is whether this alone can bring change to the schools. The experience of most institutions is that organizational change alone does not seem to be enough.

A major problem inherent in an organizational change is whether this alone can bring change to the schools. The experience of most institutions is that organizational change alone does not seem to be enough. In fact it may be that the comprehensive schools by themselves cannot solve the more fundamental problems of curriculum and that at least some of the responsibility must be assumed by a broad base of leadership in the community. The organic form of school organization for the comprehensive school must include in its "organic whole" the interrelationships of individual, school and society.

Change in Name Only

Another problem English comprehensives face is where comprehensive schemes are comprehensive in name only. A well known version is where 11-16 comprehensives exist alongside ex-grammar schools whose new age is 13 or 14 to 18. These ex-grammar schools tend to specialize in academic pupils while the ex-secondary modern, although with a wider range of courses, and a broader intake of pupils, still cater for the average and slow learners. The fact that the comprehensive "label" may be ascribed to more traditional forms of schools makes it difficult for parents who are looking

for the "promises" of the comprehensive school to be sure that their children are in reality getting the benefit the goals of the comprehensive schools. This confusion of purposes and names makes the articulation of the curriculum from these various forms of grammar and secondary modern to higher education increasingly less successful (H.M.I. Report on Toxeteth, 1982).

Relations with Government

Finally, the relationships between the comprehensive schools and the government have not been without controversy. One current problem is the challenge of government statistics which stated that 83% of all

One current problem is the challenge of government statistics which stated that 83% of all pupils are in comprehensive schools. Critics of this report have responded to this by saying that the "real" figure is closer to 67% which also includes pupils at schools which are comprehensive in name only.

pupils are in comprehensive schools. Critics of this report have responded to this by saying that the "real" figure is closer to 67% which also includes pupils at schools which are comprehensive in name only. Furthermore, many local education authorities have no policy creating equality of intake and provision between schools so that some of these so-called comprehensive schools must revert back to their former secondary modern status. This fact, according to the critics would further reduce the 67% figure for comprehensive pupils (Baylis, 1980). A related problem is the concern of the RICE (The Right to Comprehensive Education) organization has about the way comprehensive education is being eroded through grants by local authorities to private education and the use of public funds for the private sector of education. The fear is now that those concerned about comprehensive education have had to change their goals for creating new comprehensives to a defensive goal of trying to save those comprehensives already in existence (Garner, 1981).

Impact of the Comprehensive Schools

The comprehensive schools of England have, on the whole, "kept" and/or delivered many of their promises. Relevancy of the individual and the curriculum has been a guiding goal and promise that has been fundamental to the comprehensive movement. The influence of Hawkins' concept of restructuring knowledge in experiential and meaningful ways has given the comprehensive movement a unique pedagogical and epistemological thrust. These and other promises, however, have not been met without the usual concomitant problems, and as with any initiator of change, the comprehensive schools have experienced modifications and compromise of their own original purposes.

In at least one basic respect, the impact of the comprehensive school has paralleled the impact of the progressive movement in America. The long-range impact of the progressive and comprehensive movement was important not in a fundamental revolutionary change as much as it was a kind of "evolutionary" modification of many traditional concepts. The final outcomes of the promises and problems of the comprehensive schools are still in process, but the pedagogical importance of its contributions, so far, cannot be doubted.

References

- Bailey, Patric, "Going Comprehensive", *Forum*, Vol. 17, No. 1, pp. 55-58, Autumn, 1974.
- Bailey, Patric, "Intercity Comprehensive," *Forum*, Vol 16, No 3, pp. 85-88, Summer, 1974.
- Bayliss, Sarah, "Official Comprehensive Claims Ridiculed," *The Times Educational Supplement*, 3335:1 May 9, 1980.
- Benn, Caroline, "England Lags Behind," *Forum*, Vol 16, No 3, pp. 68-70, Summer, 1974.
- Collier, V., "Comprehensive Reorganization and the Process of Change," *Forum*, Vol 22, pp. 12-14, Autumn, 1980.
- "Comprehensive Education and the Reconstruction of Knowledge," *Forum*, Vol 17, No 2, pp. 40-43, Spring, 1975.
- Comprehensive Principles as Rights: A Restatement in the Context of the Eighties," *Forum*, Vol 24, pp. 3-21, Autumn, 1981.
- Garner, R. "New Impetus for Campaign to Boost Comprehensives," *The Times Educational Supplement*, 3372:13, February 6, 1981.
- "HMI Report on Toxeteth," *The Times Educational Supplement*, p. 4 May 14 1982.
- Lister, D., "Brightest Do As Well As All-in Schools: NCB Study Find That Comprehensives Are Failing Average Ability Children," *The Times Educational Supplement* 3344: 6 July 18 1980.
- Mitson, Ron & Malcom Holder, "Comprehensive education within a community centre" *Forum* Vol 16 No 3 pp. 88-91 Summer 1974.
- Passmore, B., Plight of the average child. *The Times Educational Supplement*, 3377:8 March 13, 1981.
- Player, John Getting down to human relations. *The Times Educational Supplement* p. 33 June 6, 1980.
- Roberts, Derek Comprehensive from scratch. *Forum* Vol 16 No 3 pp 82-84 Summer 1974.
- Watson, K. Comprehensive education in an age of uncertainty--Issues in the 1980's. *Forum* Vol 23 pp 14-16 Autumn 1980.



British Higher Education and the Challenge of Lifelong Learning

By Sean Courtney

Britain boasts a long history of concern with the education of adults. So the story goes. It further boasts a long history of educational institutions: the very essence of a university, if one founders for a definition, must surely be Oxford and Cambridge. It comes then as a painful surprise to present-day practitioners to find among the adult population a clamor for knowledge so far unfulfilled. As if this were not bad enough they experience the chill of a strong wind blowing from Europe which insists that education be seen as a lifelong learning process to which many of their most hallowed institutions seem woefully inadequate. Can this be? Is it not the case, insist some university academics, that "lifelong learning" is really the brainchild of a bloodless EEC-Unesco bureaucrat paying us back for our stubbornness over Common Market levies? Are our universities to be turned over to workers and housewives? Can there be such a thing as a part-time degree? Or is it possible to even conceive of a university education without a lecturer, a class of docile, post-pubertals and a syllabus as fixed and as timeless as the Magna Carta.

The winds of change are indeed blowing for British High Education, and so far they have been sharp and chilly.

The winds of change are indeed blowing for British High Education, and so far they have been sharp and chilly. It was not always like that. To understand now the magnitude of the change involved and the discomfiture it evinces it is necessary to consider the past and relived some British history.

The Age of Educational Revolution

For many European countries, but perhaps most acutely in the case of Britain, the Industrial Revolution proved a watershed, culturally and politically. Prior to the 1750's and for half a century afterwards, literacy—the basis of all formal education—was the

Sean Courtney is an instructor and internship supervisor in the Department of Leadership and Educational Policy Studies at Northern Illinois University, DeKalb, Illinois. Mr. Courtney is presently completing his doctoral degree in the area of Adult Continuing Education at the university.

property of the few. The children of aristocrats and 'professionals' were schooled in places like Harrow and Eaton and for these the road to Oxbridge was inevitable. The children of the less fortunate became the domain of the Church: their education tied to the demands of prayer and the bible. For centuries Latin was the Lingua franca. The emphasis was on roundedness as the necessary quality for that for which all non-religious education bred its students: leadership and the running of the country.

Education had no link to work, to science or to technology. In such an atmosphere, knowledge was timeless, as timeless as Plato's Ideas, and indeed that is probably where all knowledge began, thought some, with the significant exception of the Bible. Small wonder then that Latin, a language which had long ceased to be the linguistic commerce for secular Europe, should have maintained its doubtful dominance in the classroom. Whatever else education was, again with the exception of religious instruction, it was not relevant, if only because here was nothing really to be relevant to. The Industrial Revolution changed all that.

Firstly, it created a self-conscious working class (Thompson, 1968). Secondly, it ushered in the beginnings of minimal literacy levels among the rest of the population (Cipolla, 1969). Now adults had some access to learning. Thirdly, it created a middle class of enterprising engineers and entrepreneurial scientists anxious to wrest political power from the enfeebled hands of the aristocracy. The Reform Act of 1832 acknowledged the collective presence of this class and granted them accession to power. With it they sought the reformation of the entire school 'system.' This Act further served to remind the working class that they had been excluded from power and that they too must work for a revamped school system wrought in their own likeness. According to Simon "the framework of the present educational system (in Britain) was constructed in the nineteenth century (Simon, 1974).

What of higher education at this time? Basically, it was in the hands of two universities (if we exclude St. Andrew's in Scotland): Oxford and Cambridge. Rarely, can two institutions have ruled unimpeded for so long. Both took on their unique organization in the 1400s and 1500s. Both remained unchanged until the middle of the 1800s. These were the models for early forms of American higher education. Beyond the

Oxbridge hegemony, and until the dawn of the scientific age, higher education for adults did not exist.

At various times enterprising groups sought the establishment of rivals. It was not until 1828, however, and the founding of the University of London by John Stuart Mill's father, among others, that this agitation bore fruit. It is no coincidence that James Mill was also prominent among the new educational reformers of the middle class. He, Bentham and others, wrote extensively in the *Westminster Review*, caricaturing the methods, content and outmoded concepts of what passed for real education. The pressure for reform was especially acute in the face of the demands of the new industrialization, and the call by class leaders, for universal, comprehensive education for all of the nation's children.

It is primarily in the working class movement that there is expressed the fervent belief in the power of human reason, in science, and in education as an essential means to individual and social development, which is earlier to be discerned among the reformers of the 1780s (Simon, 1974).

Historically speaking, reform followed reform until, by the closing decades of the nineteenth cen-

Historically speaking, reform followed reform until, by the closing decades of the nineteenth century, what we now recognize as the British educational system came to be in place.

ture, what we now recognize as the British educational system came to be in place. By the mid-1800s, a government Commission had been set up to consider the question of reforms at Oxford. While it bore heavily on the question of what ought to be taught, it also grasped the nettle of a much more intractable issue: what should be the role of the universities in promoting the higher educational needs of the British populace, inhabitants of one of the world's most advanced industrial countries. Now comes the interesting part. For the reforms discussed, resisted and finally hammered out by a mostly unwilling university were to lay the ground for the university extension movement, and what is still seen today as that which most nearly deserves the name--Adult Education.

University Extension, championed by men like William Sewell and James Stuart, flourished in the 1870's and 80's when teachers, lecturers and professors travelled the length and breadth of Britain, discoursing, often with the glint of inspiration, on topics as diverse as Maxwell's thermodynamics and Gibbon's great Fall. With this experience came the gradual realization that those who attended the lecture series were often other than adults of older mien, for whom the courses were designed. They were young men and women, sometimes they were children 'cramming' for

exams, all eager for a more systematic instruction, one, moreover, that might lead them into the professions, then beginning to proliferate in the wake of the new technology (Jepson, 1973).

It is in the light of this near universal--and so far mostly latent--hunger for knowledge tied to occupational opportunity that the importance of the 1870 Education Act must be judged.

The complacency of a decade earlier had been swept away. Influential opinions, on all sides, was now in favour of a system of universal, if not compulsory, education for the working class...In the Circumstances the government was able to introduce a far-reaching bill of a kind which would have been rejected out of hand in 1860...With the Education Act of 1870 reorganization of the country's educational system was completed in the light of the new conditions following the extension of the franchise (to a section of the working class). It had not been originally envisaged that the workers' education be so extended; least of all that control of the schools be handed over to elected bodies and the teaching of religion made optional. But events had forced the pace and mass working-class pressure contributed to ensuring that at least the first foundations of a universal system were laid--that education was no longer a charity but a right (Simon, 1974).

The Revolution Comes of Age

The twentieth century begins, educationally, with the growing concern that Britain, for the first time, was lagging behind the likes of Germany in its production of scientists and capable technicians. The educational reforms of the new age all reflect this growing concern with science and technology, the determined need to shatter, once-and-for-all, the hegemonic classicism of Oxbridge, and to drastically transform the education of youth. As Simon again notes:

Many of the universities in the great provincial cities have their inception during this period, either developing from Colleges of Science, as at Leeds and Newcastle, or from new endowments by local industrialists as at Manchester and Birmingham...(Simon, 1974).

The momentum continued, slackening in the '30s and the years of the Depression, and quickening again in the years following the Second World War. The Education Act of 1944 made schooling free and compulsory until age 15.

Between 1945 and 1967 the number of primary school pupils...jumped from just under 4m to 5m; the number of secondary school pupils from 1 3/4m to over 3m; the number of university students from

52,000 to 185,000; and the number of full-time and sandwich course students in other forms of further education from 54,000 to 273,000 (Kelly, 1970).

In the early 1960s and following the seeming success of the secondary "streamed" system ushered in by the 1944 Education Act, the Robbins Commission reported on the reform of the higher educational system. Now, anyone with the appropriate levels of achievement (interpreted as two "A-levels") was entitled to seek the benefits of a university education. During the '60s the university experienced its last great expansion, some of the newest universities being built in the early '70s. Interpreted in this light it must have seemed to many that, finally, after a long haul that began in the mid 1800s, a system of elementary, secondary and tertiary education was in place which would ensure that all those who sought or could benefit from education received it: each receiving that which best suited his or her natural intellectual endowment. Basically, you went as far as you could go. Those who required a universal education obtained it and went into the professions. Others left high school with a CSE (Certificate of Secondary Education) and entered clerical positions, apprenticeships, or technical institutions; the remainder, without qualifications, sought out semi- and unskilled manual occupations for which they were, probably, most suited. The whole enterprise, if thought about at all, had a sense of completion about it: a sense of a challenge met, a sense of a job well done.

Given this degree of presumed complacency it is easy to understand how a concept such as Lifelong Learning would find it hard to attract eager advocates. Learning as a life's work invited the spectre of lifelong schooling. In any event, it invites a reexamination of the premises upon which the "initial" system was founded, with the offensive implication that this system has not been as successful as at first imagined. What then has happened to endear the concept to some and to attract more than a grudging hearing from other educators and policy-makers?

First. It has long been the experience of the secondary system, and one which the raising of the school-leaving age did much to highlight, that a majority of students leave secondary school without formal qualifications. For example, in the school year 1974/75, out of a school-leaving population of over 691,000, more than half had not earned the minimum CSE.

There is a close connection between the type of qualification you leave school with and your future prospects. Of those with one or more A(Advanced)-levels in 1974-75, 67% went on to some form of full-time further education: 63% of this group took degree courses. Of those with A-levels the number taking degrees was 45,000. Of those with O(Ordinary)-levels or CSE, the number taking degrees was 460. Of those without As or Os it was 20 (Department of Education and Science, 1975). Furthermore, while the numbers attending university may have doubled between 1950 and

1967, the fact remains that this constitutes only about 6-7% of the school-leaving population. Truly, then, university higher education still remains the preserve of the few: the Robbins reforms merely creating a new elite.

Second. All those likely to benefit from further education, e.g., technical courses, nursing, teacher-training, enter these areas almost immediately on leaving secondary school. There may be a lapse of one or two years. The indications, however, are that most opportunities for Further education are "continuous" with the "initial" schooling. It is in this way, we believe, more than any other that the whole notion of education has come to be identified with this first phase which ends, not with secondary school, but with the obtaining of degrees, diplomas, and other certificates awarded by universities and the nationally-based Council for National Academic Awards.

Third. The launching of a highly successful literacy campaign in which television played a prominent part, did much to bring home to an incredulous nation the existence of large 'pockets' of illiteracy in a country which prided itself on the quality of its educational provision. This lesson has not, incidentally, been lost on America. While many had suspected that the 'cracks' (in the system) had always been there, it took the campaign and the statistics it uncovered to jolt the unsuspecting educational establishment.

Four. A point which has considerable implications for universities, educators and educational researchers are beginning to discover--or at least to suspect--that the Education Act of 1944, far from satisfying the educational needs of most, has had a contrary impact. There is evidence to suggest that those who benefitted most from the Act are now returning to the educational system in greater numbers. As a group they differ from most of those seeking further education by being older, out of school for a far longer period (they are truly the "discontinuous" set), and seeking more than school-type diplomas and certificates (Hopper & Osborn, 1975).

Perhaps the most dramatic development of all, there is the success of the Open University at Milton Keynes, a new town created in post-War years of Labour euphoria.

Fifth. Perhaps the most dramatic development of all, there is the success of the Open University at Milton Keynes, a new town created in post-War years of Labour euphoria. The idea of an 'open' university--a university of the air is how it was first mooted--also grew out of Labour Party concerns. The Robbins Report further endorsed it, pointing to an 'untapped' pool of able students who could benefit from a university education but who had 'missed out' or been 'left out' somewhere along the line. According to its syllabus the Open University has been designed for adult independent learners, and requires no qualifications for entry, save that students be 21 or over and normally

resident in the United Kingdom (i.e., Britain) (Keynes, 1977). In 1971, its first year of admission it had almost 44,000 applicants, its total student body that year was almost 20,000. Few universities in Britain have over 13,000. Its highest year of application was 1975 when the total reached a staggering 52,537 (Keynes, 1977). In the academic year 1977-78 the total student body stood at about 64,000, almost none of whom ever 'came to campus.' Truly a university of the air; truly a higher education innovation within a system encrusted with tradition. Naturally, the lesson of the OU, its commitment to adult students and its substantial success with this sector of the national population has not gone unnoticed either by adult educators, other academics or, significantly, by governmental policy-makers. Today, as the whole system of higher education is under attack some look to institutions like the OU for a possible bail-out.

In what specific ways, then, might the challenge of Lifelong Learning be met by Britain's universities? It is important to underline national opinion in this regard. In what has come to be considered a classic of the field the Government set out its thinking on a national policy for adult education in the so-called "1919 Report." Written largely by the leaders of the field it stands as a veritable bible of liberal education in the cause of social change.

Over 50 years later the Russel Report (Adult Education: A plan for development) echoed the spirit of that document:

The value of adult education is not solely to be measured by direct increases in earning power...or by any other materialistic yardstick, but by the quality of life it inspires in the individual and generates for the community at large. It is an agent changing or improving our society...(Russel).

In the service of this ideal it swooped on the notion of Education Permanent or Lifelong Learning which shifted the focus of study away from traditional academic subject boundaries and towards the notion of personal development, whereby the "initial" system became the foundation for further study in the future. The challenge to the university status quo was beginning to take a coherent form.

A threat of a more coherent form emerged in the policy decisions of the Thatcher government which in one fell swoop undermined 20 years of Robbins "expansionism." For the first time in its entire history the university has seen retrenchment, the whittling away of funds, even the closing of departments and the sacking of tenured faculty. The blow to morale has been savage, and sufficiently numbing to deflect serious attention from the implications of a document which, more than any other single document written on adult education this century, promises a radical reform of the higher education system to meet the growing and divergent needs of basically educated adults.

"Higher Education into the 1990s" derives its particular edge from its reflection on a single problem with enormous sociodemographic, economic and political

"Higher Education into the 1990s" derives its particular edge from its reflection on a single problem with enormous sociodemographic, economic and political ramifications: Britain's declining population of children. Robbins addressed itself to the needs of a growing population. Its answer: build more universities.

ramifications: Britain's declining population of children. Robbins addressed itself to the needs of a growing population. Its answer: build more universities. Now the situation has been reversed, but the decisions to be made to handle decline are not so clear-cut. This discussion document--it is normal for the government to publish such a document in advance of a "white paper" which sets out proposed policy decisions, about which there may be little discussion--depicts five models or scenarios. The first four envisage some kind of contraction, little of it easy to plan for. It is the fifth which has attracted the attention of adult educators and others, for "it envisages that there should be no contraction, but that the places released by demography in the late 1980s and 1990s would instead be used firstly to expand oppor-

The fundamental issue facing the education system as a whole, the higher education in particular, is the urgent need for a transition from a front-end model based upon full-time initial higher education for a relative few to an "open-ended" model based upon the continuing or recurrent provision of full-time and part-time further and higher education for all who by virtue of ability, experience and motivation are able to benefit by it regardless of age...(McIntosh, 1979).

tunities for the children of manual workers and for adult students (McIntosh, 1978). This is a reaction to other singular realities of the British higher education system: the tendency for working class school-leavers who have acquired the necessary qualifications not to take up the degree option and the lamentably low number of adults who are in a position to avail of full-time degree courses designed specifically for the time-indifferent young.

So far the implications of the government document have not been made explicit. It is clear however, that it is awaiting the ruminations of enlightened university educators, in close consultation with non-university adult-oriented educators, before it states its own position. While waiting it is encouraging the closure of universities and the traumatic contracting of

faculties. Adult educators have not been slow to enter the debate. Here is how the Advisory Council for Adult Continuing Education (ACACE), one of the very few concrete products of Russel Report recommendations, interprets the situation:

(T)he fundamental issue facing the education system as a whole, the higher education in particular, is the urgent need for a transition from a front-end model based upon full-time initial higher education for a relative few to an "open-ended" model based upon the continuing or recurrent provision of full-time and part-time further and higher education for all who by virtue of ability, experience and motivation are able to benefit by it regardless of age... (McIntosh, 1979).

What might some of the implications be for higher education of one which took more seriously its duty to the older adult? Firstly, the nature of the teaching process comes under scrutiny. Part-time degrees cannot be taught like their full-time counterparts. The lecture method, with all its resonance of cosy, undefined authority, comes under attack. Initially, it is less a question of justification than of relevance: there are better ways of teaching besides lecturing. Gradually and logically—as was the case with the OU—there is a move to more well-ordered, problem-centered textbooks. But as the center of gravity moves out of the classroom, paradoxically, what happens in it becomes even more important and subject to scrutiny. There is a two-fold challenge to authority: from the text which now, rather than the teacher, defines the subject matter, and from the students who are now mostly of the same age as, or often older than, he or she. Secondly, because some of the structural features of the continuing education ideal require a flexibility of scheduling, the idea of what should be taught begins to get questioned. What is the nature of the knowledge which a university transmits? How much of it do adult students need to know? What, finally, is so monolithically impregnable about or so self-evidently certain as the three- or four-year degree? We feel that one of the greatest challenges to the higher education system of the British Isles, by concepts like Lifelong Learning, will come from this questioning of the nature of knowledge. Thirdly, though its effects may not be felt at first, there is a reorganization of the nature of adult education as a type of occupation, a job, a profession. At present, there is remarkably little training or education for those who will teach adults in the pursuit of degrees or any other kind of certificate for that matter. To quote recent surveys:

At the present time there is no national requirement for any of the large numbers of part-time teachers (roughly 100,000 part-timers to 200 full-timers, excluding literacy tutors, in any one-year) who are employed in adult education to receive specific training for their work...The

ACACE Report on REgional Provision for the Training of Part-time...Staff (Dec. 1980) identifies that the provision of Training the Trainers Courses is sporadic and ad hoc... (Chadwick & Graham, 1981).

As adult education sees its national role expand to both meet and transcend—for this problem of continuing, "post-initial" education is seen as profound and long crisis currently rocking the hallowed portals of higher education, it will experience a greater need to say clearly what it is and to require of its practitioners that they be expertly versed in this mission. Should it become a profession like social work or school teaching? Should it come in from the cold? Ultimately, the challenge of Lifelong Learning may have more profound implications for the practice of Adult Education than for the survival of Higher Education.

Yet, even as we write the winds of change may be blowing harder than anyone has anticipated. At a time when some universities have begun to advertise on London buses to bring home to people that Britain needs its universities, the Labour Party has revealed a "discussion document" of its own that goes far beyond current government proposals. Describing Oxford and Cambridge as "major cancers in the educational system" (Chronicle of Higher Education, 1982) the plan asserts "a general right to education, as universal in its provision as the right to proper housing, or to security in old age," and calls for an open-admissions policy at all British universities. It would abolish tuition and, crucial to the implications of the Lifelong Learning framework, would require employers to grant workers "paid educational leave," in line with countries like Germany and Sweden. Naturally, the universities will resist. Apart from the radical implications of the plan, it comes ironically at a time when admissions to some universities have been slashed by more than 10% and where even those with the necessary pair of A-levels have been turned away from the door.

Some good may come of this. British Higher Education has rarely experienced such bleak doldrums. Moral among faculty has probably never been so low. Yet, at a time when the future looks unquestionably grim, might not this be the time for some imaginative decision-making? The schemes and formulations of the Lifelong Learning advocates are a tangle of wishy-washy sentiments and cautious utopias. The Labour Party's is a cold scheme, almost brutal in the concreteness of its expression. Might there not be a way through the middle which could combine the good of both schemes, by once more dusting off the 1919 and Russel Reports and expressing in the strongest and clearest language the desire of the population as a whole, regardless of intelligence and birthright, for a full and useful life based on the understanding and application of knowledge.

References

- Chadwick, A. & Graham, B. Training the trainers. Proceedings of the Standing Committee for University Teaching Research and Education of Adults: **Research Activity and Development in Adult and Continuing Education**. Annual Conference, 1981.
- Chronicle of Higher Education, September 15, 1982.
- Cipolla, C. **Literacy and development in the west**. London: Penguin, 1969.
- Hopper, E. & Osborn, M. **Adult students, education, selection and social control**. London: Frances Pinter, 1975.
- Jepson, N. **The beginning of English university adult education--policy and problems**. London: Michael Joseph, 1973.
- Kelly, T. **A history of adult education in Great Britain**. Liverpool University Press, 1970.
- Keynes, M. An introduction to the open university. Information Services Department, 1977.
- McIntosh, N. A comprehensive system of education for adults. Paper presented at the Universities Council for Adult Education Annual Conference, University of Keele, 1979.
- McIntosh, N. After expansion: A time for diversity, 1979.
- Russel, L. Adult education: A plan for development. Report by a committee of Inquiry, 1973.
- Simon, B. **Education and the labour movement 1870-1920**. London: Lawrence & Wishart, 1974.
- Simon, B. **The two nations and the educational structure 1780-1870**. London: Lawrence & Wishart, 1974.
- Statistics of Education, Vol 2, Table E. Department of Education and Science, HMSO, 1975.
- Thompson, E. P. **The making of the English working class**. London: Penguin Books, 1968.



The British Post Graduate Certificate in Education: Some Implications for U.S. Colleges of Education

By Harry A. Kersey, Jr.

Anyone familiar with the history of English education is aware that until relatively recently there was little concern with elevating the professional preparation of teachers to a degree level program. At the conclusion of the Second World War teacher training colleges were offering a two-year course of instruction, and this was eventually reduced to a one-year crash course for a time following the Second World War to get the schools operating again. By the 1950's the teacher course was expanded to three years. Neverthe-

less, education and other "technical studies" were still considered sub-university level studies, although many training colleges became constituent members of the university institutes of education which validated their work.

In 1963 the Robbins Committee Report on Higher Education focused attention on the need to expand higher educational opportunities for the greatly increased number of youths completing secondary schooling who did not qualify for, or did not choose to pursue, traditional university courses (Taylor & Lowe, 1981). Accordingly, a number of technical institutions embarked on courses leading to degrees, with the teacher colleges developing the Bachelor of Education degree (B.Ed.). In addition, a Council for National Academic Awards (CNAA) was created to validate degrees

Harry A. Kersey, Jr. is Professor of Education at Florida Atlantic University, Boca Raton, Florida. Dr. Kersey has been closely associated with the Seminole Tribe of Florida and has directed numerous cross-cultural studies of national as well as international significance.

from tertiary institutions. This was not, however, a signal of academic parity for the newer institutions; as A.D.C. Peterson (1968) pointed out:

The CNAA is a considerable step forward in breaking down the unreal idolatry attached to the word degree. The first step in this process would have delighted Jonathan Swift. The diplomas in technology and in art and design were to be of equal academic quality, not merely with degrees, but with honours degrees, but they were not to be called degrees, because they were not granted by universities. Now the CNAA may validate a course in any institution of tertiary education for the award of degrees but these will be CNAA degrees, not university degrees. It will not be the institution, but the course, which will be adjudged as meeting the almost indefinable criterion of "degree level" work.

If this elevation of education and other "technical studies" to degree-level status was accomplished only grudgingly, it nevertheless created a number of alternate routes by which individuals could prepare for the classroom. No area seems to have profited more from this expansion than Further and Higher Education. Those institutions offering vocational-technical courses attended by students past the school leaving age of 16 years. Most often these courses are attended by individuals who are employed fulltime, but released by employers to improve their skills and technical knowledge. As in the United States, the great number of youths who leave secondary education with minimal marketable skills has placed renewed emphasis on development of institutions where such skills can be acquired. Moreover, there was a corresponding need to expand and upgrade the types of courses qualifying teachers for Further Education. In the London area one of the major institutions preparing teachers for Further Education in Garnett College. In the summer of 1982 the author had occasion to visit the institutions and interact with the staff and administration regarding their innovative programs.

Garnett College can trace its origins to 1946 when it opened as the North Western Polytechnic in North London under the Ministry of Education Emergency Training Scheme for Teachers--the crash program to get teachers in the schools after World War II. In 1951 it became a permanent college maintained by the London County Council, and was assumed by the Inner London Education Authority (Inner London Education Authority, 1980).

Since the 1950's Garnett has offered a Certificate in Education course, validated by the University of London Institute of Education for intending teachers in further and higher education. Through this one year, full-time, pre-service course some 8,000 men and women from industry, commerce, the public services and

universities have entered the teaching profession as fully qualified professional. Beginning in 1963, this course was also offered as a "sandwich" course serving full and part-time teachers in technical colleges and polytechnics, training officers and instructor from public services. Over 2,500 serving teachers obtained the Certificate in Education (CTE) in this manner.

By 1980, Garnett had found that a third type of student was seeking certification to teach in further and higher education: those with graduate, or graduate-equivalent qualifications.

By 1980, Garnett had found that a third type of student was seeking certification to teach in further and higher education: those with graduate, or graduate-equivalent qualifications. Consequently a Postgraduate Certificate in Education (PGCE) course was developed, and validation for Garnett's courses was sought from the CNAA. It was assumed that completion of the certificate courses would also fulfill part of the requirement of a two-year B.Ed. degree. Therefore a five-phase pattern was proposed for all three courses.

Term 1 (12 weeks)	Phase I	8 weeks in college
	Phase II	4 weeks supervised teaching experience
Term 2 (11 weeks)	Phase III	4 weeks in college
	Phase IV	7 weeks supervised teaching experience
Term 3 (11 weeks)	Phase V	11 weeks in college

Year length 34 weeks: Supervised teaching experience 11 weeks (Garnett College, 1980).

This pattern is designed to facilitate, as far as possible, the integration of theory and practice. It also involves the cooperation of the participating teacher practice colleges in the London area which accept students into their specialty areas. Within the thirty-four week program consideration is given to the differing needs of degree holding and non-degree holding students. For the former there is greater emphasis on practical teaching and the integration and applications of educational theory, since they have

It should be recognized that not all educationalists in England agree that the PGCE advances the professional status of teachers.

already demonstrated their capacity for academic work; the non-graduate students, on the other hand, are expected to develop their academic skills via a comprehensive grounding in educational theory. Within the twenty-three weeks spent in college the student is immersed in a highly concentrated curriculum which covers general and specific methods, curriculum

development, learning theory, media and teaching aids, as well as the theoretical aspects of post-compulsory education. Garnett's philosophical rationale for the PGCE is that

In designing these courses the college has had in mind the desirability of providing a route to graduate status for all entrants to teaching in Further Education; this mainly because such professional education is clearly desirable for the development of this part of the teaching force but also because there is the need to continue to maintain the relative professional status of teachers in all parts of the teaching profession (Garnett College, 1980).

It should be recognized that not all educationalists in England agree that the PGCE advances the professional status of teachers. Indeed, there are those who believe that the professional recognition of teaching is directly dependent upon ties to the universities and having education courses conform more closely to the university model of scholarship. The institutionalization of the B.Ed. degree is apparently acceptable to the extent that it approaches that model. Conversely, the trends in professional development of teachers represented by the more practitioner-oriented certificate courses tend to diverge from that model. As Hoyle (1982) noted:

The PGCE course has perhaps generated less 'concern' for universities since its entrants have taken conventional undergraduate courses to be followed by a one-year training in which the emphasis is placed on the methods of teaching their subjects. It would therefore be likely that the current changes in professional development would not generally appeal to universities since the trends do not conform to prevailing expectations. If such be the case, and as professional status continues to depend in part on the university link, then the professionalization of teachers is thereby threatened.

We are now in a paradoxical period for American colleges of education; at a time when they face shrinking enrollments in the traditional degree programs for primary and secondary teachers, they are simultaneously being challenged to develop alternative modes of preparation for professionals in non-school instructional settings--primarily in human services areas such as health care, police and social work, and other public sector occupations. However, rather than merely re-vamping and re-designating existing teacher education formats, what is required is an entirely new conceptualization of the skills and knowledge needed for non-school instruction. This would be a major step, as Cremin (1976) and others have suggested,

toward moving colleges of education away from exclusively colleges of "schooling." It should be instructive, therefore, to examine in detail the content of the PGCE course to see how it has refined the essential elements of educational practice into a one-year sequence. Perhaps the English experience with intensive professional training for teaching specific populations can provide some useful perspective for designing our so-called "Alternative Teaching Degree."

One aspect of the Garnett curriculum which has apparently incorporated a significant innovation is the realm of teacher self-evaluation. The Vice Principal at Garnett, Dr. T. Keen, is a psychologist who has devised a system called Teaching Appraisal by Repetory Grid Elicitation Techniques (TARGET), which has been used at institutions in UK, Australia, India, and the United States (Keen, 1981). TARGET is based on principles of personal construct psychology, and the objective is to raise the perceptual awareness of teachers to their strengths and weaknesses, and this may enable them to become more effective on the job. Most

Toward that end the College of Education at Florida Atlantic University plans to initiate a dialogue with Garnett College throughout the 1982-83 academic year, with the possibility of instituting a formal study program in London during the summer of 1983.

recently TARGET principles have been incorporated into an interactive computer programme used at Garnett College. Individual lecturers are encouraged to sit in front of small microprocessors and interact with the programme, such that feedback can be given immediately in terms of strengths and weaknesses. This model would appear to be uniquely suited to the types of populations with which colleges of education will be dealing in the years ahead--individuals more attuned to professional self-evaluation rather than hierarchical assessment techniques. Therefore, TARGET is one English innovation with which American educators need to become more familiar in the future.

Toward that end the College of Education at Florida Atlantic University plans to initiate a dialogue with Garnett College throughout the 1982-83 academic year, with the possibility of instituting a formal study program in London during the summer of 1983. The initial thinking that a select group of American teacher educators who are committed to implementing a broader mission for colleges of education, might profit from a one or two-week simulation of the Garnett curriculum. This would certainly move well beyond the traditional tour-and-lecture exposure to English school practice which all too many U.S. educators experience. What is proposed is a genuine interchange of ideas among educators with similar concerns from both sides of the Atlantic, but with a crucial difference: the visiting group will have a data base acquired through actual participation, albeit

on a limited scale, in the training program of the host institution. Although the initial planning for this SIMULATION CONFERENCE is already under way, we invite input and possible participation by interested colleagues from throughout the nation.

References

Cremin, L. A. *Public education*. New York: Basic Books, 1976.

Garnett College. *Application to the Council for National Academic Awards for the Approval of a Full-time Course Leading to the Award of a Postgraduate Certificate in Education (Further Education)* London, 1980.

Hoyle, E. The professionalization of teachers: A Paradox. *British Journal of Educational Studies*, 1982,30, 161-171.

Inner London Educational Authority. *Garnett College*. London: ILEA, n.d.

Peterson, A. D. C. *The future of education*. London: Cressett Press, 1968.

Keen, T. R. Raising perceptual awareness of the FE teacher: A teaching appraisal technique. *The Vocational Aspects of Education*, 1981, 33, 79-85.

Taylor, P. H., & Lowe, R. English education. In Ignas, E., & Corsini, R. J. (Eds.) *Comparative educational systems*. Itasca, IL: F. E. Peacock, 1981.



Significant Research Studies in British Education:

A First Hand Impression

By James H. Moss

During the 1966-67 academic calendar year, I was chosen to participate in the Fulbright-Hays International Exchange Teacher Program to Great Britain along with eighty-seven other American public school teachers. The purpose of the exchange program was to achieve better understanding of educational practices of each country by exchange participants, and have first hand contact with the formal instruction of children in the host country. My exchange teaching location was in a primary school in Glasgow, Scotland.

The Plowden Report

During the course of the exchange year experience, a national committee was established in England to study primary education in England in all of its

aspects, and to make recommendations. The Central Advisory Council of Education's findings were later published as the "Plowden Report" (Central Advisory Council of Education, 1966). Similar investigations and eventual reports were conducted in Wales (Department of Education and Science, 1968) and Scotland (Scottish Education Department, 1965).

In Britain, the compulsory age for a child to enter school is age five. A primary course is provided for children between the ages of 5 and 11 (age 12 in Scotland), after which selective procedures are employed to determine what type of secondary school children are to attend. The two most popular patterns of school organizational procedures at the primary stage are for infants (ages 5 to 7+), and juniors (ages 7 to 11+) (Ignas, 1981). One of the significant recommendations of the Plowden Report concerned the importance of the early years of learning for children at the primary school level. The committee concluded after their investigations that a poverty in language existed in a majority of children who were identified as non or low achievers in the primary schools. The Report concluded that an effort should be undertaken to

James H. Moss is an Associate Professor of Reading Education at Northern Illinois University, DeKalb, Illinois. He has participated in various exchange teacher programs abroad, as well as conducted comparative education tours to Great Britain. Dr. Moss has frequently presented papers at professional conferences concerning contrasting features found in education in England and the United States.

focus attention on the educational needs of these children with nursery education as a means of positive intervention into the circumstances of social deprivation existing in the homes and pre-school experiential background of the deprived children.

One of the significant recommendations of the Plowden Report concerned the importance of the early years of learning for children at the primary school level.

Because of the impact of the Plowden Report's findings and subsequent recommendations an effort was undertaken in British schools during the late sixties and early seventies to give more attention to the primary school level children, and to the programmatic offerings and their subsequent effect to the achievement and performance levels of children during this particular stage of their educational development. As a result, this national movement by British education became apparent in American educational circles too, and an awareness of the early childhood educational needs can be readily seen in our public and private schools, as well as programmatic offerings at colleges and universities involved in teacher preparation programs.

The Bullock Report

Another significant investigation was undertaken in Great Britain during the period of 1973-1975 that has had as significant an impact upon British and American education as did the Plowden Report in 1966. Findings of the investigation were published in a document entitled **A Language for Life**, often referred to as the "Bullock Report" in February, 1975 (Committee of Inquiry, 1975). A decision was made to establish a Committee of Inquiry to be headed by Sir Alan Bullock, Vice Chancellor of the University of Oxford, and 21 other distinguished British educators to determine the most significant avenues of formally teaching reading, and the inter-relationship between other language skills within the context of teaching reading in the English language. The Committee was formally charged with the following assignments.

To consider in relation to schools:

- (a) all aspects of teaching the use of English, including reading, writing, and speech;
- (b) how present practices might be improved and the role that initial and in-service training might play;
- (c) to what extent arrangements for monitoring the general levels of attainment in these skills can be introduced or improved; and
- (d) to make recommendations.

The Report is based upon the principle that reading must be seen as part of a child's general language development and not as a specific skill acquisition

which can be considered in isolation. In essence, the Report alludes to the fact that British schools (American schools too, in my opinion) have dichotomized the act of teaching reading to the young school-age child and the instruction of English and language development to secondary school level children (Downing, 1973).

The Committee developed two questionnaires which were sent to randomly sampled teaching personnel throughout Great Britain, and then conducted a series of special visitations to 100 schools, 21 colleges of education, and 6 reading or language arts centers. In addition, the Committee studied first and second hand the teaching practices of Canadian and American Schools on a limited basis.

During the fall semester of the 1976-77 academic calendar year I visited Great Britain for the purpose of establishing contact and meeting with the membership of the Committee.

Of the Committee membership, 17 members were contacted and interviewed as a result of my efforts. These individuals are identified (see Appendix A). Of the four members who were not identified, three were out of the country while one member declined to be interviewed for personal reasons. In addition to the 17 members who were formally interviewed, I was able to meet in excess of 25 "resource persons" who were identified as significant contributors to the Bullock Report by the various 17 Bullock Committee members. These "resource persons," in many cases, gave testimony in person to the membership of the Bullock Committee

The Report is based upon the principle that reading must be seen as part of a child's general language development and not as a specific skill acquisition which can be considered in isolation.

during its two year investigation. As a result, many of the comments contributed by the resource persons were as significant as were the comments of the actual committee membership (see Appendix B).

In addition to the formal interviews conducted, I had numerous opportunities to visit in British Infant, Primary, and Secondary schools. These schools were generally identified by various interviewees as offering various curriculum plans which they felt would be of benefit for my interests, and would lend credence to the investigation.

In order to accomplish the task as outlined, it was necessary to travel in excess of 7000 miles. As a result, I had an opportunity to get an over-all impression of the general academic climate within British educational circles as the investigation took me throughout Britain with the exception of Northern Ireland which was not visited.

Findings

The Bullock Committee of Inquiry was set up by Mrs. Margaret Thatcher, then Secretary of State for

Education and Science in 1972 shortly after the publication of the report of the National Foundation for Educational Research which published a document entitled: **The Trends of Reading Standards** (Start, 1972). The NFER report carried the implication that, if anything, reading standards were on the decline and there was at least sufficient concern about what was happening to the teaching of reading particularly in primary schools. The Committee of Inquiry was asked to go beyond just reading development and to consider all language related skills used in the teaching of English--reading, writing, and speech. Secondly, the Committee was asked to advise on how present practice could be improved on and what role the initial and inservice training of teachers could play. Thirdly, they were directed to look at monitoring the levels of children's attainment.

The formally published Report comprised in excess of 600 pages and concludes with 333 recommendations which actually summarize the substance of the Report. These findings are condensed into 17 principle recom-

The Bullock Committee of Inquiry was set up by Mrs. Margaret Thatcher, then Secretary of State for Education and Science in 1972 shortly after the publication of the report of the National Foundation for Educational Research which published a document entitled: The Trends of Reading Standards (Start, 1972).

mendations. In order for the Committee to gain larger samples of information beyond those individuals who were invited to the Committee to give personal testimony, a survey questionnaire was established and sent to over 2000 schools. This survey proved to be the most comprehensive survey ever undertaken in Great Britain concerning the teaching of English and language related skills in primary and secondary schools. As a result, the compiled findings of the survey were of great influence to the formulation of the final published document. Based upon the visitations and interactions I had with the various individuals already identified, it would appear that the Bullock Committee came to a number of general conclusions which are generally described in the broad areas of: Standards, The Early Years, Reading, Language Development--Oral and Written, and Curriculum Organization.

Standards

The general feeling expressed by the vast majority of the members of the Bullock Committee was that standards of achievement in reading **had not** fallen as was suggested by the NFER Report published in 1972. The general feeling expressed was that the political controversy involving "back to basics versus permissive education movement" was a factor which was partly influential in the original NFER Report contention. However, the members did feel that present day reading achievement standards aren't as high as they should be.

The Committee, collectively speaking, pointed out that rather than thinking of reading achievement as an end in itself, the larger consideration should be given to the entire areas of language development. Their conclusion was that the development of language competence is a highly complex matter and as a result, the Committee ascribed to the philosophical principle that language has to be taught, and that teachers must deliberately intervene to insure that this principle is carried out. To insure that this intervention by the teacher be undertaken, the Committee set forth various recommendations for inservice training, as well as specifically qualified staff members in English being employed throughout the country by each Local Education Authority.

The general feeling expressed was that the political controversy involving "back to basics versus permissive education movement" was a factor which was partly influential in the original NFER Report contention.

The Committee did not suggest a national examination in language be undertaken, but rather the development of a new monitoring instrument which would be based upon reading and writing skills which would be employed randomly for children of 11 to 15 years of age for the purpose of collecting data to analyze whether or not effective results were being gained from the recommendations suggested.

The Early Years

The foremost consideration given by the Committee membership was the influence of the home upon the language development of a child prior to his formal educational training begins. The major impressions conveyed by the members whom I interviewed appear to fall into three general categories: (1) educating secondary level students about the language development of young children (who will be parents); (2) educating the lay public within each local education authority district about their role in the language development process which their infants encounter; and (3) recommendations to the nursery and infant schools regarding what they can do to encourage and actively facilitate their young children's language development through daily experiences within the classroom and the home experience which the child brings with him or her to school.

The main concern voiced by the Committee members involved the obvious lack of awareness by many parents and teachers of the positive influence which could result from adult-pupil (or child) dialogue.

Reading

The Committee membership, in general, rejected the view that one particular method or approach to the teaching of reading was most valuable. Rather, the Committee concluded that a child should first be pre-

sented with the necessary language developmental skills to enable him to be successful in reading skill attainment, regardless of the approach used by the school. The Committee concluded that far too much emphasis appeared to be placed on "oral isolated word recognition" in beginning reading programs and not enough emphasis on "purpose and meaning-comprehension" when involved in the act of reading instruction.

Language Development—Oral and Written

In addition to consideration being given to the pre-school and early schooling years, the vast majority of the Committee membership supported the position of a "planned language development program" being employed in the secondary years as well. The need for a systematic secondary language program would insure that continuous consideration be given to language development throughout a student's formal school career. The emphasis at the secondary level in written language development should encompass "creative expression" more than appears to be the case at present. To insure that this policy be followed, the Committee membership suggested that **all subject matter** teachers be actively involved in the development of a policy for language across the curriculum. In order to insure that this is done, the vast majority of the Committee's membership supported the implementation of inservice training by skilled personnel.

Curriculum Organization

One of the most significant suggestions brought forward by the Committee was that one teacher be identified to coordinate the English/Reading Programs for the lower grade levels and similarly resource person to whom they can turn in time of need, and who can in turn lend expertise to the staff. The Committee found in their investigation that one third of the secondary schools "English teachers" had no formal training in the subject. Hence, the Committee recommended that specific individuals who are formally trained in the english-language development discipline be identified in both the lower and upper schools as leaders to serve as resource persons to the staff as well as assist in staff development concerning the Reading/English instructional techniques.

Significant investigations such as these can only continue to foster mutual research and development into educational problems which will benefit both societies.

Conclusions

It is my opinion that the two investigations cited have had a significant effect on British and American education during the decade of the 1970's and will continue to do so into the future. Significant investi-

gations such as these can only continue to foster mutual research and development into educational problems which will benefit both societies.

References

- Central Advisory Council of Education (England), **Children and their schools** (The Plowden Report). London: HMSO, 1966.
- Committee of Inquiry (England), **A language for life** (the Bullock Report). London: HMSO, 1975.
- Department of Education and Science, **Primary education in Wales (The Gittens Reports)**. London: HMSO, 1968.
- Department of Education and Science, **The educational system of England and Wales**. London: HMSO, 1977.
- Downing, J. **Comparative reading**. London: Collier-Macmillan, 1973.
- Ignas, E. & Corsini, R. J. **Comparative educational systems**. Itasca: Peacock, 1981.
- Scottish Education Department. **Primary education in Scotland**. Edinburgh: HMSO, 1965.
- Start, K. B. & Wells, B. K. **The trend of reading standards**. National Foundation for Educational Research, 1972.

Appendix A

Membership of the Committee

- *Sir Alan Bullock, F.B.A.(Chairman), Master of St. Catherine's College and Vice-Chancellor, University of Oxford.
- *Sister Basil Burbridge, Headmistress, St. Margaret Mary Junior and Infant School, Carlisle.
- *Professor J. N. Britton, Goldsmith's Professor of Education in the University of London.
- *Mr. Alastair Burnet, Editor, The Economist.
- *Miss J. Derrick, Senior Lecturer, Language Teaching Centre, University of York.
- *Mr. J.J. Fairbairn, Head of Education Department, St. John's College, York.
- *Mr. H.K. Fowler, Chief Education Officer, Derbyshire.
- *Mr. Stuart Fromme, Headmaster, St. Jude's C. of E. Junior School, Englefield Green, Surrey.
- *Mr. David Gadsby, Managing Director, A. & C. Black Ltd., Publishers.
- *Mr. C. R. Gillings, Headmaster, Midhurst Intermediate School, West Sussex (resigned 1 September, 1973 on appointment to H.M. Inspectorate).
- *Mr. W.K. Gardner, Lecturer, School of Education, University of Nottingham.

*Mrs. D.M.R. Hutchcroft, O.B.E., Headmistress, Saltford Primary School, Bristol.

*Miss A.M. Johns, Headmistress, Henry Fawcett Infant School, London, SE 11.

*Mr. D. Mackay, Advisory/Warden, Centre for Language in Primary Education, Inner London Education Authority (resigned 1 November, 1972 on appointment to a post in the West Indies).

*Mr. Michael Marland, Headmaster, Woodberry Down Secondary School, London, N. 4.

*Professor J. E. Merritt, Professor of Educational Studies, Open University.

*Mr. A. J. Puckey, Primary Adviser, Mottinghamshire L.E.A.

*Mrs. V. Southgate Booth, Senior Lecturer in Curriculum Studies, School of Education, University of Manchester.

*Dame Muriel Stewart, D.B.E., Chairman, Schools, Council.

*Mr. R. Arnold, H.M.I., Secretary.

*Mrs. G. W. Dishart, Assistant Secretary.

Appointments shown are those held by members at the time the Committee was constituted.

* Asterisk signifies interview was conducted.

United Kingdom Reading Association
Dr. Margaret Clark, Past-President

Professor Basal Berstein, Head of the Sociological Research Unit, Institute of Education, University of London.

Dr. E.W.H. Briault, Education Officer, Inner London Education Authority.

Sir Alec Clegg, Chief Education Officer, West Riding of Yorkshire.

Professor C. B. Cox, Professor of English Literature, University of Manchester.

Miss G. E. Evans, Head of English Department, Crown Woods School, Eltham.

Dr. Elizabeth Goodacre, Senior Lecturer, Middlesex Polytechnic at Trent Park, and Consultant to the Centre for the Teaching of Reading, School of Education, University of Reading.

Dr. A. H. Halsey, Professorial Fellow and Head of the Department of Social and Administrative Studies, Nuffield College, University of Oxford

Dr. Joyce Morris, Author and Language Arts Consultant.

Dr. Margaret Peters, Tutor, Cambridge Institute of Education.

Dr. Mia Kellmer Pringle, Director of the National Children's Bureau.

Mr. M. J. Rankine, H.M.I., Scottish Education Department.

Mr. M. F. Riddle, Senior Lecturer in Linguistics, Department of Arts and Social Studies, Middlesex Polytechnic.

Mrs. Betty Root, Tutor-in-Charge, Centre for the Teaching of Reading, School of Education, University of Reading.

Professor John Sinclair, Professor of Modern English Language, University of Birmingham.

Dr. R. Sumner, Head of Guidance and Assessment Services, National Foundation for Educational Research.

Dr. Joan Tough, Lecturer, Institute of Education, University of Leeds.

Mr. J. Worsley, Research Associate, Department of English Language and Literature, University of Birmingham.

Mr. A. Yates, Director, National Foundation for Educational Research.

Appendix B

Resource People and Agencies

Association of Teachers in Colleges and Departments of Education.

Mr. R. W. Sefton-Davies, Chairman of Working Party on evidence to the Committee.

Fife LEA.

Miss C.M. Douglas, Organizer of Early Childhood.
Mrs. M. Forrest, Assistant Head, Lynburn Primary School, Fife.

Inner London Education Authority

Mr. Harvey Hinds, Chairman, Schools Sub-committee.
Miss N. Goddard, Staff Inspector for Infant Education.
Mr. J. Welsh, Staff Inspector for English.

Inner London Education Authority: Media Resources Service

Mr. L. Ryder

National Association for the Teaching of English

Mr. Anthony Adams, Secretary

National Council for Educational Standards

Dr. Rhodes Boyson, M.P.

National Foundation for Educational Research

Mr. A. Yates, Director
Dr. K. B. Start, Co-author "The trend of reading standards" (NFER, 1971).



Education in Great Britain Today:

A Personal Impression

By Robert Olberg

The following interview was conducted by the editors with Robert Olberg concerning his impressions of trends and issues in British Education as a result of personal observations.

Editors: Would you tell us about your interest in English education?

Olberg: My interests began probably about 20 years ago or so, when I took a course in comparative education and became very interested in European education models. But, the English education model particularly struck me because they were at a time of transition and changing from the traditional model to one more approaching that which we have in the United States.

After a great deal of reading, I realized that the free school movement in our country was patterned after the free school movement in England, particularly as evident by the Summerhill model, as espoused by A.S. Neill. The whole thing goes back several years but for me it was a developing thing.

Editors: Do you perceive education in England as still undergoing change?

Olberg: I suppose one could say, if it isn't undergoing a change it is dead. That's kind of an obvious answer. Anything that is vibrant and alive is undergoing a change. But to be more specific, yes indeed. They are constantly undergoing change as near as I can see and I've only been there five times. In those five times, beginning in 1976, I think I've seen some changes. But, the dramatic changes had really taken place prior to 1976. I see especially in the movement toward the comprehensive high school that that is a big change. The dramatic change, of course, came when they abolished the 11+ exam in favor of

the 'A' level and the 'O' level exams that they give at the end of the students formal education, usually around 16 years old.

My visits were for the most part restricted to the schools prior to the secondary schools. I would say the changes in the schools which I visited are more in terms of individualizing education. It seems to me, and this pertains to question 2 also, that they realize the need to individualize as we do, but they seem to be acting on the realization. In our country, the best we seem to be doing is grouping which sometimes creates new problems. They seem to group only for one specific purpose. When that purpose is accomplished, the group is abolished.

Editors: Looking at the entire picture in the last ten or fifteen years, what would you say are the most dramatic changes to come about?

Olberg: Obviously, the most dramatic change has been the abolition of the 11+ exam and the introduction of the comprehensive high school. That, I would say, is probably the most dramatic. But, again I've only been there since 1976 so I can only speak to that. Looking at the entire picture, the dramatic changes that I have seen have been in terms of the amount of individualization as opposed to the change toward individualization. I recognize that I have only seen selected schools, where people volunteered to open the school, so my observations are limited to just those selected schools. Nevertheless those schools, which I think are representative of the entire population (London inner city schools, rural schools in the north country right on the Scottish border, and also schools in the Lake District), I have seen that teachers to whom I had the privilege of talking, and in whose classes I was warmly welcomed were all committed to individualizing instruction. They do not seem to be worried about covering "last year's" material or wondering why the teacher last year did not cover the graded material as we do in our country. Nor do they worry about the fact that they may be covering material that "next year's" teacher considers her domain.

Robert Olberg is a Professor of Education in the Department of Learning, Development and Special Education at Northern Illinois University, DeKalb, Illinois. Dr. Olberg has conducted numerous comparative educational tours for educators, and has exhibited a keen interest in cross-cultural learning experiences.

They do a great deal of writing; and work on writing skills. Each student seems to have his own booklet in which he keeps his own records and his own stories, and his own math problems. The students grade their own work. The teacher's function then becomes one of helping the students to reach as far as they can reach, as opposed to finishing the material that is in the textbook this year and then not going any further. Essentially, what I am saying is they have put some teeth into the belief system that says each child is different and each child should be treated as an individual and educated to his maximum. I see in that an attitude in the teachers that perhaps we would do well to emulate. The attitude of which I speak is one of commitment to the task, love for the children, concern for them and working on the project at hand and getting these children to learn as much as they possibly can within the given time.

Editors: Would you comment upon demographic changes and their effects upon England today?

Olberg: The demographic changes in England are not dissimilar from those in our country in that it seems that the population is moving toward the urban centers and they are experiencing all the problems that come about as a result of those changes just as we are. Particularly, I saw this in the city of Newcastle, which is an industrial city basically. Schools were asked to absorb children of people who had immigrated to England mainly from countries like Pakistan and India. I remember one school in particular, which has as many as fifty other first languages spoken outside of the elementary school, most of which were obviously not known by the teachers. The teachers accepted this as a challenge. I saw teachers working with children and trying to bring their parents in --trying to incorporate them into the major culture. The teachers felt that the major culture of course would be different, in fact better, because these children were incorporated. They did not want to degradate the culture of the student nor the culture of the parents. Rather they drew from the rich resources that were within that culture. We saw holidays being celebrated that really were not English holidays but belonged back in the countries from which these kids had originated. We saw parents being involved in parent groups. Some of which would just come and bring their own knitting or crocheting or whatever was important to them in their culture. They would just sit in the school and do their handwork. On the other hand, if the parent was willing to get involved then the teachers would involve the parents in the education of their children, or they would have parent groups trying to educate the parents to some of the ways of the

British society, in addition to the ways in which they could cope within the British society--the financial and other resources which are available, etc.

Editors: How important is privately-supported education in England today?

Olberg: I did not see a lot of private supported education so it is probably a question I ought not answer. But a couple of exceptions. I saw Catholic schools that got some support from the government. I also saw many private schools that were unrelated to church such as free schools which were getting some support from the government. They apply for grants, as they call them, assuming they are doing a reasonable job as deemed by some expert, they will be supported to some extent but not entirely. So the parents are asked to chip in also.

Editors: Some Americans still regard English education as being elitist. To what extent is this true? Are perceptions changing in England and elsewhere?

Olberg: Again, I am not sure what they mean by English education as being elitist. The British are very concerned that their children get a basic education as we are in our country. They want their children to be able to read and write and be able to communicate. But, they also work on, as I mentioned before, the writing skill of children. They think it is ridiculous, for example, to give multiple choice tests because they want to know that the child, even at a very young age, if he is being tested, will be able to express his thoughts in sentence form. That is probably as important to them, as I saw at least, as getting the right answer. So they think such things as true/false and multiple choice tests are a poor way to test a child. I'm sure they are suffering from the old 11+ way of educating kids and that is where the elitist notion comes in. Certainly for the first twelve years, I did not see any elitist education. There are many private schools that educate children and promise the parents that the education they receive will be in line with what Cambridge or Oxford would expect. But those are only for the rich, and do not represent English education generally. We have that same thing in the United States. So, to what extent is this true? I don't know. All I can say is I did not see much of it. Are perceptions changing in England and elsewhere? "Perceptions of what?" I think not. People ought to be able to be educated to the point where they know something of reading and writing. I think the one thing that is different between the American system and the English system is they are very concerned with the arts. Particularly, subjects like Shakespeare or

other English writers.

Very early in the child's education he is introduced to important literature. I think we would do well to emulate that model because their high school students really know quite a bit of Shakespeare. They read good literature. I see that as one of the differences that is typical for their country which may not be typical for ours. Good literature is one of the "basics" of British education.

Editors: What forces in England seem to be operating to effect changes in education?

Olberg: I think they are trying to answer/deal with the problems of their society that seem to be emerging, much the same as we are. But perhaps their ways of dealing with these problems are different and more practical. Let me give an example. Unemployment is higher in their country than it is in ours. This is particularly true in the large cities as I mentioned in a previous question. Unemployment is definitely a greater problem than ours. The main problem it seems is that many of the unemployed are the young people. They have left school at the age of 16 or whatever their terminal year happens to be, and come out with no saleable skills. So the students are on the streets looking for jobs and there are not any jobs. Some of the young people can get more money in the dole line than by working. So they opt for the dole line.

The whole unemployment movement has changed education in that they are beginning to realize that some people may never work once they terminate their education. They are recognizing that some people will always be living on some public funds and they are concerned that the self-image of the person who is unable to work, for whatever the reason, not be destroyed as a result of unemployment. One school, for example, had a unit on free time and its effect on young people and techniques which one can use to live on the public relief roles (dole), and survive financially but also survive emotionally. In discussing this with one of the teachers, he said he was concerned that his students who would not be able to find any work, even though they wanted to, would not develop a self-image that would be so low because it really was not their fault. There just were no jobs. That is the way it was. They were going to have to decide how to live, how to raise a family on some kind of a dole fund. Yet, maybe to learn how to do something constructive with your life. Such things as not having to sit home all your life and just watch television, but to go and help in an old people's home or do some community service, that although you are not being paid, it will be a productive use of time.

It was this contention of this program that the students **really** did want to earn their keep; they wanted to do something that was profitable. But when there weren't any jobs. Because of the ethos of the country which held "the work ethic"-- what you did really determined who you were and how important you were--these students leave school saying "If I did not find a job I am not worth much. I won't be a very important person." This teacher was emphasizing the importance of the high school students as people. Whether or not they were gainfully employed really had nothing to do with how important they were. He was more concerned with their own self-concept than he was with whether or not they worked.

Editors: To what extent do English schools presently fulfill the needs of individuals and society?

Olberg: Again, I spent most of my time in the pre-secondary schools I think they are doing an excellent job. They have believed the research that says you must take the child where he is and take him as far as he can go. That is the research we have been reading and writing for fifty years probably in our country, perhaps more. They seem to have accepted that research, therefore their whole way of conducting a classroom is different. They do not have textbooks for example. For the most part their instruction is done with teacher-made materials designed to meet the needs of that specific class. So each year the teacher-made materials are different because each year the class is different. They do not worry about grading the work that the kids do; they correct it so that the kid can learn and not make the same mistake next time, but he's not graded on a letter scale. I think they are fulfilling the needs of the children and then secondarily of society very well. I commend them in that respect. Particularly when you consider that the materials that they have are not nearly what we have in our country. We have fallen back on textbooks. For the most part, I saw individualized instruction based on the needs of the children using teacher-made material. In my judgment they are doing a much better job in that respect than we are.

Editors: In your opinion, what significant trends do you see developing in English education in the 1980's?

Olberg: Certainly, the significant trend of educating for leisure time is going to catch on. We know that because leisure time is going to be with them certainly through this century and probably forever. They have come to realize that work may be something that will be regarded as a privilege in the future. Therefore, a few will work and sup-

port the many. Educating for leisure time seemed to be one of the trends which I have noticed. The whole notion of individualized instruction continues to gain momentum and the trend is there. Competition throughout the system is definitely played down. Competitive sports are not that widespread. They do not compete against each other in the schools. In the classroom, they do not worry about who got the best grade. I saw a lot of cooperation. Not only amongst the teachers themselves sharing teacher-made materials with

other teachers who might be able to use it but also among the children. This child understands the concept and goes over and helps that child that is having a little difficulty with it. It was done in a spirit of helpfulness and spirit of loving kindness that again, I think we would do well to emulate.



Learning About English Education Through Travel Study Programs

By Orville Jones

Northern Illinois University, through the cooperative efforts of academic departments and the International and Special Programs Office, provides several opportunities for undergraduates, graduates, teachers, administrators and other educational specialists, to learn firsthand about English education through its summer school travel study programs. The programs, of which there are several, are designed to achieve the following goals and objectives:

- 1) to help participants learn through visits to school, teachers' centres, colleges/universities and cultural/historical sites about current creative and innovative approaches to English education which may be applicable to American education;
- 2) to provide opportunities for American educators to interact with teachers, supervisors, administrators and other educational specialists in England so each can learn firsthand about the other's goals, roles and responsibilities.

Orville Jones is a Professor of Education at Northern Illinois University, DeKalb, Illinois. Dr. Jones is presently serving as Assistant Dean of the International and Special Programs at the university.

- 3) to help participants enhance their understanding of current issues, trends and problems in English education;
- 4) to provide opportunities for American educators to make informal comparative studies of American and English culture, politics, economics and standards of living;
- 5) to help participants learn firsthand about curriculum, instructional media and evaluative processes utilized in English schools; and
- 6) to enhance international understanding.

NIU has offered a varied of travel study programs in England in recent summers, and in the summer of 1983 Northern will make the following programs available:

- 1) **Art and Design in England and France:** June 10 to July 10. This program will be of particular interest to teachers whose primary concern is art education as the program will include visits to schools, art and design centres and cultural/historical sites.
- 2) **British and American Literature at Oxford:** July 3 to August 12. This is a six-week residential program in Oriel College designed to meet the needs of American secondary school teachers of British and American literature.

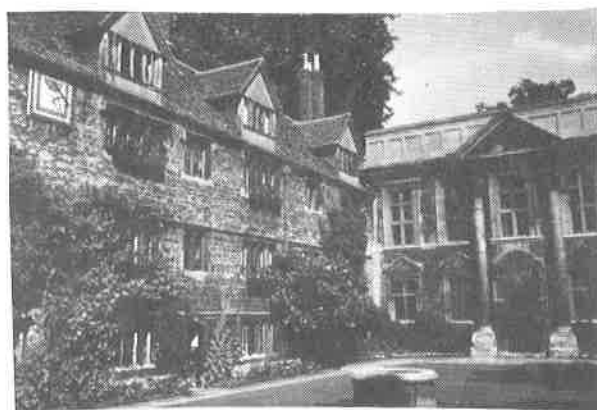
- 3) **British Studies at Oxford:** July 3 to August 5. A five-week residential program in Oriel College offering courses for American teachers of political science, economics and history.
- 4) **Children's Literature, Reading and Writing in Great Britain:** June 24 to July 16, a three-week program designed with the teacher "in mind." The program provides opportunities for participants to experience the various historical and cultural sites alluded to in children's literature, as well as provide opportunities for participants to visit schools, teacher's centres, publishers of children's books, villages, forests, rivers, etc.
- 5) **Education in Great Britain: Creative and Innovative Approaches:** June 18 to July 9. This is a three-week program in London, Newcastle-upon-Tyne, Edinburgh, Carlisle and Keswick in which participants will explore creative and innovative approaches to education in English elementary, middle and secondary schools which may be applicable to American education.
- 6) **Educational Administration in Great Britain:** June 24 to July 16. This program is designed to provide opportunities for American school administrators (superintendents, principals, supervisors and curriculum specialists) to learn firsthand about the roles and responsibilities of English administrators as well as participate in "sharing sessions" with counterparts.
- 7) **Hearing Impaired Education in England:** May 27 to July 2. A five-week residential program in cooperation with the Roehampton Institute in Wimbledon in which undergraduates, and graduates in hearing impaired education have four weeks of practical classroom experience with English hearing impaired individuals. This program is open to undergraduates, graduates and practicing professionals in the area of hearing impaired education.
- 8) **Mass Media in Britain:** June 18 to July 9. A three-week travel study program in London, York, Leeds and Edinburgh focusing on a comparative study of British and American new and information media and their relationship to public opinion, institutions and the culture. Visits to newspapers, television stations, advertising agencies and related organizations, as well as meetings with British and American communications professionals. This program is designed primarily for the American teacher of journalism.
- 9) **Outdoor Education Practicum in Great Britain:** April 18 to July 22. This program provides opportunities for Americans interested in outdoor, environmental and leisure education to participate in a three or six week practicum in selected residential outdoor education centres in Britain. Participants must have had at least two years of successful teaching experience, and must possess the bachelor's degree. The program is structured so that participants learn how outdoor and

environmental education programs and activities are directly related to the English school curriculum.

- 10) **Theatre and Music in Great Britain:** June 30 to July 22. A three-week program in London, Chichester, Stratford-upon-Avon, York, Edinburgh and Glasgow focusing on attendance at major musical, theatrical, operatic, ballet performances and festivals, designed specifically for American teachers of music and drama/theatre.

Persons desiring additional information about Northern's travel study programs are encouraged to contact Dr. Orville Jones at the following address or phone:

Dr. Orville Jones
 International and Special Programs
 Northern Illinois University
 DeKalb, IL 60115
 815/753-1488 or 1988



St. Edmund Hall.

Media Corner

By Peter C. West

This issue of **Thresholds** contains many interesting and informative articles on education in Great Britain. While it would seem a formidable task to undertake such a broad theme as this, the editors have done an exceptional job of providing the right mix of articles for exploring many of the issues confronting English education today.

John Coe, in an interview in **Phi Delta Kappan** (September, 1979), describes many of the strengths and weaknesses of the English educational system. Coe, Chief Primary Advisor, County of Oxfordshire, England, points to successes with programs for gifted and talented children, inservice activities for professional educators, and exciting changes and continued improvement for English education in the future. The articles assembled for this issue of **Thresholds** describe in more detail many of the points Coe raises. Additionally, topics such as compulsory education, minorities in the British system, and other concerns affecting British education are covered in this issue.

To further enhance study of these topics, and English education in general, many excellent media resources and materials are available. The following is but a partial listing of these excellent materials.

16mm Films

Learning how to learn: A British junior classroom
(Institute for Development of Educational Activities)

Presents views of an open classroom situation in Oxfordshire to illustrate the informal aspect of a British middle school.
25 minutes. color.

The university is open (BBC)

The Open University in Buckinghamshire, England, filmed during its first year. Interviews with students scattered over the British Isles who make use of televised lectures, radio programs, science home study kits, correspondence texts, community study centers. Production of television and radio programs by university academics and BBC production staff.
28 minutes. color.

Peter C. West is Assistant Director of the Learning Center in the College of Education at Northern Illinois University, DeKalb, Illinois.

VideoTapes

Dartington School Hall (Great Plains Television)

Focuses on the intensely relevant question of socialization and social order by examining the Dartington Hall Progressive school and trying to identify the regulations of behavior at a "free" school.
25 minutes.

Dragon School (Great Plains Television)

Illustrates different teaching approaches and the attitude explicit and implicit to social control.
25 minutes.

Helping (Great Plains Television)

Shows a variety of instructional methods used in a mixed ability group at a large comprehensive boy's school in north London.
25 minutes.

Slide/Tapes

Adult Education (Sweet & Maxwell)

This program takes four people from different backgrounds and looks at the ways in which their different needs are met by an Adult Literacy Centre, the Training Opportunities Scheme, the Open University and an Adult Education Institute.
12 minutes.

Agricultural Education (Sweet & Maxwell)

A presentation of the range of agricultural training available in Britain, from craft level through to degree and postgraduate courses, including short courses, specialized training and research opportunities.
11 minutes.

Addresses

British Broadcasting Co.-TV (BBC)
630 Fifth Ave.
New York, NY 10020

Great Plains National Television
Box 80669
Lincoln, NE 68501

Institute for Development of Educational
Activities
PO Box 446
Melbourne, FL 32901

Sweet & Maxwell (Spon)
Booksellers Ltd.
North Way Andover
Hants SP 10 5BE
England



Update

NORTHERN ILLINOIS UNIVERSITY - COLLEGE OF EDUCATION

Accreditation Review

National accreditation of college and university programs for the preparation of all teachers and other professional school personnel at the elementary and secondary levels is the responsibility of the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE). NCATE has been authorized by the Council on Postsecondary Accreditation (COPA) to adopt standards and procedures for accreditation and to determine the accreditation status of institutional programs for preparing teachers and other professional school personnel. NCATE is also recognized by the US Secretary of Education.

In spring of 1982, Northern Illinois University's professional preparation programs were reviewed by NCATE. On September 10, 1982 President William R. Monat was notified that NCATE had granted accreditation to all professional education programs submitted for review until September 1, 1989. The following were granted reaccreditation: bachelor's, master's, specialist, and doctoral programs in elementary and secondary education; bachelor's, master's, specialist, and doctoral programs for the preparation of K-12 teachers of art, music, and physical education; bachelor's and master's in special education; master's and doctoral programs in educational communications and informational technologies; master's in reading; master's, specialist, and doctoral programs for the preparation of school principals, supervisors, curriculum specialists, and counselors; specialist and doctoral programs for the preparation of school superintendents. The following programs were granted initial accreditation: doctorate in special education and reading. The latter two are programs developed by the College of Education after the 1972 NCATE visit.

Admission to Teacher Education Programs Leading to a Teaching Certificate

All students who plan to file an Application for Admission to a Teacher Education Program are required to demonstrate satisfactory performance on a series of tests including such items as grammar, punctuation, spelling, vocabulary, and comprehension prior to admission to teacher education.

College of Education Yesterday and Today

Northern Illinois University began as Northern Illinois State Normal School in 1895. It has a tradition of preparing educators. During its first fifty-five years, its primary mission was preparing teachers for elementary and secondary schools.

In the 1950's through the 1970's, it became a comprehensive college of education. The College today continues to prepare teachers at the baccalaureate level, but also prepares other professional educators through the M.S.Ed., C.A.S., and Ed.D. Currently, the M.S.Ed. has fifteen major areas of study, the C.A.S. seven, and the Ed.D. ten.

Information -- Can we at Northern Illinois University provide information to you about:

Degree Programs (area:)
Professional Development (area:)
Workshop (area/topic:)
Update Teaching Field (major:)
Other I would like to confer with an
academic counselor about:

Name last first middle
Mailing Address
City Zip

Return the above form to the College of Education
Dean's Office, 321 Graham Hall, Northern Illinois
University, DeKalb, Illinois 60115

Messages & Markets

Select Scotch Pine Christmas Trees
for your school rooms
\$1.70 per foot when ordering 10 or
more trees
Sizes 4-8'
Guaranteed freshness and beauty

Forest Farms
Box 82
DeKalb, IL 60115



**THRESHOLDS IN EDUCATION
P.O. BOX 771
DEKALB, ILLINOIS 60115**

**NON PROFIT ORGANIZATION
U.S. POSTAGE PAID
PERMIT 265
DEKALB, ILLINOIS 60115**