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**State Intervention in British
Education (1833-1988)**

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I dedicate this work to

*the memory of my beloved father, who during his life span, never
missed the opportunity to support me,*

*My mother, who was anxious about my future and never ceased to
give her blessing,*

*My wife, who constantly cares for my well-being and encourages and
supports me,.*

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Before the nineteenth century, education in Britain relied mainly on charitable organizations and religious institutions under Church control through different types of schools. These schools provided basic elementary education for poor children, which proved inefficient and insufficient. The economic and social upheavals caused by the Industrial Revolution, stimulated people's attitude towards literacy, and thus gradually led the State to assume its part of responsibility in the education of the masses. Therefore, education had become a common concern for both the Church and the State. This work attempts to highlight the shift of education in Britain from a purely voluntary, private and religious character to a fully controlled State system. That is, the transition of education control from the Church to the State (1833-1988). It is about the political, social and economic factors that led to such intervention demonstrating the role of the State in shaping a reliable national system of education.

Key words: State – Church – intervention – education – Britain – Education Act

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List of Acronyms

CACE	Central Advisory Council for Education
CATE	Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education
CCTA	City Colleges for the Technology of the Arts
CPS	Centre for Policy Studies
CSE	Certificate of Secondary Education
CTC	City Technology College
DES	Department of Education and Science
ERA	Education Reform Act
GCSE	General Certificate of Secondary Education
GLC	Greater London Council
HMI	Her/His Majesty's Inspectorate
HMSO	Her/His Majesty's Stationery Office
IEA	Institute of Economic Affairs
ILEA	Inner London Education Authority
LMS	Local Management of Schools
MCC	Metropolitan County Councils
MP	Member of Parliament
MSC	Manpower Services Commission
NCC	National Curriculum Council
NCES	National Council for Educational Standards
PCFC	Polytechnics and Colleges Funding Council
R's	Writing, Reading, Arithmetic
SACRE	Standing Advisory Council on Religious Education
SAT	Standard Assessment Test
SEAC	School Examinations and Assessment Council
SMS	Secondary Modern School
SPCK	Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge
SPG	Society for the Propagation of the Gospel
SPGFP	Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts
STS	Secondary Technical School
TVEI	Technical and Vocational Education Initiative
UFC	Universities Funding Council

GENERAL

INTRODUCTION

‘Education’, ‘State’ and ‘intervention’ are among the key words that constitute the title of the present work. It is, therefore, convenient to define such terms within the framework of this thesis.

Education, including its various conceptions and contexts, has constantly been an important source in the evolution of societies. No matter how variable the concept of education is, it is commonly perceived as a process by which people acquire and transmit knowledge, skills, habits, values or attitudes. Such process may take place either formally within a framed context of organised instruction given in schools, or informally having less structured status.

Education is one of the major concerns of the humanity. Philosophers have considered it as an indispensable element for the perfecting of states and the improving of lives. Civilized nations have taken its claims so seriously that giving instruction and attending upon it, is the occupation in which the largest numbers of their people are engaged. What was formerly the privilege of the few is now compulsory for all.

The Church, the State, and the Family, are educational agencies, each in its way as important and as influential as the school; and, in every effective plan for National Education, these separate agencies must be combined in harmonious co-operation, lest what is accomplished by one agency should be counteracted or subverted by another.

Formal education, the context dealt with in this research work, occurs in a structured environment whose explicit purpose is teaching pupils. Formal education usually takes place in a school environment with classrooms of multiple pupils learning together with a trained, certified teacher of the subject. Most nations' school systems are designed around a set of values or ideals that govern all educational choices in that system. Such choices include components as curriculum, physical classroom design, student-teacher interactions, methods of assessment, class size, and educational activities.

The term 'State', however, may refer to a political association with effective power over a geographic area. It usually includes the set of institutions that claim the authority to make the rules that govern the people of the society in that territory, having internal and external sovereignty over it.

The State operates by some form of coercion, to the welfare state, in which the government is held to be responsible for the survival of its members, guaranteeing subsistence to those lacking it. The welfare state usually includes public provision of basic education, health services, and housing. In these respects, the welfare state is considerably more extensive in some European countries, England for instance, featuring in many cases comprehensive health coverage and provision of state-subsidized education.

Intervention is a set of regulatory actions taken by a government in order to affect or interfere with decisions made by individuals, groups, or organizations regarding social and economic matters. Most states intervene substantially in education, in terms of public support for education institutions, by means of extensive regulation of the educational system. It is a long-term investment in human resource for the benefit of nations.

Therefore, State intervention in British education stands for the efforts of the various appointed commissions of inquiry and the legislative measures that followed them in order to improve, qualitatively and quantitatively, educational provision in accordance with the requirements of the social, economic and political changes.

The justification that can be provided as regards the choice of the period extending from 1833 to 1988 is that in the former the first initiative, in a form of financial assistance, was taken by the State towards educational provision, though supposed to have effectively begun in 1870. In the latter, important legislative measures and regulations, bearing a sense of unity and national identity, were passed in favour of the education system reform.

The financial support of educational provision in England prior 1833 relied mostly on the Church and voluntary effort until the approval of a grant, which came out of fierce parliamentary debates. The sum of £20, 000, which proved unsatisfactory, was

granted to the two voluntary bodies: the National Society for Promoting the Education of the Poor and the British and Foreign School Society .It was an intervention to protect children. In the same way did subsequent legislation related to the factories.

As far as the educational content is concerned, the ‘curriculum’ taught in those schools was restricted to rudimentary education of an ecclesiastical character. However, the emergence of the Industrial Revolution, with its social and economic changes, increasing demands for education were claimed as the education provided proved to be inefficient and obsolete. On accounts of the report of the Royal Commission on popular education in 1861 and the industrialists’ outlooks that mass education was essential to the nation’s ability to preserve its lead in manufacture captured Parliament’s interest, the passing of the 1870 Act, the first and most important piece of legislation in the nineteenth century, was an instance of effective intervention. The State confirmed a commitment to provision on a national scale by adopting the dual system. State schools had to be nondenominational, which was a breach from the old settlements. The provisions of the Act, judged insufficient, were amended by other legislative measures such as making education compulsory.

The opening of the twentieth century witnessed the enactment of another important Education Act in 1902, drafted by Balfour, which reorganised the administration of education at local level. It abolished the school boards in England and Wales and made significant provision for secondary and technical education.

Councils were encouraged to subsidise existing grammar schools and to provide free places for working-class children.

The Fisher Act of 1918 aimed to meet the growing demand for improvements in the availability of education and standards. It extended educational provision, increased the powers and duties of the Board of Education, raised the school leaving age from 12 to 14, and gave all young workers the right of access to day release education.

The Education Act 1944, initiated by Butler, changed the educational system for secondary schools in England and Wales. It introduced the Tripartite System of secondary education and made all schooling, particularly secondary education, free for all pupils. It raised the school leaving age to 15 but kept age 11 as the decision point for sending children to higher levels. Schools were required to begin the day with a non-denominational religious activity

The Education Reform Act of 1988 was passed by the New Right government led by Margaret Thatcher. The main purpose of the Act was to centralise educational provision in Britain and bring about a standardisation of educational provision and equality of educational opportunities. It introduced the National Curriculum, which all state-funded schools had to follow, and which laid down mandatory subjects that must be studied in the core areas of literacy, numeracy and science. It also introduced some other administrative and organisational measures.

Despite the available literature on the topic, the present work is far from being exhaustive. It, thus, attempts to highlight State intervention in British education from the first quarter of the nineteenth century (1833) to the last quarter of the twentieth (1988). Within the delimitations and scope of the topic, it is mainly concerned with elementary/primary and secondary education. It raises a number of questions among which this thesis attempts to account for the shift of education in Britain from a purely voluntary, private and religious character to a fully controlled State system. It attempts to find out the relation between the Church and the State in an educational context and control, to determine the political, social and economic factors leading to such intervention and to demonstrate the role of the State in shaping a national system of education.

The present thesis consists of four parts. The first chapter is divided into two main sections. The first section discusses the impact of the Industrial Revolution on education as a whole. It examines the influence of some eighteenth century intellectuals on the importance of education for the masses as well as their support of education as a State concern rather than the Church. It is also important to make reference to the role of philanthropy to provide education through the different school types, which would cope with the prevailing socio-economic conditions. The second section attempts to examine the education issue at the level of Parliament through the successive Bill proposals, which would drag the State towards intervention, i.e. all of the Factory Act, the Poor Law Bill,

the recommendations of the Select Committee, the Parish Schools Bill and the Roebucks scheme called for the need for legislative action by the State.

The second chapter deals with the relation between the State and education from supervision (1833-1870) to intervention (1870-1902). Such relation is debated within two sections. The first section attempts to discuss the State's gradual involvement in education from 1833 to 1870, considering that the 1833 parliamentary grant had been the first 'hesitant' step towards intervention. It examines the work of the Royal Commission on the state of popular education and its recommendations, the Revised Code, the Clarendon and the Taunton Reports. The second section investigates the intervention of the State from 1870 to 1902. Such period is known for a genuine intervention of the State where a dual system is maintained. It includes the analysis of the legislative progress with reference to a succession of Acts: the Sandon's, the Mundella's, the 1891 Free Education and the 1899 Settlement of the Board of Education.

The third chapter is devoted to the making of a national system of education between 1902 and 1944. It consists of two sections. The first section discusses the reorganisation mainly that of secondary education, from Balfour's Act to Fisher's (1902-1918) to examine the government's actions in reshaping a national education State system. It shall, therefore, consider the Education Act of 1902, Secondary Schools Regulations and the new secondary schools, the changes brought by the Fisher Act as well as the context of the

Great War (1814-1918). The second section is devoted to the development of a national education system from Fisher to Butler (1918-1944). It examines a variety of reports: The Hadow's, The Spens's, The Norwood's, The McNair's and The Fleming's. The impact of the Second World War is also considered.

The fourth chapter discusses the State's educational policies undertaken in primary and secondary education from 1944 to 1988. Its aim is to examine the feedback of the State in relation to the increasing demand for educational provisions within the social, political and economic changes. It is divided into three sections. The first section deals with the post-war educational reforms and the attempt to implement the tripartite system. The second section deals with the policies put forward to opt for a comprehensive education. The last section is devoted to the centralisation and standardisation of Education in terms of curriculum, teachers and administration.

CHAPTER ONE

EDUCATION PRIOR TO 1833

Introduction

I. The Impact of the Industrial Revolution on Education

I.1. The Intellectual Influences towards Popular Education

I.2. The Philanthropic Efforts

I.2.1. Charity Schools

I.2.2. Sunday Schools

I.2.3. Ragged Schools

I.2.4. Infant Schools

I.2.5. The Mutual Instruction system

II. The Education Question in British Parliament (1802 – 1833)

II.1. The Factory Act, 1802

II.2. The Poor Law Reform Bill, 1807

II.3. The Select Committee on Education, 1816

II.4. The Parish Schools Bill, 1820

II.5. The Roebuck's Bill, 1833

Conclusion

CHAPTER ONE

EDUCATION PRIOR TO 1833

Introduction

In order to understand State intervention in British education, as opposed to Church control that began in the nineteenth century, it is relevant to go through earlier developments in the history of education in Britain dating from the previous century.

This chapter is divided into two main sections. It provides a general overview of popular education in England from the early years of the eighteenth century up to the first parliamentary grant, which was to be approved in 1833. The first section discusses the impact of the Industrial Revolution in education as a whole. It examines the influence of some eighteenth century intellectuals such as Adam Smith, Thomas Robert Malthus and Thomas Paine on the importance of education for the masses as well as their suggestions that education should be a State concern rather than that of Church. It is also important to mention the role of

philanthropy to provide education for the poor through the different school types including the Charity, the Sunday, the Ragged, the Infant and the Monitorial Schools, which would cope with the prevailing socio-economic conditions brought about by the Industrial Revolution. The second section will attempt to examine the education issue at parliamentary level, which was in fact a matter of control between the Church and the State through different Bill proposals, which would drag the State towards intervention. In other words, besides the 1802 Factory Act, all of the 1807 Poor Law Bill, the 1816 recommendations of the Select Committee, the 1820 Parish Schools Bill and the Roebucks scheme of 1833 called for the need for legislative action by the State.

Preceding State intervention, education in Britain relied on private enterprise and voluntary efforts, which the Church pioneered for centuries under a multiplicity of school types. These schools had the task to ensure basic elementary education for children. People's attitude towards literacy was stimulated by some eighteenth century theories coupled with some other economic and social upheavals caused by the Industrial Revolution. Such factors paved the way to the various reforms taking place during the century to come leading the Government to recognize its part of responsibility in the education of the masses. Nevertheless, the type of education provided resulted in some deficiencies and inadequacies that required Government assistance and, therefore, education had become a common concern for both the Church and the State.

I. The Impact of the Industrial Revolution on Education

Although England was still mostly rural, social relationships and assumptions about the organisation of society were no longer what they used to be.¹ From the late eighteenth century, social change was continuous and noticeable. A growing population, agricultural change, the growth of towns and the diffusion of ideas had given rise to deeper uncertainties and a sense of instability in the social structure.²

The population had risen increasingly in the second half of the eighteenth century. From the 1780s, towns began to grow most rapidly and intensely round the factories of Lancashire, London, Manchester and Liverpool. It was the concentration of population that brought about the main and unprecedented educational problem. Cotton mills, iron foundries and railways brought about new forms of industrial discipline disrupting old patterns of life. Consequently, child labour and crime became major social phenomena.

From the 1780s, thinking about popular education was conditioned by both the evolution of new social principles and responses to the problems of social change. In this situation, new educational ideas and efforts to establish schools emerged from a

¹ John Lawson, Harold Silver, *A Social History of Education in England*, Methuen & Co Ltd, 1973, p. 226.

² *Ibid.*,

variety of sources: the political radicalism of the 1780s, traditions of philanthropy, Bentham's utilitarianism, the *laissez-faire* policy, the Evangelical movement in the Church of England and educational radicalism.³

I.1. The Intellectual Influences towards Popular Education

During the last quarter of the eighteenth century, French Revolutionary thought⁴ started to exercise some impact on public opinion in England. The small upper ruling class, alarmed at the developments in France, opposed any general popular education aside from a little reading, writing, counting, and careful religious training.

There emerged few but influential thinkers who favoured the maintenance of a system of general and compulsory education by the State, and the separation of the school from the Church. The

³ Ibid., p. 228.

⁴ It ushered in modernity by destroying the foundations of the "Old Regime" - absolutist politics, legal inequality, a "feudal" economy (characterized by guilds, manorialism, and even serfdom), an alliance of church and state, and created a vision for a new moral universe: that sovereignty resides in nations; that a constitution and the rule of law govern politics; that people are equal and enjoy inalienable rights; and that church and state should be separate. Thomson Gale, "*French Revolution.*" International Encyclopaedia of the Social Sciences. 2008. *Encyclopedia.com*.

most notable supporters of this new theory were Adam Smith,⁵ and T.R. Malthus ⁶ who approached the question from an economic point of view and Thomas Paine who approached it from a political one.

Adam Smith's *Wealth of Nations* dealt with the question of education. He maintained that it was a matter of State concern for the inferior ranks of the people to be instructed to make them socially useful and to render them "less apt to be misled into any wanton or unnecessary opposition to measures of government." ⁷According to Britta Redwood in "*The Wealth of Nations Book V Summary and Analysis*", Adam Smith considered various means in which educational institutions could be designed in a way in which they would meet costs. They might, for example, impose tuition fees upon their pupils. He also made the point that

⁵ Adam Smith (1783-1790), Scottish social philosopher and political economist. Known for a single work, *An Inquiry into the nature and causes of the Wealth of Nations* (1776), the first comprehensive system of political economy, Smith is more properly regarded as a social philosopher whose economic writings constitute only the capstone to an overarching view of political and social evolution. *Encyclopædia Britannica 2012 Ultimate Reference Suite*, Entry: Adam Smith

⁶ Thomas Robert Malthus (1766-1834). English economist and demographer who is best known for his theory of population growth. In 1805, he became a professor of history and political economy at the East India Company's college at Haileybury. In 1819 he was elected a fellow of the Royal Society and in 1821 he joined the Political Economy Club. In 1833 he was elected to the French Académie des Sciences Morales et Politiques and to the Royal Academy of Berlin. Malthus was one of the cofounders, in 1834, of the Statistical Society of London. *Encyclopædia Britannica 2012 Ultimate Reference Suite*, Entry: T.R. Malthus

⁷ Adam Smith, *An Inquiry into the Nature and Causes of the Wealth of Nations*, Books I, II, III, IV and V, Metalibri, 2007, p. 607

competition, if introduced into the academic structure, might serve as a driver of excellence. Smith argued that pupils should be allowed to select their teachers in this case, and that the latter would be interested to increase the quality of their teaching in order to attract more pupils,⁸ though he explained that the schools could be privately funded. Smith advised that education should be made free and compulsory, mainly for the poor people to be trained labourers. In order to ensure that they would be able to attend school, their education should be subsidized by the State.

Since the majority of educational institutions were of ecclesiastical character, Smith claimed that toleration of extreme or dissident sects was politically dangerous. One method of decreasing the appeal of such sects was through education, chiefly through the study of science or philosophy.⁹ In a word, education and culture might help the State to discourage the expansion of extreme ideas and sectarianism.¹⁰

⁸ Britta Redwood, "The Wealth of Nations Book V Summary and Analysis", Gradesaver September 2011, <http://www.gradesaver.com/the-wealth-of-nations/study-guide/summary-book-v>

⁹ Adam Smith, op. cit., p. 614

¹⁰ The advocacy of separatist policies by, or on behalf of, a group which has broken away from an established religion due to differences over doctrine or religious practices, while being neither sufficiently organized, nor sufficiently distinct in terms of belief, to found a new religion. The word is sometimes used more loosely, to denote any kind of separatist movement, where the group possesses a national, linguistic, even political, rather than religious, identity. The term comes from Latin *sequi*, to follow, and denotes the followers of a religious practice. Roger Scruton, *The Palgrave Macmillan Dictionary of Political Thought*, 3rd edition, Palgrave Macmillan, New York, 2007, p. 622.

Thomas Paine ¹¹, was one of the writers who favoured the maintenance of a system of general and compulsory education by the State, and the separation of the school from the Church. In 1791, Thomas Paine published *Rights of Man* in which he considered education as an essential right for citizenship and a requirement for good governance as it was a means to achieve social reform. He, thus, advocated compulsory education for all. He stated:

“A nation under a well-regulated government should permit none to remain uninstructed. It is monarchical and aristocratical government only that requires ignorance for its support.” ¹²

He suggested a taxation on the wealthy to finance the education of the poor. According to G. West¹³, Paine offered a series of fiscal

¹¹ Paine, Thomas (1737-1809), was a famous pamphleteer, agitator, and writer on politics and religion. His writings greatly influenced the political thinking of the leaders of the Revolutionary War in America (1775-1783), and he became a famous figure during the French Revolution. While in England in 1791 and 1792, he published his famous *Rights of Man*, replying to Edmund Burke's attack on the French Revolution. Paine spoke out effectively in favour of republicanism as against monarchy and went on to outline a plan for popular education, relief of the poor, pensions for aged people, and public works for the unemployed, all to be financed by the levying of a progressive income tax. Paine was tried in absentia, found guilty of seditious libel, and declared an outlaw, and *Rights of Man* was ordered permanently suppressed. *Britannica 2012 Ultimate Reference Suite*, Entry: Thomas Paine

¹² Thomas Paine, *Rights of Man: Being an Answer to Mr. Burke's Attack on the French Revolution, Combining Principle and Practice*, Part the Second, Sixth Edition, J.S. Jordan, London, 1792, p. 131

¹³ Edwin George West (1922-2001) was a British economist and historian who applied public choice theory to state education and researched the rise of the state education system in England. He was the author of many books among which *Education and the State: A Study in Political Economy* (1965), *Education and the Industrial Revolution*, 1975. <http://www.libertarianism.org/people/edwin-g-west>. Accessed 15/08/2014

innovations to meet the need for increased popular education. He suggested a kind of welfare state based on a national system of poor relief, state financed education, and old age pensions.

He argued for a necessity of educational expenditure and decision making in order to prevent the teacher's rewards from being made independent of his efforts. To this end, Paine required some part of education expenses to be paid in the form of fees such as public subsidies, which he proposed to be confined mainly to the construction and maintenance of school buildings.¹⁴ He proposed a state grant of £4 a year for every child under fourteen for their education, and the state would compel parents to send all children to school to learn reading, writing, and arithmetic.¹⁵

In 1798, Reverend T. R. Malthus's *An Essay on the Principle of Population* pointed out that the population outpaced the means of survival, which encompassed much misery, vice and pauperism. Malthus believed that universal education was so important that it could not be left to voluntary organisations or local initiatives; it should be the duty of the State to accept responsibility for educating all its citizens. In this respect, T. R. Malthus pointed out:

“We have lavished immense sums on the poor, which we have every reason to think have constantly tended to aggravate their misery,... It is surely a great national disgrace that the education of the lowest classes in England should be left to a few Sunday Schools, supported

¹⁴ Edwin G. West, *Tom Paine's Voucher Scheme for Public Education*, Southern Economic Journal, January 1967, p. 8

¹⁵ Thomas Paine, op. cit., p. 126

by a subscription from individuals, who can give to the course of instruction in them any kind of bias, which they may please.”¹⁶

For a long time the poorer classes had been left without any opportunity of receiving the most basic education. Education would clearly bring about two great improvements in society: it would root out pauperism by teaching the poorer classes to exercise moral control, thereby decreasing the size of their families, but it would also be an important means of social control. As Malthus pointed out, if the labouring classes could only be educated they:

“Would be on all occasions less disposed to insubordination and turbulence..., ... would become more peaceable and orderly, less influenced by inflammatory and seditious publications.”¹⁷

Education would help promote peace and quietness it would also assist all the favourable consequences to be expected from civil and political liberty thereby “gradually improving... governments without the apprehension of those revolutionary excesses”.¹⁸

In the years after the French Revolution of 1789, there were great fears of a similar uprising in Britain, so Malthus put forward a powerful argument in favour of education when he stated these claims. If providing education for all could ensure stability in society, then it would certainly be a valuable investment. This was not, however, the only benefit for society as a whole which Malthus

¹⁶ Thomas Robert Malthus, *An Essay on the Principle of Population: or, a View of its Past and Present Effects on Human Happiness*, Johnson, London, 1803, p. 554

¹⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 602

¹⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 603

envisaged. He strongly believed that “education appears to have a considerable effect in the prevention of crimes and the promotion of industry, morality and regular conduct.”¹⁹

Nevertheless, authors as Priestley and Godwin expressed their objection to the question of universal elementary education and State responsibility for its provision. On the opposite, each of the three books cited above had an increasing influence on public opinion to urge action and support of the idea of popular education as a public charge and a State concern. These influences began to come to surface early in the nineteenth century.

I.2. The Philanthropic Efforts

The period during and after the Napoleonic wars (1792-1815)²⁰ was one of noticeable social and political unrest, and of corresponding accent on social and philanthropic facility. The masses were dissatisfied with their lot, and were beginning to be aware of their lack of political privileges. Several plans to quiet the unrest and improve conditions were suggested, such as

1. to increase employment (Industrial Schools and Evening Schools),

¹⁹ Ibid., p. 601

²⁰ The Napoleonic Wars (1792-1815) were massive in their geographic scope, ranging, as far as Britain was concerned, over all of the five continents. They were massive, too, in terms of expense and most of all in manpower. *Encyclopædia Britannica 2012 Ultimate Reference Suite*, Entry: Napoleonic Wars

2. to encourage thrift (savings banks), and
3. to expand an elementary and religious education (Mutual Schools and Infant Schools) that would train the poor to help themselves were the most noticeable.

“The Society for Bettering the Condition and Increasing the Comforts of the Poor” founded in 1796, was to become four years later, a very essential early nineteenth century institution. Branches were established all over England. Soup kitchens, savings banks, clothing stations, and schools were among the chief lines of activity. It spread and enhanced Sunday Schools, encouraged the creation of Charity Schools and schools of industry, and later gave much assistance in establishing the new Monitorial schools. Educational interest steadily strengthened during the nineteenth century, though remaining mostly religious in character.

The eighteenth century notion of education as a charity, intended to train the poor to be honest, upright, grateful, yet industrious poverty still prevailed. There was, however, little thought of education as intended to train the poor to think for and help themselves. The eighteenth century conception of the educational process, which considered education as something external and determined by adult standards and needs, and to be imposed on the child, also remained. The objective of the school was to ‘produce’ the standard man, and the task of the teacher was to organise instruction, which could make knowledge less costly.

The opening of the 1700s witnessed the beginnings of a benevolent and philanthropic movement on the part of the churches and the upper classes to extend knowledge to the poorer classes of the population. Workhouse Schools and schools of Industry also provided education for orphans and the children of paupers.

There had been some important factors that contributed to the literacy of the masses. The rise of the popular novel and newspaper, the printing of political news, cheap scientific pamphlets and the growing trend to debate questions and to apply reason to their solution tended to provide emphasis in England to these charitable means for extending education to the children of those who could not afford to pay for it.

The efforts of the educated in the eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries, to spread learning, order, piety, cleanliness, and proper behaviour to the children of the masses, constituted an essential alternative for Church action through various school types. These efforts in which the State was not directly involved in education during the eighteenth century contributed to the emergence of the Voluntary System, aside from Jonas Hanway's Act of 1767 ²¹, which provided for the education of pauper children. This established the important principle that poor children of London

²¹ Jonas Hanway's Act of 1767 promoted by Foundling Hospital governor Jonas Hanway, required that all pauper children under six from Metropolitan parishes be sent to school in the countryside at least three miles from London or Westminster. The nursing and maintenance of each child was to cost at least two shillings and six pence per week. <http://www.workhouses.org.uk/education/workhouse.shtml>.

parishes might be upheld and educated “at the cost of the rates”.²² The Charity School was one of the initiatives of Church action to educate the masses.

I.2.1. Charity Schools

The Charity School movement started by the closing of the 17th century, and it continued to develop in the 18th century. At that time, increasing numbers of children were growing up in destitution due to rapid urbanisation and a rising population, which attracted the attention of philanthropists and reformers. The destitute could receive poor relief from their parish under the Poor Laws²³, which was financed by property owners paying rates to assist the poor of the same parish. Such aid had various forms, including cash payment and donations of rent, fuel, food, clothes and, in some circumstances, employment.

The increasing public interest in the setting up and running of schools for the social and religious benefit of the impoverished

²² J.S. Curtis, *History of Education in Great Britain*, University Tutorial Press, London, 1953, p. 210

²³ Poor Law, in British history, body of laws undertaking to provide relief for the poor, developed in 16th-century England and maintained, with various changes, until after World War II. The Elizabethan Poor Laws, as codified in 1597–98, were administered through parish overseers. Late in the 18th century, this was supplemented by the so-called Speenhamland system of providing allowances to workers who received wages below what was considered a subsistence level. The resulting increase in expenditures on public relief was so great that a new Poor Law was enacted in 1834, based on a harsher philosophy that regarded pauperism among able-bodied workers as a moral failing. *Encyclopædia Britannica 2012 Ultimate Reference Suite*, Entry: Poor Law

children was taken up by the Society for the Promotion of Christian Knowledge (SPCK) ²⁴ in 1698. The Society, founded in London by Thomas Bray and his friends (Lord Guilford, Sir Humphrey Mackworth, Mr. Justice Hooke and Colonel Colchester)²⁵, sought to give an education to the children in the hope that it would prevent ignorance, vice and sin. The SPCK recommended local parish groups to set up schools to whom they provided financial support, a syllabus and guidance to teachers on good educational practice.

The SPCK charity schools instructed children of the poor in the Christian religion, based on the principles of the Church of England, to prevent the influence of other denominations. Thus, Justice Hooke, the Treasurer of the Society brought the draft of “the form of subscriptions to Schools and the instrument of insurance which relates thereto, and which is to be subscribed by every member of this Society”²⁶, which stated:

“That the growth of vice and debauchery is greatly owing to the gross ignorance of the principles of the Christian Religion, especially among the poorer sort ; And also whereas Christian vertue can grow from no other root than Christian Principles ; among the poor of this Parish, do hereby promise to pay yearly during pleasure,such

²⁴ The Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge was founded by Thomas Bray in 1698 to promote and encourage the erection of charity schools in all parts of England and Wales and to disperse, Bibles and tracts of religion; and in general to advance the honour of God and the good of mankind, by promoting Christian knowledge. Frank Leslie Cross, Elizabeth A. Livingstone, *The Oxford Dictionary of the Christian Church*, Oxford University Press, 1997, p. 1527.

²⁵ David Salmon, *The Education of the Poor in the Eighteenth Century*, Eyre & Spottiswoode, London, 1908, p. 2

²⁶ William Osborne Bird Allen & Edmund McClure, *Two Hundred Years : The History of the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge 1698-1898*, SPCK, New York, 1898, p. 27

respective sums as we have hereunto subscribed, for and towards the setting up a School within this Parish for teaching poor children (whose parents are not able to afford them any education) to read and write, and to repeat and understand the Church Catechism” ²⁷

The SPCK charity schools similarly wanted to indoctrinate the young in their beliefs and practices. The SPCK did much to provide schools for poor boys and girls, furnishing them with clothing and instruction (reading, writing, spelling, counting, cleanliness, proper behaviour, sewing and knitting). These schools became the foundation of the nineteenth century English elementary education.

The movement spread rapidly over England, and soon developed into a great national effort to raise the level of intelligence of the masses of the English people. Thousands of people gave their services as directors, organisers, and teachers. These efforts were embodied in the promotion of literacy for the masses in conformity with the Voluntary System. The Sunday School was an important voluntary eighteenth century movement that contributed to the education of the masses to be mentioned in the history of English educational development .

I.2.2. Sunday Schools

The Sunday School movement formed the link between the parochial charity school movement of the eighteenth century and the philanthropic period of the educational reformers of the early

²⁷ Ibid ., pp.3-4

nineteenth century. It was first initiated by John Wesley ²⁸ in 1737 in America (Christ Church, Savannah, Georgia), but it was not introduced into England until 1763. The idea developed progressively in 1780 by Robert Raikes²⁹, a printer of Gloucester, and his printed description of the Sunday School idea that gave a national impulse to the movement. Sunday Schools were soon established all over England to take children off the streets on Sunday and provide them with some form of secular and religious instruction.

Raikes was interested in the poor, his observations in prisons, streets, and the condition of children in factories constituted his motivations in starting Sunday Schools. He used his newspaper as an instrument to affect public opinion in favour of the suffering lower class. This humanitarian concern captured his attention to the children of the poor. Raikes wrote in his famous letter to Colonel Townley of Lancaster in the Gentleman's Magazine the following:

“The beginning of the scheme was entirely owing to accident. ...where the lowest of the people—who are principally employed in the pin manufactory— chiefly reside, I was struck with concern at

²⁸ Wesley, John (1703-1791), a clergyman of the Church of England, was a founder of Methodism. He was the foremost leader in England of the Evangelical Revival, a movement in Protestant Christianity during the 1700's that emphasized personal faith and practical good works. *Encyclopædia Britannica 2012 Ultimate Reference Suite*, Entry: Wesley

²⁹ Raikes, Robert (1735-1811), an English publisher, first developed Sunday schools on an extensive scale. Many children in his home city, Gloucester, worked six long days in the factories and had no chance for education. He opened his first Sunday school there in 1780. Sunday schools helped train children in reading and arithmetic as well as in the Bible, *Ibid.*, Entry: Wesley: Raikes

seeing a group of children, -wretchedly ragged, at play in the street. ...lamented their misery and idleness. "...could you take a view of this part of the town on a Sunday, you would be shocked indeed, for then the street is filled with multitudes of these wretches—who, released on that day from employment, spend their time in noise and riot, playing at chuck, and cursing and swearing in a manner so horrid as to convey to any serious mind an idea of hell rather than any other place." ³⁰

According to Elmer, Raikes' Sunday Schools included five concepts or elements that were missing in previous schools: general education, popular acceptance, continuity, direct study of the Bible and evangelism.

The earlier schools were used primarily for religious instruction, whereas Raikes included general education as a foundation stone of the Sunday school movement. Even though direct instruction in general education was dropped early in the development of Sunday school in favour of Christian teaching, many common people continued to attend the Sunday school for the broadening effect it had on their lives.

The Sunday school of Raikes received some popular acceptance because it met a desperate need in education. However, its popular approval, in the light of little acceptance by other Christian educators, gave credit to Raikes for being the founder of the movement. The Sunday school of Robert Raikes did not use the catechetical method of teaching; it rather employed the direct study

³⁰ John Carroll Power, *The Rise and Progress of Sunday Schools: A Biography of Robert Fox and William Fox*, Sheldon & Company, 1863, pp. 36-7

of the scriptures. The Sunday school was known for its impact on the moral life of children in the surrounding neighbourhoods.

In 1785, “The Society for the Support and Encouragement of Sunday Schools” in the different parts of England was formed with a view to establishing a Sunday School in every parish in the Kingdom. The moral and religious influence of these schools was important, and the instruction in reading and writing, insufficient as it was, filled a real need of the time. In addition to the Sunday Schools, as education providers, the nineteenth century witnessed the emergence of ragged schools for the profit of poor children.

I.2.3. Ragged Schools

The Ragged School Movement began in Britain in the mid-nineteenth century as a reaction to the needs of increasing numbers of the urban poor. Though it had strong evangelical and humanitarian foundations, the main purpose was to prevent poor children from pauperism and crime. Thus, Ragged Schools were set out to provide a minimal education for vagrant, and destitute children.³¹ Despite the debate about the origins of Ragged Schools, it was mainly associated with John Pounds (1766-1839). He was a cobbler in Portsmouth who started to use his shop in 1818 as a place for educational activity for local poor children.

³¹ Nancy Jiracek,

http://www.utas.edu.au/library/companion_to_tasmanian_history/R/Raggedschools.htm. Accessed 12/10/2014

The curriculum taught in these schools included the usual ‘three R’s’ in addition to religious instruction. Provision was free and often involved up to 40 pupils at a time. Pounds’ work was set as an example, and his schools began to be formed in many places by humanitarians. These took the form of Day Schools, Night Schools, Sunday Schools, and Industrial Schools.

In 1844, “The Ragged School Union” was formed by Lord Shaftesbury³² in London, and maintained many of the types of schools already mentioned. The “Constitution and Rules of the Association for the Establishment of Ragged Industrial Schools for Destitute Children in Edinburgh” was an association that gave an idea as to the nature, support, and instruction in such schools. Its purpose was to reclaim the neglected and destitute children of Edinburgh, by affording them the benefits of a good common and Christian education, and by training them to habits of regular industry, to enable them to earn an honest livelihood, and fit them

³² Anthony Ashley Cooper, 7th earl of Shaftesbury, Baron Cooper of Pawlett, Baron Ashley of Wimborne St. Giles (1801-1885). He was one of the most effective social and industrial reformers in 19th-century England. He was also the leader of the evangelical movement within the Church of England. During his 39 years as president of the Ragged Schools Union, that organization enabled about 300,000 destitute children to be educated free at what were called ragged schools or industrial feeding schools. He also served as president of the British and Foreign Bible Society, founded numerous Young Men's Christian associations and Workingmen's institutes, and financially supported missionary societies for Nonconformist faiths as well as for the Church of England. *Encyclopædia Britannica 2012 Ultimate Reference Suite*, Entry: Lord Shaftesbury

for the duties of life. ³³ To cope with the upheavals brought about by the Industrial Revolution, and whose victims were mainly the children, Infant Schools were opened to drive these children out of such evils. It was believed that their place was at school rather than the factory.

I.2.4. Infant Schools

The Infant School owed its origin to Robert Owen³⁴, an owner of the cotton mills at New Lanark, Scotland. Being of a philanthropic turn of mind, and believing that man was entirely the product of circumstance and environment; he held that it was not possible to begin too early in implanting right habits and forming character. He believed that poverty and crime were results of errors in the various systems of education and government. ³⁵

When he held the mills at New Lanark in Scotland (1799), he became conscious of the inadequate social conditions of the time. He believed that children should go to school instead of working.

³³ Ellwood P. Cubberley, *Readings in the History of Education*, Houghton Mifflin Company, New York, 1920, p. 516

³⁴ Robert Owen (1771- 1858), Welsh manufacturer turned reformer, one of the most influential early 19th-century advocates of utopian socialism. His greatest success was in the education of the young, to which he devoted special attention. In 1816, he opened the first infant school in Great Britain at the New Lanark mills and gave it his close personal supervision. *Encyclopædia Britannica 2012 Ultimate Reference Suite*, Entry: Robert Owen

³⁵ Ellwood P. Cubberley, *A Brief History of Education, A History of The Practice and Progress and Organization of Education*, Boston, Houghton Mifflin Company, New York, 1922, p. 630.

Children between five and seven were destined to the factory as apprentices for a period of nine years. They worked as apprentices and helpers in the factories twelve to thirteen hours a day, and at early manhood they were turned free to join the ignorant mass of the population. Owen sought to remedy this state. He accordingly opened schools, where children could be received from the age of three years old, and cared for while their parents were at work. Children under ten were forbidden to work in the mills, and for these reasons schools were provided. The instruction for the children younger than six was to be “whatever might be supposed useful that they could understand,”³⁶ and much was made of singing, dancing, and playing. Moral instruction was made a prominent feature. By 1814, his work and his schools had become famous.

In 1818, an Infant School was established in London, bringing a teacher from New Lanark. The idea, which soon found support, was made popular and the Infant School was adopted as a fundamental part of their schools by both the British and Foreign School Society³⁷ and the National Society³⁸. In 1836, the “Home

³⁶ Ibid., p. 631.

³⁷ Founded in 1810 in response to the problem of growing godlessness, particularly in the growing urban areas, the British and Foreign Schools Society sought to provide a non-conformist or free (Protestant non-Anglican) church education both at home and overseas. It helped inspire the Established Church to respond by setting up the National Society in 1811 and the two voluntary societies became bitter rivals. John Plowright, *The Routledge Dictionary of Modern British History*, Routledge Taylor & Francis Group, London and New York, 2006, p.37

and Colonial Infant School Society” was formed to train them for and to establish Infant Schools.

One of the protagonists of popular education was Samuel Wilderspin (1791 - 1866), the British educator who in 1820 opened an infants’ school in Spitalfields, London. His interest in the question was due to his relationship with Robert Buchanan, who had come from Robert Owen’s infant school at New Lanark to run a school at Brewer’s Green. He sought to provide an education based on intellectual capacities and critical thought as compared to the previous type of instruction. In this respect, He wrote:

“The first thing we attempt to do in an infant school is to set the children thinking, to get them to examine, compare, and judge of all those matters which their dawning intellects are capable of mastering....The art of education is to follow nature, to assist and imitate her in her way of rearing men.”³⁹

Wilderspin’s efforts led in 1824 to the foundation of the London Infant School Society to establishing such schools as his in various parts of the country.

³⁸ The National Society’s full name was the National Society for Promoting the Education of the Poor in the Principles of the Established Church and was founded in 1811 to provide an Anglican education in church schools. It emerged in response to the creation of the non-conformist British and Foreign Schools Society in the previous year. Ibid., p. 208

³⁹ Samuel Wilderspin, *The Infant System: for Developing the Physical, Intellectual and Moral Powers of all Children*, Fifth Edition, Simpkin & Marshal, London, 1832, p. 146

I.2.5. The Mutual Instruction system

In 1797, Andrew Bell ⁴⁰, a clergyman in the Established Church, published *An Experiment in Education*, the results of his successful experiment with monitors in India which he introduced into a number of charity schools. About the same time (1798) a young Quaker schoolmaster, Joseph Lancaster ⁴¹ was led to a comparable use of monitors. In 1803, he published *Improvements in Education as it Respects the Industrial Classes of the Community* in which he wrote an account of his plan. The two plans were quite similar, and thus, were soon organized all over England.

Two religious organizations were formed to provide this borrowed system of education: the National Society for the Education of the Poor (1811) and the British and Foreign Schools Society (1814). Andrew Bell received support from the former while Joseph Lancaster was funded by the latter.

⁴⁰ Bell, Andrew (1753-1832), was a Scottish clergyman who developed a monitorial system of education. From 1787 to 1796, he developed a system in which older pupils, directed by a master, helped teach the younger pupils. This system of education was also introduced in Great Britain by Joseph Lancaster and rapidly became popular. *World Book Encyclopaedia 2005 (Deluxe)*., Entry: Bell, Andrew

⁴¹ Lancaster, Joseph (1778-1838), developed the monitorial system of teaching. Under this method, students were grouped according to ability, and advanced students taught less advanced students. The method was advocated by Andrew Bell. In 1801, Lancaster opened a school in London, where he put his theories into practice. *World Book Encyclopaedia 2005 (Deluxe)*., Entry: Lancaster, Joseph

The Mutual or Monitorial system of instruction represented a marked advance in school organisation over the older individual method of instruction. Under the individual method, only a small number of pupils could be placed under the control of one teacher, and the expenditure for such instruction made general education almost unaffordable. However, Bell and Lancaster developed a plan, in terms of organisation ⁴², whereby one teacher, assisted by a number of the brighter pupils whom they designated as monitors, could teach from two hundred up to a thousand pupils in one school.⁴³

Lancaster's *Manuals of Instruction* contained specific details and directions in operating his type of monitorial school. Any reasonably intellectual person could learn to become a master teacher in a monitorial school by following the directions contained in the Manual.

The Monitorial system of instruction played an important part in arousing interest in schools. It increased the number of

⁴² The Lancastrian Monitorial System was organized so that one master teacher could instruct at one time from 200 to 1,000 pupils. These pupils would be divided into groups - ten pupils would usually be in one group taught by a monitor. The monitors would be taught by the master teacher. The monitor had considerable power in working with pupils. He would discover reasons for pupil absences examine pupil achievement and promote to more advanced classes those pupils that could benefit from more difficult learnings. The monitor would be in charge of issuing books and slates to pupils. Marlow Ediger, *The Lancastrian Monitorial System of Instruction*, Education Resources Information Center, Number ED 285838, 1987, p. 5

⁴³ Ibid., p. 6

people who possessed the elements of education, aroused thought and provoked discussion on the question of education. The Monitorial system did much towards making people realise the advantages of schooling, and encouraging their will for its support.

The monitorial system of instruction did not only improve education and made it popular, but massively cheapened it. Thus, in 1807 Samuel Whitbread ⁴⁴, a supporter of schools, said, in an address before the House of Commons:

“I cannot help noticing that this is a period particularly favourable for the institution of a national system of education, because within a few years there has been discovered a plan for the instruction of youth which is now brought to a state of great perfection, happily combining rules by which the object of learning must be infallibly attained with expedition and cheapness, and holding out the fairest prospect of utility to mankind.” ⁴⁵

Lancaster, in his *Improvements in Education*, estimated the annual cost of schooling under his system at only seven shillings sixpence per pupil, and this was later decreased to four shillings five pence as the school was increased to accommodate a thousand

⁴⁴ Samuel Whitbread (1758(64) –1815) was a British politician and reformer. He was elected Member of Parliament for Bedford in 1790. In 1793, he toured the country making speeches on the need for parliamentary reform. In 1807, he proposed a new Poor Law. His scheme not only involved an increase in the financial help given to the poor, but the establishment of a free educational system. Whitbread proposed that every child between the ages of seven and fourteen, who was unable to pay, should receive two years’ free education. He was a supporter of religious and civil rights, for the abolition of slavery, and a proponent of a national education system. <http://spartacus-educational.com/PRwhitbread.htm>. Accessed 12/12/2013

⁴⁵ T.C. Hansard, *Parliamentary Debates from the Year 1803 to the Present Time*, Volume VIII, 1812, p. 884

pupils. ⁴⁶ Pupils were admitted at about the age of seven, and might remain until thirteen or fourteen, though an attendance of two years was considered enough for them.

Through their Monitorial System, both of Bell and Lancaster promoted the cause of elementary education; however, this system resulted in the falling of educational standards. The teacher lost his contact with his pupils and it was not possible for the senior student to give new knowledge to junior pupil whom they taught; this system brought the senior and junior pupils together.⁴⁷

Due to the increasing demand for education, the conditions of the poor, and the deficiencies of those schools to provide an adequate education for those children, it became necessary to debate the issue of education at a parliamentary level.

⁴⁶ Ellwood, *The History of Education*, op. cit., p. 629

⁴⁷ S. P. Chaube, *Comparative Education*, Vikas Publishing House Pvt Ltd, Second Revised & Enlarged Edition, 2009, p. 213

II. The Education Question in British Parliament 1802 – 1833

The eighteenth century witnessed no legislative action relating to elementary education, which could be undertaken by Parliament. In the nineteenth century, this attitude improved gradually, assuming that education was a necessity of life, and that the conditions of society among the poorer orders of England prevented parents from giving education of an effective character to their children. Such conditions drew the attention of the State to the cruel behaviour to which the children in various industries were subjected. This situation required Parliament involvement. Such involvement, a legislative struggle, began with the Peel's Factory Act of 1802, Whitbread's Parochial Schools Bill of 1807, Brougham's first Parliamentary Committee of Inquiry of 1816, Brougham's Bill in 1820 and Roebuck's Bill of 1833.

II.1. The Factory Act, 1802

The Health and Morals of Apprentices Act, 1802 (The Factory Act - 42 Geo III c.73) was introduced by Sir Robert Peel.⁴⁸ It was

⁴⁸ Sir Robert Peel, 1st Baronet (25 April 1750 – 3 May 1830), was a British politician and industrialist and one of early textile manufacturers of the Industrial Revolution. In 1790, he was elected Member of Parliament for Tamworth. Peel was concerned with the working conditions for children in the cotton industry, in 1802, he introduced the Health and Morals of Apprentices Act, legislation that tried to limit the number of hours that apprentice children worked in the mills, and obliged the mill owners to provide some form of schooling. In 1815, at the urging of Robert Owen, he introduced a Bill introducing stricter limits on the hours children could work in textile mills.[https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sir Robert Peel, 1st Baronet](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sir_Robert_Peel,_1st_Baronet). Accessed 15/12/1013

subject to some readings and amendments before approval. It recognized the right to education for those children working in the mills. Section VI of the Act of 1802 stated that

“Every such Apprentice shall be instructed , in some Part of every working Day, for the first four Years at least of his or her Apprenticeship.....in the usual Hours of Work, in Reading, Writing, and Arithmetick , or either of them, according to the Age and .Abilities of such Apprentice, by some discreet and proper Person , to be provided and paid by the Master or Mistress of such Apprentice, in some Room or Place in such Mill or Factory to be set apart for that Purpose ; and that the Time hereby directed to be allotted for such Instruction as aforesaid, shall be deemed and taken on all Occasions as Part of the respective Periods limited by this Act during which any such Apprentice shall be employed or compelled to work.”⁴⁹

All apprentices were to receive instruction in reading, writing and arithmetic for the first four years of their apprenticeship. The Act indicated that this should be done every working day within usual working hours. However, no time was mentioned for it. Educational classes should be available in the mill or factory intended for the purpose. Apprentices were to be taught Christianity for one hour every Sunday. The apprentices had also to visit a church monthly as a preparation for confirmation, usually between the ages of 14 and 18 and had be examined by a clergyman at least once a year. Section VIII provided:

“That every Apprentice, or (in case the Apprentices shall attend in Classes), every such Class shall, for the Space of one Hour at least every Sunday , be instructed and examined in the Principles of the

⁴⁹ A. Aspinall, Anthony Smith, *English Historical Documents, 1783-1832, Vol. VIII*, Psychology Press, 1995, p.723-4

Christian Religion, by some proper Per on to be provided and paid by the Master or Mistress of such Apprentice.”⁵⁰

With respect to training, Local magistrates had to appoint inspectors to ensure that factories and mills were complying with the Act. These inspectors had the power to impose fines for non-compliance besides unexpected authority visits to inspect the buildings.

The Act was to be displayed in two places in the factory. Owners who would refuse to fulfil any part of the Act could be fined between £2 and £5⁵¹, which was, in fact, an effort to enforce the Act. Such measure created some discontent in the manufacturing districts.

A variety of petitions against the education of apprentices from proprietors of cotton mills and woollen spinners were presented to the House of Commons stating that “the principle of the said Act is injurious and oppressive, not only to the cotton, woollen, and flaxen spinners, but to the manufacturers at large,” required to bring in a repealing or amending Bill.⁵² These various petitions were read again by the House, and referred to a Committee on March 29th, 1803 to be discussed.⁵³

⁵⁰ Ibid., p.724

⁵¹ B. L. Hutchins and A. Harrison, *A History of Factory Legislation*, 2nd Edition, P.S. King & Sons, London,1911, p.16

⁵² Ibid., p. 160.

⁵³ Ibid., p. 302.

II.2. The Poor Law Reform Bill, 1807

Mr Whitbread introduced a general Poor Law Reform Bill into the House of Commons on February 19th, 1807, which included a scheme for the education of the children of the poor. In his speech, he proposed a general system of national education by the establishment of parochial schools. He, thus, declared:

“this is a period particularly favourable for the institution of a national system of education; because within a few years there has been discovered a plan for the instruction of youth, which is now brought to a state of great perfection; happily combining rules, by which the object of learning must be infallibly attained with expedition and cheapness, and holding out the fairest prospect of eminent utility to mankind.”⁵⁴

It was of course a tribute to the rapid spread of elementary schools. The Bill, which was presented to the House on February 23rd, 1807, was entitled “*A Bill for the promoting and encouragement of industry among the labouring classes of the community, and for the effectual relief and regulation of the criminal and necessitous poor.*” It was a Bill that offered a series of solutions for the many troubles of the period. It, however, advocated the creation of a State Savings Bank for the poor, the building of cottages out of the rates to meet the acute housing problem that existed in agricultural districts, and the restriction of poor law

⁵⁴ Rowland Mainwaring R.N., *Annals of Bath, from the Year 1800 to the passing of the New Municipal Act*, Mary Meyler and Son, 1838, p. 6

relief, except with regard to the absolute necessities of life, to the aged, to children, and to the sick.

On April 17th, 1807, Whitbread proclaimed his intention to divide the clauses into four Bills. The first of these related to education; the second dealt with a poor law reform and the building of cottages for the poor, the third contained his scheme for a parochial fund of assurance, and the fourth proposed to regulate and equalise the county rates. These Bills were reported except the Bill for establishing a Plan for the Education of the Poor, which was brought forward on April 24th, 1807.⁵⁵ It had been formerly circulated among the magistrates throughout the kingdom with disappointing results. Whitbread mooted

“It was not meant to supersede any parish schools for the education of the poor, already established; it was not meant to increase unnecessarily the charges upon any district, where parish schools were already instituted for the education of the poor, by establishing therein additional schools ; his object was, that in every parish where there was a number of poor who could not afford to pay for the education of their children, there should be a school established for their instruction.”⁵⁶

He viewed the education of the poor as “the incipient principle and grand foundation” of all benefits to be derived from any future reform of the poor laws. The Bill proposed that the poor children of each parish should be entitled to receive two years’ education between the ages of seven and fourteen years. The occupiers of lands and houses in the parish were to be rated to provide for

⁵⁵ J.E.G. De Montmorency, *op. cit.*, p. 220

⁵⁶ *Ibid.*,

education, which was to be superintended by the parson and the parish officers. The Bill empowered the magistrates to “purchase or hire any buildings or lands whereupon to erect buildings for the purpose of schools.”⁵⁷ The appointment of schoolmasters was also to be made by the magistrates. The carrying out of the Act was to be placed in the hands of the magistrates with power to suspend the law where further or new schools were not necessary.

Apparently, no petitions were presented in favour of the Bill, yet there were some against it. In the committee of July 21st, 1807, Sturges Bourne (1769-1845), a Tory politician, objecting to the compulsory character of the educational relief offered, moved an amendment, making all the provisions of the Bill optional and suggested a substitutional clause, which was adopted on August 4th.

The Bill was opposed by the Lord Chancellor (Lord Eldon) and by the Archbishop of Canterbury (Manners Sutton), who, however, declared themselves in favour of improved educational conditions. Lord Stanhope⁵⁸, a radical in the Lords, strongly supported the Bill, and attacked the claim of the Establishment to control all

⁵⁷ Thomas C. Hansard, *Parliamentary Debates: Official Report: Session of the Parliament of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland*, Volume 9, 1807, p. 1051

⁵⁸ Charles Stanhope, 3rd Earl Stanhope (1753-1816) radical English politician and noted experimental scientist. He was styled Viscount, or Lord, Mahon from 1763 to 1786. He was educated at Eton and was a member of the House of Commons from 1780 until his accession to the peerage in 1786. He became chairman of the Revolution Society (founded 1788), which urged the democratization of Parliament. *Encyclopædia Britannica 2012 Ultimate Reference Suite*, Entry: Charles Stanhope.

education.⁵⁹ With the failure of this Bill, all effort after legislation was abandoned until 1816.

II.3. The Select Committee on Education, 1816

In 1816, The Select Parliamentary Committee to inquire into the Education of the Lower Orders was appointed under the presidency of Lord Brougham. It issued its first report dealing with the Metropolis in the same year and subsequently the Committee extended their enquiries to the whole Kingdom. In the third report, a very different version to that given by Brougham, with respect to the condition of the country in 1803, was told by the Committee as to the educational position in 1816:

“There is the most unquestionable evidence that the anxiety of the poor for education continues not only unabated, but daily increasing ; that it extends to every part of the country, and is to be found equally prevalent in those smaller towns and country districts, where no means of gratifying it are provided by the charitable efforts of the richer classes.”⁶⁰

The condition of education in country districts was, however, very bad. There were few who could help the ignorant, and the efforts of individuals combined in societies are almost wholly confined to populous places.⁶¹ The Committee pointed out the difficulties that occurred where the only school in the country

⁵⁹ Thomas C. Hansard, op. cit., p. 1074

⁶⁰ Thomas C. Hansard, *The Parliamentary Debates from the Year 1803 to the Present Time*, Volume 38, 1818, p. 1209

⁶¹ Ibid.,

district was governed by regulations that excluded the Dissenters, but added that

“in many schools where the national system is adopted, an increasing degree of liberality prevails, and that the church catechism is only taught, and attendance at the established place of public worship only required, of those whose parents belong to the establishment; due assurance being obtained that the children of sectaries shall learn the principles and attend the ordinances of religion, according to the doctrines and forms to which their families are attached.”⁶²

The Church had realised once again the great part that it had to play in national education, and it had recognised that if the common faith was once more to shape the education of the children of the country, the conscientious scruples of Dissenters had to be respected. In that fact lies the origin of the conscience clause of later years. The principle of the clause was definitely suggested by the Select Committee. The Committee advised, on the whole, educational position that two different plans were desirable, adapted to the opposite circumstances of the town and country districts. The Committee, thus, stated:

“Wherever the efforts of individuals can support the requisite number of schools, it would be unnecessary and injurious to interpose any parliamentary assistance. But Your Committee have clearly ascertained, that in many places private subscriptions could be raised to meet the yearly expenses of a School, while the original cost of the undertaking, occasioned

⁶² J. Stuart Maclure, *Educational Documents: England and Wales, 1816 to the Present Day*, Methuen, 1972., p.20

chiefly by the erection and purchase of the school house prevents it from being attempted.”⁶³

The Committee recommended that money might be employed in such a way, but that it had to be left to the wisdom of Parliament to decide whether such public, the Select funds should be vested in Commissioners empowered to make proper terms with the private parties desirous of establishing schools, or whether the money should be entrusted for distribution to great institutions in London for promoting education.

The Select Committee had at once realised the nature of the problems that were destined to occupy the attention of Parliament for the greater part of the nineteenth century. It moreover offered the solutions that were eventually accepted by the county. It suggested a conscience clause; it recommended grants for building for a certain class of districts and schools that were practically rate-supported, and for other and less helpless districts. The system of control over the rates was to be parochial; the system of inspection was to be diocesan, but full regard was to be paid to the claims of conscience and to the right of Dissenters to retain their children in dissent. The scheme was sound, and well thought out; however, Parliament was unable to adopt such suggestions.

⁶³ Thomas C. Hansard, *Parliamentary Debates: Official Report: ... Session of the ... Parliament of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland*, op. cit., p.1210

The amount of data collected by the Select Committee of 1816 enabled Brougham to bring forward his Education Bill with wide knowledge of the educational problem that awaited solution.

II.4. The Parish Schools Bill, 1820

By 1820, Lord Brougham was recognised pioneer of elementary education. He had been Chairman of the Select Committees of 1816, 1817 and 1818. This gave him a great deal of first-hand information related to the status and conditions of education. He presented his well-informed and excellently constructed Parish Schools.

This was the first definite proposal submitted to the House of Commons, for a scheme of national education to cover England and Wales. Brougham was well aware of the Opposition, which remained unfavourable to any measure of general education. He went to great lengths to show that education “had been in early ages, and by the wisest governments, the best security for the morals, the subordination, and the peace of countries.”⁶⁴ According to the statistics collected by the Committee, Brougham indicated that in 1820, there were 500,000 children getting their education in unendowed schools.⁶⁵

Brougham went on to compare most unfavourably the numbers receiving education in England with the numbers in other

⁶⁴ J.E.G. De Montmorency, *op. cit.*, p. 254

⁶⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 229

countries, especially in Scotland and Switzerland. “He informed the House that Middlesex was beyond all dispute the worst educated part of Christendom.”⁶⁶

Brougham’s Bill 1820, was presented under four heads;

1. The foundation of schools,
2. The appointment and removal of masters,
3. the admission of scholars and their mode of tuition
4. the improvement of old educational endowments .

The first was to plant a school where it was needed. Power was to be given to the Grand Jury or to the parson of the parish or to two justices or to five resident householders to lodge a complaint through a special or school sessions or quarter sessions, and to demand the building of the school and the endowment of a mastership.

The second object of the Bill was to secure efficient schoolmasters, and it was felt that this could be done by offering a fixed endowment, and by restricting the age of the masters to the limits of twenty-four and forty years, and by only accepting those who were members of the Established Church.

The third object of the Bill was to define the class of education to be given. It was provided that at each new appointment of a master to a school, the parson of the parish should fix the course of

⁶⁶ Ibid ., p. 259

teaching according to the state of the parish. In order to attract Non-conformists, it was further provided that the Scriptures alone should be taught, and that no form of worship should be allowed in the school except the Lord's Prayer and other passages of Scripture. It was also provided that Church children should attend church, but that Dissenters should take their children to their own churches or chapels. It was also provided that there should be a school meeting on Sunday evening to teach the Catechism to all those who did not object. It was finally provided that reading, writing, and arithmetic should be taught in all the schools and to all the children of fit age.⁶⁷

The fourth object of the Bill was to decrease a part of the expenses by making the old endowments in some measure available for modern elementary education. The Bill did not propose to clothe or board the children, even when the Trust directed it. Mr Brougham estimated that the cost of carrying into effect his Bill "*for the better education of the poor in England and Wales*" would be £500,000 for the cost of erecting schools and £150,000 a year for maintenance.⁶⁸

On April 20th, 1820, Mr Brougham announced his intention of introducing the Bill as soon as the Education Digest was completed. The Bill was introduced on Wednesday, June 28th, and was read the first time on July 11th, when the protest of the Dissenters and

⁶⁷ Ibid., pp. 231-2

⁶⁸ Ibid., p. 232

Roman Catholics was dealt with. The Bill was read a second time on July 12th and committed. However, on July 13th, the Committee reported, and it was ordered that the Report should be taken into further consideration. The Bill failed chiefly due to the opposition of the Dissenters.

The decade from 1820 to 1830 witnessed no legislative action in the domain of education despite the interest and increasing demand of the public. In 1823, King George IV issued a Letter authorising subscriptions to be given in aid of the educational work of the National Society. The Royal letter resulted in the public subscription of above £28,000, which was applied to the erection, enlargement, and fitting-up of schoolrooms under the National Society's control. ⁶⁹

In 1825, when Brougham brought out his "*Observations on the Education of the People*" the interest in the subject was so great. Lord Brougham, whose efforts during half a century, on behalf of all grades of education, were enormous to organise education for the great middle classes was strongly convinced that the power of education to improve a people was necessary.

In 1825, Dissenters in London founded the Christian Instruction Society, which did a great educational work among the very poor; petitions for a national educational system began to appear before Parliament.

⁶⁹ Ibid ., p. 233

II.5. The Roebuck's Bill, 1833

On July 13th 1833, The Radical MP, John Arthur Roebuck (1801-1879) ⁷⁰ urged upon the House of Commons the necessity for a compulsory system of education for the whole people. He stated:

“ That this House, deeply impressed with the necessity of providing for a due education of the people at large ; and believing, that to this end the aid and care of the State are absolutely needed, will, early during the next Session of Parliament, proceed to devise a means for the universal and national education of the whole people.” ⁷¹

He set forth a scheme of State schools: Infant Schools, Evening Schools, Schools of Industry and Normal Schools. These schools would teach, in addition to reading, writing, and arithmetic, the elements of art, hygiene, natural history, and the proper knowledge of some trade.⁷² Roebuck believed that the country should be divided into school districts, where the voters should elect a school committee. The control of education should be placed in the

⁷⁰ John Arthur (1801–79). Radical MP for Bath (1832–7, 1841–7) and Sheffield (1849–68, 1874–9). Born in Madras and qualified as a barrister, Roebuck was nicknamed ‘Tear ‘Em’ for his fierce attacks on aristocracy, privilege, and inefficiency. As a Benthamite and friend of J. S. Mill, Roebuck proposed a system of state education, supported the New Poor Law, and helped Lovett draft the Charter. In 1855, he moved for a committee of inquiry into the conduct of the Crimean War, which resulted in the fall of Aberdeen’s government. <http://www.oxfordreference.com/search?q=Roebuck, John Arthur>. Accessed 18/02/2014

⁷¹ T. C. Hansard, *Parliamentary Debates, Volume 20*, Great Britain, Parliament, 1833, p. 166

⁷² J.E.G. De Montmorency, *op. cit.*, p. 237

hands of a member of the Cabinet, who would supervise the National School system.

Though Roebuck's proposal helped to form the character of public opinion, it had no direct legislative result (was not concretised into an Act). However, the proposal contributed in capturing the government's attention in approving, in August the same year, a financial support for the profit of education.

Conclusion

To conclude, education in Britain, which had been an exclusive monopoly and state of affair of the higher class, was to gain interest for the poorer classes in the eighteenth century. Such shift of attention was motivated by the changes brought about by the Industrial Revolution, which altered the society in terms of type, structure and prospects: from rural to urban, emergence of the working class, and socio-economic prosperity for better competitiveness.

Education for the poor classes in England, though mostly religious in character, was assumed by benevolent effort and private enterprise under Church control. The writings of such authors as Smith, Paine and Malthus influenced public opinion on the importance of education and stressed that its provision would be a state concern. A number of schools including charity schools, Sunday schools, Raged schools and infant schools were opened not only to ensure basic education for the poor, but also to promote

morality in addition to religious teaching. These schools were run under the supervision of either The Society for the Promotion of Christian Knowledge or the British and Foreign Schools Society. The aim of such an education was to prevent the children from the prevailing evils of crime, pauperism and destitution.

By the beginning of the nineteenth century, a positive attitude towards the necessity of education was to be admitted and became the conviction of such men as Peel, Whitbread and Brougham to debate it before Parliament.

The Peel's Factory Act of 1802 was introduced in relation with the cruel behaviour and exploitation practised by the mill-owners against the employed children. It limited the working hours of children and urged to them to be instructed in the three R's besides religious education on Sundays.

Whitbread's Parochial School Bill of 1807 advocated making the parish responsible for education and recommended that each child should have a two years' provision of free education to the rural children between seven and fourteen years of age in an attempt to reduce crime and pauperism. However, the Bill met opposition on the part of the capitalists and the Churches.

In 1816, The Select Parliamentary Committee to inquire into the education of the lower orders presided by Brougham revealed the lamentable conditions of the elementary schools and the deficiencies and inadequacies of the educational provision. It,

therefore, suggested some solutions to improve the situation. Brougham recommended that endowments of schools would be inspected and that a good use of endowments would facilitate the work of education. In such a way, it would not be necessary to levy new taxes. Brougham, paving the way to the 1820 Bill, attempted to get parish schools to set up at the expense of industry and maintained by the rates. He suggested that schoolmasters would be members of the Church. The idea met opposition from Dissenters and Roman Catholics, which made Brougham introduce his Bill in 1820 under the name 'Parish Schools Bill.'

In 1820, Brougham introduced his Parish Schools Bill in which he proposed a national system of education available to the poor children of England and Wales. The Bill presented the foundation of schools, the appointment and removal of masters, the admission of scholars and their mode of tuition and the improvement of old educational endowments. The Bill was opposed by the Dissenters and, thus, withdrawn and was again taken up by Roebuck.

In 1833, Roebuck urged upon the parliament the necessity for a compulsory system of education for the whole people. He believed that the purpose of education was to develop the moral and intellectual qualities of children. He advocated the establishment of four types of schools: Infant schools, Schools of Industry, Evening schools for Adults and Adolescents and Normal schools for Training

of Teachers. Though Roebuck's Bill received public support, but it could not become an Act.

Up to 1833, no state aid was approved to primary schools. After Parliament had considered and rejected those three education proposals, such efforts were finally compensated in a government grant the same year, which shall be discussed in the next chapter.

CHAPTER TWO

THE STATE AND EDUCATION: FROM SUPERVISION TO INTERVENTION (1833-1902)

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**CHAPTER TWO
THE STATE AND EDUCATION:
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(1833-1902)**

Introduction

The previous chapter provided a brief historical account of the evolution of elementary education in England from the opening of the eighteenth century to the first parliamentary grant.

This chapter deals with the relation between the State and education from supervision (1833-1870) to intervention (1870-1902). Such relation is developed within two sections. The first section attempts to discuss the State's progressive involvement in education from 1833 to 1870, assuming that the 1833 parliamentary grant had been the first step towards intervention. It examines the work of the Royal Commission on the state of popular educations and its recommendations, the Revised Code, the Clarendon and the Taunton Reports. The second section investigates the intervention

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of the State from 1870 to 1902. This period is characterized by the effective intervention of the State where a dual system is maintained. It includes the analysis of the legislative progress with reference to a succession of Acts: the Sandon's, the Mundella's, the 1891 Free Education and the 1899 Settlement of the Board of Education.

I. The State's Supervision, 1833-1870

The opening of the nineteenth century witnessed a noticeable hesitancy with which the State approached the question of educating the masses. The growth of industry was responsible for the undesirability for the State to interfere between parent and child as education was considered a domestic concern. Therefore, schemes of education, rooted from evangelical and philanthropic motivations, were initiated such as Sunday Schools, Schools of Industry, and the work of Lancaster and Bell.

It was through the Factory Act of 1802, as seen earlier in chapter one, that the State first approached popular education. The remarkable feature of such legislation was the way in which the State handled the issue of education. Educational clauses were included in the Bill, which reinforced the protection of children and so insisted on their instruction. According to G. P. McHugh, The compulsory education clauses implied that the State should be a responsible educating body. Nevertheless, the position of the state was ambiguous which prevented intervention. The Church,

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Philanthropy, and Private Enterprise were already in the field, a concern attributable to the fact that the Church was originally the founder and controller of educational institutions in the country.¹

The various Factory Acts (1802, 1833, and 1844) were another contributory factor towards national education. These Acts focused on both the condition of workers and the imposition of certain restrictions on child labour, which favoured the opportunity of an education for the child.²

In 1833, the Government passed a Factory Act, introduced by Henry Althorp³, to improve conditions for children working in factories. No children were to work in factories under the age of nine. A maximum working week of 48 hours was set for those aged 9 to 13, limited to eight hours a day. For children between 13 and 18, it was limited to 12 hours daily. The Act also required children aged under 13 to receive elementary schooling for two hours a day.

¹ G. P. McHugh, *The Evolution of Local Administration in English Elementary Education during the period 1833-1930 with Special Consideration of the Problems of Finance, Administrative Areas and Inspection*, Durham University, 1932, p. 1

² *Encyclopædia Britannica 2007 Ultimate Reference Suite*, Entry: Factory Acts

³ Henry Althorp (1782-1845) British statesman, leader of the British House of Commons and chancellor of the Exchequer from 1830 to 1834. He was the chief author of the Reform Bill of 1832, in securing its passage in the Commons. As Viscount Althorp, he sat in the House of Commons for 30 years, from 1804. In addition to his work on the Reform Bill, he sponsored the Factory Act of 1833 (Althorp's Act). *Ibid.*, Entry: Henry Althorp.

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To ensure the enactment of regulations, factory inspectors were appointed to enforce the law.⁴

In 1844, Sir James Graham⁵ introduced a Bill to bring in a new Factory Act and repeal that of 1833. It provided that the children under the age of eight should not be allowed to work in textile factories. Children had to attend school at least three hours each day. Women and children aged between thirteen and eighteen were to work no more than 12 hours a day. Young persons aged between eight and thirteen were limited to six and a half hours per day.⁶

The 1847, The Factory Act, known as the Ten Hours Act, restricted the working hours of women and children between thirteen and eighteen in textile mills to 10 hours per day. The Ten Hours Movement was a pressure group of the 1830s and 1840s, which combined paternalistic Tory evangelicals with working-class

⁴ The National Archives, *1833 Factory Act, Did it Solve the Problems of Children in Factories?*, Crown Copyright 2008.

<http://nationalarchives.gov.uk/documents/education/factory-actdoc>.

⁵ Sir James Robert George Graham (1792-1861), British politician, confidant and adviser of Prime Minister Sir Robert Peel, and the leading Peelite in the House of Commons. He was a member of the House of Commons from 1826 until his death. He was originally an advanced liberal member of the Whig Party, and he helped draft the first British electoral reform bill (1832). Graham became the leading Peelite in the Commons and helped promote the Whig-Peelite coalition government (1852–55). *Encyclopædia Britannica 2012 Ultimate Reference Suite*, Entry: James Graham

⁶ John Plowright, *The Routledge Dictionary of Modern British History*, Routledge Taylor & Francis Group, London and New York, 2006, p.101. Entry: Factory Act 1844, p. 101

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radicals in a campaign to reduce the working day in factories to a maximum of ten hours.⁷

In 1867, The Factory Extension Act took an important phase of applying prevailing legislation to factories where 50 or more people were employed. Children under the age of eight were not permitted to work, and those aged between eight and thirteen were to receive at least ten hours of schooling a week. In addition, special regulations were laid down for dangerous trades such as glass making.⁸

I.1. The First Parliamentary Grant, 1833

After the failure of the already mentioned education proposals (Peel's, Whitbread's, Brougham's and Roebuck's), the Government was not disposed to attempt any reform of the position of education, but on August 17th, 1833, a vote in the Finance Bill allocated a sum of £20,000, for the purpose of aiding private subscriptions for the erection of school-houses in Great Britain. The motion was carried by 50 votes against 26.⁹

In support of this vote, Lord Althorp (Chancellor of the Exchequer) explained that the purpose of the grant was to build schools where there already existed the means of carrying on such

⁷ Ibid., p. 289

⁸ Ibid., p. 102

⁹ J.E.G. De Montmorency, *State Intervention in English Education, A Short History from the Earliest Times down to 1833*, Cambridge University Press, 1902, p. 239.

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schools. He pointed out: “several parishes would maintain schools if, in the first instance, they could be assisted with money to build the school-house”.¹⁰ T. B. Macaulay (British historian and Whig politician) voted with the majority in favour of the grant. However, Joseph Hume (a Radical MP) opposed the vote on the grounds of the inadequacy of the sum for a system of national education. Moreover, without such a system, grants should not be given because private bounty would be dried up. In this respect, he held,

“If it was meant that a system of national education should be established, this sum was too small, and without such a system no grant at all ought to be made....This miserable pittance would only dry up the sources of private bounty—it would paralyze and prevent the good done by individuals.”¹¹

In the same context, William Cobbett, the Member for Oldham (Manchester), opposed the grant on the ground that education was not improving the condition of the country.

The grants were paid by the Treasury on the following conditions:

“1st. That no portion of this sum be applied to any purpose whatever, except for the erection of new School-houses

2d. That no application be entertained, unless a sum be raised by private contribution, equal at the least to one-half of the total estimated expenditure.

¹⁰ T.C. Hansard, *Parliamentary Debates*, Volume 20, Third Series, Great Britain, 1833, p. 733

¹¹ *Ibid.*,

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3d. That the amount of private subscriptions be received, expended and accounted for before any issue of public money for such School be directed.

4th. That no application be complied with, unless upon the consideration of such a report, either from the National School Society or the British and Foreign School Society....

5th. That the applicants whose cases are favourably entertained, be required to bind themselves to submit to any audit of their accounts which this Board may direct, ...

6th. That, in considering all applications made to the Board, a preference be given to such applications as come from large cities and towns, in which the necessity of assisting in the erection of schools is most pressing..."¹²

Although the grant was a financial encouragement to the National Society and the British and Foreign Schools Society to continue their work in providing school accommodation, and did not commit the Government to active participation in the educational field, its implications went further. It marked the beginning of a new era in the history of English education.

Both of the Church and the Dissenters welcomed the action of the Government in giving them grants in aid of their work, but they remained opposed to all forms of control and interference by the State. Their reasons for the distrust of State intervention were widely different. The Church was working for the foundation of schools in which the education given to children should be in lines with the religious principles of the Established Church. It refused to

¹² *House of Commons Papers, Volume 41, Great Britain, Parliament, H.M. Stationery Office, 1839, p. 282*

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admit the idea that any secular education would remove the social and moral evils, which the schools were intended to eradicate.¹³ The foundation of the National Society had been a manifestation of the official position of the Church as a teaching body, and of its intention to assume national responsibility for elementary education, on the ground that it was the Church of the State.

The Dissenters, however, kept to their theory of personal liberty that any indication of State activity would be suspicious, and the role of the foundation of the British and Foreign School Society was to promote the “education of the Labouring and Manufacturing Classes of Society of every religious persuasion.”¹⁴

From 1833 to 1839, three Select Committees were appointed to consider the best means of providing educational facilities. According to *The Quarterly Journal of Education*, because of the unsatisfactory results obtained from the government grant, further parliamentary action was to be undertaken. On 3rd June 1834, Roebuck moved for a committee to inquire into the means of establishing a system of National Education. In the debate, which followed, the education given to the poor proved to be deficient in quality as in quantity. Thus, a “Select Committee to inquire into the state of education of the people in England and Wales, and into the

¹³ G. P. McHugh, op. cit., p.14

¹⁴, John P. Wilson, *The Routledge Encyclopaedia of UK Education, Training and Employment: From the Earliest Statutes to the Present Day*, Routledge, 2013, p. 27

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application and effect of the grants made last session for the erection of school-houses, and to consider the expediency of effecting further grants in aid of education”¹⁵ was appointed.

It was not until the Committee of 1837 reported that any valuable information on the conditions in the large towns in England and Wales was forthcoming. In the Report, published in 1838, the Committee paid tribute to the work of private benevolence and deplored the lack of necessary machinery for securing correct information regarding the state of education of the poorer classes. The Select Committee recognized that a shortage of education existed among the children of the working classes in the Metropolis and in the great towns. An appropriate instruction should therefore be provided for a proportion of not less than one-eighth of the population. The means of Government assistance should be regulated as before, but that relaxation of the requirements should be made in favour of districts where poverty could be proved. The scheme of distribution through the National and the British Societies should be retained, but the amount of the award should be increased.¹⁶

¹⁵ Society for the Diffusion of Useful Knowledge, *The Quarterly Journal of Education*, Volume 8, Charles Knight, Great Britain, London, 1834, pp. 184-5

¹⁶ Edward Hartman Reisner, *Nationalism and Education since 1789, A Social and Political History of Modern Education*, The Macmillan company, New York, 1922, p. 251

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I.2. A ‘Sound and Cheap’ Elementary Education

In 1858, a Royal Commission on the state of popular education in England, under the chairmanship of Henry Pelham, the Duke of Newcastle, was appointed. Its terms of reference were:

“To inquire into the state of public education in England and to consider and report what measures, if any, are required for the extension of sound and cheap elementary instruction to all classes of the people.”¹⁷

Its members included Sir John Taylor Coleridge (1790-1876, English judge), William Charles Lake, M.A (1817–1897, dean of Durham).; William Rogers, M.A (1819-1896, educational reformer).; Goldwin Smith, M.A. (1823-1910, British historian and journalist); Nassau William Senior, M.A.(1790-1864 English lawyer) and Edward Miall (1809-1881 English journalist and politician).¹⁸

The Commission published its six-volume report in 1861 including a corpus of statistics and recommendations. It proposed that schools should be maintained by grants of two kinds only: State grants and Rate grants, depending on the accomplishment of a certain degree of knowledge by the children in the school during the year preceding the payment of the grant. The schools to earn the grants would have to be registered, and a certain structural

¹⁷ J. Stuart Maclure, *Educational Documents: England and Wales, 1816 to the Present Day*, Methuen, 1972, p. 70

¹⁸ Ibid.,

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standard would be required including eight square feet of superficial area for each child in average daily attendance.¹⁹

Special advantages concerning the State grant were to be offered to small schools with less than 60 pupils. The county or borough rate relied on the result of annual examinations by a borough or county examiner. The combined State and Rate grants would not exceed the fees and subscriptions united, or 15s. per child on the average attendance, on condition that a sum varying from 22s. 6d. to 21s.²⁰ should be paid to the managers of qualifying schools regarding every child who had attended 140 days in the year and had passed a local examination in the three R's. It provided further that 20s. per child should be paid in respect of the average number of children under the age of seven in attendance. Such children were not to be subject to examination.²¹

It is to be observed from these recommendations that vast sums for securing the attendance of large numbers were prepared to be spent for a short period, during which an amount of education was to be administered. The system was to be carried out by County and Borough Boards of Education.

¹⁹ Monroe, Paul. *A Cyclopaedia of Education*. Vol. 4. 1918, p. 608.

²⁰ *Papers for the Schoolmaster*. Vol. 11. 1861, pp. 56-7. (Author Unknown)

²¹ Education Commission, *Elementary education acts, Final report of the Commissioners appointed to inquire into the elementary education acts, England and Wales*, printed for HMSO, Eyre & Spottiswoode, London, 1888, p. 15.

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In boroughs with more than 40,000 inhabitants, the Town Council would appoint a Borough Board of six members, of whom not more than two were to be ministers of religion. The Commissioners further recommended the extension of grants to training colleges; the organisation of evening schools with a special grant; the application of educational and other charities to practical educational use, and, for securing this, the transference of the duties of the Charity Commissioners to a Department of the Privy Council.²²

These recommendations were subjected to the acute criticism of Parliament. However, the Government had also to consider the extremely precise statistics collected by the Commissioners on the basis that the population of the country was nineteen and a half millions.²³ The number of children in the middle of the year 1858 at all schools was amounted to 2,535,462. There were 58,975 week-day schools, of which 24,563 were public schools, containing 1,675,158 scholars. "Of the scholars in public week-day schools, 911,152 were males, and 764,006 females."²⁴

Private schools contained 389,607 males, and 470,697 females. According to De Montmorency, the contrast was a very remarkable one. Where schools were inefficient, an excess of

²² Ibid.,

²³ J.E.G. De Montmorency, *The Progress of Education in England, A Sketch of the Development of English Educational Organization from Early Times to the Year 1904*, Knight & CO, London, 1904, p. 116.

²⁴ Ibid.,

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females would be found, since, in an 'imperfect' educational system, what was not good enough for boys was considered good enough for girls. Nearly half of the public schools were "mixed", namely for boys and girls. There were also 33,872 Sunday schools with 2,411,554 pupils, and 2,036 evening schools with 80,966 pupils.²⁵

The factory schools contained only 17,000 children. The collegiate and superior endowed schools counted 560 in number, and enrolled 35,000 children only. Out of the 24,563 public schools, 22,647 were supported by religious denominations, and provided for 1,549,312 children of the total of 1,675,158 children educated in public schools.²⁶ Among those denominational schools, 19,549 were schools supported exclusively by the Church of England, and they educated 1,187,086 of the 1,549,312 children educated in denominational schools.²⁷

Considering the whole number of schools, either private or public, the amount of scholars in week-day schools was 1 in 7.7 per cent according to the whole population. ²⁸ Public schools, for instance, counted only one scholar in approximately every twelve persons of the population. The number of private schools was minor. De Montmorency, nevertheless, considered these figures as

²⁵ Ibid.,

²⁶ Ibid.,

²⁷ Education Commission, *Report of the Commissioners Appointed to Inquire Into the State of Popular Education in England*, Vol. I, printed for HMSO, Eyre & Spottiswoode, London, 1861, p. 79.

²⁸ Ibid.,

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deceptive, since they were based on the scholars on the books, and not on actual attendances. The attendances had to be reduced by one-quarter. Moreover, 70 per cent of the book-numbers were children under ten years. Out of 24,563 public weekday schools, only 9,378 (containing 1,101,545 pupils) were subject to Government inspection and of these only 6,897 (containing 917,255 pupils) were aided by annual Government grants. Among these 999 schools containing 47,748 scholars, were almost supported by taxation.²⁹

The Report revealed numerous deficiencies as regards the quality of education provided. According to Her Majesty's Inspectors, not more than one fourth of the children received a decent education. As a result of such a failure, the commission concluded that the instruction given was judged of an ambitious and superficial nature.³⁰

I.3. The Revised Code, 1862

The Newcastle Commission recommended that a grant should be paid in respect of every child who, having attended an elementary school, passed an examination in reading, writing and arithmetic. Accordingly, a provision was introduced by the Committee of Council on Education into the Revised Code for 1862. It is known as 'Lowe's Code', stipulating that every scholar for

²⁹ Ibid.,

³⁰ Ibid.,

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whom grants were claimed must be examined according to one of six 'standards' in reading, writing and arithmetic – “reading a short paragraph in a newspaper; writing similar matter from dictation; working sums in practice and fractions”³¹

³¹ Raymond Williams, *The Long Revolution*, Penguin Books, England, 1961, p. 157.

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Table 1: The Standards of Examinations, 1862

	Standard I	Standard II	Standard III
Reading	Narrative in monosyllables	One of the Narratives next in order after monosyllables in an elementary reading book used in the school	A short paragraph from an elementary reading book used in the school
Writing	From on black-board or slate, from dictation, letters, capital and small manuscript	Copy in manuscript character a line of print	A sentence from the same paragraph, slowly read once, and then dictated in single words
Arithmetic	Form on the black-board or slate, from dictation figures up to 20; name at sight figures up 20; add and subtract figures up to 10, orally, from examples on black board	A sum in simple addition or subtraction, and multiplication table	A sum in any simple rule as far as short division (inclusive)
	Standard IV	Standard V	Standard VI
Reading	A short paragraph from a more advanced reading book used in the school	A few lines of poetry from a reading book used in the first class of the school	A short ordinary paragraph in a newspaper, or other modern narrative
Writing	A sentence slowly dictated once by a few words at a time, from the same book, but not from the paragraph read	A sentence slowly dictated once by a few words at a time, from a reading book used in the first class of the school.	Another short ordinary paragraph in a newspaper, or other modern narrative, slowly dictated once by a few words at a time
Arithmetic	A sum in compound rules (money)	A sum in compound rules (common weights and measures)	A sum in practice or bills of parcels

Source: J. Stuart Maclure, op. cit., p. 80.

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The organisation of elementary schools on the grounds of annual promotion came on account of this regulation. Classes in the senior department were termed standards I to VI, in accordance to ages 7 to 12.

Much dissatisfaction to these arrangements was expressed right from the beginning. The method of testing was opposed by teachers, mainly to the principle of 'payment by results' ³² as it connected money for schools with the criterion of a minimum standard. Thus, the work which started to appear before 1861 in the best elementary schools was discouraged by Lowe's Code. The curriculum remained restricted to the three Rs, and the only form of practical instruction that subsisted was needlework.

Furthermore, the standards proved defective because of their prescriptive basis (what a child should know), which ignored the development of mental capacities in relation to chronological age.

³² "Payment by results," a rigid method of accountability associated with English and Welsh elementary education during the second half of the nineteenth century, was a system whereby a school's governmental grant depended for the most part on how well pupils answered in the annual examination conducted by Her Majesty's Inspectors. In turn reviled and lauded by commentators from its inception in 1862, the scheme endured for three and a half decades. Brendan A. Rapple, *Payment by Results: 'An Example of Assessment in Elementary Education from Nineteenth Century Britain'*, Education Policy Analysis Archives, Vol 2 N°1, January 5, 1994, p.1

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I.4. The Clarendon Report, 1864

Following complaints about the finances, buildings and management of Eton College, in 1861 Queen Victoria commissioned a group of officials to investigate the nine leading public schools of England.

The Royal Commission on the Public Schools was set up in 1861 whose terms of reference was “To inquire into the nature and application of the Endowments, Funds and Revenue belonging to or received by the hereinafter mentioned Colleges, Schools and Foundations; and also to inquire into the administration and management of the said Colleges, Schools and Foundations”.³³

Its report made recommendations relating to the government, management and curriculum of the nine ancient foundations - Eton, Winchester, Westminster, Charterhouse, St Paul’s, Merchant Taylors’, Harrow, Rugby and Shrewsbury. It effectively established these as a separate class of ‘public schools’ and recommended that the curriculum should consist of classics, mathematics, a modern language, two natural sciences, history, geography, drawing, and music. The Commission set out the powers and responsibilities of the governing bodies and headmasters of the schools.

³³ J. Stuart Maclure, *op. cit.*, p. 83.

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The proposals of the Clarendon Report formed the basis for the 1868 Public Schools Act (31 July 1868), which did away with many of the old foundation statutes, instituted new governing bodies for the schools to promote their greater efficiency, and to carry into effect the main objects of the founders. It provided for the appointment of a number of named 'Special Commissioners' who were empowered to supervise the work of the schools and to make statutes and regulations in case the governing bodies failed to do so.

In 1869, two societies were established: the Education League,³⁴ which turned secular and the National Education Union, which was conservative and Anglican. It was mainly due to these two societies that the Education Act of 1870 was passed.

³⁴ The National Education League was an English political movement, which promoted elementary education for all children, free from religious control. The National Education League, founded 1869, developed from the Birmingham Education League, co-founded in 1867 by Joseph Chamberlain, a nonconformist. Chamberlain became leader of the National Education League. The opposing organisation was the National Educational Union of Manchester, comprised of Conservatives and Anglicans. Chamberlain was a campaigner for the provision of education free of influence by the churches. The Anglicans and Catholic Churches were in control of the existing voluntary schools, and controlled the religious education of those who attended. The Liberals and Dissenters wanted compulsory education without religious doctrine. https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/National_Education_League. Accessed 08/11/2014

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I.5. The Recommendation for a National System of Secondary Education

In 1864, the Schools Inquiry Commission under the chairmanship of Lord Taunton, was appointed to inquire into the education in secondary schools as a whole. That is, all those schools which lay between the nine great public schools covered by the Clarendon Commission and ‘the education of boys and girls of the labouring class’ which had been dealt with by the Newcastle Commission. Its terms of reference were “to consider and report what measures (if any) are required for the improvement of such education, having especial regard to all endowments applicable or which can rightly be made applicable thereto”.³⁵

The Commissioners, among them, Lord Edward Henry Smith Stanley and George William, investigated 782 grammar schools, plus some proprietary and private schools. They found that provision of secondary education was poor and unevenly distributed. There seemed to be no clear conception of the purpose of secondary education, nor was there any appropriate distinction of courses adapted to the needs of pupils who left school at different ages.

The Commissioners recommended the establishment of a national system of secondary education based on the existing endowed schools. Their report clearly illustrated the accepted class

³⁵ J. Stuart Maclure, *op. cit.*, , p. 89

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divisions in the English society at the time. It envisaged three grades of secondary education in distinct schools:

1. *First-grade schools* included those with a leaving age of 18 or beyond and would provide a 'liberal education' - including Latin and Greek - to prepare upper and upper-middle class boys for the universities and the older professions.
2. *Second-grade schools* involved those with a leaving age of 16 and would teach two modern languages besides Latin to prepare middle class boys for the army, the newer professions and departments of the Civil Service.
3. *Third-grade schools* encompassed those with a leaving age of 14 and would teach the elements of French and Latin to lower middle class boys, who would be expected to become 'small tenant farmers, small tradesmen, and superior artisans'. (The Commissioners treated these schools as secondary schools because the Elementary School Code of 1860 had fixed the leaving age for elementary schools at 12).³⁶

The Commissioners argued that no curriculum could be complete without natural science, and they recommended that a start should be made with the outlines of physical geography, 'which requires no apparatus but good maps'. The report of the Taunton Commission was the first to contain a plan for the

³⁶ Raymond Williams, *op. cit.*, p.159

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organisation of what today would be called secondary education, and which put stress on the secondary education for girls.

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II. The Intervention of the State (1870-1902)

The period, stretching from the last quarter of nineteenth century to the opening of the twentieth, witnessed important changes in legislative measure as regards educational provision. The introduction of the Education Act of 1870, being the most remarkable piece of legislation of the late Victorian era, required adequate provision for elementary education to be made in all parts of the country. Where existing schools were unable to meet the needs of the locality a school board could be established to make up the short fall. In many rural areas the local clergy were opposed to them, considering them as a threat to existing provision.

The 1876 Education Act required the setting up of school attendance committees in areas where there were no school boards; the committees were empowered to demand compulsory attendance of children in the age range of five to thirteen inclusive.

The 1880 Education Act imposed the compulsory attendance of all children between the ages of five and ten and thereafter until fourteen unless exemption could be gained on grounds of educational attainment or of average level of attendance. For those aged between ten and twelve a minimum of 250 attendances per annum was required, while for the over-twelves the figure was 150. Legal exemption could only granted on a part-time basis if the child had passed the age of ten and if the specified number of attendances had been made. Complete exemption below the age of fourteen

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depended either upon the child passing his 'Labour certificate' as the standard laid down by the education bylaws in his own school district (usually either Standard IV or Standard V), or upon his having reached the age of thirteen and having made at least 250 attendances per annum in the previous five years.

The 1891, Elementary Education Act made elementary education free; a government grant of 10s a year was payable for each pupil in a public elementary school based on average attendance and fees could be either reduced by that amount or abolished entirely.

In 1893, the minimum school leaving age was raised to eleven and was raised to twelve in 1899, although in rural areas eleven was still frequently accepted. School boards and attendance committees were required to appoint attendance officers to ensure that the provisions of the various Education Acts were observed.

II.1. The Elementary Education Act, 1870

In England, the beginning of the nineteenth century was characterised by an extraordinary growth in popular education and literacy, reflecting the combined influence of increased private demand for basic instruction and the government-subsidised efforts of voluntary religious societies to construct schools for the working classes. In 1858, the Newcastle Commission reported that there remained "very few cases indeed in which children have been at no

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school whatsoever.”³⁷ Although most working-class children had at least some experience of formal schooling, the general pattern of irregular attendance and early withdrawal was clearly detrimental to educational progress.³⁸

The existing educational free market of voluntary schools and state subsidies did not deliver an effective educational market for all and the development of a system of state-provided and controlled elementary education was an attempt by the state to address fundamental deficiencies in the rapidly expanding market for popular education.

Bills to establish rate aid for schools were presented in Parliament and defeated in 1807, 1820 and in 1833, when John Roebuck presented a bill that would also have made elementary education compulsory.

The various Factory Acts of 1833, 1844, and 1867 were another contributory factor to the general tendency towards national education. These Acts focused not only on the condition of workers but they also had the effect of imposing certain restrictions on child labour, which in turn favoured the opportunity of an alternative education for the child.

³⁷ *Report of the Commissioners Appointed to Inquire into the State of Popular Education in England*, Parliamentary Papers, 1861, Vol. 21, pt. I, p. 85.

³⁸ *Ibid*, p. 178.

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In the second half of 19th century, crime and pauperism increased, so did riots, strikes and social unrest. The commercial and manufacturing supremacy of Britain was in decline and this was seen to be mostly due to the fact that other European countries had a more developed technical education system. Political stability and economic prosperity seemed to be associated with the education of the people. Education appeared financially viable.

In 1869, two societies were established: the Education League,³⁹ which turned secular and the National Education Union, which was conservative and Anglican. It was mainly due to these two societies that the Education Act of 1870 was passed.

On February 17th, 1870 W.E. Forster,⁴⁰ Vice-President in charge of the Education Department in Gladstone's first administration (1868-1874) introduced the government's Bill to

³⁹ In 1867, Joseph Chamberlain founded the Birmingham Education League, which evolved into the National Education League. Its aims were threefold: to secure free, compulsory, non-denominational elementary schooling. Although the Forster Education Act did not go far towards meeting these demands, the agitation brought Chamberlain into national prominence in Liberal circles. John Plowright, *The Routledge Dictionary of Modern British History*, Routledge Taylor & Francis Group, London and New York, 2006, p.93. Entry: Education League.

⁴⁰ Forster, William Edward (1818-1886), was a Liberal Party politician who helped make education available to all in the United Kingdom. As a member of Prime Minister Gladstone's Cabinet, he introduced and promoted the Elementary Education Act of 1870. This act increased grants to existing elementary schools and empowered local school boards to provide more elementary schools to meet the needs of their communities. *Encyclopaedia 2005 (Deluxe)*, Entry: Forster, William.

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provide for public elementary education in England and Wales. Though he was a Quaker and Radical, he was to steer between the two policies advocated by the major organisations campaigning for educational reform: the Education League and the National Union and subsequently, could adopt the dual system ⁴¹ to avoid secularism and Church control.

Forster's introduction of the Bill included an overview of the prevailing educational situation, where he pointed out to the unsatisfactory number of children on Government registers and the critical state of unaided schools. That is to say, schools not receiving Government assistance. J. Stuart Maclure mentioned:

“only two-fifths of the children of the working classes between the ages of six and ten years are on the registers of the Government schools, and only one-third of those between the ages of ten and twelve. Consequently, of those between six and ten, we have helped about 700, 000 more or less, but we have unhelped 1,000, 000; while those between ten and twelve, we have helped 250, 000, and left unhelped at least 500, 000...., I daresay, that I leave out the consideration of the unaided schools. I do not, however, leave them out of consideration;that the schools which do not receive Government assistance are, generally speaking, the worst schools and those least fitted to give a good education to the children of the working classes.” ⁴²

The Elementary Education Act of 1870 bore in every respect the marks of compromise. As Forster explained in introducing the Bill, the object of the government was to complete the voluntary system

⁴¹ J. Stuart Maclure, *Educational Documents England & Wales 1816 to the Present Day*, Methuen, 1972, p. 98.

⁴² *Ibid.*, p. 99

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and to fill up gaps, not to replace it. In this respect, H.C. Bernard declared:

“Our object is to complete the present voluntary system, to fill up gaps, sparing the public money where it can be done without, procuring as much as we can the assistance of the parents, and welcoming as much as we rightly can the co-operation and aid of those benevolent men who desire to assist their neighbours.”⁴³

To this end, the Education Department was charged with the duty of ascertaining whether there was in every parish a deficiency of public school accommodation, and provision made for the formation of school boards in every school district (i.e. parish or municipal borough) requiring further public school accommodation. Such accommodation might consist either of public elementary schools as defined by the Act, or other schools giving efficient and suitable elementary education.

A public elementary school was soon a school subject to a conscience clause entitling scholars to complete exemption from all religious instruction and observance whatsoever. Any religious instruction or observance in the school had to be either at the beginning or the end of the school meeting. The school had also to be open at all times to the government inspectors and had to be conducted in accordance with the conditions required to be fulfilled in order to obtain an annual parliamentary grant.

⁴³ H.C. Bernard, *A History of English Education from 1760 to 1944*, London, University of London Press, 1947, p. 135

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In the same connection, an important change was made in the conditions of inspection by declaring that it should be no part of the duties of the inspector to inquire into religious instruction,⁴⁴ though a later section of the Act provided that no parliamentary grant should be made in respect of any religious instruction.

II.1.1. The Provisions of the Act

Three important changes were made in the measure during passage of the Act through Parliament. The first change concerned the school boards, who were not to be directly elected by the ratepayers, but to be appointed by the town council or the vestry. These nominated boards were empowered either to provide schools themselves or to assist existing public elementary schools, provided that such assistance should be granted on equal terms to all such schools, upon conditions to be approved by the Education Department. Thus, the school board, if it exercised the option of assisting denominational schools, would be obliged to assist all or none. With regard to its own schools, the school board was to settle the form of religious instruction.

The second change dealt with the character of the religious instruction in the Board schools. It was determined upon a nondenominational basis by the Cowper-Temple clause (section 14

⁴⁴ *33 & 34 Vict. c. 75, (I.) Local Provision for Schools, Section 7, (3), Elementary Education Act 1870*, Crown copyright material, under the permission of HMSO and the Queen's Printer for Scotland, 2013, p.445.

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of the Act), directing that no religious catechism, or religious formulary which was distinctive of any particular denomination would be taught in the school. The local provisions for schools provided that:

“Every school provided by a school board shall be conducted under the control and management of such board in accordance with the following regulations: (1.) The school shall be a public elementary school within the meaning of this Act: (2.) No religious catechism or religious formulary which is distinctive of any particular denomination shall be taught in the school.”⁴⁵

The clause was not intended to exclude doctrinal exposition, it was in fact a compromise between absolute secularism and denominationalism. The Act of 1870 left the divine of religious instruction, whether in Voluntary schools or in Board schools, purely permissive.

The third change in the Bill was the substitution of the ad hoc school board for the municipally appointed board originally proposed, a change which commended itself in view of the special difficulty presented by the case of London. The boards were elected by the system of cumulative voting under which each elector had as many votes as there were candidates to be elected, with liberty to give all his votes to one candidate or to distribute them among the candidates as he thought fit.⁴⁶ This system was much criticized as being improperly favourable to minorities, whose representation it

⁴⁵ Ibid., p .448

⁴⁶ Ibid., p.455

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was devised to secure; it continued, however, until the suppression of the ad hoc authorities by committees of the county and urban councils.

School boards were empowered not only to acquire sites for schools under powers of compulsory purchase, but also to take transfers of existing Voluntary schools from their managers.⁴⁷ The 23rd section which, enabled managers to transfer schools to the school Board or Local Education Authority for the purpose of Board or Council schools freed from religious trusts unquestionably marked an important step by the state upon the sanctity of trusts. The Act of 1870 introduced neither direct compulsory attendance nor free education, but it took a distinct step forward in each direction by enabling school boards to frame by-laws rendering attendance compulsory, and also to pay the school fees in the case of poverty of the parents.⁴⁸

The policy of compromise between the two systems of Voluntary and rate-established schools was carried out in the provisions relating to the future supply of schools. The Education Department was authorized to refuse parliamentary grants to schools established in school board districts after the passing of the Act if they thought such schools unnecessary (Section 18 of the Act).

⁴⁷ Ibid., p.449-450.

⁴⁸ Ibid., p. 444

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This statute was the first of a series, which introduced important new principles of legislation. For the first time statutory provision was made for several things which hitherto had never been recognised by the State. The Education Act, 1870 stipulated that:

1. School Boards could be set up by popular vote in districts where school places were inadequate
2. These were to provide elementary education for children aged 5-13
3. Elected by ratepayers, they could raise a school rate to finance their activities (above the central government funding)
4. Pupils were still to pay fees
5. Boards would pay the fees of children who were poor, even if they attended Church schools
6. Boards could, if they deemed it necessary, create a bye-law and table it before Parliament, to make attendance compulsory (in 1873, 40% of the population lived in compulsory attendance districts)
7. Religious teaching in board schools was restricted to non-denominational instruction, or none at all
8. Parents had the right to withdraw their children from religious education. This applied even to church schools
9. All schools would be inspected.⁴⁹

It was with the Education Act of 1870, also known as the “Forster Act”, that the British had the real birth of the modern system of education in England. This not only gave rise to a national system of state education but also assured the existence of a dual system - voluntary denominational schools and nondenominational state schools. The Act required the establishment of elementary schools nationwide. These were not to

⁴⁹ G. Benson Clogh., *A Short History of Education*, Nijmegen University, NL, Second Edition, 1998, p. 87

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replace what had already existed but to supplement those already run by the churches, private individuals, and guilds.

The country was divided into school districts, and in those areas where there was inadequate provision, school boards were to be elected. These were responsible for raising sufficient funds to maintain the schools. The schools were often called “Board Schools”.

Religious instruction was an important part of the school curriculum but was not compulsory; it was to be nondenominational. Since 1870, Voluntary Schools had declined except Roman Catholic Schools because Boards Schools provided better buildings and higher pay for teachers.

The statistics below demonstrate the progress made under the Act of 1870. In 1870, there was accommodation progress in inspected day schools for about 2,000,000 children; the average attendance was 1,168,000. It was estimated that there were at least 1,500,000 children who attended no school at all or schools not under inspection.⁵⁰

As a result of the Act, 2500 new school boards were created. They were directly elected and independent of existing forms of local government. They varied in size from that of London, which

⁵⁰ *Encyclopaedia Britannica*, 11th Edition, Volume 8, Slice 10, 1911, p. 976

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had 55 members and controlled almost 400 schools, to the rural boards, many of which controlled just one school.⁵¹

The Act did not provide free education (except in proven cases of poverty), and while it *empowered* school boards to frame byelaws making attendance at school compulsory for children between the ages of five and thirteen, it did not *require* them to do so.

By the end of 1871, 117 school boards ⁵² had instituted byelaws requiring some degree of compulsory attendance, but these byelaws were often subject to numerous exemptions. It must be recognized that the 1870 Elementary Education Act was only the start of a process, which would take more than twenty years to complete.

The last quarter of the nineteenth century (1876-1899) witnessed a series of legislation adding detail to the state education system, which the 1870 Act had initiated. In this respect, the two most significant Acts were the Elementary Education Act of 1880, which made school attendance compulsory, and that of 1891, which made elementary education free. Finally, the 1899 Board of Education Act created a new government department to oversee education

⁵¹ Clyde Chitty, Eugenics, *Race and Intelligence in Education*, A&C Black, 2009. P. 17

⁵² *Ibid.*,

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II.2. Improving Attendance

Despite the existing legislation related to factory children, the Factory and Workshops Act Commission, appointed to inquire into the working of the factory and workshops, reported in 1876 that those laws seemed unsatisfactory. More regulations, as regards school attendance, would be imposed for the benefit of factory children to be given better opportunity to get instructed. In this respect, T. C. Hansard stated:

“We consider that justice, expediency, and consistency alike require that the attendance at school of all children should be enforced by law, whether they are at work or not.”⁵³

The Act of 1876, introduced by Vice-president of the Education Department, Lord Sandon, aimed directly at improving attendance. It was notable for its declaration that it was the duty of every parent to see that his child received efficient elementary instruction in reading, writing, and arithmetic, and for providing penalties for defaulters. The Act stated in Section 4:

“4. It shall be the duty of the parent of every child to cause such child to receive efficient instruction in reading, writing, and arithmetic, and if such parent fail to perform such duty, he shall be liable to such orders and penalties as are provided by this Act.”⁵⁴

⁵³ T. C. Hansard, *The Parliamentary Debates*, Parliament, Great Britain, 1876, p. 1271

⁵⁴ *Elementary Education Act, 1876, 39 & 40 Vict c. 79*, (I).4. Crown copyright material, under the permission of HMSO and the Queen’s Printer for Scotland, 2013, pp. 472-3.

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No child was to be employed under 10 years of age under penalty to the employer, nor between the ages of 10 and 14 unless he had obtained a certificate from H. M. Inspector of having passed Standard IV in reading, writing, and arithmetic, or having made 250 attendances for each of five years. From the restriction, thus put upon the employment of children special exemption was given to those who came under the Factory Acts, which provided for half-time attendance at school. Thus, the Act stipulates in Part II, Section 1:

“(1.) The standard of proficiency in reading, writing, and elementary arithmetic for the purpose of a certificate under this Act enabling a child to be employed shall be - (a.) The standard of reading, writing, and elementary arithmetic fixed by standard four of the Code of 1876, or any higher standard. (2.) The standard of previous due attendance at a certified efficient school for the purpose of a certificate under this Act enabling a child to be employed shall be two hundred and fifty attendances after five years of age in not more than two schools during each year for five years, whether consecutive or not.”⁵⁵

To administer the provisions of the Act, local authorities were set up in places where there was no school board, the Town Council, Board of Guardians, or Urban Sanitary Authority might appoint a School Attendance Committee, which was to exercise the same powers in enforcing school attendance as the School Boards. The Committees were authorised to report any infringement of the conscience clause - a power that was either unnecessary or was

⁵⁵ Ibid. , p.490.

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overlooked, for it was not brought extensively into use. Provision was also made for the establishment of day industrial schools to which vagrant and refractory children might be sent.

To encourage parents to keep their children at school, free instruction for three years was to be given to all who had attended regularly for five years. Finally, a relaxation in the scale of grants was allowed, and special aid was given to poor schools in scattered districts. The cost of education was rising, and it was proposed to give a sum up to 17s. 6d. a head. The Act was deliberately intended to assist the Voluntary schools. Thus, the Act stipulated in Section 19 that:

“Such grant shall not in any year be reduced by reason of its excess above the income of the school if the grant do not exceed the amount of seventeen shillings and sixpence per child in average attendance at the school during that year, but shall not exceed that amount per child, except by the same sum by which the income of the school, derived from voluntary contributions, rates, school fees, endowments, and any source whatever other than the parliamentary grant exceeds the said amount per child.”⁵⁶

Despite the fact that the Sandon’s Act failed to make attendance compulsory, it contributed, at least, to prevent children from working in the factories.

⁵⁶ Ibid., p.479

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II.3. Compulsion Settlement

In 1880, the Liberal MP Anthony Mundella, as vice-president of the Council in Gladstone's administration, passed an Act, which made the framing of by-laws compulsory upon school boards, thus completing the 1880 Act. School attendance was made obligatory for all children between the age of five and ten.⁵⁷ Exemptions based on proficiency or attendance could be obtained up to thirteen. Thus, the question of compulsion was at last settled, but fees were not at the same time entirely abolished and continued in some cases to be paid, especially in the Voluntary Schools.⁵⁸

With the introduction of the Elementary Education Act 1880, the education question entered upon a new phase. The country was in possession of a national system of developed elementary education, in the sense that provision was made for both the supply of efficient schools and compulsory public attendance. The question of free education was optional, brought within the range of practical politics by the adoption of universal compulsion, yet only a small political group of pronounced collectivist tendencies advocated it.

⁵⁷ *Elementary Education Act 1880*, 39 & 40 Vict. c. 79. (4), *Enforcing of byelaws*, Crown copyright material is reproduced with the permission of the Controller of HMSO and the Queen's Printer for Scotland. p. 143

⁵⁸ H.C. Bernard, *A History of English Education from 1760 to 1944*, London, University of London Press, 1947, p. 198

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In 1888, a royal commission under the presidency of Viscount Cross⁵⁹ was appointed to inquire into the working of the former Elementary Education Acts. This Royal Commission was appointed after complaints by the Roman Catholics led by Cardinal Manning about the position of voluntary schools under the Act of 1870. The labours of this commission undertook a thorough discussion of the educational problem in all its aspects: political, administrative, scholastic, religious and so on. For any clear recommendations with regard to the reorganization of education, the time was not appropriate, given the fact that the commission preceded the establishment of the new county authorities, and the powers related to instruction other than elementary, were to be revealed to them under the Technical Instruction Acts.

The Commission recommended that Voluntary schools should be accorded rate-aid without the imposition of the Cowper-Temple clause, served as the basis of that legislation. The commission brought into strong relief the opposing currents of thought in educational politics, the majority report, representing the principles

⁵⁹ Cross, Richard Assheton, 1st Viscount (1823-1914) British statesman responsible for the first urban renewal authorization in Great Britain. Cross was a Conservative member of the House of Commons from 1857 to 1862 and from 1868 until 1886. In 1874, Prime Minister Benjamin Disraeli appointed him home secretary. In 1875 Cross carried through Parliament the Factory Act, regulating the employment of women and children in textile mills; the Public Health Act, a comprehensive sanitary code; and two statutes reinterpreting Gladstone's trade-union legislation of 1871 in a sense more favourable to the unions. *Encyclopædia Britannica 2007 Ultimate Reference Suite*, Entry: Cross Viscount

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of denominationalism, being balanced by a strong minority report embodying the views of those who looked for progress along the lines of the school-board system.

II.4. Free Education

Elementary education became effectively free with the passing of the 1891 Education Act, which made further provision for assisting education. It was commonly called the Free Education Act and was a significant step in the process, which the 1870 Act had begun. It provided for an extra grant at the rate of ten shillings a year to be paid to every efficient elementary school for each child between the age of three and thirteen years in average attendance.⁶⁰ Such grant was only to be made in consideration of the abolition of fees in every school, where the previous average fees did not amount to more than ten shillings or in consideration of the reduction of the fees charged by at least ten shillings. The schools were forbidden to charge additional fees except in certain circumstances (Section 4 of the Act).

⁶⁰ *Elementary Education Act 1891, 54 & 55 Vict c. 56, Fee grant and conditions thereof*, Crown copyright material is reproduced with the permission of the Controller of HMSO and the Queen's Printer for Scotland, p.272

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The religious difficulty in elementary education reached an acute stage after the report of the Bryce⁶¹ Commission in 1895. This circumstance was immediately unfavourable to handle educational problems of public attention being largely concentrated upon the demand of the supporters of voluntary schools for relief from the growing financial burden, which was laid upon them by that steady raising of the standard. In 1896, an endeavour was made to meet the demands of the voluntary managers by means of a Bill introduced by Sir John Gorst on behalf of the Conservative government. This Bill with its provision for a special aid grant to be administered by county education authorities, which were to exist side by side with the school boards, represented a kind of compromise between the systems of 1870 and 1902. It encountered opposition in all quarters and was withdrawn. In 1897, however, the position of the denominational schools was strengthened by the Voluntary Schools Act, which provided for a special aid grant of the scholars in average attendance in these schools.

Considering the difficulties, which beset any comprehensive treatment of the education question, partial effect was given to the

⁶¹ James Bryce, Viscount (1838-1922) British politician and diplomat. He was a Liberal member of the House of Commons, serving as undersecretary of state for foreign affairs (1886), chancellor of the duchy of Lancaster (1892), and president of the Board of Trade (1894–95). During those two years he also presided over what came to be called the Bryce Commission, which recommended the establishment of a ministry for education. On Jan. 1, 1914, Bryce was created a viscount. Subsequently, he advocated the establishment of the League of Nations. *Encyclopædia Britannica 2007 Ultimate Reference Suite*, Entry: Bryce

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recommendations of the Secondary Education by the Board of Education Act of 1899, which abolished the office of vice-president of the Act council. The administrative reorganization of the Education Office was completed shortly after the passing of the Act of 1902, when a tripartite division was adopted to correspond with the three branches of education with which the Board of Education is concerned with, elementary, secondary and technological.

II.5. The Settlement of the Board of Education

The Board of Education Act, 1899 (9 August 1899) established the Board of Education as the government department responsible for education (Section 1), replacing the Education Department and the Department of Science and Art (Section 2).⁶² It provided for the inspection of secondary schools and for the establishment of a Consultative Committee to frame regulations for a register of teachers and to advise the Board on educational matters.⁶³ The school leaving age was raised to 11 in 1893 and to 12 in 1899.

By the closing of the nineteenth century, England had a national system of elementary education, though it was still largely confined to the provision of a minimum standard.⁶⁴

⁶² *Board of Education Act 1899, 54 & 55 Vict c. 56*, Crown copyright material is reproduced with the permission of the Controller of HMSO and the Queen's Printer for Scotland, p.119-20.

⁶³ *Ibid.*,

⁶⁴ Raymond Williams, *op. cit.*, p.137.

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By 1893, Board Schools in England had enrolled 41 per cent of the pupils in elementary schools as against 44 per cent in Voluntary Schools. By 1902, the government grants for maintenance had reached, for all schools, £8,000,000 a year, and the Board Schools were rapidly outrunning the Voluntary Schools both in numbers and in per capita expenditures. ⁶⁵The Board Schools had made their greatest headway in the cities. However, in 1895 there were still some 11,000 small parishes, which had no Board Schools, and in consequence paid no direct taxes for schools. Of these, 8,000 had only Church of England Voluntary Schools. ⁶⁶

In 1880, elementary education had been made fully compulsory, and in 1891, largely free. In 1888, county and borough councils had been created, to enforce the Act and to extend supervision. The *Annual Codes*, from 1870 to 1902, gradually extended governmental control through more and more detailed instructions as to inspection, the addition of new subjects, and compulsion to attend. In 1893, the age for exemption from attendance was fixed at eleven, and in 1899, this was raised to twelve.

By 1895, the strain on the Voluntary Schools had become hard to bear. The Church resented the encroachments of the State on its ancient privilege of training the young, and the larger resources, which the Board Schools could command. In 1895, the Conservative

⁶⁵ Ellwood P. Cubberley, *op. cit.*, p. 283

⁶⁶ *Ibid.*,

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Party won the parliamentary elections, and remained in power for some years.

In 1899, a Central Board of Education was created to consolidate in one body the work formerly done by the Committee of Council on Education (established 1839). This committee administered the grants for elementary education. The Department of Science and Art (established 1853) administered the grants for special and evening instruction in science and art. The Charity Commissioners had been given in 1874 the supervision of the old educational trusts and endowments for education and the educational functions of the Board of Agriculture. This new Board unified the administration of elementary and secondary education for the first time.

Conclusion

The 1833, parliamentary grant to education, though a small sum, was the very first case in which government financial assistance to schools was given. Such grant, as the first step, was not considered as effective involvement, but could pave the way to further grants and State intervention.

The Factory Acts (1833, 1844 and 1867) were another influential factor towards national education. These Acts focused on the condition of workers and imposed certain constraints on child labour, which offered the opportunity of the education for the child.

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The Newcastle Commission 1861, concerned with the state of popular education in England, examined how to extend “sound and cheap” primary education to all. It rejected free and compulsory primary education, and recommended continued voluntary church and private school initiative supplemented by state aid based on “Payment by Results.”

The Revised Code aimed to create the framework for the extension of effective and affordable elementary education for all social classes. It established a system of payment by results, whereby schools could claim four shillings annually for pupils who attended regularly and eight shillings if pupils passed specified tests in the three “Rs”.

The Taunton Commission of 1868 recommended the establishment of a national system of secondary education based on existing endowed schools. It considered how schools would be arranged according to social background and the misuse of endowments.

English education was to take another drive from the passage of the Education Act of 1870 to that of 1902. Forster’s Education Act was, in fact, the most important legislature with regard to education despite its qualification of compromise between the State and the Church. It brought about some important administrative and organisational changes among which education being compulsory, the establishment of district school boards, inspection

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of schools, and restriction of religious teaching in board schools. The Act did not exclude the Voluntary System, it welcomed it however. Further amendments of the Act were to be made either to fit and meet the requirements of society or readjust impractical clauses, which proved difficult to implement such as leaving school age and compulsory attendance.

In 1897, a special national - aid grant was made to the Voluntary Schools. This simply increased the general dissatisfaction, and there was soon a general demand for new legislation that would reconcile the whole question of national education, which shall be discussed in the next chapter.

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**CHAPTER THREE
THE SHAPING OF NATIONAL EDUCATION
(1902 – 1944)**

Introduction

The Former chapter discussed the main legislative measures taken by the State to promote a national system of education (1833-1902). The present chapter is devoted to the making of a national system of education between 1902 and 1944. It consists of two sections. The first section discusses the reorganisation mainly that of secondary education, from Balfour's Act to Fisher's (1902-1918) to examine the government's actions in reshaping a national education State system. It shall, therefore, consider the Education Act of 1902, Secondary Schools Regulations and the new secondary schools, the changes brought by the Fisher Act as well as the context of the Great War (1814-1918). The second section is devoted to the development of a national educational system from Fisher to Butler (1918-1944). It examines a variety of reports: The Hadow's, The Spens's, The Norwood's, The McNair's and The Fleming's. The impact of the Second World War is also considered.

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The first half of the twentieth century witnessed two World Wars, which eventually resulted in economic difficulties and social conflicts. However, education became more and more a public service governed by public policy. The centre of interest shifted to secondary education, which required more attention and definition. Such definition allowed the development of a coordinated system of education including elementary, secondary and technical sectors.

I. The Reorganisation of Education from Balfour to Fisher (1902-1918)

By the closing of the nineteenth century and the opening of the twentieth, important factors were changing attitudes towards the pattern of education as it had evolved since 1870.

The elementary system had created what was viewed as pseudo-secondary features in its higher-grade schools and evening classes.¹ The board schools were overtaking the voluntary schools. Many were in serious financial difficulties in a period of declining church attendance. The voluntary agencies, though divided on the desirability of further state aid and intervention, were pressing for more assistance. State intervention was generally being more actively advocated and tolerated in society. The 1895, The Bryce Commission recommended the creation of a central authority for education and a Board of Education was created in 1899. Local

¹ John Lawson, Harold Silver, *A Social History of Education in England*, Methuen & Co Ltd, 1973, p. 367.

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councils also entered the education field mainly under the Technical Instruction Act ² as competitors of the school boards.

Such changes threatened the 1870 settlement. School boards experienced an uncomfortable situation before the end of the century, particularly for their Higher-grade Schools ³ and what the church party considered excessive expenditure of ratepayers' money. Leading Conservatives, especially Sir John Gorst ⁴, attacked the boards and attempted to reduce their powers or transfer their powers to the county and county borough councils. The boards

² This Act enabled local authorities to levy rates to support technical and manual instruction with funding managed by technical instruction committees within county councils or borough councils. John P. Wilson, *The Routledge Encyclopaedia of UK Education, Training and Employment: From the Earliest Statutes to the Present Day*, Routledge, 2013, p.303

³ Higher grade schools were an extension of the elementary schools run by the School Boards. They usually placed an emphasis on scientific and technical subjects, partly because they could apply to the Science and Art Department for grants for science and art subjects although some did devote considerable time to 'literary' subjects. They generally provided education to the age of fourteen or fifteen and were seen as recruiting elementary school students from the lower classes who would be going into jobs as soon as they left school but wanted more training and education than the elementary school could provide. They only existed in some areas, mainly the cities, and varied from area to area. David Cannadine et al., *The right Kind of History: Teaching the Past in Twentieth century England, 'Government Policy towards Secondary Schools and History Teaching 1900-1910'*, Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan, 2011. p. 1-2

⁴ Gorst, Sir John Eldon (1835-1916), lawyer and politician whose reorganization of the British Conservative Party at the local level greatly facilitated the party's victory in the 1874 general election. Gorst sat in the House of Commons from 1866 to 1906, He held no office in Benjamin Disraeli's Conservative ministry of 1874–80 but was solicitor general under the 3rd marquess of Salisbury in 1885–86 and as Vice-President of the Committee on Education between 1895 and 1902. *Encyclopædia Britannica 2012 Ultimate Reference Suite*, Entry: Gorst.

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themselves, nonconformist and labour bodies expressed hostility to such moves and defended their record.

Sir Robert Morant, a British civil servant,⁵ who became Gorst's (lawyer and politician) private secretary in 1899 and permanent secretary of the Board of Education from 1903, was able to engineer a test case in which London school board expenditure on high elementary classes was disallowed by the district auditor, Cockerton, in 1899. The Cockerton judgement⁶ allowed Morant and Gorst to achieve a dual objective: the prevention of further post-elementary developments in board schools and the possibility of using the councils as all-embracing educational authorities. In drafting the new education Bill, Morant was able to bring elementary and secondary education under one authority, and at the same time, bring relief to the voluntary schools.

⁵ Sir Robert Morant, Laurie (1863 - 1920) was a British civil servant, closely associated with the development of educational and health services. He joined the Education Department in 1895 as assistant director of special inquiries and reports. As private secretary to successive ministers, he was largely responsible for preparing Arthur Balfour's Education Act of 1902. In April 1903 he became permanent secretary to the Board of Education. In 1907, he was created Knight Commander of the Bath. *Encyclopædia Britannica 2012 Ultimate Reference Suite*, Entry: Robert Morant.

⁶ The 'Cockerton judgement' of 1901 restricted school board expenditure to elementary education. It ruled against the School Board on the grounds that it was illegal to spend rates on anything other than elementary education. As a result of these controversies the Education (London) Act of 1903 abolished the School Board for London and transferred its responsibilities to the London County Council in 1904. *London Metropolitan Archives, Information Leaflet Number 27, An outline of sources for the history of education in London Metropolitan Archives*, London, 2006, p. 2

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I. 1. The Education Act, 1902

The debate on the Education Bill, steered by the Prime Minister A. J. Balfour⁷ through Parliament, saw a firm defence of the board schools. However, the separate administration of board schools, grammar schools, Science and Art Department grants, technical instruction committees and the independent management of voluntary elementary schools were disordered. The creation of new council education authorities would overcome this. It was, however, the notion of '*Church schools on the rates*' that provoked the fiercest and lasting resistance especially from Nonconformists.

The Balfour Education Act of 1902 marked the beginning of a new period in English education. For the first time in English history, education of all grades (elementary, secondary, higher, voluntary and state) was brought under the control of one single local authority. Voluntary Schools were taken over and made a charge on the "rates" equally with the Board Schools. New local Educational Committees and Councils replaced the old School Boards, and all secular instruction in state aided schools of all types

⁷ Arthur James Balfour (1848-1930), 1st earl of, Viscount Traprain, British statesman who maintained a position of power in the British Conservative Party for 50 years; he was prime minister from 1902 to 1905, and as foreign secretary from 1916 to 1919. Balfour was president of the Local Government Board in his uncle's first government (1885–86). In the second Salisbury ministry (1886–92), he was secretary for Scotland and then chief secretary for Ireland, with a seat in the Cabinet. In the last of Salisbury's three governments (1895–1902), Balfour became more powerful. *Encyclopædia Britannica 2012 Ultimate Reference Suite*, Entry: Arthur James Balfour

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was placed under their control. Religious instruction could continue where desired.

The State abandoned the policy of simply supervising and assisting voluntary associations to maintain schools, in competition with State - provided schools, and assumed the whole responsibility for the secular instruction of the people. Though the Act awakened intense opposition, it equalized and unified educational provisions. It paved the way for future progress, made the general provision of secondary education possible and represented an important new step in the process of creating a national system of education for the people. Under this Act, much had been done by the new Central Board of Education, and subsequent additional legislation to increase the efficiency of the education provided.

Since 1902 the cost for education per pupil had been increased more than one half. The local authorities, to whom large powers of control were given, levied taxes liberally, and the State had also increased its grants. Since 1902, there had been a continual agitation for a resettlement of the educational question along broad national lines. Bills had subsequently been introduced, and important committees had considered the matter, but no affirmative action was taken.

I.1.1. The Provisions of the Balfour's Act

The most important provisions of the Balfour's Act concerned the councils and country boroughs, which became local authorities.

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The Education Act of 1902 stated:

“For the purposes of this Act, the council of every county and of every county borough shall be the local education authority.”⁸

The Local Education Authorities⁹ took over the field of elementary education the powers hitherto exercised by the school boards and school attendance committees, but they were also given control over secular education in voluntary schools. The Balfour’s Act also provided:

“The local education authority shall, throughout their area, have the powers and duties of a school board and school attendance committee under the Elementary Education Acts, 1870 to 1900 and any other Acts, including local Acts, and shall also be responsible for and have the control of all secular instruction in public elementary schools not provided by them; and school boards and school attendance committees shall be abolished.”¹⁰

The authorities were empowered, within certain restrictions, to supply or aid the supply of education other than elementary and to promote the general coordination of all forms of education. They

⁸ *Education Act 1902, 2 Edw. 7 c. 42*, Crown copyright material is reproduced with the permission of the Controller of HMSO and the Queen's Printer for Scotland, p. 126

⁹ Local education authority (LEA) Local education authorities came into existence with the 1902 Education Act, replacing the school boards. Unlike the latter, the new education authorities were also responsible for voluntary schools; the county and borough councils were also given responsibility for secondary and technical education. One important feature of the system was that each local education authority had to appoint an education committee (Section 101, Local Government Act (1972)), consisting of elected councillors and co-opted members. The political party gaining a majority at a local election elects from its members a chairman of this committee. Peter Gordon, Denis Lawton, *Dictionary of British Education*, Woburn Press, London, 2003, p.141

¹⁰ *Education Act 1902*, op. cit., p.127-8

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were hence enabled to spend rate income on secondary schools and training colleges, thus increasing the number of such establishments, which were undenominational and available for Nonconformists.

It would be the duty of each authority to maintain and keep efficient all public elementary schools in its area. In both voluntary and council schools, the cost of running the school and of providing instruction, secular and religious, would be met from government grant and local rates (Section 7).

The managing bodies of voluntary schools would normally comprise not more than four members representing those proving the school and not more than two representing the local authority: these managers would have to carry out any directions of the authority as to the secular instruction to be given and the number and the qualifications of the teachers to be employed.

Teachers would be appointed and dismissed by the managers, though the authority's approval would be required, except where dismissal was on grounds connected with the giving of religious instruction. As small concession to Nonconformists, managers were empowered to depart from the provisions of a school's trust deed by appointing teachers without reference to denominational beliefs and where there were more applicants than vacancies for posts as pupil teachers the appointments would be made by the authority.

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In return for the right to give denominational instruction and to ensure the appointment of suitable teachers, the voluntary body would be obliged to provide the school building, keep the structure in good repair and make improvements in the building as might be required by the authority.

The ultimate decision whether a new council or voluntary school would best meet the needs of an area would rest with the Board of Education, which would have regard to the interest secular instruction, the wishes of the parents and to the economy of the rates.¹¹

As far as the provisions relating to religious instructions were concerned, the Act stipulated that in a denominational school, which received aid from the local authority, no pupil might be compelled to receive religious instruction either in the school or in elsewhere. The permitted times for religious instruction were no longer prescribed as being at the end or beginning of the school meeting, yet had to be suitably arranged for the purpose of allowing the withdrawal of pupils where desired. In a school or college provided by a local education authority, no catechism or formulary distinctive of any particular religious denomination should be taught.¹²

¹¹ James Murphy, *Church, State and Schools in Britain 1800-1970*, Routledge & Kegan Paul Ltd, Great Britain, 1971, p. 93-3

¹² *Ibid.*, pp. 93-4

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The Act of 1902 unified control of both elementary and secondary education. Any private or endowed secondary school was left free to accept or reject government aid and inspection, but, if the aid were accepted, inspection and the following of government plans were required. Secondary education had to provide for scholars up to or beyond the age of sixteen.

British education was to take another drive from the passage of the Education Act of 1870 to that of 1902. Forster's Education Act was, in fact, the most important legislature with regard to education despite its qualification of compromise between the State and the Church. It brought about some important administrative and organisational changes among which compulsory education, the establishment of district school boards, inspection of schools, and restriction of religious teaching in board schools. The Act did not exclude the Voluntary System, it welcomed it.

Further amendments of the Act of 1870 were to be made to either fit and meet the requirements of society or readjust clauses, which proved difficult to implement such as leaving school age and compulsory attendance. Balfour's Act, 1902, the second important Act, carried wider horizons in educational policy than that of 1870. It projected the establishment of a national State education system.

I.2. Secondary School Regulations

A new spirit was introduced into English education after 1902. Thanks to the work of Robert Morant, Permanent Secretary of the

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Board (1904). He issued a series of regulations, in which he included a prefatory memorandum. These covered not only elementary and secondary schools, but also the training of pupil-teachers who were to receive a general education in a secondary school for three or four years.

Morant was enthusiastic to deal with the elementary school, and the Code for Public Elementary Schools, in 1904, struck an entirely new conception of the meaning of elementary education. According to him, the Elementary School should be strong and able to develop the intelligence of children.¹³ Morant followed its publication by issuing new Regulations for Training Colleges, Evening Schools and Technical Institutes.

In the Regulations for Secondary Schools, 1904, the Board attempted at defining a secondary school. However, the only definition of an elementary school that had been given in the Act of 1870, where it was described as a school in which elementary education was the principal part of the education given with the fees not exceeding 9d. per week. In the Act of 1902, secondary and technical education was referred to as “education other than elementary.” In the 1904 Regulations, a secondary school was defined as

“a Day or Boarding School offering to each of its scholars up to and beyond the age of sixteen, a general education, physical, mental,

¹³ J. Stuart Maclure, *Educational Documents England & Wales 1816 to the Present Day*, Methuen, 1972, p. 154

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and moral, given through a complete graded course of instruction, of wider scope and more advanced degree than that given in Elementary Schools.”¹⁴

In the absence of a clear definition of an elementary school and the aims and purposes of elementary education, the above explanation did not offer a great deal of guidance in regard to the secondary school, but when the content of secondary education was examined, it became apparent that the new schools were conceived along traditional lines.

The Regulations stated that to achieve a sound general education, a secondary school had to offer a four-year course, at least, in certain groups of subjects. These were:

1. English language and literature, with geography and history
- 2 .At least one language other than English
3. Mathematics and science, both theoretical and practical
4. Drawing.

Apart from the efforts already described to secure the repeal of the Act of 1902, still much had to be done. The new L.E.A.s had the task of surveying their areas and preparing schemes to remedy deficiencies, and the managers of the non-provided and endowed schools took their responsibilities seriously and did much to improve the schools under their charge.

¹⁴ H.C. Bernard, *A History of English Education from 1760 to 1944*, London, University of London Press, 1947, p. 253

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Morant compiled the 1904 Code for the Ministry, also produced in 1905 *A Handbook of Suggestions for the Consideration of Teachers and Others Concerned in the Work of Public Elementary Schools*. The handbook stressed the significance of the teacher's part in the training of character, co-operation with other local social agencies and with the home, and the importance of physical welfare.¹⁵

The General Election of 1906, which was a great success in favour of the Liberals, for the first time, brought forty members of the Labour party into Parliament. With their assistance, the Education (Provision of Meals) Act was passed which empowered L.E.A.s to arrange for the feeding of those school children whose education was suffering because of lack of food. Where the parent was able to pay, a moderate charge was made, but in cases where the parent could not afford the cost the L.E.A. could meet the expense by levying a rate not exceeding 1/2 d.¹⁶

The following year, McKenna's¹⁷ Education (Administration Provisions) Act introduced some very important changes. The Act empowered the L.E.A.s Morant took immediate advantage of the opportunity given. Using the powers conferred by the Act, he

¹⁵ James Arthur, *Education with Character*, Routledge, 2003, p. 17

¹⁶ J.S. Curtis, *History of Education in Great Britain*, University Tutorial Press, London, 1953, p.325

¹⁷ McKenna, Reginald (1863 - 1943) British statesman who, as first lord of the Admiralty, initiated in 1909 a battleship construction program that gave Great Britain a considerable advantage over Germany in capital-ship strength at the beginning of World War I. In 1905, he became financial secretary of the Treasury, and in 1907 he was named president of the Board of Education. *Encyclopædia Britannica 2012 Ultimate Reference Suite*, Entry: McKenna

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established a Medical Department. The Act of 1907 instituted a compulsory system of medical inspection in elementary schools, but so far, the parent was not obliged to carry out the recommendations of the school doctor. The Act empowered L.E.A.s to acquire land compulsorily for the building of new secondary schools, and the raising of the secondary-school grant to £5 per head encouraged the opening of new secondary schools.¹⁸

The Board's regulations insisted that in all fee-paying secondary schools in receipt of grant, twenty-five per cent of the admissions each year were to be free places for children from elementary schools. In order to maintain the standards and efficiency of the secondary schools, candidates for free places were to be selected on the result of an attainment test designed to discover whether they were able to profit by a secondary-school education. This was the beginning of the "Scholarship Ladder to the University." In 1906, the number of scholarships was 23,500, of which 11,500 were for intending teachers.¹⁹

I.3. The New Secondary Schools

The founding of the new secondary schools and the taking over of other schools of this type and making them efficient, proved to be an expensive process. The L.E.A.s were anxious to keep fees low, but at first they were empowered to raise only a 2d. rate for

¹⁸ J.S. Curtis, *op. cit.*, p. 326

¹⁹ *Ibid.*,

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higher education, except by special consent of the Local Government Board.²⁰

The situation was eased in 1907 when a scholarship system was introduced, which greatly facilitated the access to secondary education of promising children from elementary schools. All grant-aided secondary schools were to admit, as free-place scholars, pupils who had spent at least two years at a public elementary school. The number of such pupils was to be not less than 25 per cent. of the total entry to the secondary school in the previous year. A grant of £5 per pupil was payable.²¹

To ensure that this scholarship system would not have the effect of lowering the standard of work in the secondary schools, it was provided that candidates for free places should pass an entrance test appropriate to their age and previous education. It was intended as a qualifying examination; but the subsequent development of the demand for secondary-school education made the test a highly competitive one. Its impacts on both the work of the Junior Elementary School, and on the problem of selection for secondary education, were destined to cause many difficulties later on.

In 1911, the Consultative Committee of the Board of Education on Examinations in secondary schools considered the examinations

²⁰ H.C. Bernard, *op. cit.*, p. 256

²¹ <http://www.nationalarchives.gov.uk/help-with-your-research/research-guides/secondary-schools/> Accessed 08/11/2014

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offered to the schools. The Committee considered when and in what circumstances examinations were desirable in terms of entrance, during school life and at leaving school. They recommended the setting up of representative Examinations Council in which the Board of Education could join the Local Education Authorities and university examining bodies to lay down conditions.

In 1916, the Ministry of Reconstruction was constituted to prepare schemes for the transition from war to peace. Education occupied a prominent place in the deliberations of the Ministry because the War had revealed many of the inadequacies of the national system. When Mr. Lloyd George ²² considered the time ripe for a reorganization of national education, he decided to secure the services of a well-known scholar as president of the Board of Education. Mr. H. A. L. Fisher ²³, who had been appointed Vice-Chancellor of the University of Sheffield; he was chosen for this position and given the services of a number of men who possessed expert educational knowledge and technical experience. The results

²² Lloyd George, David (1863-1945), a British Liberal Party leader, served as prime minister during the last half of World War I (1914-1918). In July 1916, he succeeded Lord Kitchener as secretary of war, and in December 1916, he replaced Herbert Asquith as prime minister of a coalition cabinet. *World Book Encyclopaedia 2005 (Deluxe)*, Entry: Lloyd George

²³ Fisher, Herbert Albert Laurens (1865 - 1940) was a British historian, educator, government official, and author. Between 1912 and 1926, Fisher was active in the government in numerous capacities and as member of Parliament (1916–26) for the Liberal Party. As president of the Board of Education (1916–22), he was responsible for the education bill of 1918, a significant contribution to the development of secondary schools in Britain.. *Encyclopædia Britannica 2012 Ultimate Reference Suite*, Entry: Fisher, H. A. L.

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of overhauling the national system were to be seen in the Education Act of 1918, and the Prime Minister's choice was justified.

I. 4.The Fisher Act, 1918

The First World War (1914 – 1918) resulted in deterioration in educational provision because of the delay in building and maintenance, the shortage of teachers and an increase in the size of classes. According to Lloyd George, Minister of Munitions and Secretary of State for War, educational development was an important part in the reconstruction after the War. However, it was the most fundamental of all the social services to H.A.L Fisher, President of the Board of Education.

Fisher's statement introducing the Education Bill reads as follows:

“I will now descend to our specific proposal.... Firstly, we desire to improve the administrative organisation of education. Secondly, we are anxious to secure for every boy and girl in this country an elementary school life up to the age of fourteen....Thirdly, we desire to establish part-time day continuation schools....Fifthly, we desire to consolidate the elementary school Grants, and sixthly we wish to make an effective survey of the whole educational provision....to bring private educational provisions into closer and more convenient relations to the national system.”²⁴

²⁴ J. Stuart Maclure, op. cit., p.174

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The purpose of the Act, as given in its opening clause, was to establish a national system of education available for all persons capable of profiting thereby. Hence

“It shall be the duty of the council of every county and county borough, so far as their powers extend, to contribute thereto by providing for the progressive development and comprehensive organization of education in respect of their area, and with that object any such council from time to time may, and shall when required by the Board of Education, submit to the Board schemes showing the mode in which their duties and powers under the Education Acts are to be performed and exercised, whether separately or in co-operation with other authorities” (Clause I).²⁵

The Education Act of 1918 made some steps forward extending the possibilities of education with leaving age was raised to 14. Furthermore, part-time education up to 18 (day-continuation) was introduced as an important novelty both for its social implications and for the occasions it offered for further educational advancement. It also abolished fees for elementary education.

Fisher wanted to make this ‘restricted’ educational progress without disturbing the settlement of the Education Act, 1902.²⁶ The Act of 1918 was the attempt to place the responsibility of reconstruction on the local authorities and to rely on their public spirit and initiative to carry through the proposals in the way that was intended. Mr. Fisher had thought of increasing the powers of

²⁵ K.E.T. Wilkinson, *A Guide to the Education Act, 1918*, The Atheneum Literature Department, London, 1920, p.46

²⁶ James Murphy, *op. cit.*, p.101

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the Board of Education so that reluctant authorities could be compelled to put the Act into operation. At the same time, he considered that some of the authorities should be merged with the county councils. These proposals had appeared in the Bill of 1917, but they awakened so much opposition that Mr. Fisher did not consider it valuable imperiling the acceptance of the measure by insisting on the administrative clauses.²⁷ Accordingly, the administrative framework of 1902 was retained, but the powers of the Local Authorities received a definite extension.

Much of the legislation was permissive instead of being mandatory, and there laid the weakness. It was possible for certain educational services to be obligatory in one district and not in another; thus the provision of continuation schools was compulsory in the area of the London County Council, but not in some of the surrounding districts.

I.5. Education and World War I (1914-1918)

During the War, an increasing number of men and women were needed for the Forces; the schools became gradually depleted of their men teachers. Some women teachers also obtained leave of absence to serve in nursing units or in the women's auxiliary services. As a result of under-staffing, classes became larger and many boys' schools were taught almost entirely by women teachers. Approximately half the male teachers in the country were absent on

²⁷ J.S. Curtis, *op. cit.*, p.341

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war service. Retired teachers, married women who had previously been teachers, clergy, and others who had sufficient educational attainments, volunteered to teach in the schools during the emergency. Further dislocation was caused by the requisition of school premises as lodgings for the troops, and many schools had to use places of worship, Sunday Schools, and public halls, as school accommodation. Certain schools and colleges were used as hospitals or for the accommodation.²⁸

However, education was not entirely neglected during the war and was an important element in the post-war reconstruction programme. The government's Consultative Committee produced its report on *Scholarships for higher education* in 1916, after which it was suspended until 1920. In 1917 the Secondary Schools Examination Council was established to administer the new School Certificate and Higher School Certificate examinations, and the Lewis²⁹ Report proposed a school leaving age of 14 with no

²⁸ J.S. Curtis, op. cit., pp.339-40

²⁹ Sir John Herbert Lewis (1858-1933) served as the Liberal MP for the Flint Boroughs, 1892-1906, Flintshire, 1906-18, and the University of Wales, 1918-22. He was chosen Liberal Whip in 1905, became Parliamentary Secretary to the Local Government Board in 1909, and Parliamentary Secretary to the Board of Education in 1915. He remained keenly interested in educational matters throughout his life, taking a particular interest in the development of the University of Wales and in the securing of grants for ex-service men.
http://www.archiveswales.org.uk/anw/get_collection.php. Accessed 08/02/2014

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exemptions, followed by attendance for at least 8 hours a week or 320 hours a year at ‘day continuation’ classes³⁰ up to age 18.

³⁰ A school providing extension courses for people who have left school in the elementary grades to go to work.
<http://dictionary.reference.com/browse/continuation+school>. Accessed 13/12/2014

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II. The Development of a National Educational System from Fisher to Butler (1918-1944)

The decline in trade, the increase in unemployment, and the financial difficulties, which followed the War, caused the appointment of the Geddes Committee on National Expenditure. Education was one of the services, which came under review, and various measures of economy were introduced, which called a pause forward progress. The developments planned by the Fisher Act were curtailed or postponed, and in particular, the scheme for establishing continuation schools on a compulsory basis was left to the local authorities to make attendance voluntary or compulsory as they wished. Many buildings designed for other uses were employed as schools. Further difficulties were created by the attitude of some employers. Some saw the benefits of further education and, in voluntary areas, encouraged their boys and girls to attend school. Others grudged the time the young people were absent from employment in order to attend school.

In 1924, the Labour Party came into power for a brief period and progress was resumed. Richard Henry Tawney ³¹ had for some

³¹ Richard Henry Tawney (1880-1962) English economic historian and one of the most influential social critics and reformers. He became an active member of the Workers 'Educational Association in Rochdale, Lancashire, serving as its president from 1928 to 1944. He served on numerous economic committees and as an adviser to governmental bodies, and he campaigned vigorously for social reforms. Many of them - raising of the school-leaving age, extension of workers' education, fixing of minimum wages - were adopted. *Encyclopædia Britannica 2012 Ultimate Reference Suite*, Entry: R. H. Tawney.

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years advocated “secondary education for all” but had carefully defined what he meant by secondary education. He wrote:

“The Labour Party is convinced that the only policy which is at once education- ally sound and suited to a democratic community is one under which primary education and secondary education are organised as two stages in a single continuous process; secondary education being the education of the adolescent and primary education being education preparatory thereto.”³²

This view had gained support after the War, and many teachers and officials emphasised the meagre provision made for the training and instruction of the majority of British adolescents at a period, which was important and critical.

The problem proved crucial that the Consultative Committee, under the chairmanship of Sir W. H. Hadow ³³, was asked to inquire into “the organisation, objective, and curriculum of courses of study suitable for children who will remain in full-time attendance at schools, other than secondary schools, up to the age of fifteen.” The report of the Committee, *The Education of*

³² R. H. Tawney, *Secondary Education For All, A Policy for Labour*, George Allen & Unwin Ltd., 1924, p.7

³³ Hadow, Sir Henry (1859-1937), an English educator, helped originate the eleven-plus examination used in many parts of the United Kingdom from the 1940's to the 1960's. The eleven-plus was a test given to 11-year-old children entering secondary school to determine if their future education should be technical or in the arts. Hadow served as chairman of a committee that produced in 1926 a report called *The Education of the Adolescent*. It recommended that the type of school a child should attend on leaving elementary school should depend on the results of an examination taken at the age of “eleven plus.” *World Book Encyclopaedia 2005 (Deluxe)*, Entry: Hadow

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the Adolescent, appeared in 1926, and its publication inaugurated a new era in education, which culminated in the Act of 1944.

II.1. The Separation of Primary and Secondary Education

The Report on *The Education of the Adolescent*, which the Committee issued in 1926, known by the name of its chairman, Sir William Henry Hadow. The essence of the Hadow plan was not to keep secondary education a privilege restricted to some 10 percent of the school population, but to extend the normal course for all children between the ages of eleven and fourteen.

The Hadow Report thus proposed that primary education should end at eleven plus; the term ‘elementary’ would disappear. The Consultative Committee thought that “there is a tide which begins to rise in the veins of youth at the age of eleven or twelve,”³⁴ However, the Hadow Report standardised the transfer at eleven plus. At that age, the child would be drafted either to an academic grammar school or to a more realistic and practical modern school, whether selective or non-selective. If this were impossible, he would go into a Senior Class. The curriculum in the Modern School or the Senior Class would not be rigid, and might admit of some ‘bias’ as determined by local conditions, but generally it would be of the same type. At the age of thirteen plus some pupils from these schools could be drafted to Junior Technical Schools. The

³⁴ J. Stuart Maclure, op. cit., p.180

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problem, which immediately followed was how to make this selection. For this purpose, the Report stated:

“A written examination should be held, and also, wherever possible, an oral examination. A written psychological test might also be specially employed in dealing with border-line cases, or where a discrepancy has been observed between the result of the written examination and the teacher’s estimate of proficiency.”³⁵

Adequate arrangements would be made for transfer, if it seemed later indicated, from Modern to grammar schools at the age of twelve or thirteen, and conversely from Grammar Schools to Modern or Junior Technical Schools. It was also suggested that a new leaving examination should be “framed to meet the needs of pupils in selective and non-selective Modern Schools and in the Senior Classes which retain some of their pupils to the age of fifteen.”³⁶ All this meant that an entirely new meaning had been given to the term ‘secondary.’ The intention of the Hadow Committee was to regard all types of post-primary school as institutions of equal status.

In 1928, The Board of Education expounded in a helpful pamphlet, “*The New Prospect in Education*”, the importance of the Hadow Report. This brochure dealt with the problems involved in ‘reorganisation’ (separation of children at 11 plus into Senior Schools, Central Schools or Secondary Modern Schools) and gave an account of the schemes, which were already in operation. However,

³⁵ H.C. Bernard, op. cit., 278

³⁶ J.S. Stuart Maclure, op. cit., p.187

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there were difficulties in the way of implementing the Hadow scheme.

In order to reconstitute post-primary schools as separate entities, L.E.A.s had to adapt existing buildings or provide new ones. Yet, a 50 per cent Exchequer grant made for the purpose for a period of three years from September 1st, 1929, had to be withdrawn in 1931 owing to financial stringency. However, the work of reorganization went slowly. Difficulties also arose out of the ‘dual system.’

There were many attempts to meet this situation. At last, in 1936, an Education Act (raised school leaving age to 15 and authorised building grants of up to 75 per cent for new denominational Senior Schools.) was passed to deal with these difficulties and make possible reorganisation in a complete form. The Act empowered the local authorities to make grants varying from 50 to 75 per cent of the cost of building voluntary schools following the State’s plan to raise the legal school leaving age to fifteen.³⁷ Voluntary bodies that desired to apply for building grants under this Act were required to submit their schemes by March 1st, 1938.

II.2. The System of Grammar, Technical and Secondary Modern Schools

The work, which the Hadow Committee began in 1926, had been conscientiously followed up. In 1938, the Consultative Committee,

³⁷ James Murphy, *op. cit.*, p. 108

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under the chairmanship of Sir Will Spens, ⁽³⁸⁾ issued a Report on Secondary Education. Its terms of reference were:

“To consider and report upon the organisation and interrelation of schools, other than those administered under the Elementary Code, which provide education for pupils beyond the age of eleven plus; regard being had in particular to the framework and content of the education of pupils who do not remain at school beyond the age of about sixteen.” ³⁹

Thus, the Report was not directly concerned with ‘Modern’ Schools; it amplified the Hadow Report of 1926, which had given special attention to this subject. The Spens Report pointed out that when, as a result of the 1902 Act, the State undertook for the first time the general reorganisation of secondary education, the ancient Grammar School was adopted exclusively as the model for the secondary school. The institution in 1917 of the first school examination (the School Certificate), which was taken by the public and Grammar Schools, “had the effect of strengthening and intensifying this tendency towards uniformity.” However,

“schools of every type fulfil their proper purpose in so far as they foster the free growth of individuality, helping every boy and girl

³⁸ Will Spens was born in 1882. Educated at Rugby and King’s College, Cambridge, becoming a fellow and tutor of Corpus Christi College, Cambridge, of which college he was Master from 1927- 1952. He was Regional Commissioner for Civil Defence for the Eastern Region from 1939 – 1945. He was knighted in 1939. J.S. Stuart Maclure, op. cit., p.193

³⁹ Ibid.,

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to achieve the highest degree of individual development of which he or she is capable in and through the life of a society.”⁴⁰

Thus, the secondary curriculum had to provide for different interests and different needs; and it should be thought of in terms of activity and experience rather than of knowledge to be acquired and facts to be stored. The Report went on to interpret this dictum in detail in terms of the Grammar School curriculum, and pointed out that hitherto, it had been too much dominated by the requirements of the School Certificate. It advocated greater freedom in the choice of subjects and a reduction in the content of examination syllabuses. However, alongside of these Grammar Schools, which would continue to be the chief sources of candidates for the university and which would be distinguished by their Sixth Form work.

The Spens Committee suggested a development of what might be called Secondary Technical Education. It was proposed to retain the Junior Technical Schools with their two or three-year course and their entry age of thirteen plus; but the Committee also advocated “a new type of Higher School of a technical character, wholly distinct from the traditional academic Grammar (Secondary) School.”⁴¹ Such schools would receive pupils at the age of eleven plus by providing them with a five-year course; and distinguishing them from the Junior Technical Schools. They would be called Technical High Schools. The Spens Committee recommended,

⁴⁰ Ibid., p. 196

⁴¹ H.C. Bernard, op. cit., p.306

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“the curriculum for pupils between the ages of eleven plus and thirteen plus in Technical High Schools should be broadly of the same character as the curriculum in other types of secondary school of equal status. For pupils above the age of thirteen the curriculum should be designed so as to provide a liberal education with Science and its applications as the core and inspiration.”⁴²

Whenever possible Technical High Schools would be accommodated in technical colleges or technical institutes, so that staff and equipment might be shared. A new form of Leaving Certificate for Technical High Schools should be instituted, and this “should be given equal standing with School Certificates as fulfilling the first condition for matriculation.”⁴³ There would be full opportunity for transfer as between Grammar School and Technical High School at about the age of thirteen. The Committee also restated the views expressed in the Hadow Report as to equality of status.

“For the complete realisation of our recommendations regarding curriculum and the interrelation of schools, parity of schools in the secondary- stage of education is essential. This principle was implicit in our Report on *The Education of the Adolescent* (1926), and we desire expressly to assert our conviction of its importance. If schools providing secondary education of different types are to be made equally acceptable to parents, and opportunities for entering the type of school which can best develop their particular abilities are to be made equally available to children, the establishment of parity between all types of secondary school is a fundamental requirement”⁴⁴

⁴² *The Spens Report (1938), S. 112, The Consultative Committee on Secondary Education with Special Reference to Grammar Schools and Technical High Schools*, London: HM Stationery Office, p.372

⁴³ *Ibid.* , p.376

⁴⁴ H.C. Bernard, *op. cit.*, p.307

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The difficulty of ensuring this ‘equality of status’ led many to advocate the ‘Multilateral’ School. The characteristics of this type of school”, to quote the Spens Report,

“are the provision of a good general education for two or three years for all pupils over eleven plus in a given area, and the organisation of four or five ‘streams,’ so that the pupils at the age of thirteen or fourteen years may follow courses that are suited to their individual needs and capacity. There would be a common core in these several courses, but they would differ in the time and emphasis given to certain groups of subjects.”⁴⁵

Thus, instead of having three or more kinds of secondary school, differentiated according to the ‘type’ of pupil for whom they catered, there would be only one kind, the multilateral school, but it would provide different ‘sides’ or courses for its older members. It would receive its pupils from the primary school at eleven plus, but for the first two years all would follow much the same course, and this would provide an exploratory or ‘orientation’ period to discover individual needs and tendencies. For thirteen years pupils or older, the Multilateral School would provide academic, technical, ‘modern,’ and perhaps other kinds of course, each of which would have its own syllabus and special subjects. However, certain classes could still be taken in common so that any question of ‘status’ would be avoided.

During Second World War, for fear of arbitrary attacks, some measures were taken by the Coalition Government to guarantee a more or less normal educational process. Different services such as

⁴⁵ *The Spens Report (1938)*, op. cit., p. xix

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the Ministries of Health, of Transport, and of Home Security compiled their efforts to secure and provide better conditions for the evacuated children from urban areas. However, there was a difficulty concerning the provision of school places for the hosts of pupils, who flowed into the reception areas. Another method was to put the evacuated school into some hall or similar building, which was rarely well adapted to serve the purpose.

II.3. Curriculum and Examinations in Secondary Schools

In 1941, the president of the Board of Education appointed the Committee of the Secondary School Examinations Council, under the leadership of Sir Cyril Norwood,⁴⁶ to consider suggested changes in the secondary school curriculum and the problems of school examinations. Its Report was issued in 1943, under the name of its chairman, Sir Cyril Norwood. The Norwood Committee recommended that:

“in the interest of the individual child and of the increased freedom and responsibility of the teaching profession, change in the School Certificate Examination should be in the direction of

⁴⁶ Cyril Norwood (1875 - 1956) was educated at Merchant. Taylor’s School and St John College, Oxford, where he read Classics and Greats. He entered the Home Civil Service (at the Admiralty) in 1899, but resigned in 1901 to become senior classics master at Leeds Grammar School. He was appointed successively, headmaster of Bristol Grammar School in 1906, Marlborough College in 1916 and Harrow School in 1929, where he remained till in 1934 he became President of St John’s College, Oxford, from which office he retired in 1946. He was Chairman of the Secondary Schools Examination Council from 1921 - 1946. J.S. Stuart Maclure, op. cit., p.200

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making the examination entirely internal, that is to say, conducted by the teachers at the school on syllabuses and papers framed by themselves.”⁴⁷

Such a drastic reorganisation of the examination called for a transitional period during which the School Certificate examination would be carried out by the existing examining bodies and supervised by a Standing Committee of eight teachers. The schools should be encouraged to offer their own syllabuses, and some of the present ones should be lightened. No restrictions would be placed on the subjects pupils wished to offer, but such changes would require two years’ notice given by the examining bodies. It was suggested that the transition period should be seven years, at the end of which the whole problem would be reviewed and to decide whether conditions were favourable for such a change to an internal examination.

The Norwood Committee thought that a school-leaving examination should be conducted twice a year for pupils of eighteen-plus to meet the requirements of university entrance and of entry into the professions. Pupils should take this examination in the subjects required for their particular purpose. The Higher School Certificate Examination should be abolished and State and Local Education Authority scholarships should be awarded on another basis. The Norwood Report stipulates:

⁴⁷ *The Norwood Report (1943), S.9, Curriculum and Examinations in Secondary Schools, Report of the Committee of the Secondary School Examinations, London: HM Stationery Office 1943, p.140*

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“The winning of a College scholarship at Oxford or Cambridge or a University scholarship elsewhere should constitute a claim upon public funds for assistance towards the cost of living at the university, subject to evidence of the need.”⁴⁸

The university examining bodies would hold an examination in March for the award of State and Local Education Authority scholarships. Recommendations would be made to L.E.A.s by the examining bodies and would be considered by specially appointed boards, who would take into account performance in the examination and the school records of candidates. The State would make the final award and bear the cost of the scholarships.

The report envisaged secondary education under three forms: grammar, technical, and modern, so that every child could receive that kind of education for which he was fitted. As soon as the national finances permitted, admission to both the Grammar and Technical High Schools would be on the basis of one hundred per cent special places. In this respect J.S. Curtis stresses:

“If parity of schools in the secondary stage, so generally advocated by our witnesses, and regarded by us as essential, is to be established, payment of fees in one school and not in another becomes incongruous.”⁴⁹

The Technical High School would offer a five-year course to its pupils from eleven-plus, and would thus be distinguished from the existing Junior Technical School with a two or three-year course

⁴⁸ Ibid.,

⁴⁹ J.S. Curtis, *op. cit.*, p. 358

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from thirteen-plus. In view of the difficulty of ascertaining at eleven-plus whether a child was more fitted for a Grammar than a Technical high School or vice versa, the curriculum of each type of school should be broadly of the same character in the first two years. The technical High Schools should be housed in the premises of technical colleges or institutes, and, although they would have their own headmasters, they would secure the benefit of the teaching staff and special equipment of the parent institution. J.S. Curtis mentions:

“Whilst we do not recommend that every Junior Technical School should as a matter of course be converted into a Technical High School, we do consider that a generous provision of such Technical High Schools should be made by the conversion of existing schools and the establishment of new schools.”⁵⁰

The Technical High School should have its own leaving examination. It recommended that a new type of leaving certificate should be established for pupils in Technical High Schools based on internal examinations founded on the school curriculum, and subject to external assessment by assessors appointed or approved by the Board of Education. These certificates would be given an equal standing with School Certificates as fulfilling the first condition for Matriculation.⁵¹

⁵⁰ Ibid.,

⁵¹ Ibid.,

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The Norwood Committee accepted the view that secondary education was the stage following that of primary education. It states:

“It is the business of secondary education, first, to provide opportunity for a special cast of mind to manifest itself, if not already manifested in the primary stage, and, secondly, to develop special interests and aptitudes to the full by means of a curriculum and a life best calculated to this end.”⁵²

This would mean that secondary education should meet the needs of three main groups of pupils, and to achieve this, there should be three types of education: secondary grammar, secondary technical, and secondary modern. The ideal would be a relation of parity between these types, but the Committee added significantly:

“Parity of esteem in our view cannot be conferred by administrative decree nor by equality of cost per pupil; it can only be won by the school itself.”⁵³

The age of eleven- plus or even earlier was chosen as the beginning of the secondary stage in education, and pupils would pass into the type of school which seemed to meet their needs.

The report then made a very important statement.

“On educational grounds we are in favour of a break of six months, in which boys and girls between the ages of eighteen and nineteen years would render public service interpreted in a broad sense.... Before this break comes, pupils going on to universities and other

⁵² *The Norwood Report (1943), Curriculum and Examinations in Secondary Schools, Report of the Committee of the Secondary School Examinations*, London: HM Stationery Office 1943, p.2

⁵³ *Ibid.*, p.24

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places of advanced study would have taken the examinations necessary to secure admission and financial aid, and would take up residence after the period of service.”⁵⁴

This recommendation materialised for quite a different reason. The needs of national defence in these post-war years had necessitated the retention of a form of conscription for some time ahead. Boys intending to enter a university usually received deferment of service until they had completed the university entrance requirements.

II.4. The White Paper on Educational Reconstruction (1943)

In July 1943, Mr. Butler, issued the White Paper on *Educational Reconstruction*, in which he made explicit the Government’s policy for the post-war reform of the public service of education in England. The White Paper was eagerly received and discussed, and the general approval with which it was accepted encouraged Mr. Butler to go ahead in preparing his Bill.

The Bill recommended a number of proposals, which were hoped to give effect to the principles set by the Government demanding legislative changes. These changes included:

An improvement of the facilities for the training of children below compulsory school age by the provision of nursery schools wherever they were needed. The White Paper reminds:

“2. With these ends in view the Government propose to recast the national education service. The new layout is based on a

⁵⁴ Ibid., p.16

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recognition of the principle that education is a continuous process conducted in successive stages. For children below the compulsory school age of 5 there must be a sufficient supply of nursery schools.”⁵⁵

The reorganization of public elementary schools, in order to have well-designed and well-equipped primary schools available for all children up to the age of 11, and secondary schools with varied facilities for advanced work for all children over that age.

The raising of the school leaving age to 15 , without any exemptions for” beneficial” employment, as soon as possible after the end of the war, with provision in the Act for a further raising of the age to 16 as soon as practicable.

The introduction of a system of compulsory part-time education, within the hours of employment as regulated by existing law, or by any subsequent industrial legislation. The White Paper adds:

“66. From the point of view of the country's manufacturing industry, agriculture and commerce, the training afforded by a system of part-time education in conjunction with employment is long overdue.”⁵⁶

It also recommended that a one-day a week attendance would be required as minimum and residential courses in rural areas were desirable.

⁵⁵ *White Paper: Educational Reconstruction (1943)*, Crown copyright material is reproduced with the permission of the Controller of HMSO and the Queen's Printer for Scotland, London: Board of Education 1943, p.1

⁵⁶ *Ibid.*, p.17

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Provisions of adequate and properly co-coordinated facilities were advocated for technical and adult education. Local Education Authorities were required to submit schemes for the provision of such facilities according to a time schedule. The extension of these facilities would secure the health and physical well-being of children. The introduction of a system of inspection and registration of all independent schools, which would cater for children of compulsory school age.

An amendment of the existing law so as to emphasize the position of religious instruction as an essential element of education and enable the schools provided by voluntary bodies to play their part in the proposed developments, and to adjust the present system of local educational administration to the new educational layout. ⁵⁷

The chief suggestions of the Bill, which were expected to give effect to the principles set by the Government and could be affected by administrative action were:

1. Progressive decrease in the size of classes in primary schools.
2. Abolition of the Special Place examination and adoption of other arrangements for the classification of children when they pass from primary to secondary schools.
3. Introduction of a common code of Regulations applicable to secondary schools of all types, so framed as to secure that standards of accommodation and amenities generally are raised to the level of those of grammar schools.
4. Remodelling of the curriculum of secondary schools.
5. Expansion of the Youth Service.

⁵⁷ H.C. Dent, *Education in Transition*, Kegan Paul, Trench, Trubner & Co., London, 1945, p. 224-5

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6. Improvement of the facilities for enabling poor students to proceed to the universities.
7. Reform of the present methods of recruiting and training teachers.⁵⁸

II.5. Raising Teachers' Status and Training

In 1944, a report was to be published by a Committee under the chairmanship of Sir Arnold Duncan McNair. The terms of reference for which it was issued were:

“to investigate the present sources of supply and the methods of recruitment and training of teachers and youth leaders, and to report what principles should guide the Board in these matters in the future”⁵⁹

The report considered recruitment and made a list of recommendations whose aim was to raise the status of the profession of teaching. It also recommended that salaries ought to be considerably increased and there should be a single committee for teachers in primary and secondary schools.

The McNair report presented two alternative schemes for the administration of teacher training. The first proposed to set up University Schools of Education. The McNair report states:

“162. While we are all in agreement upon the recommendations relating to the supply of teachers and to the creation of a Central Training Council we are not all of one mind about the method of securing the integration, on an area basis, of the institutions which are to be responsible for the education and training of

⁵⁸ Ibid., pp. 225-6

⁵⁹ J. Stuart Maclure, op. cit., p.216

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teachers. Some of us wish to place general responsibility for the training of qualified teachers upon the universities (in which term we include some of the university colleges) and recommend a scheme which requires the establishment of 'University Schools of Education'.⁶⁰

It would lay on each university the responsibility for coordinating and organising the training of teachers of all kinds. Training would take place not only in the university itself, but also in training colleges and in any other kind of institution (technical or agricultural colleges, schools of art, music, or domestic science), which could contribute to the training of these teachers. The University School of Education would be administered by a delegacy on which not only the university but also the L.E.A.s and the training institutions would be represented.

The second scheme preferred to set up a Central Training Council to develop the existing Joint Board machinery. The University Department of Education and the training colleges would preserve their separate identity, but the Joint Board would link together both of them and the other training facilities of the area, and would also carry out the various educational activities involved (Section 44).⁶¹

⁶⁰ *The McNair Report (1944), Report of the Committee appointed by the President of the Board of Education to consider the Supply, Recruitment and Training of Teachers and Youth Leaders*, London: His Majesty's Stationery Office 1944, p.48

⁶¹ *Ibid.*, p.16

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The report laid down the principles for recruitment and training for the youth service. It was enthusiastically approved as a teacher's charter. Most of the report was accepted in principle by the Government including higher salaries for teachers. However, little attention was devoted to the principles of professional status.

II.6. The Independent Boarding Schools Integration into the Education System.

The Committee on Public Schools, under the chairmanship of Lord Fleming (1877-1944), was appointed by the President of the Board of Education in July 1942 to advise the government on the relation of the public schools to the general educational system. In July 1943, the wartime coalition government, under Winston Churchill, set out its plans for education after the Second World War in the *white paper Reconstruction*. The members of the Committee completed their report in June 1944, as the Education Bill (which would become the *1944 Education Act*) was going through Parliament

The report's terms of reference were:

“To consider means whereby the association between the Public Schools (by which term is meant schools which are in membership of the Governing Bodies' Association or Headmasters' Conference) and the general educational system of the country could be developed and extended; also to consider how far any measures

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recommended in the case of boys' Public Schools could be applied to comparable schools for girls.”⁶²

The Fleming Committee recommended that the opportunities of education in public schools should be made available to boys and girls capable of profiting thereby, regardless of the income, of their parents. It suggested that two lists of schools should be drawn up working under conditions, which were referred to as Scheme A and Scheme B. Schools admitted to the Scheme A list, would be mainly those which were known as “direct-grant schools”. The Fleming Committee proposed that under Scheme A these schools should be accepted by the Board of Education as “associated schools”. The Local Education Authorities should have the right to reserve places at such schools and would pay tuition fees for their pupils. Direct grant would continue to be paid in respect of the other pupils. At least a third of the Governing bodies of schools in scheme A would be nominated by L.E.A.s sending pupils. The Fleming Report emphasised:

“All the places in these schools however filled, should be equally accessible to all pupils in the sense that the only criterion for admission should be the capacity for the pupil to profit by education in the school and that no pupil should be precluded from entering...by reason of the inability of the parent to pay fees.”⁶³

⁶² *The Fleming Report (1944), The Public Schools and the General Educational System, Report of the Committee on Public Schools appointed by the President of the Board of Education in July 1942*, London: His Majesty's Stationery Office 1944, p.1

⁶³ *Ibid.*, p.63

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Scheme B would apply only to boarding Schools only. This category would cover public schools of the normal type. They also would become part of the general educational system of the country. They would offer a minimum of 25 per cent, of their annual admissions to pupils who had been previously educated for at least two years at a grant-aided primary school. To these children, the Board would grant bursaries to cover the total cost of boarding, tuition, and other necessary expenses, subject to a contribution from parents, who could afford it. The bursars would be selected by a Regional Board, and parents would be free to apply for a child's admission to any school accepted under the scheme. If the governors of a Scheme A school made an agreement with an L.E.A. to reserve a certain number of places for its candidates, the L.E.A. was to be represented on the governing body. Fees would be paid by the L.E.A.s, who would recover from the parents on an income scale and receive grants from the Ministry of Education.

The Fleming Committee's report was a compromise. For that reason, it was much criticised. It certainly stimulated great interest; however, it was by no means totally accepted by the Ministry of Education. It did little to satisfy those who believed that the public schools emphasised the existing social divisions and that they catered for a privileged class. Even if 25 per cent, of their pupils were admitted from primary schools on a bursary system, the remaining places would be reserved for the children of parents who could afford to pay high fees. It was suggested that small a

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proportion of ex-elementary school bursars might find it difficult to become an integral part of such schools.

II.7. The Education Act, 1944

Though the first half of the twentieth century was characterized by agitation and unrest, British education was able to make important steps forward and knew some significant organisational modifications. The Balfour's Education Act, 1902 abolished school boards set up by the Education Act, 1870 and handed their duties over to Local Education Authorities (LEAs). It also brought voluntary schools under some control of the government, giving them funding.

Another period of educational reform starting with the Fisher Act of 1918, which increased the power of the LEAs, made schooling compulsory up to the age of 14, abolished all fees in elementary schools and reorganised the government grants to schools. Between the Acts of 1918 and 1944 a number of reports, by the Board of Education's Consultative Committee or other committees under the guidance of the Board, were issued and influenced in official and political circles the opinion which contributed to the preparation and passing of the important measure of 1944.

Educational reforms never ceased to be thought of even in wartime. In October 1940, a discussion took place between President of the Board of Education Herwald Ramsbotham and the Committee of Senior officials about the future educational reforms,

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which would offer advantages and privileges to the whole nation. This debate resulted in a memorandum of the Board of Education, *Education after the War* (Green Book), which was circulated, confidentially to a variety of organisations to canvass opinions about educational reforms in June 1941.⁶⁴

The 'Green Book' enclosed many of the proposals, which were first presented to Parliament in 1943. R. A. Butler⁶⁵ became President of the Board of Education at the Prime Minister's (Churchill) request in 1942 and began the massive task of developing and steering an education Bill through Parliament using the Green Book as a foundation upon which to act.

It was proposed that the existing differentiation between elementary and secondary education should be abolished and that instead there should be three stages of education: primary, secondary and further. The provision of secondary education would

⁶⁴ Roy Lowe, *Education and the Second World War: Studies in Schooling and Social Change*, The Falmer Press, 1992, p.12

⁶⁵ Butler, Richard Austen (1902 - 1982) British statesman high in the councils of government during World War II and the postwar years. He was elected to Parliament as a Conservative. During World War II, as president of the Board of Education, he was chiefly responsible for developing the comprehensive and revolutionary Education Act of 1944. When the Conservatives returned to power in 1951, Butler became chancellor of the exchequer; in 1955 he became lord privy seal and vigorously supported Prime Minister Anthony Eden during the Suez Crisis in 1956; for doing so, he was passed over for Harold Macmillan when a new Conservative prime minister was chosen. He was leader of the House of Commons from 1955 to 1961. His subsequent ministerial posts were home secretary (1957–62), deputy prime minister (1962–63), and foreign secretary (1963–64). *Encyclopædia Britannica 2012 Ultimate Reference Suite*, Entry: Butler, Richard

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be the duty of Local Education Authorities; all schools at the secondary stage would be subject to a single Code of Regulations ‘providing for equality of treatment in such matters as accommodation, size of classes, etc’; and all secondary schools (with the exception of the direct grant grammar schools) would be free.

The Butler’s Act of 1944 reorganised school administration. The LEAs were abolished and substituted by divisional executives. The Department of Education was replaced by a Ministry of Education. Education was to be reorganized in a ‘tripartite system’: primary education, secondary education, and further education. The school leaving age was raised to 15.

The Education Act, 1944 (referred to as the Butler Act) was pointed out to be An Act of reform, i.e. to reshape the law relating to education in England and Wales. Thus, its confirmed aim was that of a complete reconstruction and creation of a national policy in education. In the first part of Act, the deficiencies of the Board of Education were remedied. The Department was raised in status to that of a Ministry headed by a Minister of Education. J. Stuart Maclure stated:

“It shall be lawful for His Majesty to appoint a Minister (hereinafter referred to as ‘the Minister’) whose duty it shall be to promote the education of the people of England and Wales and the progressive development of institutions devoted to that purpose, and to secure the effective execution by local authorities, under his

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control and direction, of the national policy for providing a varied and comprehensive educational service in every area.”⁶⁶

It gave the Minister a creative rather than a simply controlling function, charging him or her with promoting education in England and Wales.

There was a replacement of the previous arrangement of ‘elementary’ and ‘higher’ education that stemmed from different roots by primary, secondary and further education. That means, education was to be rearranged in a continuous process of three successive stages. In this respect, Part II.7 of the Act stipulates:

“The statutory system of public education shall be organized in three progressive stages to be known as primary education, secondary education, and further education; and it shall be the duty of the local education authority for every area, so far as their powers extended, to contribute towards the spiritual, moral, mental, and physical development of the community by securing that efficient education throughout those stages shall be available to meet the needs of the population of their area.”⁶⁷

The County and County Borough Councils were assigned the responsibility of all stages. L.E.A.s were charged of securing adequate provision of primary and secondary education, including nursery schools and special schools.

⁶⁶ J. Stuart Maclure, *Educational Documents England & Wales 1816 to the Present Day*, Methuen, 1972, p. 223

⁶⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 224

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For the first time, religious worship and religious instruction, subject to the usual conscience clauses, became compulsory in every county and voluntary school. Thus, the Act stipulates:

“(25)- (I) the school day in every county school and in every voluntary school shall begin with collective worship on the part of all pupils in attendance at the school, and the arrangements made therefor shall provide for a single act of worship attended by all such pupils unless, in the opinion of the local education authority or, in the case of a voluntary school, of the managers or governors thereof, the school premises are such as to make it impracticable to assemble them for that purpose”⁶⁸

Every school day had to begin with an act of collective worship attended by all the pupils (except in schools without an assembly-hall, where worship may take place in the classrooms). No form had been prescribed for the act of worship, except that in county schools it did not have to be distinctive of any religious denomination. Religious instruction was to be given in all schools and might be at any time during the school session instead of being restricted to the beginning or the end of the session.

In county schools, the religious instruction had to be given in accordance with an agreed syllabus, and no teacher was obliged to take part in it if he did not wish to do so. Experience in the use of the syllabuses showed that the teachers would welcome more detailed guidance about methods of presentation, illustrations, books, and background material, than the first syllabuses provided. Accordingly, most authorities revised their syllabuses and reissued

⁶⁸ *Education Act, 1944*, 7 & 8 Geo. 6 c. 31, S.25.I, MSO

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them in a considerably enlarged form. The raising of the school-leaving age and the retention of pupils in some types of secondary schools to eighteen, and the compulsory part-time attendance at county colleges to that age, necessitated further revisions.

The Butler Act had nothing to say about the organisation of the different forms of secondary education. Most local authorities had chosen the tripartite arrangement of secondary-grammar, secondary-technical, and secondary-modern schools, each housed in a separate building.

II.8. Education and World War II (1939-1945)

The Second World War, which began in September 1939, had serious effects on the country's children and their education. The outbreak of the War disrupted seriously educational services and postponed government educational plans. The would be schemes to reorganize secondary education were to be put off. Some 750, 000 children were evacuated from centres vulnerable to air attacks, though within six months, more than half had drifted back to the towns.⁶⁹ Education in areas to which and from which children were evacuated was in a chaotic state in the early part of the War. Many urban schools closed, and children who were not evacuated, were often without schooling. Schools which were evacuated frequently shared premises with host schools on a half-time basis.

⁶⁹ John Lawson and Harold Silver, *op. cit.*, p. 416

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As in the First World War, the experience of the 1939–45 War gave rise to proposals for social reform, including proposals for educational development. In 1941, the Board circulated the memorandum, *Education After the War*, containing a range of proposals for reform. (102) The plans for continuation schools had to be abandoned while the implementation of legislation related to raising the school-leaving age to 15 was overtaken. (101) The 1944 Education Act, for the first time, made the provision of ‘adequate facilities’ for further education a statutory requirement upon local education authorities, but the comprehensive schemes of the LEAs were not implemented in the ten years after the war.⁷⁰

Conclusion

Though the first half of the twentieth century was characterized by agitation and unrest, British education was able to make important steps forward and knew some significant organisational modifications. The Balfour’s Education Act, 1902 abolished school boards set up by the Education Act, 1870 and handed their duties over to Local Education Authorities (LEAs). It also brought voluntary schools under some control of the government, giving them funding. Another period of educational reform starting with the Fisher Act of 1918, which increased the power of the LEAs, made schooling compulsory up to the age of 14, abolished all fees in elementary schools and reorganised the government grants to schools. Between the Acts of 1918 and 1944 a

⁷⁰ Richard Aldrich, *A Century of Education*, Routledge/Falmer, 2002, p. 62

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number of reports, by the Board of Education's Consultative Committee or other committees under the guidance of the Board, were issued and influenced in official and political circles the opinion which contributed to the preparation and passing of the important measure of 1944.

CHAPTER FOUR

EDUCATIONAL POLICIES

(1944 – 1988)

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CHAPTER FOUR

EDUCATIONAL POLICIES (1944 – 1988)

Introduction

The previous chapter dealt with the main efforts of the State to reshape the British education system from 1902 to 1944. The present chapter discusses the State's educational policies undertaken in primary and secondary education from 1944 to 1988. Its aim is to examine the feedback of the State in relation to the increasing demand for educational provisions within the social, political and economic changes. It is divided into three sections. The first section deals with the post-war educational reforms and the attempt to implement the tripartite system. The second section deals with the policies put forward to opt for a comprehensive education. The last section is devoted to the centralisation and standardisation of Education with regard to curriculum, teachers and administration.

I. Post-war Educational Reforms

After the War, more attention was to be given to secondary education, which still needed more refinement and definition. There had been important developments in secondary education since the 1944 Education Act. The 1950s and 1960s were mainly concerned with the reform of the tripartite system ¹ whose implementation proved inadequate. There was a move towards the comprehensive school system, which was designed to cater for all children without reference to their ability or aptitude. This system came about as a result of growing dissatisfaction with the selective system whereby, at the age of eleven, children were allocated into separate kinds of secondary schools.²

In 1965 and 1974, the Labour government issued the Department of Education and Science (DES) circulars ³ asking

¹ Tripartite system refers to the threefold classification of secondary schools postulated by the Spens Report (1938): i.e. grammar, technical and modern schools. Later, in 1943, the Norwood Report, basing its findings on psychological evidence, claimed that there were three types of minds corresponding to the schools: the academic, the applied scientific, and those with the ability to handle concrete things rather than ideas. No mention of types of schools was made in the 1944 Education Act; but local education authorities were allowed to establish various kinds of secondary schools with selection tests determining pupil allocation. The system was largely replaced by comprehensive schools. Peter Gordon, Denis Lawton, *Dictionary of British Education*, Woburn Press, London, 2003, p. 245

² Sui-Mee Chan and Pat East, *A Recent History of Primary and Secondary Education in England part 1: 1944 to 1985*, ITT MFL, 2008, p. 15

³ Government circulars: Documents circulated by government departments on behalf of ministers, setting out principles and practices for the exercise of ministerial powers delegated to others. These may provide mere administrative

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LEAs to submit plans for the reorganisation of schools into the comprehensive system. The 1970s saw a growing concern with ‘falling educational standards’ and dissatisfaction with methods of assessing pupils. A series of pamphlets published in 1969, 1970, 1975 and 1977 called the Black Papers drew attention to concerns about ‘falling educational standards’ in primary and secondary school system. As part of this general concern with assessment performance, arguments in favour of national testing for all children at certain age groups started to be put forward.

In October 1976, the Great Debate was launched in which regional conferences were organised and interested parties were invited to take part. It raised significant issues among which the development of a core curriculum, purpose of education and education standards.

The educational system was criticised for not providing young people with the necessary skills and knowledge needed for industry. The government passed two Education Acts in the early 1980s designed to address the linked issues of choice and raising standards. The main objective of the 1980 Act was to provide choice and enhance the quality of education. The State continued to question the role and work of LEAs and teachers throughout the 1980s. There were clear moves towards centralised government

guidelines or they may be intended to have legislative Elizabeth A. Martin, *A Dictionary of Law*, Fifth Edition, Oxford University Press, 2003, p. 221

control over the curriculum and teacher training as part of the Thatcherism ideology.⁴

I.1.The tripartite System

The New Secondary Education, a pamphlet issued by the Ministry in 1947 and possibly the most significant policy statement in this area in the late 1940s and 1950s had no reservations as to the future development of secondary education. It expressed full confidence that “The new conception of secondary education will make a revolutionary change in education in England and Wales.”⁵ For the first time, it declared, ‘genuine secondary education’ would now be provided for all children over 11, as “the right of all, and no longer the privilege of a few”.⁶

The tripartite system of education was the result of the enactment of the 1944 Education Act, although in the Act itself, there had been no reference to the system of selection or 11+ examination. The new education system contained three types of state-funded schools (grammar schools, secondary modern and secondary technical schools) based on a process of selection at the age of eleven, the eleven plus examination. For the children who failed the exam, there existed two options: a secondary modern or secondary technical school. The best pupils attending a grammar school or an independent school, had the possibility to obtain the

⁴ Ibid., p. 19

⁵ Ministry of Education, *The New Secondary Education*, London, HMSO, 1947, p.8.

⁶ Ibid., p. 7

General Certificate of Education (GCE) which consisted of two levels: the Ordinary Level (O Level) taken at the age of sixteen, and the Advanced Level (A level) taken at the age of eighteen.⁷

I.1.1. Grammar schools

Grammar schools were envisioned to teach a highly academic curriculum; students were to deal with academic subjects and abstract concepts. This was the case for those who intended to continue their studies at the university. There was a strong focus on intellectual subjects, such as literature, classics and complex mathematics.⁸ To pass the eleven plus examination was a mandatory requirement for the children to gain access to a grammar school.

I.1.2. Secondary Modern Schools

The children who attended secondary modern schools went through a four-year course to obtain the School Leaving Certificate (SLC) at the end. They would train pupils in practical skills, aimed at equipping them for less skilled jobs and home management. They were taught general subjects, such as English, mathematics, history or geography. There was no examination at the end and pupils were offered the chance to continue their education one more year to gain the General Certificate of Education. Children who finished their

⁷ H. C. Dent, *Growth in English Education: 1946-1952*, Routledge, 2007, p. 124

⁸ *Ibid.*,

studies at a secondary modern school usually did not go to the university⁹

I.1.3.Secondary Technical Schools

Secondary technical schools were mostly oriented on matters related to commerce or industry and the instruction was aimed particularly at vocational subjects. The aim of these Schools was to offer an alternative curriculum different from the other schools and to produce scientists and technical managers for new industries. The STS had more emphasis on Science and Engineering to GCE “A” Level. However, they had been less popular than the grammar and modern schools ¹⁰

The Ministry of Education, which had succeeded the Board under the legislation of 1944, was anxious to promote this separation as far as possible in the different local areas, while the LEAs varied widely in their attitudes.

Both the Labour governments under Clement Attlee ¹¹, 1945-51, and Winston Churchill’s Conservative government that

⁹ Tripartite system of education in England, Wales and Northern Ireland. http://research.omicsgroup.org/index.php/Tripartite_system_of_education_in_England,_Wales_and_Northern_Ireland. Accessed 06/11/2014

¹⁰ S. P. Chaube, *Comparative Education*, 2E, Vikas Publishing House Pvt Ltd, 2009, p. 259

¹¹ Clement Richard Attlee (1883-1967), British Labour Party leader (1935-55) and prime minister (1945-51). He presided over the establishment of the welfare state in Great Britain and the granting of independence to India, the most important step in the conversion of the British Empire into the Commonwealth of Nations. He was perhaps the leading Labour politician of the 20th century.

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followed, strongly endorsed this general policy. They preferred to maintain this approach rather than an alternative that was progressively proposed during this time of developing multilateral or comprehensive schools designed for all abilities and aptitudes. Nevertheless, by the 1950s it was becoming widely apparent that the tripartite system was not a success and a new debate ensued to find a different way forward. This dilemma was resolved, temporarily when the new Labour government elected on a narrow majority in 1964 decided to encourage all LEAs to reorganize their secondary schools into a system of comprehensive education.

However, the division of children in three categories recommended in the Norwood Report was viewed as being theoretical and artificial. Such concern was also reflected in *School and Life (1948)*, the first report to be produced by the new Central Advisory Council for Education, which had succeeded the former Consultative Committee.¹²

The grammar schools themselves were acutely aware of imminent challenge to their position. In 1946, the Incorporated Association of Head Masters warned publicly of a ‘threat to the grammar schools’, claiming that a confusion between the ideas of

He transformed his party into the natural opponent of the Conservative Party and thus polarized British politics. *Encyclopædia Britannica 2012 Ultimate Reference Suite*, Entry: Clement Attlee

¹² Mc Culloch, *Failing the Ordinary Child? The Theory and Practice of Working Class Secondary Education*, Buckingham, Open University Press, 1998, pp. 66–71

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uniformity and equality was endangering the achievements and the prospects of such schools.¹³

The Ministry did not issue detailed instructions to show how different schools should be provided for different ‘types’ of pupil, but it did specify that grammar and technical provision together should constitute about 20 to 25 per cent of the age range. In practice, provision for secondary technical schools (STSs) was much less than had been anticipated. By 1955, only 4.4 per cent of the total number of pupils in maintained and assisted secondary schools attended an STS.¹⁴

The failure of the STSs meant that what had been intended to develop as a tripartite system was, in fact, a bipartite system of grammar and modern schools in many local areas. Furthermore, the secondary modern schools (SMSs) did not attract the broad support that had been expected. SMSs were intended to provide for the needs of about three-quarters of secondary school pupils up to the minimum leaving age, which was raised in 1947 from 14 to 15. They were to be non-selective in their admission of pupils. It was also expected that they would remain free from the constraints of examinations so that their curriculum could develop in a distinctive manner to cater for the particular needs of their pupils. The substantial differences between the kinds of provision offered by the grammar schools, on the one hand, and the modern schools on the

¹³ Incorporated Association of Head Masters, *The Threat to the Grammar Schools*, London, IAHM, 1946.

¹⁴ Richard Aldrich, *A Century of Education*, Routledge/Falmer, 2002, p. 42

other, placed increasing pressure on the prime instrument of selection, the eleven-plus examination.

I.1.4.The 11+ Examination

Introduced in the Act of 1944, under the tripartite system, the eleven-plus examination was used to determine which type of school the student should attend after primary education: a grammar school, a secondary modern school, or a technical school. The examination was administered to students in their last year of primary education, governing admission to various types of secondary school. The name derives from the age group for secondary entry: 11–12 years. It was essentially based on student's ability to solve problems using verbal reasoning and mathematics. However, criticism of the Eleven Plus arose on a number of grounds among which there was a strong class bias. Sir David Eccles¹⁵ as Minister of Education acknowledged privately in 1955 that 'The most political problem in education is the 11+ examination and the Socialist proposal to abolish it by rolling up all secondary schools

¹⁵ David McAdam Eccles, 1st Viscount Eccles, (1904-1999) was an English Conservative politician. He was elected as Member of Parliament (MP) in a wartime by-election in 1943, a seat he held until 1962. He served in the Conservative administrations of Churchill, Eden and Macmillan respectively as Minister of Works from 1951 to 1954, as Minister of Education from 1954 to 1957 and again from 1959 to 1962 and as President of the Board of Trade from 1957 to 1959. Eccles was also President of the Board of Trade in January 1957. Lord Eccles returned to the government in 1970 when Edward Heath appointed him Paymaster General and Minister for the Arts. https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/David_Eccles,_1st_Viscount_Eccles#Political_career Accessed 02/06/2015

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into comprehensive schools.’¹⁶ At the same time, the recurrent debate over the meaning of secondary education surfaced once again, this time in acknowledgement of the fact that the aspirations behind ‘secondary education for all’ remained unfulfilled.

The Hadow report proposal for the division of schooling into the primary and secondary phases was accepted by the government in 1928, though primary schools were only formally established after the Second World War in the wake of the 1944 Education Act.

The publication of *Primary Education, Suggestions for the consideration of teachers and others concerned with the work of Primary Schools* in 1959 by the Ministry of Education made a great move towards progress. It was designed for the new teachers in the new primary schools, which were established by the 1944 Education Act. There was a move towards more informal, child-centred education with an emphasis on individualisation and learning by discovery: in brief, a ‘progressive’ style of education, facilitated by the introduction of comprehensive secondary education, which freed the primary schools from the constraints of the eleven plus exam.

A number of factors provided the context for these educational developments in the 1960s:

1. The society became more or less ‘permissive’

¹⁶ Ibid., p. 43

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2. The sensitive consciousness among young people of their role in society - full employment, relative affluence and so increased independence and autonomy;
3. The encouragement set by LEAs for innovation in schools;
4. The increased professionalisation of teachers and the high degree of autonomy which they enjoyed;
5. The decline in the inspectorial role of HMI and LEA inspectors;
6. The development of new 'open plan' schools - which reflected the decline in whole-class teaching methods and the increasing importance (encouraged by the Plowden Report) given to the individualisation of the teaching/learning process.¹⁷

¹⁷ Derek Gillard, *Short and Fraught: the History of Primary Education in England*, Forum, Vol. 51, N° 2, 2009, p. 151

II. The Comprehensive Ideal

The comprehensive school system grew gradually during the 1950s and 60s. It was intended to provide for all children without reference to their ability or aptitude. This system emerged because of increasing dissatisfaction with the selective system where children, at the age of eleven, were allocated into separate kinds of secondary schools through the eleven plus examination.

A further step was taken to provide a greater opportunity for all in the sense that a broader range of examinations that a greater percentage of the school population could pass was required. Therefore, the CSE was launched in 1960 to increase the percentage of pupils capable of achieving a qualification before leaving secondary school.

The Labour government, after its election in 1964, pledged to end selection at age eleven for the benefit of greater social justice and promotion of educational equal opportunity. This led to the abolition of selection at the eleven plus in 1965. From 1965 to 1974, the Labour government issued DES circulars requesting LEAs to submit plans for the reorganisation of schools into the comprehensive system.

The Table below illustrates the growth in the size of the comprehensive sector from 1965 to 1985 as more and more LEAs reorganized their secondary education. This was maintained until the early 1980s when some of LEAs retained grammar and

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secondary modern schools. The proportion of pupils at comprehensive schools increased from 7% in 1964 to 90% in 1982.

Table 2: Public secondary schools by type: England and Wales

	Modern	Grammar	Technical	Comprehensive	Other	Total
<i>Schools</i>						
1955	3,550	1,180	302	16	96	5,144
1960	3,837	1,268	251	130	315	5,801
1965	3,727	1,285	172	262	417	5,863
1970	2,691	1,038	82	1,145	324	5,280
1975	1,216	566	29	2,596	155	4,562
1980	445	224	17	3,297	60	4,120
1985	284	173	4	3,479	42	4,028
<i>Pupils (thousands)</i>						
1955	1,234	528	87	16	49	1,914
1960	1,638	673	102	129	182	2,724
1965	1,555	719	85	240	221	2,820
1970	1,227	605	44	937	197	3,010
1975	698	344	18	2,460	100	3,620
1980	235	135	10	3,398	35	3,813
1985	166	114	3	3,205	26	3,513

Source: Paul Bolton, Social & General Statistics, Education: Historical statistics, SN/SG/4252, UK Parliament, 27 November 2012, p.15

II.1.The Newsom Report, 1963

The Newsom Report on children with average and below average ability, published in 1963, proposed that ‘an education that makes sense’ for such pupils would be practical, realistic and vocational in character, with clear limits placed on what would be expected of them. This outlook implied a distinctive curriculum for the non-academic majority of the age group whatever the kind of school that was provided for them. In this respect, the report stated:

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“(317). Most boys and girls, and especially those with whom we are concerned, want their education to be practical and realistic. They feel a good deal better if they can see that it is vocational. They like to have some say in choosing what they shall learn. We believe that these four words - practical, realistic, vocational, choice - provide keys which can be used to let even the least able boys and girls enter into an educational experience which is genuinely secondary.”¹⁸

The main recommendations of the report were:

The school leaving age should be raised to sixteen for all pupils entering the secondary schools from September 1965.¹⁹ Teaching techniques to help pupils whose abilities were artificially depressed by environmental and linguistic handicaps should be researched. A working party should be set up to deal with the general social problems, including education in slum areas. All schools should provide a range of courses, with attention paid to the arts and to the personal and social development of the pupils. Excessive use of ability grouping should be avoided, and efforts should be made to emphasize the status of older pupils. Extension of the school day should be encouraged.

The Ministry and Local Education Authorities should jointly consider the provision of some residential experience for all pupils. Local Education Authorities should review the relevance of their

¹⁸ *The Newsom Report (1963), Half Our Future, A report of the Central Advisory Council for Education (England)*, London: Her Majesty's Stationery Office 1963, p.114

¹⁹ *Ibid.*, p. xvi

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Agreed Syllabuses for religious instruction for older pupils.²⁰ The school programme in the final year ought to be an initiation into the adult world of work and leisure. Links with the youth employment service, further education, the youth service and adult organisations need strengthening. All sixteen-year-old leavers should receive some form of internal leaving certificate, irrespective of any external examinations they may take. Schools should resist external pressures to extend public examinations to pupils for whom they were inappropriate. No pupils should be entered for any external examination before the fifth year.

The Ministry and Local Education Authorities should begin an experimental building programme, and action should be accelerated to remedy the existing functional deficiencies of schools. Provision for all practical subjects should be reappraised and extended workshop and technical facilities provided. All secondary schools should be adequately provided with modern audio-visual aids including television.²¹

Teacher training should be reviewed to ensure that a substantial proportion of teachers in the secondary schools receive a training of the ‘concurrent’ type (in which the personal higher education of the student is combined with pedagogical studies). Training colleges should be staffed and equipped to enable students to teach one main subject and at least one other subject. The

²⁰ Ibid., p. xvii

²¹ Ibid., p. xvii

training of teachers should include preparation for the new demands, which would be made on them by the raising of the school leaving age. A training requirement for graduates should be introduced at the earliest practicable moment, and as an interim measure, there should be an emergency programme of in-service courses to help graduates and other teachers who had attained qualified status without training to deal with the problems they encountered in the schools. ²²

II.2.The Comprehensive School, 1965

As a result of the difficulties generated by the tripartite system, the pressure for the development of comprehensive education came from a range of groups, including Edward Boyle, with different interests and ideologies. By 1965, the ideas of comprehensive schools was already established in public awareness. It was regarded of as a major political advance in the development of the principle of equality of opportunity. In 1965, the central government asked the LEAs to draw up plans to switch to a comprehensive system.

Comprehensive schools were designed with the belief to achieve a well educated public, schools needed to be of a large size and to take children of various abilities, in addition to teaching a wide range of subjects. Comprehensive schools were introduced as an alternative to the selective system. They shared a similar

²² Ibid., p. xviii

foundation to the Liberal arts movement, in that both were structured to develop general knowledge and intellectual skills, rather than more specialized occupational, scientific, or artistic skills.

II.3. Circular 10/65

Circular 10/65 was initiated by the Education Secretary Anthony Crosland.²³ It is sometimes called the Crosland Circular. It was issued on July 12, 1965 by the Department of Education and Science (DES). It requested Local Education Authorities (LEAs) in England and Wales to begin converting their secondary schools to the Comprehensive System. For most of England and Wales, it marked the abolition of the old grammar schools and secondary moderns, and so the Eleven Plus examination. It reflected the Labour government's view that the existing Tripartite System of education was defective, and had to be replaced with comprehensive schools.

²³ Crosland, Anthony (1918-1977), was a British Labour Party politician. He served as secretary of state for foreign and commonwealth affairs from 1976-1977. He had previously served as secretary of state for the environment from 1974 to 1976. He was appointed to the Treasury in 1964. He became secretary of state for education and science in 1965 and president of the Board of Trade in 1967. From 1969 to 1970, he was secretary of state responsible for local government and regional planning. *World Book Encyclopaedia 2005 (Deluxe)*, Entry: Anthony Crosland

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It reflected all Local Education Authorities to submit plans for comprehensive organisation and listed six acceptable forms, which these plans might take:

1. The orthodox comprehensive school with an age range of 11-18
2. A two tier system whereby all pupils transfer at 11 to a junior comprehensive school and all go on at 13 or 14 to a senior comprehensive school.
3. A system under which all pupils on leaving primary school transfer to a junior comprehensive school, but at the age of 13 or 14 some pupils move on to a senior school while the remainder stay on in the same school. There are two main variations: in one, the comprehensive school which all pupils enter after primary school provides no course terminating in public examination, and normally keeps pupils only until 15; in the other, this school provides GCE and CSE courses, keeps pupils at least until 16, and encourages transfer at the appropriate stage to the sixth form of the senior school.
4. A two tier system in which all pupils on leaving primary school transfer to a junior comprehensive school. At the age of 13 or 14 all pupils have a choice between a senior school catering for those who expect to stay at school well beyond the compulsory age, and a senior school catering for those who do not.
5. Comprehensive schools with an age range of 11 to 16 combined with sixth form colleges for pupils over 16.

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6. A system of middle schools which straddle the primary/secondary age ranges. Under this system pupils transfer from a primary school at the age of 8 or 9 to a comprehensive school with an age range of 8 to 12 or 9 to 13. From this middle school they move on to a comprehensive school with an age range of 12 or 13 to 18.”²⁴

It was pointed out that the option (iii) and (iv) were not fully comprehensive since they involved the segregation of children after 13 or 14 and that they could only be approved as temporarily measures.²⁵

The Certificate of Secondary Education (CSE) was introduced in England and Wales in 1965 to cater for children not sitting O-levels (Ordinary Level). In fact, it increased the pressure on schools to divide students between ‘academic’ and ‘non-academic’ streams.

II.4.Plowden Report, 1967

The Plowden report entitled *Children and their Primary Schools* was produced by the Central Advisory Council for Education (CACE) under the chairmanship of Bridget Plowden²⁶. Its

²⁴ *Circular 10/65 (1965), The organisation of secondary education*, Department of Education and Science, London: 1965, p. 2-3

²⁵ William Kenneth Richmond, *Education in Britain since 1944 : A Personal Retrospect*, Methuen &Co Ltd, 1978, p. 95

²⁶ Bridget Horatia Plowden (1910-200) educated at St. Alfred's School, Hampstead, privately and at Downe House School, Berkshire. She was active in many fields, including as a Director of Trust Houses Forte Ltd, 1961-1972, a

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terms of reference were “to consider primary education in all its aspects, and the transition to secondary education”.²⁷ The inquiry into primary education was initiated as a follow-up of the two other Hadow reports, *The Primary School* (1931) and *Infant and Nursery Schools* (1933). It was, therefore, published at a time of great excitement and creativity in education. The eleven plus was being abolished, freeing primary schools from the constraints imposed by the need to ‘get good results’. Streaming was being abandoned. Comprehensive schools and middle schools were being established. Teacher-led curriculum innovation was being actively encouraged.²⁸

The core of Plowden is summed up in the beginning of the second Chapter “At the heart of the educational process lies the child”²⁹. It emphasised the need to consider children as individuals. “Individual differences between children of the same age are so great that any class, however homogeneous it seems, must always

member of the Inner London Education Authority Education Committee, 1967-1973, a Governor and Chairman of the BBC, 1970-1975 and Chairman of the Independent Broadcasting Authority, 1975-1980. She has been involved in a wide variety of voluntary organisations, including in the fields of primary and pre-school education. She was Chair of the Central Advisory Council for Education (England), 1963-1966. As such she also chaired its Committee of Enquiry into Primary Education whose influential report, *Children and Their Primary Schools* was published in 1967. <http://www.ioe.ac.uk/services/696.html>. Accessed 09/12/2014

²⁷ J. Stuart Maclure, op. cit., p. 308

²⁸ Derek Gillard, op. cit., p. 150

²⁹ *The Plowden Report (1967), Children and their Primary Schools, A Report of the Central Advisory Council for Education*, London: Her Majesty's Stationery Office 1967, p.7

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be treated as a body of children needing individual and different attention”.³⁰

As regards the curriculum, the committee was clear on its freedom. It, thus, states:

“One of the main educational tasks of the primary school is to build on and strengthen children’s intrinsic interest in learning and lead them to learn for themselves rather than from fear of disapproval or desire for praise.”³¹

The most important recommendations concerned the impact of social disadvantage on educational opportunity. The report enunciated a new administrative principle -that ‘positive discrimination’ should be exercised through the educational system to counteract the adverse effects of a bad environment. In so doing it introduced the idea of ‘educational priority areas’ and suggested how a formula could be devised to define the areas of greatest need to which extra resources -more teachers, more salary allowances, more equipment and minor building works -could be diverted.

The Report advocated a steady expansion of nursery education for the most part on a half-day basis, starting with the priority areas. Other recommendations included an increase in the recruitment of nursery assistants and a programme for the recruitment and training of a new category of staff known as teachers’ aides, with a training of one to two years, largely of a practical nature.

³⁰ Ibid., p.25

³¹ Ibid., p.196

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The Council decided that transfer to secondary education should take place at 12 plus, and that legislation should be introduced to make for a more flexible starting age, with half-day nursery education from three to five, and optional half-day in the 'first' (infants) school up to six. After a three-year course, the pupil would transfer at eight to the 'middle' (junior) school. As an interim measure, the report proposed that children should begin whole-day school twice a year (September and April) with staggered admission during the first term. Part-time attendance for half a day 'should be available for up to two terms before full-time entry'. The report also put much stress on the relations between school and home, and on the participation of parents in school activities.³²

A new element in the curriculum debate was the Conservative counter attack against comprehensive schools, their curricula and the progressive 'methods' advocated by the Plowden Report. A decline in standards was alleged, especially in the three Rs. During 1969 and 1970, three 'Black Papers': *Fight for Education*, *The Crisis in Education* and *Goodbye Mr Short*. Contributors consisted of academics, teachers, writers, and politicians holding right-wing views, including G.H.Bantock, Rhodes Boyson, C.B.Cox, A.E.Dyson, Kingsley Amis, Cyril Burt and Jacques Barzun. Many of the issues aired in the Black Papers had subsequently been taken up and amplified by such organisations as the National Council for Educational Standards (NCES), the Centre for Policy Studies (CPS),

³² J. Stuart Maclure, op. cit., p. 309

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the Institute of Economic Affairs (IEA) and the Hillgate Group.³³ They consisted of a series of essays that received the attention of public and within the teaching profession. These allegations received dramatic confirmation with the William Tyndale School scandal where some teachers appeared to be preaching politics while neglecting their traditional duties of teaching basic skills. The incident also revealed the difficulty of a Local Education Authority taking action on an inadequate curriculum unless much stronger guidelines were laid down nationally.³⁴

In the last two Black Papers (1975 and 1977), *The Fight for Education and Black Paper 1977*, contributors went beyond ‘the cautious conservatism of the first three documents’ and advocated voucher schemes under which parents would be issued with a free basic coupon valued at the average cost of schools in a local authority area.

All five Black Papers criticized the concepts of comprehensive education, egalitarianism and progressive teaching methods. They deplored the lack of discipline in schools and blamed comprehensivisation for preventing ‘academic’ students from obtaining good examination results.

The authors of the Black Papers could be considered as partly responsible for the changes to come and paved the way towards the

³³ Peter Gordon, Denis Lawton, *Dictionary of British Education*, Woburn Press, Great Britain, 2003, p. 26

³⁴ Richard Aldrich, *op. cit.*, p. 200

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1988 reforms, which were intended to enhance and improve primary school education.³⁵

The 1967 Plowden Report *Children and their Primary Schools* had recommended that surveys of the quality of primary schools should be conducted at least once every ten years. In response, and on account of The Great Debate, Her Majesty's Inspectors, filled with motivation, produced, between 1978 and 1985, five major surveys covering the whole school age range. They were:

1978 *Primary education in England*

1979 *Aspects of secondary education in England*

1982 *Education 5 to 9*

1983 *9-13 Middle Schools*

1985 *Education 8 to 12 in Combined and Middle Schools*³⁶

Against the background of concerns expressed in 1978 about the 'whole curriculum' and in 1986 about 'standards of achievement', the inauguration of a national curriculum in 1988 appears with hindsight as an almost inevitable development.

II.5. The Public School Commission

Two reports were produced, the Newsom Report, which dealt with the independent schools, and the Donnison Report addressing direct grant schools.

³⁵ Michel Lemosse, op. cit., p. 92

³⁶ David Montague Rogerson, *Changes to the Education System of England and Wales in the last 70 years Part 4: 1970 – 1979*, Journal Academic Marketing Mysticism, (JAMMO), Vol.7, Part 24, 2013, p. 353

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An attempt at reform came with the setting up of the Public Schools Commission under the Labour government of Harold Wilson³⁷ in 1965, The Newsom Report stated:

“to advise on the best way of integrating the public schools with the State system of education. For the immediate purpose of the Commission public schools are defined as those independent schools now in membership of the Headmasters' Conference, Governing Bodies' Association or Governing Bodies of Girls' Schools Association.”³⁸

The Newsom Report argued for an assisted places scheme: “there should be a first condition that a school must admit assisted pupils from maintained schools to at least a half of its places - by the end of a build-up period of about seven years.³⁹” Such places, it said, should be awarded according to the likelihood of the individual benefitting, rather than on their academic ability. It proposed that the funding be covered by LEAs who could be reimbursed by the Treasury, up to the average cost of education in a maintained day school. Any additional costs should be means tested. The recommendations were received with hostility from within the Labour party, and were never implemented.

³⁷ Wilson, Harold (1916-1995), served as Prime Minister of the United Kingdom from 1964 to 1970 and from 1974 to 1976. He was also the leader of the United Kingdom's Labour Party from 1963 to 1976. Wilson was in the House of Commons until 1983. He was then named a baron and became Lord Wilson and a member of the House of Lords. *World Book Encyclopaedia 2005 (Deluxe)*, Entry: Harold Wilson

³⁸ *The Newsom Report (1968), The Public Schools Commission: First Report*, London: Her Majesty's Stationery Office 1968, p. vii

³⁹ *Ibid.*, p.8

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The Donnison report, under the chairmanship of Pr. David Donnison ⁴⁰, included recommendations about both independent day schools and direct grant schools. It recommended that such schools should either admit pupils without charging fees and selecting by ability or forgo State aid. However, as the report was published during the Conservative government, action had not been taken before there was another change of government. In 1975, the Labour government issued its *Direct Grant Grammar Schools Regulations*, which specified how and when grants were to be phased out. Direct grant schools were required to choose either comprehensivisation (go comprehensive) or withdrawal of State aid.⁴¹ Of 179 direct grant grammar schools existing at the time in England and Wales, only 45 joined the maintained system, some closed, while the majority became fully independent and fee paying.⁴²

During the lifetime of the Labour Government, the majority of the local authorities adopted reorganisation of one kind or another. By December 1969, schemes had been approved for 129

⁴⁰ David Donnison (1926-) is an Emeritus Professor and Honorary Senior Research Fellow in the Department of Urban Studies. He previously held the Chair of Town and Regional Planning. His books include “Social Policy and Administration” (1965), “The Government of Housing” (1967) “The Politics of Poverty” (1982), “Last of the Guardians” (2005) and, most recently, “Speaking to Power”. <http://www.universitystory.gla.ac.uk/biography/>

⁴¹ Janet McKenzie, *Changing Education: A Sociology of Education Since 1944*, Prentice Hall, 2001, p. 220

⁴² Anthony Seldon, *Schools United, Ending the Divide between Independent and State*, The Social Market Foundation, 2014, p. 31

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out of 163 education authorities; 108 of these covered the greater part of the area. The plans of 12 authorities were under consideration and 6 had yet to produce a plan. 11 authorities had produced plans, which were rejected by the DES and 3 more had declined to submit any scheme.⁴³

The Conservative government in 1970 thus, withdrew Circular 10/65.

II.6. Circular 10/70

The succeeding Conservative government (1970-4) under the leadership of Edward Heath and Margaret Thatcher as Secretary of State of Education withdrew Circular 10/65 and issued Circular 10/70. The latter gave L.E.A.s greater freedom to make their own decisions. The circular stressed the value of the mixed system of selective and comprehensive school on the basis of offering parental choice.⁴⁴ It, in fact, cancelled the requirement for Local Education Authorities to proceed with comprehensive secondary schooling, an intervention that was intended to weaken the link between particular forms of schooling and social class. By 1973, 50 per cent of all secondary pupils attended a Comprehensive School, and reached 70 percent in 1977.⁴⁵

⁴³ J. Stuart Maclure, *op. cit.*, p. 301

⁴⁴ Ron Brooks, *Contemporary Debates in Education: An Historical Perspective*, Taylor & Francis, 1991, p. 125-6

⁴⁵ Michel Lemosse, *Education in England and Wales, from 1870 to the Present Day*, Longman France, Paris, 1992, p. 120.

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One of the first actions of the new Labour government in 1974 was to announce its intention to introduce a fully comprehensive system of secondary education. In 1976, an Education Act was passed, which limited the number of independent and grant-maintained schools in any one area. The Act makes it clear that:

“local education authorities shall, in the exercise and performance of their powers and duties relating to secondary education, have regard to the general principle that such education is to be provided only in schools where the arrangements for the admission of pupils are not based (wholly or partly) on selection by reference to ability or aptitude.”⁴⁶

The Education Act 1976 required LEAs to provide a plan to introduce secondary education for all without regard to ability, and gave the Secretary of State powers to compel compliance. The government also withdrew financial support from direct grant grammar schools unless they agreed to become comprehensive, which resulted in many becoming fully independent.

By 1978, the government wanted to extend the concept of comprehensive education to include provision of mixed ability classes in secondary schools. Emphasis changed with the change of government in 1979 and, though no attempt was made to reverse

⁴⁶ *Education Act 1976, Chapter 81*, London: Her Majesty's Stationery Office 1976, p.1

the situation as it was, the 1976 Act was repealed by the the Conservatives and prevailing selective systems remained in place.⁴⁷

II.7. Education in Schools (The Green paper, 1977)

This document, known as the ‘Green Paper’⁴⁸, stemmed from the Department of Education and Science as the result of the so-called ‘Great Debate’, initiated by the Prime Minister Mr. James Callaghan in a speech at Ruskin College, Oxford in October 1976.

The burden of the speech was the need to re-open public discussion of educational issues, which had become ‘professionalized’. He implied that the professionals had tried to keep the control of the curriculum to themselves, resisting attempts to get them to explain themselves and their actions to their paymasters and clients.

This major speech was, in its turn, based on a confidential memorandum from the Department of Education and Science, entitled *School Education in England - Problems and Initiatives*. Leaked to the Press on the eve of the Ruskin speech, this concluded

⁴⁷ Department for Education, *Operational Selection Policy OSP 19, Records of the Department for Education, 1974-1997*, Crown copyright 2014, p. 20

⁴⁸ Green Papers are consultation documents produced by the Government. Often when a government department is considering introducing a new law, it will put together a discussion document called a Green Paper. The aim of this document is to allow people both inside and outside Parliament to debate the subject and give the department feedback on its suggestions. Copies of consultation documents such as Green Papers and White Papers, which are produced by the Government, are available on the related departmental websites. <http://www.parliament.uk/site-information/glossary/green-papers/>. Accessed 14/01/2015

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by arguing that the D.E.S. should be allowed to give ‘a firmer lead’ and that the Inspectorate should ‘have a leading role to play’ in bringing forward ideas on curricular matters.⁴⁹

The speech was followed by various DES and HMI initiatives regarding the curriculum, the establishment of the Assessment of Performance Unit and the beginning of mass testing by LEAs. The debate was characterised by the increasingly detailed interventions of central government into schooling:

Subsequent D.E.S. papers on *A Framework for the Curriculum* (1980) and *The School Curriculum* (1981) were aimed at persuading local education authorities to develop curriculum policies within broad guidelines, and (Circular 6/81) ensuring that every school should prepare a statement of curriculum objectives.⁵⁰

The document emphasized a number of aims to be set for the school. These objectives were:

1. to help children develop lively, enquiring minds; giving them the ability to question and to argue rationally, and to apply themselves to tasks;
2. to instil respect for moral values, for other people and for oneself, and tolerance of other races, religions, and ways of life;

⁴⁹ J. Stuart Maclure, op. cit., p. 394

⁵⁰ Ibid., p. 394

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3. to help children understand the world in which we live, and the interdependence of nations;
4. to help children to use language effectively and imaginatively in reading, writing and speaking;
5. to help children to appreciate how the nation earns and maintains its standard of living and properly to esteem the essential role of industry and commerce in this process;
6. to provide a basis of mathematical, scientific and technical knowledge, enabling boys and girls to learn the essential skills needed in a fast-changing world of work;
7. to teach children about human achievement and aspirations in the arts and sciences, in religion, and in the search for a more just social order; and
8. to encourage and foster the development of the children whose social or environmental disadvantages cripple their capacity to learn, if necessary by making additional resources available to them. ⁵¹

The document also recognized that there had been positive developments. It mentioned:

“Primary schools have been transformed in recent years by two things: a much wider curriculum than used to be considered sufficient for elementary education, and the rapid growth of the so-called 'child-centred' approach.”⁵²

⁵¹ *Education in Schools: A Consultative Document*, London: Her Majesty's Stationery Office 1977, pp. 6-7

⁵² *Ibid.*, p. 8

III. The Centralisation and Standardisation of Education

When Margaret Thatcher returned to office, this time, as Prime Minister in 1979, she brought economic and social policies evolved into a political philosophy known as Thatcherism. It was a system of political thought including her social, diplomatic, and economic principles. Thatcher struggled the power of trade unions, cut direct taxes, and privatized numerous nationalized industries. Her policies aimed at directing the British economy to a more market oriented economy and thus, making government intervention in economy less needed.⁵³

Thatcher's neo-liberal⁵⁴ policies affected not only industry and commerce but also public services. Therefore, the two-fold aims of Margaret Thatcher's education policies in the 1980s were to change the nation's schools system from a public service into a market, and to transfer power from local authorities to central government.

⁵³ Eric J. Evans, *Thatcher and Thatcherism: Making of the Contemporary World*, 2nd Edition, Routledge, 2004, p.17

⁵⁴ An approach to economics and social studies in which control of economic factors is shifted from the public sector to the private sector. Drawing upon principles of neoclassical economics, neoliberalism suggests that governments reduce deficit spending, limit subsidies, reform tax law to broaden the tax base, remove fixed exchange rates, open up markets to trade by limiting protectionism, privatize state-run businesses, allow private property and back deregulation.

<http://www.investopedia.com/terms/n/neoliberalism.asp>. Accessed 16/02/2015

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Accordingly, the Neo-liberals opted for much reduced State control over education and for the expansion of private schools offering a range of curricular designed to meet different parental tastes. The Neo-Conservative support for a centralised National Curriculum could be seen as strengthening overall state control and reducing the scope of parental preference.

The Education Act, 1979, the first legislative measure to be taken by Margaret Thatcher as Prime Minister and leader of the Conservative Party. Under the leadership of Mark Carlisle as first Education Secretary, It repealed Labour's 1976 Act and gave back to LEAs the right to select pupils for secondary education at eleven. Under this Act, Local Authorities were requested to place greater emphasis on parental choice in the allocation of school places although it has been suggested that in practice this requirement had only limited practical effects.

The 1980 Education Act introduced an Assisted Places Scheme, which subsidised students who passed an entrance examination, but whose parents had limited funds to be educated at private schools in the hope that this would enable these more able students to develop their talents more fully than would be possible in the state sector of education. The 1980 Education Act stipulates:

“For the purpose of enabling pupils who might otherwise not be able to do so to benefit from education at independent schools, the Secretary of State shall establish and operate a scheme whereby-
(a) participating schools remit fees that would otherwise be chargeable in respect of pupils selected for assisted places under

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the scheme ; and (b) the Secretary of State reimburses the schools for the fees that are remitted.”⁵⁵

This policy reflected a Conservative belief that state schools were often incapable of developing the talents of the most gifted pupils and in effect provided a state subsidy to the private education sector, which the Conservatives wished to support.

The main provisions of the Act were that School governing bodies were to include at least two parents. Parents were to have the right to choose schools and the right to appeal if they did not get the schools they had chosen. There were new rules regarding school attendance orders, and required the creation of new schools and the closing of existing ones. Local authorities could establish nursery schools.⁵⁶

In September 1981, Mark Carlisle was replaced by Keith Joseph (1981-86) as the second Education Secretary of Thatcher’s government. His appointment was a signal towards school reform. He started the reparation for the General Certificate of Secondary Education GCSEs, and the establishment of a national curriculum in England and Wales. With Joseph leading the Education Department, Thatcher set about preparing to take control. Such appointment meant confrontation of the ‘education establishment’: the teachers and their unions, the training institutions, national

⁵⁵ *Education Act 1980, Chapter 20*, London: Her Majesty's Stationery Office 1980, p.18

⁵⁶ Janet McKenzie, *Changing Education: A Sociology of Education Since 1944*, Prentice Hall, 2001, p. 241-42

and local inspectors and advisors. There would be action on three fronts: the curriculum, the teachers and the local education authorities.

III.1.School Curriculum

On October 1st 1981, the DES issued Circular 6/81, which requested that, in the light of the advice contained in *The School Curriculum*, each local education authority should

- (a) review its policy for the school curriculum in its area, and its arrangements for making that policy known to all concerned;
- (b) review the extent to which current provision in the schools is consistent with that policy; and
- (c) plan future developments accordingly, within the resources available.⁵⁷

In taking these actions, local education authorities should consult governors of schools, teachers and others concerned.

Two years later, on 8 December 1983, Circular 8/83 requested each LEA to provide:

- (a) a report on the progress which has been made in drawing up a policy for the curriculum in its primary and secondary schools ...
- (b) a description of the roles played in the processes of drawing up the policy by heads and other teachers, governors, parents and other interested parties in the local community;

⁵⁷ Department of Education and Science, *Circular 8/81, The School Curriculum*, London: 1981, §5

(c) a brief statement of the ways in which the policy is being given or will be given practical effect in the schools ...

(d) a summary, giving examples where appropriate, of the steps being taken and planned by the authority to seek to ensure that the curriculum is planned as a whole ...

(e) a summary of the steps being taken and planned by the authority to ensure that the curriculum is appropriately related to what happens outside school, and includes sufficient applied and practical work, particularly in mathematics ... and science;

(f) a statement of how far the resources available to the authority ... are enabling it to give effect to its policy for the curriculum. (DES 1983 para.5)⁵⁸

To support schools and LEAs in formulating curriculum policies, HMI produced a number of publications, including *A Framework for the School Curriculum* (HMI 1980), *A View of the Curriculum* and *The Curriculum from 5 to 16* (1985). These HMI documents held progressive attitude and thus, led the government to publish *The National Curriculum 5-16* in July 1987.

III.2. Teachers' Training

In the early 1980s, when the Conservative government announced its first policy intervention in the initial training of teachers, the preparation of teachers took place in universities and colleges of education. Hence, potential schoolteachers were likely to experience a range of training courses, depending on the institution they attended. There was criticism of the teacher training departments, from the trainees and from the schools themselves, of the diffidence of the courses from the realities of the schools. These deficiencies were rooted from the separation of institutions of

⁵⁸ Ibid.,

teacher training from the schools, and their independence or ‘autonomy’ in deciding the content and organisation of training courses and qualifications.⁵⁹

The direction of government policy was contained in the White Paper of 1983, ‘*Teaching Quality*’ (DES, 1983). Opening up training courses to the ‘realities’ of teaching in schools would, it was stated, lead to the relevance and quality of training being improved. In support of this intention, Circular 3/84 was issued in 1984 (DES, 1984). This established the Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (CATE) with the responsibility for overseeing initial teacher education in England and Wales on behalf of the Secretary for State for Education. Changes implemented in years to come involved the requirement for teacher trainers to undertake ‘recent and relevant’ teaching experience in schools, the setting of the length of teacher training courses and the number of weeks trainees had to spend in schools.⁶⁰

III.3.The Local Authorities

The Thatcher governments, within the framework of ‘Thatcherism’ and neoliberalism approaches, aimed to reduce the power of local government, an area in which they found a great deal of resistance to their policies. This was apparent in the abolition of

⁵⁹ Bill Bailey & Jocelyn Robson, *Changing teachers: a critical review of recent policies affecting the professional training and qualifications of teachers in schools, colleges and universities in England*, *Journal of Vocational Education & Training*, 54:3, 325-342, 2002, p. 327

⁶⁰ Bill Bailey & Jocelyn Robson, *Ibid.*,

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the Greater London Council (GLC) and Metropolitan County Councils. The government hoped to abolish Local Education Authorities by encouraging schools to 'opt out' and receive funding directly from central government.⁶¹

In May 1986, Kenneth Baker replaced Keith Joseph as Education Secretary in Thatcher's second government. Among Baker's first tasks was to handle the enactment of two education Acts. The first (18 July 1986), was the 1986 Education Act, which concerned certain further education grants and the pooling of expenditure by local authorities. The second (7 November 1986), dealt with composition and powers of governing bodies, freedom of speech and sex education.

III.4.Vocational Education

The Conservative government took another swipe at the local authorities when the Technical and Vocational Education Initiative (TVEI) was launched as a pilot scheme from 1983. LEAs were not allowed to participate. Instead, it was administered by the Department of Employment's Manpower Services Commission (MSC). It was an attempt to promote diversity in the curriculum for 14 to 18-year-olds within the secondary schools that might be especially suited to the non-academic majority of pupils.

⁶¹ Stewart Morris, *The Social Structure of Modern Britain, Did the Thatcher governments change Britain?*, Paper 14, Christ's College, p.4

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However, the initiative attracted strong criticism from educational groups on the basis that it would encourage greater divisions in the comprehensive schools.⁶² As the TVEI became established in the schools, these initial worries began to diminish until a fresh initiative sought to create a new class of secondary schools, city technology colleges (CTCs). The CTCs, announced by Kenneth Baker as Secretary of State for Education in 1986, would be new secondary schools that were outside the influence of LEAs, designed specifically to offer a ‘new choice of school’ with a strong technological element in the curriculum.⁶³

The impact of the CTCs proved to be transitory and limited, especially because of difficulties of funding and the logistics of founding a new type of secondary school. More important was the overall thrust of government policy that they came to symbolize, away from a single model of secondary school and towards a greater emphasis on ‘choice’ and ‘competition’ between a diverse range of schools. This tendency continued under the general provisions of the Education Reform Act of 1988.

III.5. The Education Act, 1986 (No. 2)

The second Education Act of 1986 (7 November) implemented the proposals set out in the 1985 White Paper *Better Schools* which

⁶² G. McCulloch, ‘*History and policy: the politics of the TVEI*’, in D. Gleeson (ed.) *TVEI and Secondary Education*, Milton Keynes, Open University Press, 1987, pp. 13–37.

⁶³ G. McCulloch, ‘*City technology colleges: an old choice of school?*’, *British Journal of Educational Studies*, 1989, vol. 37, no. 1, pp. 30–43.

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were summarised in the DES booklet *Better Schools: A Summary*. It further diminished the importance of the LEAs and put the emphasis on the Department and the schools. Governors were to be given much greater responsibility for the curriculum, discipline and staffing. The head was to have a central role - chosen for specific responsibilities including the 'determination and organisation of the secular curriculum'. The head (and only the head) had the power to exclude pupils. The Act also introduced the concept of educational law, so that lawyers became involved in education for the first time.

The Act's main provisions were:

- every maintained school was required to have a governing body (Sections 1-2);
- the composition of governing bodies was changed - the number of parent governors was to be equal to the number of LEA governors and there were to be staff governors and others co-opted from business and industry (3-8). (*Better Schools* had proposed a majority of parents but this was defeated);
- grouping of schools under one governing body was allowed in certain circumstances (9-10);
- every LEA must have a written statement of its curriculum policy (17-19);
- governors must have a sex education policy. If taught (it didn't have to be), sex education had to encourage pupils 'to have due regard to moral considerations and the value of family life' (46);

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- governors must give parents information about the school's curriculum (20);
- discipline was the responsibility of the head, though the principles underlying it were to be supplied by governors (22);
- there were new rules on pupil exclusions (23), reinstatement (24) and appeals (26);
- LEAs were to give governors financial information relating to the school (29);
- governors were to produce an annual report (30) and hold an annual parents' meeting (31);
- LEAs retained responsibility for the appointment and dismissal of staff but were to consult with governors (34-41);
- there was to be freedom of speech in universities and colleges (43);
- there was to be no political indoctrination in schools - this was an attack on subjects like 'peace studies' which had been introduced in a number of schools (44);
- corporal punishment was abolished in maintained schools (from August 1987). Independent schools were still permitted to beat their pupils, but not those whose fees were paid by the state (47);
- provision was made for the appraisal of teachers (49);
- governors were required to supply information to the secretary of state (56);
- LEAs were required to provide training for governors (57); and

- the secretary of state was no longer required to produce annual report (60).⁶⁴

III.6. The Education Reform Act, 1988

The Education Reform Act (29 July 1988) was the most important Education Act since 1944. It is sometimes referred to as 'The Baker Act' after Secretary of State Kenneth Baker. The Act was presented as giving power to the schools. In fact, it took power away from the LEAs and the schools and gave them all to the secretary of state - it gave him hundreds of new powers. Even more importantly, it took a public service and turned it into a market - something the Tories had been working towards for a decade.

A critical view of ERA 88, which purports to show motives and currents at work, is worth noting. After Prime Minister Thatcher's large election victory in 1987, she believed that passage of ERA 88 legislation and community charge legislation were vital for a hoped for fourth term election victory needed to complete her political agenda of reducing socialism and increasing private initiative.⁶⁵

III.6.1. Provisions of the ERA

The main provisions of the 1988 Education Reform Act were:

⁶⁴ *Education (No. 2) Act 1986, Chapter 61*, London: Her Majesty's Stationery Office, 1980

⁶⁵ Brian Simon, *Bending the Rules: The Baker 'Reform' of Education*. London, Lawrence and Wishart, 1988, pp.11-12.

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The 1988 Act provided for a 'basic curriculum' to be taught in all maintained schools, consisting of religious education and the National Curriculum (Section 2(1)).

The National Curriculum would set out 'attainment targets' - the knowledge, skills and understanding which children would be expected to have by the end of each key stage; the 'programmes of study' to be taught at each key stage; and the arrangements for assessing pupils at the end of each key stage (2(2)).⁶⁶

The National Curriculum would consist of three 'core subjects' (mathematics, English and science); six foundation subjects (history, geography, technology, music, art and physical education); plus a modern foreign language at key stages 3 and 4 (3(1-2)). Schools in Welsh-speaking areas of Wales would also teach Welsh.⁶⁷

The Act defined Key Stage 1 as ages 5-7, Key Stage 2: ages 8-11, Key Stage 3: 12-14, and Key Stage 4: 15-16 (3(3)).⁶⁸

It set out new rules on religious education: every day was to begin with an 'act of collective worship' (6(1)), a majority of which were to be 'wholly or mainly of a broadly Christian character' (7(1)). Every LEA was required to set up a standing advisory council on religious education (SACRE) (11(1)) consisting of representatives of religious groups, the Church of England, teachers and the local

⁶⁶ *Education Reform Act 1988*, Chapter 40, HMSO , p. 2

⁶⁷ *Ibid.*,

⁶⁸ *Ibid.*,

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authority (11(4)). Agreed Syllabuses for Religious Education should ‘reflect the fact that the religious traditions in Great Britain are in the main Christian whilst taking account of the teaching and practices of the other principal religions represented in Great Britain’ (8(3)).⁶⁹

Two new councils were to be established: the National Curriculum Council (NCC) and the School Examinations and Assessment Council (SEAC). (Wales was to have its own Curriculum Council for Wales). The members of the councils would be appointed by the secretary of state (14(1)).⁷⁰

The NCC would be required to review all aspects of the curriculum and advise the secretary of state, carry out programmes of research and development, publish and disseminate information relating to the curriculum and perform ‘such ancillary activities as the Secretary of State may direct’(14(3)).

SEAC’s functions were similar in respect of examinations and assessment; it was also to make arrangements with appropriate bodies for the moderation of assessments made in pursuance of assessment arrangements (14(4)).

The Act introduced new rules governing the admission of pupils to maintained schools, in particular the conditions which were to be met if the authority responsible for admissions to a

⁶⁹ Ibid., p. 6

⁷⁰ Ibid., p. 11

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school wished to reduce the ‘standard number’ of places in a year group (28).

Before 1988, schools had only had control over ‘capitation’ - that part of their budget relating to books and materials. The staff were employed and the buildings maintained by the local authority. Under what became known as ‘local management of schools’ (LMS), the schools were to be given far greater control, managing almost the whole budget. ‘It shall be the duty of the authority to put at the disposal of the governing body of the school in respect of that year a sum equal to the school’s budget share for that year to be spent for the purposes of the school’ (36(2)).⁷¹

School budgets would be determined on the basis of an ‘allocation formula’ based on the number and ages of the pupils in the school and the number of pupils with special needs (38(3)). Each local authority was required to submit a scheme for this financial delegation (39).

Responsibility for the appointment and dismissal of staff would be transferred from the local authority to schools’ governing bodies (44-46).

The Act made provision for the establishment of grant-maintained schools, which would be independent of local authorities and funded directly by central government. It set out rules

⁷¹ Ibid., p. 32

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governing the membership of the schools' governing bodies (4-5); the articles of government (58); the conduct of parents' ballots to decide whether schools should seek grant-maintained status (61); the transfer of property and staff to the governing bodies (74-5) and the grants (maintenance, special purpose and capital) payable to the schools (79). It made clear that funds directed to grant-maintained schools would be deducted from the relevant local authority budget (81).⁷²

The Act provided for the establishment of City Technology Colleges (CTCs) and City Colleges for the Technology of the Arts (CCTAs) (105) and laid down new rules governing what could, and what could not, be charged for in maintained schools (106-111).⁷³

Part II of the Act (120-161) made changes to the provision and funding of higher and further education and provided for the establishment of two new funding bodies: the Universities Funding Council (UFC) and the Polytechnics and Colleges Funding Council (PCFC), whose members would be appointed by the secretary of state. Local authorities, which funded institutions, would be required to produce a scheme for financial delegation similar to that required for the funding of schools.

Part III of the Act (162-196) provided for the abolition of the Inner London Education Authority (ILEA) and the transfer of its

⁷² Ibid., p. 82

⁷³ Ibid., pp. 111-16

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responsibilities, properties, rights and liabilities to the inner London boroughs.

Part IV of the Act (197-238) covered a number of other matters: the establishment and functions of Education Assets Board; academic tenure; grants; unrecognised degrees etc.

The National Curriculum, which resulted from the Act, was written by a government quango: teachers had virtually no say in its design or construction. It was almost entirely content-based. It was huge and therefore unmanageable, especially at the primary level, and its introduction resulted in a significant drop in reading standards. It divided the curriculum up into discrete subjects, making integrated ‘topic’ and ‘project’ work difficult if not impossible. However, perhaps the most damaging outcome of it was that it prevented teachers and schools from being curriculum innovators and demoted them to curriculum ‘deliverers’.⁷⁴

It was also constantly revised. Right-wing think-tanks and pressure groups were unhappy with aspects of the first version and campaigned for ‘the simplification and “Anglicisation” of the national testing system, so as to emphasise basic skills and the English cultural heritage’⁷⁵. The New Right gained control of the curriculum and assessment councils, where they provoked strong

⁷⁴ Derek Gillard, *Education in England: a brief history*, www.educationengland.org.uk/history. Accessed 08/02/2015

⁷⁵ Ken Jones, *Education in Britain, 1944 to the present*, Cambridge Polity Press, 2003, p. 141

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opposition from teachers, especially from teachers of English, leading to a widespread boycott of Standard Assessment Tests (SATs).

As a result, the government was forced to redesign the national curriculum, reducing the amount of detail and removing ‘the stronger signs of the traditionalist and ethnocentric enthusiasms of the New Right’.⁷⁶ The religious education requirement of the 1944 Education Act remained, with religious education content and collective worship more closely defined.

Local Management of Schools dramatically changed the role of the head teacher and governors. The head was no longer an educationalist but an institutional manager. S/he had to learn about recruitment and selection procedures, employment law, health and safety legislation, buildings maintenance etc.

The governors had legal responsibilities in relation to the control of a school’s budget and to the appointment and dismissal of staff. As school budgets were to be based largely on pupil numbers, schools had to attract as many pupils as possible in order to continue. The grant-maintained schools policy was another clear attack on the LEAs. Grant-maintained schools were allowed to select a proportion of their pupils on the basis of ability or aptitude.

⁷⁶ Ibid.,

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Grant-maintained status was, therefore, abolished by New Labour.⁷⁷

The 1988 Education Reform Act had two major impacts on education policy. The first one was that it shifted the power in education from teachers to central control, which was formed for this purpose only and led by the Secretary of State in Education. This meant that teachers could no more influence on education policy in Britain. The other major change was that it made education accountable, which meant that schools' funding became dependent on the results achieved. In addition to this, the Act imposed the National Curriculum, which obliged teachers to emphasise the core subjects: mathematics, literature and science.

Conclusion

From 1944 to 1988, British education witnessed three different phases of educational policies that included selection, the comprehensive ideal and the centralisation and standardisation of education.

After the Second World War, education began to be shaped by the idea of selection. The Butler Act of 1944 brought in the tripartite system, where children were to be selected and allocated according to their aptitudes and abilities to one of the

⁷⁷ Derek Gillard, *op.cit.*,

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three different types of secondary school (grammar schools, secondary modern and secondary technical schools). These were to be identified by the eleven plus examination. Each of those schools offered a different academic curriculum and orientation. During the 1960s there was growing support for a comprehensive system and the then Labour Government moved towards reform based on the 1965 Circular 10/65 and later the 1976 Education Act. Most authorities adopted this system, yet some retained the grammar school system. However, the tripartite system and the eleven plus examination were criticized for promoting class inequality and unequal opportunity rather than meritocracy.

The second phase was the introduction of the comprehensive system by 1965, which aimed to overcome class division brought about by the tripartite system, and make education more meritocratic and enhance the principle of equality of opportunity. Thus, the 11+ was abolished along with the three types of secondary schools to be replaced by the comprehensive schools. Though the comprehensive system helped to reduce the class gap in achievement, it continued to reproduce class inequality.

The third phase was another orientation of education to a more centralized and standardized system. In the 1980s,

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Margaret Thatcher's education policies were to change the nation's schools system from a public service into a market, and to transfer power from local authorities to central government. The outcome was The 1988 Education Reform Act, which introduced the National Curriculum and the key stages of compulsory education focusing on raising standards. It also made provision for primary and secondary schools to opt out of LEA control through the provision of grant maintained schools.

GENERAL

CONCLUSION

Before the nineteenth century, education in Britain was left to the initiative of the Church and voluntary effort. The kind of elementary education provided for in those schools was restricted to such rudimentary subjects as reading, writing and arithmetic, which could 'hardly' serve the principles of Christendom. The administrative and financial management of such schools were under the control of those bodies. There had been no state-aided schools as education was considered as a 'non-business of the State'.

During the eighteenth century, there had already been some revolutionary thought (A. Smith, T. Paine, and A. Bell) in motion, which influenced the idea of popular education as a public charge. The social and economic changes caused by the Industrial Revolution, that began in Britain by the 1750s, were the driving force to enhance the claim for an educational provision different, in terms of type and content, from the existing one. The type of education available at that time no longer responded to the requirements of the urban and industrialised society, which used to be fundamentally agricultural.

The eighteenth century witnessed a flourishing prospect for education. Voluntary institutions coupled with the church efforts would give rise to a gist for literacy in the years to come. Many types of schools, of voluntary nature, contributed to the education of people. Charity schools were supported by private contributions and usually operated by a religious body; these schools clothed and taught their students free of charge. They were founded in an

attempt to cope with poverty by means of education and were scattered throughout the country, particularly in urban areas. Sunday schools, though religious in character and run by lay people, were again, a way out to provide education for the poor, to improve the future of society and to curb the proliferating delinquency.

The opening of the nineteenth century witnessed a change in attitude towards education as being a necessity for life. Therefore, the first legislative battle started with the Peel's first Factory Act of 1802, which regulated the working hours for children in cotton mills. It principally addressed factory owners; it also allowed children to have some basic education. In 1807, Whitbread introduced a general Poor Law Reform Bill, which included a scheme for the education of the children of the poor. In 1816, The Select Parliamentary Committee to inquire into the Education of the Lower Orders was appointed under the presidency of Lord Brougham. It sought to ensure a "sound and cheap" primary education to all. Brougham's Bill of 1820 was presented under four heads: the foundation of schools, the appointment and removal of masters, the admission of scholars and their mode of tuition and the improvement of old educational endowments. In 1833, The Radical MP, Roebuck, set forth a scheme of Infant Schools, Evening Schools, Schools of Industry and Normal Schools, to be provided in school districts and controlled by an elected school committee for the district.

No state aid was attributed to primary schools until 1833 when Parliament had considered and rejected the above mentioned education proposals. Though the grant of £20, 000 granted to the National Societies was small, it was considered as the first legislative action towards education.

The intervention of the State could be summarized in five principal Acts: one in the nineteenth century and the four others in the twentieth. The Conditions leading to the Education Act, 1870 were quite favourable notably after the creation of the Education League and the National Education Union in 1869. Forster's Education Act, though a compromise, was the first real initiative towards a state controlled system of education. It provided for compulsory education, and divided the country into school districts. School boards were elected to be set up where the Education Department found existing provisions to be inadequate; they were given the power to levy rates and build schools. School fees continued, though school boards were empowered to establish free schools. It did not only give rise to a national system of state education but also assured the existence of a dual system - voluntary denominational schools and nondenominational state schools. Religious teaching in Board Schools was to be limited to nondenominational instruction. Parents had the right to withdraw their children from religious education.

A further amendment of the principal Act of 1870 was to take place in 1876 (The Sandon's Act). The Act affirmed that it would be

the duty of every child to receive efficient elementary instruction in reading, writing and arithmetic. In order to complete the machinery for compulsion, the Act directed that, in every district, where there was no school board, the local authority should appoint a school attendance committee. In 1880, Mundella passed an Act, which made school attendance compulsory for all children between the ages of five and ten. In 1891, elementary education became free of charge, and in 1899, the leaving age was raised to twelve.

Another important step forward a national system was Balfour's Education Act in 1902. Under this Act, powers were transferred from School Boards to Local Education Authorities, which administered schools in groups run by specially appointed boards. These authorities were empowered, within certain limitations, to supply or aid the supply of education other than elementary and to promote the general coordination of all forms of education. It unified control of both elementary and secondary education.

Despite the 'disorder', education could again make further advancements in favour of the British children. The organisation of secondary education, in various terms, was the centre of interest for the State. A number of reports were issued to inquire into secondary education regulations, teachers, examinations and so on. The Fisher Act, 1918 came just after the War, which resulted in the decline in educational provision. It made some steps forward extending the possibilities of education and raising the school leaving age to 14. It

abolished fees for elementary education and introduced part-time education up to 18.

The Hadow Report, in 1926, was important in the sense that it recommended secondary education as a normal course for all children between 11 and 14 or 15. It proposed that primary education should end at eleven plus; the term 'elementary' would disappear. The Spens Report (1938) recommended to retain the junior technical schools with their two- or three-year course and their entry age of thirteen plus and to raise the school leaving age to 16. The Norwood Report (1943) suggested a change in the secondary school curriculum and the problems of school examinations. The report envisaged secondary education under three forms: grammar, technical, and modern.

The White Paper on Educational Reconstruction (1943) proposed a number of legislative changes that were expected to give effect on both the principles set by the Government and those which could be affected by administrative Action. The Fleming Report (1944) recommended that the opportunities of education in public schools should be made available for the children, regardless of the income of their parents. It suggested that two lists of schools should be drawn up divided into two schemes. The McNair Report (1944) considered recruitment and made recommendations whose objective was to raise the status of the profession of teaching. It also recommended that salaries ought to be considerably increased and

there should be a single committee for teachers in primary and secondary schools.

The Education Act, 1944, initiated by Butler, came to reshape the law relating to education in England and Wales. Its aim was to make a complete reconstruction and creation of a national policy in education. The Education Authorities were abolished and replaced by divisional executives. The Department of Education was replaced by a Ministry of Education. Education was to be rearranged in a continuous process of three successive stages, a tripartite system: primary education, secondary education, and further education.

Post war settlements experienced some difficulties in implementing the provisions of the Butler's Act; more attention was given to secondary education, which needed more reforms. Circular 10/65 was, for instance, an endeavour to reform the tripartite system. In the 1960s, an attempt to equalize educational opportunities largely through comprehensive schools was initiated. The Comprehensiveness of British secondary education was a policy to get rid of social class divisions, which could be abolished through a system of education that encouraged 'social class mixing', equality of opportunity and achievement through talent and hard work.

In 1976, the government decided to pass legislation to try to ensure that the authorities, which refused to reorganise their secondary education system on comprehensive lines, did so. However, the Thatcher-led Conservative government in the 1980s was determined to reform drastically the educational system. The

reforms decided on, called for a return to educational differentiation and for improved vocational training, aided and mainly financed by British industry.

In 1988, the Education Reform Act, the most important since 1944, came to centralise educational provision in Britain and bring about a standardisation of educational provision and equality of educational opportunities. It introduced the National Curriculum, which all state-funded schools had to follow, and which laid down compulsory subjects that must be studied in the core areas of literacy, numeracy and science.

It is believed that the shift of the British society from a purely agricultural type to an industrial one, due the Industrial Revolution and its economic, political and social outcomes, was to influence the educational prospects of the masses ever since. Therefore, the intervention of the State in education was definitely reasonable and timely to constitute a national educational system able to ensure better competitiveness among developed nations and to fulfil the requirements of the people. Without State involvement, education in Britain would not have been so structured, effective, and prominent.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1: The Newcastle Report on popular education 1861

Appendix 2: 1870 Elementary Education Act

Appendix 3: 1902 Education Act

Appendix 4: 1918 Education Act

Appendix 5: The Hadow Report (1926)

Appendix 6: 1944 Education Act

Appendix 7: Circular 10/65 (1965)

Appendix 8: 1988 Education Reform Act

Appendix 1: The Newcastle Report on popular education 1861

....In the foregoing chapters we have stated, in considerable detail, the facts, furnished by the evidence collected by us, which illustrate the present state of popular education in England and 'Wales. We come now to the most difficult part of the undertaking with which we have been intrusted- the suggestion of the measures best fitted, in our judgment, to extend and improve the elementary education of the poor. As any suitable plan for this object must necessarily take 'into account the actual state of the case as now existing, we think a rapid summary of the broadest facts which our inquiry has elicited may fitly precede a statement of our proposals.

The whole population of England and Wales, as estimated by the Registrar- General in the summer of 1858, amounted to 19,523,103. The number of children whose names ought, at the same date, to have been on the school books, in order that all might receive some education, was 2,655,767. The number we found to be actually on the books was 2,535,462,, thus leaving 120,305, children without any school instruction whatever. The proportion, therefore, of scholars in week-day schools of all kinds to the entire population was 1 in 7.7 or 12.99 per cent. Of these 321,768 are estimated to have been above the condition of such as are commonly comprehended in the expression "poorer classes," and hence are beyond the range of our present inquiry. Deducting these from the whole number of children on the books of some school, we find that 2,213,694 children belonging to the poorer classes were, when our statistics were collected and compiled, receiving elementary instruction in day schools. Looking, therefore, at mere numbers as indicating the state of popular education in England and Wales, the proportion of children receiving instruction to the whole population is, in our opinion, nearly as high as can be reasonably expected. In Prussia, where it is compulsory, 1 in 6.27; in England and Wales it is, as we have seen, 1 in 7.7; in Holland it is 1 in 8.11; in France it is 1 in 9.0.

We are bound to observe, however, that a very delusive estimate of the state of education must result from confining attention to the mere amount of numbers under day-school instruction. We have seen that less than three years ago there were in elementary day schools 2,213,694 children of the poorer classes. But of this number, 573,536 were attending private schools, which, as our evidence uniformly shows, are, for the most part, inferior as schools for the poor, and ill-calculated to give to the children an education which shall be serviceable to them in after-life. Of the 1,549,312 children whose names are on the books of public elementary day schools belonging to the religious denominations, only 19.3 per cent. were in their 12th year or upwards, and only that

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proportion, therefore, can be regarded as educated up to the standard suited to their stations. As many as 786,202 attend for less than 100 days in the year and can therefore hardly receive a serviceable amount of education, while our evidence goes to prove that a large proportion, even of those whose attendance is more regular, fail in obtaining it on account of inefficient teaching. Much, therefore, still remains to be done to bring up the state of elementary education in England and Wales to the degree of usefulness which we all regard as attainable and desirable.

The aid rendered by the Committee of Council in this important work our evidence shows to have been extremely valuable. But for obvious reasons, the plan on which it has been given has produced results falling far short of what is required. In the first place, very few of the smaller schools, in comparison of the larger, have been able to fulfil the conditions on which alone they could avail themselves of it; and secondly, as a consequence, assistance has not reached those which stand in greatest need of it. At the date of our statistical inquiries, it assisted 6,897 schools, containing 917,255 scholars; but it left unassisted 15,750 denominational schools, and about 317 Birkbeck, Ragged, and Factory Schools, containing altogether 671,393 scholars, while the whole of the private schools, in which 573,536 children attended, were entirely passed over. It may be fairly assumed that even the unassisted schools have profited to some extent by the stimulus indirectly applied to them by the aid rendered to the assisted, owing to which aid the standard of elementary education has been generally raised; but the facts which we have stated above show that the system has not effected, and we have reason to believe that it is not adapted to effect, a general diffusion of sound elementary education amongst all classes of the poor.

The foregoing review discloses to us the main defects in the existing state of popular education which any practical recommendations should aim to correct. Passing over all the minor changes which may be usefully adopted, mention of which will be found in other parts of this Report, we are agreed that our recommendations should tend to secure the following results. First, that all the children who attend the elementary day schools of the country should be induced to attend with sufficient regularity to enable them, within a reasonable period, to obtain a mastery over the indispensable elements of knowledge, reading, writing, and the primary rules of arithmetic; secondly, that all the schools in the country at which the children of the poor attend should be qualified and induced to put this amount of instruction within reach of their pupils; and, thirdly, that this should be done in such a way as not to lower the general standard of elementary instruction to this its lowest level of usefulness. How best to do these things appears to us to be the problem

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we have to solve, and the measures we have agreed to recommend have been framed with a view to its solution.

It has often been considered that the poor would be able to educate their children successfully without any further assistance than that of charitable persons; and this course has been recommended by many of those who are interested in popular education, who believe that the interference of Government with education is objectionable on political and religious grounds, and that it retards educational progress. It is right here to state, in speaking on this subject, that there exists among the members of the Commission, as among the nation at large, deeply seated differences of opinion with regard to the duty of Government in this country towards education.

The minority admit that the responsibilities and-functions of Government may be enlarged by special circumstances, and in cases where political disasters have retarded the natural progress of society. But they hold that in a country situated politically and socially as England is, Government has, ordinarily speaking, no educational duties, except towards those whom destitution, vagrancy, or crime casts upon its hands. They make no attempt at this distance of time to estimate the urgency of the circumstances which originally led the Government of this country to interfere in popular education. They fully admit that much good has been done by means of the grant; though they think it not unlikely that more solid and lasting good would have been done, that waste would have been avoided, that the different wants of various classes and districts would have been more suitably supplied, that some sharpening of religious divisions in the matter of education would have been spared, and that the indirect effects upon the character of the nation, and the relations between class and class would have been better, had the Government abstained from interference, and given free course to the sense of duty and the benevolence Which, since the mind of the nation has been turned from foreign war to domestic improvement, have spontaneously achieved great results in other directions.

These members of the Commission desire that, a good type of schools and teachers having now been extensively introduced, the benefits of popular education having been manifested, and public interest in the subject having been thoroughly awakened, Government should abstain from making further grants, except grants for the building of schools, to which the public assistance was originally confined, and the continuance of which will be fair towards the parishes which have hitherto received no assistance; that the annual grants which are now made should be gradually withdrawn; and that Government should confine its action to the improvement of union schools, reformatories, and

Appendix 1: The Newcastle Report on popular education 1861

schools connected with public establishments, at the same time developing to the utmost the resources of the public charities, which either are or may be made applicable to popular education, and affording every facility which legislation can give to private munificence in building and endowing schools for the poor. It appears to them that if the State proceeds further in its present course, and adopts as definitive the system which has hitherto been provisional, it will be difficult hereafter to induce parental and social duty to undertake the burden which it ought to bear, or to escape from the position, neither just in itself nor socially expedient, that large and ill- defined classes of the people are entitled, without reference to individual need, or to the natural claims which any of them may possess on the assistance of masters and employers, to have their education paid for, in part at least, out of the public taxes. Nor do they feel confident that Government will ever be able to control the growing expenditure and multiplying appointments of a department, the operations of which are regulated by the increasing and varying demands of philanthropists rather than by the definite requirements of the public service.

They have felt it their duty, however, to regard the question as it stands after twenty-nine years of a policy opposed to their own; and on the rejection of their own view, they cordially adopt, in the second resort, the scheme of assistance approved by the majority of their colleagues, which they regard as better in every respect, and above all as a far nearer approach to justice, than the present extremely partial system.

We have thought fit to state the differences existing among us on this important point. It must not be inferred that this is the only matter on which we differ. In a subject involving so many statements, so many inferences, so many general principles, and so many executive details, universal concurrence was not to be expected, and has not in fact been obtained....

Our review of the existing system has led us to the following conclusions: -We have seen that its leading principles have been to proportion public aid to private subscriptions, and to raise the standard of education by improving the general character of the schools throughout the country; that it has enlisted, in the promotion of education, a large amount of religious activity, and that, avoiding all unnecessary interference with opinion, it has practically left the management of the schools in the hands of the different religious denominations. In these respects it has been most successful. But we find that it demands, as a condition of aid, an amount of voluntary subscriptions which many schools placed under disadvantageous circumstances can scarcely be expected to raise; that it enlists in many places too little of local support

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and interest; that its teaching is deficient in the more elementary branches, and in its bearing on the younger pupils; and that while the necessity of referring many arrangements in every school to the central office embarrasses the Committee of Council with a mass of detail, the difficulty of investigating minute and distant claims threatens to become an element at once of expense and of dispute. We find further that Lord John Russell, one of its leading supporters, asserted in Parliament that "it was not intended by those who in 1839 commenced the system that its plan should be such as to pervade the whole country;" we see that it has been found necessary to break in upon its original principle of proportioning aid to subscription, and that this leads to a vast increase of expense, and we therefore conclude that if the system is to become national prompt means should be taken to remedy defects which threaten to injure its success in proportion to its extension, and to involve the revenue in an excessive expenditure. We now, therefore, proceed, in accordance with Your Majesty's instructions, to suggest the further measures which, in our opinion, "are required for the extension of sound and cheap elementary instruction to all classes of the people." We shall propose means by which, *in the first place*, the present system may be made applicable to the poorer no less than the richer districts throughout the whole country; *secondly*, by which the present expenditure may be controlled and regulated; *thirdly*, by which the complication of business in the office may be checked; *fourthly*, by which greater local activity and interest in education may be encouraged; *fifthly*, by which the general attainment of a greater degree of elementary knowledge may be secured than is acquired at present....

Source: Education Commission, *Report of the Commissioners Appointed to Inquire Into the State of Popular Education in England*, Vol. I, printed for HMSO, Eyre & Spottiswoode, London, 1861.

Appendix 2: 1870 Elementary Education Act

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The term "borough" means any place for the time being subject to the Act of the session of the fifth and sixth years of the reign of King William the Fourth, chapter seventy-six, intituled "An Act to provide for the regulation of municipal corporations in England and Wales," and the Acts amending the same :

The term "parish" means a place for which for the time being a separate poor rate is or can be made :

The term "person" includes a body corporate :

The term "Education Department" means "the Lords of the Committee of the Privy Council on Education :"

The term "Her Majesty's inspectors" means the inspectors of schools appointed by Her Majesty on the recommendation of the Education Department :

The term "managers" includes all persons who have the management of any elementary school, whether the legal interest in the schoolhouse is or is not vested in them :

The term "teacher" includes assistant teacher, pupil teacher, sewing mistress, and every person who forms part of the educational staff of a school :

The term "parent" includes guardian and every person who is liable to maintain or has the actual custody of any child :

The term "elementary school" means a school or department of a school at which elementary education is the principal part of the education there given, and does not include any school or department of a school at which the ordinary payments in respect of the instruction, from each scholar, exceed ninepence a week :

The term "schoolhouse" includes the teacher's dwelling house, and the playground (if any) and the offices and all premises belonging to or required for a school :

The term "vestry" means the ratepayers of a parish meeting in vestry according to law :

The term "ratepayer" includes every person who, under the provisions of the Poor Rate Assessment and Collection Act, 1869, is deemed to be duly rated :

The term "parliamentary grant" means a grant made in aid of an elementary school, either annually or otherwise, out of moneys provided by Parliament for the civil service, intituled 'For public education in Great Britain.'

(I.) LOCAL PROVISION FOR SCHOOLS.

School districts, &c. in schedule. **4.** For the purposes of this Act the respective districts, boards, rates and funds, and authorities described in the first schedule to this Act shall be the school district, the school board, the local rate, and the rating authority.

Supply of Schools.

School district to have suffi- **5.** There shall be provided for every school district a sufficient amount of accommodation in public elementary schools

Appendix 2: 1870 Elementary Education Act

1870.

Elementary Education.

CII. 75.

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(as herein-after defined) available for all the children resident in such district for whose elementary education efficient and suitable provision is not otherwise made, and where there is an insufficient amount of such accommodation, in this Act referred to as "public school accommodation," the deficiency shall be supplied in manner provided by this Act.

cient public schools.

6. Where the Education Department, in the manner provided by this Act, are satisfied and have given public notice that there is an insufficient amount of public school accommodation for any school district, and the deficiency is not supplied as herein-after required, a school board shall be formed for such district and shall supply such deficiency, and in case of default by the school board the Education Department shall cause the duty of such board to be performed in manner provided by this Act.

Supply of schools in case of deficiency.

7. Every elementary school which is conducted in accordance with the following regulations shall be a public elementary school within the meaning of this Act; and every public elementary school shall be conducted in accordance with the following regulations (a copy of which regulations shall be conspicuously put up in every such school); namely,

Regulations for conduct of public elementary school.

- (1.) It shall not be required, as a condition of any child being admitted into or continuing in the school, that he shall attend or abstain from attending any Sunday school, or any place of religious worship, or that he shall attend any religious observance or any instruction in religious subjects in the school or elsewhere, from which observance or instruction he may be withdrawn by his parent, or that he shall, if withdrawn by his parent, attend the school on any day exclusively set apart for religious observance by the religious body to which his parent belongs:
- (2.) The time or times during which any religious observance is practised or instruction in religious subjects is given at any meeting of the school shall be either at the beginning or at the end or at the beginning and the end of such meeting, and shall be inserted in a time table to be approved by the Education Department, and to be kept permanently and conspicuously affixed in every schoolroom; and any scholar may be withdrawn by his parent from such observance or instruction without forfeiting any of the other benefits of the school:
- (3.) The school shall be open at all times to the inspection of any of Her Majesty's inspectors, so, however, that it shall be no part of the duties of such inspector to inquire into any instruction in religious subjects given at such school, or to examine any scholar therein in religious knowledge or in any religious subject or book:

Appendix 2: 1870 Elementary Education Act

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(4.) The school shall be conducted in accordance with the conditions required to be fulfilled by an elementary school in order to obtain an annual parliamentary grant.

Proceedings for Supply of Schools.

Determination by Education Department of deficiency of public school accommodation.

8. For the purpose of determining with respect to every school district the amount of public school accommodation, if any, required for such district, the Education Department shall, immediately after the passing of this Act, cause such returns to be made as in this Act mentioned, and on receiving those returns, and after such inquiry, if any, as they think necessary, shall consider whether any and what public school accommodation is required for such district, and in so doing they shall take into consideration every school, whether public elementary or not, and whether actually situated in the school district or not, which in their opinion gives, or will when completed give, efficient elementary education to, and is, or will when completed be, suitable for the children of such district.

Notice by Education Department of public school accommodation required.

9. The Education Department shall publish a notice of their decision as to the public school accommodation for any school district, setting forth with respect to such district the description thereof, the number, size, and description of the schools (if any) available for such district, which the Education Department have taken into consideration as above mentioned, and the amount and description of the public school accommodation, if any, which appears to them to be required for the district, and any other particulars which the Education Department think expedient.

If any persons being either—

(1.) Ratepayers of the district, not less than ten, or if less than ten being rated to the poor rate upon a rateable value of not less than one third of the whole rateable value of the district, or,

(2.) The managers of any elementary school in the district, feel aggrieved by such decision, such persons may, within one month after the publication of the notice, apply in writing to the Education Department for and the Education Department shall direct the holding of a public inquiry in manner provided by this Act.

At any time after the expiration of such month, if no public inquiry is directed, or after the receipt of the report made after such inquiry, as the case may be, the Education Department may, if they think that the amount of public school accommodation for the district is insufficient, publish a final notice stating the same particulars as were contained in the former notice, with such modifications (if any) as they think fit to make, and directing that the public school accommodation therein mentioned as required be supplied.

Appendix 2: 1870 Elementary Education Act

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10. If after the expiration of a time, not exceeding six months, to be limited by the final notice, the Education Department are satisfied that all the public school accommodation required by the final notice to be supplied has not been so supplied, nor is in course of being supplied with due despatch, the Education Department shall cause a school board to be formed for the district as provided in this Act, and shall send a requisition to the school board so formed requiring them to take proceedings forthwith for supplying the public school accommodation mentioned in the requisition, and the school board shall supply the same accordingly.

Formation of school board and requisition to provide schools.

11. If the school board fail to comply with the requisition within twelve months after the sending of such requisition in manner aforesaid, they shall be deemed to be in default, and if the Education Department are satisfied that such board are in default they may proceed in manner directed by this Act with respect to a school board in default.

Proceedings on default of school board.

12. In the following cases, (that is to say,)

- (1.) Where application is made to the Education Department with respect to any school district by the persons who, if there were a school board in that district, would elect the school board, or with respect to any borough, by the council ;
- (2.) Where the Education Department are satisfied that the managers of any elementary school in any school district are unable or unwilling any longer to maintain such school, and that if the school is discontinued the amount of public school accommodation for such district will be insufficient,

Formation of school boards without inquiry upon application.

the Education Department may, if they think fit, without making the inquiry or publishing the notices required by this Act before the formation of a school board, but after such inquiry public or other, and such notice as the Education Department think sufficient, cause a school board to be formed for such district, and send a requisition to such school board in the same manner in all respects as if they had published a final notice.

An application for the purposes of this section may be made by a resolution passed by the said electing body after notice published at least a week previously, or by the Council, and the provisions of the second part of the second schedule to this Act with respect to the passing of such resolution shall be observed.

13. After the receipt of any returns under this Act subsequently to the first with respect to any school district, and after such inquiry as the Education Department think necessary, the Education Department shall consider whether any and what public school accommodation is required in such district in the same manner as in the case of the first returns under this Act, and where in such district there is no school board acting under this Act they may issue notices and take pro-

Proceedings by Education Department after the first year.

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Appendix 3: 1902 Education Act

1902.

Education Act, 1902.

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like purpose any balance thereof which may remain unexpended, and may spend such further sums as they think fit: Provided that the amount raised by the council of a county for the purpose in any year out of rates under this Act shall not exceed the amount which would be produced by a rate of twopence in the pound, or such higher rate as the county council, with the consent of the Local Government Board, may fix.

(2) A council, in exercising their powers under this Part of this Act, shall have regard to any existing supply of efficient schools or colleges, and to any steps already taken for the purposes of higher education under the Technical Instruction Acts, 1889 and 1891.

52 & 53 Vict.
c. 76.
54 & 55 Vict.
c. 4.

3. The council of any non-county borough or urban district shall have power, as well as the county council, to spend such sums as they think fit for the purpose of supplying or aiding the supply of education other than elementary: Provided that the amount raised by the council of a non-county borough or urban district for the purpose in any year out of rates under this Act shall not exceed the amount which would be produced by a rate of one penny in the pound.

Concurrent
powers of
smaller
boroughs
and urban
districts.

4.—(1) A council, in the application of money under this Part of this Act, shall not require that any particular form of religious instruction or worship or any religious catechism or formulary which is distinctive of any particular denomination shall or shall not be taught, used or practised in any school, college or hostel aided but not provided by the council, and no pupil shall, on the ground of religious belief, be excluded from or placed in an inferior position in any school, college or hostel provided by the council, and no catechism or formulary distinctive of any particular religious denomination shall be taught in any school, college or hostel so provided, except in cases where the council, at the request of parents of scholars, at such times and under such conditions as the council think desirable, allow any religious instruction to be given in the school, college or hostel otherwise than at the cost of the council: Provided that, in the exercise of this power, no unfair preference shall be shown to any religious denomination.

Religious
instruction.

(2) In a school or college receiving a grant from, or maintained by, a council under this Part of this Act,

(a) A scholar attending as a day or evening scholar shall not be required, as a condition of being admitted into or remaining in the school or college, to attend or abstain from attending any Sunday school, place of religious worship, religious observance or instruction in religious subjects in the school or college or elsewhere; and

The times for religious worship or for any lesson on a religious subject shall be conveniently arranged for the purpose of allowing the withdrawal of any such scholar therefrom.

PART III.

ELEMENTARY EDUCATION.

5. The local education authority shall, throughout their area, have the powers and duties of a school board and school attendance committee under the Elementary Education Acts, 1870 to 19

Powers and
duties as to
elementary
education.

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and any other Acts, including local Acts, and shall also be responsible for and have the control of all secular instruction in public elementary schools not provided by them; and school boards and school attendance committees shall be abolished.

Management
of schools.

6.—(1) All public elementary schools provided by the local education authority shall, where the local education authority are the council of a county, have a body of managers consisting of a number of managers not exceeding four appointed by that council, together with a number not exceeding two appointed by the minor local authority.

Where the local education authority are the council of a borough or urban district they may, if they think fit, appoint for any school provided by them a body of managers consisting of such number of managers as they may determine.

(2) All public elementary schools not provided by the local education authority shall, in place of the existing managers, have a body of managers consisting of a number of foundation managers not exceeding four, appointed as provided by this Act, together with a number of managers not exceeding two, appointed—

(a) where the local education authority are the council of a county, one by that council and one by the minor local authority; and

(b) where the local education authority are the council of a borough or urban district, both by that authority.

(3) Notwithstanding anything in this section—

(a) Schools may be grouped under one body of managers in manner provided by this Act; and

(b) Where the local education authority consider that the circumstances of any school require a larger body of managers than that provided under this section, that authority may increase the total number of managers, so, however, that the number of each class of managers is proportionately increased.

Maintenance
of schools.

7.—(1) The local education authority shall maintain and keep efficient all public elementary schools within their area which are necessary, and have the control of all expenditure required for that purpose, other than expenditure for which, under this Act, provision is to be made by the managers; but, in the case of a school not provided by them, only so long as the following conditions and provisions are complied with:—

(a) The managers of the school shall carry out any directions of the local education authority as to the secular instruction to be given in the school, including any directions with respect to the number and educational qualifications of the teachers to be employed for such instruction, and for the dismissal of any teacher on educational grounds; and, if the managers fail to carry out any such direction, the local education authority shall, in addition to their other powers, have the power themselves to carry out the direction in question as if they were the managers; but no direction given under this provision shall be such as to interfere with reasonable facilities for religious instruction during school hours;

Appendix 3: 1902 Education Act

1902.

Education Act, 1902.

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- (b) The local education authority shall have power to inspect the school;
- (c) The consent of the local education authority shall be required to the appointment of teachers, but that consent shall not be withheld except on educational grounds; and the consent of the authority shall also be required to the dismissal of a teacher, unless the dismissal be on grounds connected with the giving of religious instruction in the school;
- (d) The managers of the school shall provide the school house free of any charge, except for the teacher's dwelling-house (if any), to the local education authority for use as a public elementary school, and shall, out of funds provided by them, keep the school house in good repair, and make such alterations and improvements in the buildings as may be reasonably required by the local education authority: Provided that such damage as the local authority consider to be due to fair wear and tear in the use of any room in the school house for the purpose of a public elementary school shall be made good by the local education authority;
- (e) The managers of the school shall, if the local education authority have no suitable accommodation in schools provided by them, allow that authority to use any room in the school house out of school hours free of charge for any educational purpose, but this obligation shall not extend to more than three days in the week.

(2) The managers of a school maintained but not provided by the local education authority, in respect of the use by them of the school furniture out of school hours, and the local education authority, in respect of the use by them of any room in the school house out of school hours, shall be liable to make good any damage caused to the furniture or the room, as the case may be, by reason of that use (other than damage arising from fair wear and tear); and the managers shall take care that, after the use of a room in the school house by them, the room is left in a proper condition for school purposes.

(3) If any question arises under this section between the local education authority and the managers of a school not provided by the authority, that question shall be determined by the Board of Education.

(4) One of the conditions required to be fulfilled by an elementary school in order to obtain a parliamentary grant shall be that it is maintained under, and complies with, the provisions of this section.

(5) In public elementary schools maintained but not provided by the local education authority, assistant teachers and pupil teachers may be appointed, if it is thought fit, without reference to religious creed and denomination, and, in any case in which there are more candidates for the post of pupil teacher than there are places to be filled, the appointment shall be made by the local education authority, and they shall determine the respective qualifications of the candidates by examination or otherwise.

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(6) Religious instruction given in a public elementary school not provided by the local education authority shall, as regards its character, be in accordance with the provisions (if any) of the trust deed relating thereto, and shall be under the control of the managers: Provided that nothing in this subsection shall affect any provision in a trust deed for reference to the bishop or superior ecclesiastical or other denominational authority, so far as such provision gives to the bishop or authority the power of deciding whether the character of the religious instruction is or is not in accordance with the provisions of the trust deed.

(7) The managers of a school maintained but not provided by the local education authority shall have all powers of management required for the purpose of carrying out this Act, and shall (subject to the powers of the local education authority under this section) have the exclusive power of appointing and dismissing teachers.

Provision of
new schools.

8.—(1) Where the local education authority or any other persons propose to provide a new public elementary school, they shall give public notice of their intention to do so, and the managers of any existing school, or the local education authority (where they are not themselves the persons proposing to provide the school), or any ten ratepayers in the area for which it is proposed to provide the school, may, within three months after the notice is given, appeal to the Board of Education on the ground that the proposed school is not required, or that a school provided by the local education authority, or not so provided, as the case may be, is better suited to meet the wants of the district than the school proposed to be provided; and any school built in contravention of the decision of the Board of Education on such appeal shall be treated as unnecessary.

(2) If, in the opinion of the Board of Education, any enlargement of a public elementary school is such as to amount to the provision of a new school, that enlargement shall be so treated for the purposes of this section.

(3) Any transfer of a public elementary school to or from a local education authority shall, for the purposes of this section, be treated as the provision of a new school.

Necessity of
schools,

9. The Board of Education shall, without unnecessary delay, determine, in case of dispute, whether a school is necessary or not, and, in so determining, and also in deciding on any appeal as to the provision of a new school, shall have regard to the interest of secular instruction, to the wishes of parents as to the education of their children, and to the economy of the rates; but a school, for the time being recognised as a public elementary school, shall not be considered unnecessary, in which the number of scholars in average attendance, as computed by the Board of Education, is not less than thirty.

Aid grant.
60 & 61 Vict. c. 5.
33 & 34 Vict. c. 75.
60 & 61 Vict. c. 16.

10.—(1) In lieu of the grants under the Voluntary Schools Act, 1897, and under section ninety-seven of the Elementary Education Act, 1870, as amended by the Elementary Education Act, 1897,

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Appendix 3: 1902 Education Act

Appendix 4: 1918 Education Act

[8 & 9 GEO. 5.]

Education Act, 1918.

[**Ch. 39.**]



CHAPTER 39.

An Act to make further provision with respect to Education in England and Wales and for purposes connected therewith. A.D. 1918.
[8th August 1918.]

BE it enacted by the King's most Excellent Majesty, by and with the advice and consent of the Lords Spiritual and Temporal, and Commons, in this present Parliament assembled, and by the authority of the same, as follows :

NATIONAL SYSTEM OF PUBLIC EDUCATION.

1. With a view to the establishment of a national system of public education available for all persons capable of profiting thereby, it shall be the duty of the council of every county and county borough, so far as their powers extend, to contribute thereto by providing for the progressive development and comprehensive organisation of education in respect of their area, and with that object any such council from time to time may, and shall when required by the Board of Education, submit to the Board schemes showing the mode in which their duties and powers under the Education Acts are to be performed and exercised, whether separately or in co-operation with other authorities.

Progressive and comprehensive organisation of education.

2.—(1) It shall be the duty of a local education authority so to exercise their powers under Part III. of the Education Act, 1902, as—

Development of education in public elementary schools.
2 Edw. 7. c. 42.

(a) to make, or otherwise to secure, adequate and suitable provision by means of central schools, central or special classes, or otherwise—

(i) for including in the curriculum of public elementary schools, at appropriate stages, practical instruction suitable to the ages, abilities, and requirements of the children ; and

(ii) for organising in public elementary schools courses of advanced instruction for the older or more intelligent children in attendance at such schools including children who stay at such schools beyond the age of fourteen ;

Appendix 4: 1918 Education Act

[CH. 39.] *Education Act, 1918.* [8 & 9 GEO. 5.]

A.D. 1918. (b) to make, or otherwise to secure, adequate and suitable arrangements under the provisions of paragraph (b) of subsection (1) of section thirteen of the Education (Administrative Provisions) Act, 1907, for attending to the health and physical condition of children educated in public elementary schools; and

7 Edw. 7. c. 43. (c) to make, or otherwise to secure, adequate and suitable arrangements for co-operating with local education authorities for the purposes of Part II. of the Education Act, 1902, in matters of common interest, and particularly in respect of—

(i) the preparation of children for further education in schools other than elementary, and their transference at suitable ages to such schools; and

(ii) the supply and training of teachers;

and any such authority from time to time may, and shall when required by the Board of Education, submit to the Board schemes for the exercise of their powers as an authority for the purposes of Part III. of the Education Act, 1902.

33 & 34 Vict. c. 75. (2) So much of the definition of the term “elementary school” in section three of the Elementary Education Act, 1870, as requires that elementary education shall be the principal part of the education there given, shall not apply to such courses of advanced instruction as aforesaid.

Establishment of continuation schools. **3.**—(1) It shall be the duty of the local education authority for the purposes of Part II. of the Education Act, 1902, either separately or in co-operation with other local education authorities, to establish and maintain, or secure the establishment and maintenance under their control and direction, of a sufficient supply of continuation schools in which suitable courses of study, instruction, and physical training are provided without payment of fees for all young persons resident in their area who are, under this Act, under an obligation to attend such schools.

(2) For the purposes aforesaid the local education authority from time to time may, and shall when required by the Board of Education, submit to the Board schemes for the progressive organisation of a system of continuation schools, and for securing general and regular attendance thereat, and in preparing schemes under this section the local education authority shall have regard to the desirability of including therein arrangements for co-operation with universities in the provision of lectures and classes for scholars for whom instruction by such means is suitable.

(3) The council of any county shall, if practicable, provide for the inclusion of representatives of education authorities for the purposes of Part III. of the Education Act, 1902, in any body of managers of continuation schools within the area of those authorities.

Preparation and submission of schemes. **4.**—(1) The council of any county, before submitting a scheme under this Act, shall consult the other authorities within

Appendix 4: 1918 Education Act

[8 & 9 GEO. 5.]

Education Act, 1918.

[CH. 39.]

their county (if any) who are authorities for the purposes of Part III. of the Education Act, 1902, with reference to the mode in which and the extent to which any such authority will co-operate with the council in carrying out their scheme, and when submitting their scheme shall make a report to the Board of Education as to the co-operation which is to be anticipated from any such authority, and any such authority may, if they so desire, submit to the Board as well as to the council of the county any proposals or representations relating to the provision or organisation of education in the area of that authority for consideration in connection with the scheme of the county.

A.D. 1918.

(2) Before submitting schemes under this Act a local education authority shall consider any representations made to them by parents or other persons or bodies of persons interested, and shall adopt such measures to ascertain their views as they consider desirable, and the authority shall take such steps to give publicity to their proposals as they consider suitable, or as the Board of Education may require.

(3) A local education authority in preparing schemes under this Act shall have regard to any existing supply of efficient and suitable schools or colleges not provided by local education authorities, and to any proposals to provide such schools or colleges.

(4) In schemes under this Act adequate provision shall be made in order to secure that children and young persons shall not be debarred from receiving the benefits of any form of education by which they are capable of profiting through inability to pay fees.

5.—(1) The Board of Education may approve any scheme (which term shall include an interim, provisional, or amending scheme) submitted to them under this Act by a local education authority, and thereupon it shall be the duty of the local education authority to give effect to the scheme.

Approval of schemes by Board of Education.

(2) If the Board of Education are of opinion that a scheme does not make adequate provision in respect of all or any of the purposes to which the scheme relates, and the Board are unable to agree with the authority as to what amendments should be made in the scheme, they shall offer to hold a conference with the representatives of the authority and, if requested by the authority, shall hold a public inquiry in the matter.

(3) If thereafter the Board of Education disapprove a scheme, they shall notify the authority, and, if within one month after such notification an agreement is not reached, they shall lay before Parliament the report of the public inquiry (if any) together with a report stating their reasons for such disapproval and any action which they intend to take in consequence thereof by way of withholding or reducing any grants payable to the authority.

6.—(1) For the purpose of performing any duty or exercising any power under the Education Acts, a council having powers

Provisions as to co-operation and combination.

Appendix 4: 1918 Education Act

[CH. 39.]

Education Act, 1918.

[8 & 9 GEO. 5.]

A.D. 1918. — under those Acts may enter into such arrangements as they think proper for co-operation or combination with any other council or councils having such powers, and any such arrangement may provide for the appointment of a joint committee or a joint body of managers, for the delegation to that committee or body of managers of any powers or duties of the councils (other than the power of raising a rate or borrowing money), for the proportion of contributions to be paid by each council, and for any other matters which appear necessary for carrying out the arrangement.

(2) The Board of Education may, on the application of two or more councils having powers under the Education Acts, by scheme provide for the establishment and (if thought fit) the incorporation of a federation for such purposes of any such arrangements as aforesaid as may be specified in the scheme as being purposes relating to matters of common interest concerning education which it is necessary or convenient to consider in relation to areas larger than those of individual education authorities, and the powers conferred on councils by this section shall include power to arrange for the performance of any educational or administrative functions by such a federation as if it were a joint committee or a joint body of managers :

Provided that no council shall without its consent be included in a scheme establishing a federation, and no council shall be obliged to continue in a federation except in accordance with the provisions of a scheme to which it has consented.

(3) A scheme made by the Board of Education constituting a federation, and an arrangement establishing a joint committee or a joint body of managers, shall provide for the appointment of at least two-thirds of the members by councils having powers under the Education Acts, and may provide either directly or by co-optation for the inclusion of teachers or other persons of experience in education and of representatives of universities or other bodies.

(4) A scheme constituting a federation may on the application of one or more of the councils concerned be modified or repealed by a further scheme, and, where a scheme provides for the discontinuance of a federation, provision may be made for dealing with any property or liabilities of the federation.

(5) Where any arrangement under this section provides for the payment of an annual contribution by one council to another, the contribution shall, for the purposes of section nineteen of the Education Act, 1902, form part of the security on which money may be borrowed under that section.

Provision as to amount of expenditure for education.

7. The limit under section two of the Education Act, 1902, on the amount to be raised by the council of a county out of rates for the purpose of education other than elementary shall cease to have effect.

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Source: Wilkinson, K.E.T., *A Guide to the Education Act, 1918*, The Atheneum Literature Department, London, 1920.

Appendix 4: 1918 Education Act

Appendix 5: The Hadow Report (1926)

Preface

[pages xvii - xviii]

The following question was referred to us by the Board of Education on 1 February 1924:

(i) To consider and report upon the organisation, objective and curriculum of courses of study suitable for children who will remain in full-time attendance at schools, other than Secondary Schools, up to the age of 15, regard being had on the one hand to the requirements of a good general education and the desirability of providing a reasonable variety of curriculum, so far as is practicable, for children of varying tastes and abilities, and on the other to the probable occupations of the pupils in commerce, industry and agriculture.

(ii) Incidentally thereto, to advise as to the arrangements which should be made (a) for testing the attainments of the pupils at the end of their course; (b) for facilitating in suitable cases the transfer of individual pupils to Secondary Schools at an age above the normal age of admission.

We began our consideration of this problem in May 1924, immediately after we had completed our Report on Psychological Tests of Educable Capacity. The full Committee has sat on 46 days between May 1924 and October 1926 and has examined 95 witnesses (see Appendix I (A))

In addition, sub-committees, appointed to consider various aspects of the question, sat on 20 days In May 1925, the Committee appointed a Drafting Sub-Committee consisting of eight of its members, with Dr Ernest Barker as Chairman, and with power, subject to the approval of the President, to co-opt members from outside.* In this way, it was fortunate enough to secure the services of Professor T Percy Nunn, who placed at its disposal his wide knowledge and sound judgement, and who has rendered invaluable help in the preparation of the Report. The Drafting Sub-Committee met on 17 occasions between May 1925 and October 1926

We take this opportunity of thanking our witnesses for the valuable evidence which they put before us, and also all those other organisations and persons (whose names will be found in Appendix I (B) who were good enough to furnish us with memoranda, statistics, and other data bearing on our inquiry. In particular, we desire to thank those local education authorities, employers, and head masters and head mistresses of

Appendix 5: The Hadow Report (1926)

secondary, central and junior technical schools, who were kind enough to send us detailed replies to our questionnaires.

We desire to thank our Secretary, Mr RF Young, who has already borne the brunt of two previous reports, for the unremitting zeal and industry which he has given to the composition of this report. In doing so we desire to draw particular attention to the first Chapter and to some of the Appendices (especially that on Educational Nomenclature) which he has compiled at our request.

* Under clause 5 (iii) of the Order in Council of 22 July 1920, reconstituting the Consultative Committee.

Introduction

[pages xix - xxiv]

We have been profoundly interested by the question propounded in the terms of reference, which we desire to thank the Board for remitting to us, and to which we have devoted a prolonged and anxious consideration. After hearing and weighing a large amount of evidence, and after some study both of the development of the past which is recorded in our first chapter and the tendencies of the present which are examined in our second, we cannot but feel - as we unanimously do - that the times are auspicious, and the signs favourable, for a new advance in the general scope of our national system of education. There has long been a trend towards some higher form of 'elementary education'; the recent growth of central schools is at once the latest and the most arresting expression of that trend; and we believe that the time has now come at which it should move to its consummation.

There is a tide which begins to rise in the veins of youth at the age of eleven or twelve. It is called by the name of adolescence. If that tide can be taken at the flood, and a new voyage begun in the strength and along the flow of its current, we think that it will 'move on to fortune'. We therefore propose that all children should be transferred, at the age of eleven or twelve, from the junior or primary school either to schools of the type now called secondary, or to schools (whether selective or non-selective) of the type which is now called central, or to senior and separate departments of existing elementary schools. Transplanted to new ground, and set in a new environment, which should be adjusted, as far as possible, to the interests and abilities of each range and variety, we believe that they will thrive to a new height and attain a sturdier fibre.

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But we recognise that much depends on the nature of the new ground and the quality of the new environment. We are not authorised by our reference, nor do we desire, to explore the form of environment which goes by the name of the secondary school. We will only say that we regard the growth of secondary schools, since the Act of 1902, as one of the finest signs of our educational progress; that we recognise that it has encouraged and fostered the development of our Universities; that we believe it has liberated a fund of latent capacity in those who, by winning scholarships and free places, have profited freely by it; and that we hope that it will continue at an even greater rate and on an even greater scale. Here, however, we are concerned with the growth - which has begun already, and which we desire greatly to accelerate - of selective and non-selective central schools, and of senior departments in elementary schools. This growth, in our view, will run side by side with, but in no sense counter to, the growth of secondary schools; and while it will differ in kind, it will not be inferior in its promise or quality. The central schools and senior departments, like the secondary schools, will give a humane and general education. It will be shorter in its duration; it will terminate at the end of three or four years; but it will be directed, as long as it lasts, to the general fostering of mental power. Two methods, which will differentiate them to some extent from secondary schools, will generally be followed in central schools and senior departments. One will be the method of practical instruction and manual work, on which we set high hopes, believing that there are many children who think as it were with their hands and will profit greatly by a method of instruction which follows the natural bent of their capacity. Another will be the method of giving a trend and a bias, which for want of a better word we may call by the name 'realistic', to the general course of studies. English and a modern language, history and geography, mathematics and natural science, will all be studied in central schools and senior departments no less than in secondary schools. But the study of these subjects, we hope, will be related more closely to the living texture of industrial or commercial or rural life; and it will be designed to stimulate interest in boys and girls who are beginning to think of the coming years and a career in life, and are likely to feel the liveliest quickening of the mind when they see the bearing of their studies on that career.

Examinations, it has been said, are not the same thing as the day of judgement; and they are certainly not the Alpha and the Omega of education. But the most pleasant of parks will none the less have an entrance and an exit; and we are disposed to believe that we may safely recommend the institution both of an entrance examination, on the lines

Appendix 5: The Hadow Report (1926)

of the present examination for scholarships and free places in secondary schools, to determine the conditions of entry into selective modern schools, and of a final or leaving examination, *not* on the lines of the First School Examination in secondary schools, to 'test and to certify the achievement of pupils both of selective and of non-selective central Schools and also of senior departments. We recognise that a final examination may to some extent cramp the free growth of these schools. But we feel that their pupils may be handicapped by the absence of any form of guarantee of their work; and we feel that the schools themselves may become uncertain in their aim and vacillating in their methods, if they have no suggestion of a definite standard to guide their work. And, after all, examinations are like the running of a race; and few of us really dislike races, or can avoid, in the course of our lives, the running of some race which is set before us. There is a wisdom in the saying of Plato, that 'the life without examination is a life that can hardly be lived'.

We have found, in the course of our work, that we were led to believe in the need of some changes of terminology, which are perhaps not gravely contentious or revolutionary. We desire to abolish the word 'elementary', and to alter and extend the sense of the word 'secondary'. The word 'elementary' has now become misleading; and elementary education, in our present system of nomenclature, which treats central schools as a part of it, is made to include much which is not elementary in any just sense of the word. We propose to substitute the term 'primary', but to restrict the use of that term to the period of education which ends at the age of eleven or twelve. To the period of education which follows upon it we would give the name secondary; and we would make this name embrace all forms of post-primary education, whether it be given in the schools which are now called 'secondary', or in central schools, or in senior departments of the schools now termed 'elementary'. If the term secondary is thus given a wider sense, some new term will be needed to denote the schools which have now the monopoly of the name 'secondary'; and we suggest that they should be called by the name of grammar schools....More immediately important, in their bearing on the terms of our reference, are the suggestions we make in chapter 8 for the lengthening of school life, and again, in chapter 6 for the staffing and equipment of modern schools. We recommend that as soon as possible, an additional year should be added to the general school life, and the leaving age should be raised to fifteen....In few schools can there be greater opportunities for a teacher of power and of wisdom than there will be in these schools. We earnestly hope that such teachers will be found, and that not only will the trained and experienced teachers of the present

Appendix 5: The Hadow Report (1926)

elementary schools offer themselves readily for the work, but also University graduates, who have received a fourth year of professional training, will volunteer, and will be accepted, with no less readiness.

The scheme which we advocate can be simply stated. It is that between the age of eleven and (if possible) that of fifteen, all the children of the country who do not go forward to 'secondary education' in the present and narrow sense of the word, should go forward none the less to what is, in our view, a form of secondary education, in the truer and broader sense of the word, and after spending the first years of their school life in a primary school should spend the last three or four in a well-equipped and well-staffed modern school (or senior department), under the stimulus of practical work and realistic studies, and yet, at the same time, in the free and broad air of a general and humane education, which, if it remembers handwork, does not forget music, and, if it cherishes natural science, fosters also linguistic and literary studies. It is less easy to state the ideal which lies behind our scheme. ...And still another is the awakening and guiding of the practical intelligence, for the better and more skilled service of the community in all its multiple business and complex affairs - an end which cannot be dismissed as 'utilitarian' in any country, and least of all in a country like ours, so highly industrialised, and so dependent on the success of its industries, that it needs for its success, and even for its safety, the best and most highly trained skill of its citizens.

Appendix 6: 1944 Education Act

7 & 8 GEO. 6.

Education Act, 1944.

CH. 31.



CHAPTER 31.

An Act to reform the law relating to education in
England and Wales. [3rd August 1944.]

BE it enacted by the King's Most Excellent Majesty, by and with the advice and consent of the Lords Spiritual and Temporal, and Commons, in this present Parliament assembled, and by the authority of the same, as follows :—

PART I.

CENTRAL ADMINISTRATION.

1.—(1) It shall be lawful for His Majesty to appoint a Minister (hereinafter referred to as "the Minister"), whose duty it shall be to promote the education of the people of England and Wales and the progressive development of institutions devoted to that purpose, and to secure the effective execution by local authorities, under his control and direction, of the national policy for providing a varied and comprehensive educational service in every area.

Appointment of Minister in charge of education and establishment of Ministry of Education.

(2) The Minister shall for all purposes be a corporation sole under the name of the Minister of Education, and the department of which he is in charge shall be known as the Ministry of Education.

(3) The Minister may appoint a Parliamentary Secretary to the Ministry of Education, and such other secretaries, officers, and servants, as the Minister may, with the consent of the Treasury, determine, and, subject to the provisions of the Ministers of the Crown Act, 1937, as to the remuneration of the Parliamentary Secretary, there shall be paid to such secretaries, officers, and servants, such remuneration as may be determined in like manner.

¹ Edw. 8. &
¹ Geo. 6. c. 38.

Appendix 6: 1944 Education Act

CH. 31.

Education Act, 1944.

7 & 8 GEO. 6.

PART I.
—*cont.*
31 & 32 Vict.
c. 72.

Transfer of
property and
functions to
Minister and
construction
of Acts and
documents.
62 & 63 Vict.
c. 33.

(4) The Minister shall take the oath of allegiance and the official oath, and the Promissory Oaths Act, 1868, shall have effect as if the Minister of Education were named in the First Part of the Schedule to that Act.

2.—(1) All property which, immediately before the date declared by His Majesty in Council to be the date on which the first appointment under this Act of a Minister of Education took effect, was held by the Board of Education constituted under the Board of Education Act, 1899, and all functions exercisable by that Board or the President thereof immediately before that date, and all rights and liabilities, whether vested or contingent, to which that Board or the President thereof were entitled or subject immediately before that date, shall, by virtue of this Act, be transferred to the Minister; and, except where the context otherwise requires, references in any enactment or other document to the Board of Education, the President of the Board of Education, the Education Department, or the Department of Science and Art shall be construed as references to the Minister, or, where the case so requires, as references to the Ministry of Education.

(2) His Majesty may by Order in Council transfer to, or make exercisable by, the Minister any of the functions of the Charity Commissioners in matters appearing to His Majesty to relate to education, and any such Order may make such provision as appears to His Majesty to be necessary for applying to the exercise of those functions by the Minister any enactments relating to the Charity Commissioners; and any Order in Council made under this subsection may be varied or revoked by any subsequent Order so made:

Provided that any such Order shall make provision for the determination by the Charity Commissioners of any question whether an endowment or any part of an endowment is held for, or ought to be applied to, educational purposes.

Seal and acts
of Minister.

3.—(1) The Minister shall have an official seal which shall be authenticated by the signature of the Minister or of a secretary to the Ministry of Education or of any person authorised by the Minister to authenticate the seal.

(2) The seal of the Minister shall be officially and judicially noticed, and every document purporting to be an instrument made or issued by the Minister and either to be sealed with the seal of the Minister authenticated in the manner provided by this section, or to be signed by a secretary to the Ministry of Education or by any other officer of the Ministry authorised to sign it, shall in any legal proceedings be deemed to be so made or issued without further proof, unless the contrary is shown.

(3) A certificate signed by the Minister certifying that any instrument purporting to be made or issued by him was so made or issued shall be conclusive evidence of the fact certified.

Appendix 6: 1944 Education Act

7 & 8 GEO. 6.

Education Act, 1944.

CH. 31.

(4) The Documentary Evidence Act, 1868, shall have effect as if there were included in the first column of the Schedule to that Act the words "the Minister of Education", and as if there were included in the second column of the said Schedule the words "the Minister of Education, any secretary to the Ministry of Education, or any person authorised by the Minister of Education to issue a certificate for the purposes of subsection (3) of section two of this Act", and as if the regulations referred to in that Act included any document made or issued by the Minister.

PART I.

—cont.

31 & 32 Vict.
c. 37.

4.—(1) There shall be two Central Advisory Councils for Education, one for England and the other for Wales and Monmouthshire, and it shall be the duty of those Councils to advise the Minister upon such matters connected with educational theory and practice as they think fit, and upon any questions referred to them by him.

Central
Advisory
Councils.

(2) The members of each Council shall be appointed by the Minister, and the Minister shall appoint a member of each Council to be Chairman thereof and shall appoint an officer of the Ministry of Education to be secretary thereto.

(3) Each Council shall include persons who have had experience of the statutory system of public education as well as persons who have had experience of educational institutions not forming part of that system.

(4) The Minister shall by regulations make provision as to the term of office and conditions of retirement of the members of each Council, and regulations made by the Minister for either Council may provide for periodical or other meetings of the Council and as to the procedure thereof, but, subject to the provisions of any such regulations, the meetings and procedure of each Council shall be such as may be determined by them.

5. The Minister shall make to Parliament an annual report giving an account of the exercise and performance of the powers and duties conferred and imposed upon him by this Act and of the composition and proceedings of the Central Advisory Councils for Education.

Annual report
to Parliament.

PART II.

THE STATUTORY SYSTEM OF EDUCATION.

LOCAL ADMINISTRATION.

6.—(1) Subject to the provisions of Part I of the First Schedule to this Act, the local education authority for each county shall be the council of the county, and the local education authority for each county borough shall be the council of the county borough.

Local
education
authorities.

Appendix 6: 1944 Education Act

CH. 31. *Education Act, 1944.* 7 & 8 GEO. 6.

PART II.
—cont.

(2) The local administration of the statutory system of public education shall be conducted in accordance with the provisions of Parts II and III of the said Schedule.

(3) All property which immediately before the date of the commencement of this Part of this Act was held by the council of any county district solely or mainly for the purposes of any functions exercisable by them under the Education Acts, 1921 to 1939, and all rights and liabilities, whether vested or contingent, to which any such council were entitled or subject immediately before the said date by reason of the exercise of such functions shall, save as may be otherwise directed by the Minister under the powers conferred on him by this Act, be transferred by virtue of this section to the local education authority for the county in which the county district is situated.

(4) All officers who immediately before the said date were employed by the council of any county district solely or mainly for the purposes of any such functions as aforesaid shall by virtue of this section be transferred to and become officers of the local education authority for the county in which the county district is situated, and shall be employed by that authority upon the terms and conditions upon which they were employed by the council of the county district immediately before that date.

THE THREE STAGES OF THE SYSTEM.

Stages and purposes of statutory system of education.

7. The statutory system of public education shall be organised in three progressive stages to be known as primary education, secondary education, and further education ; and it shall be the duty of the local education authority for every area, so far as their powers extend, to contribute towards the spiritual, moral, mental, and physical development of the community by securing that efficient education throughout those stages shall be available to meet the needs of the population of their area.

PRIMARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION.

Provision and Maintenance of Primary and Secondary Schools.

Duty of local education authorities to secure provision of primary and secondary schools.

8.—(1) It shall be the duty of every local education authority to secure that there shall be available for their area sufficient schools—

- (a) for providing primary education, that is to say, full-time education suitable to the requirements of junior pupils ; and
- (b) for providing secondary education, that is to say, full-time education suitable to the requirements of senior pupils, other than such full-time education as may be provided for senior pupils in pursuance of a scheme made under the provisions of this Act relating to further education ;

Appendix 7: Circular 10/65 (1965)

Circular 10/65 (1965)

The organisation of secondary education

Department of Education and Science

London: 1965

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Circular 10/65

To Local Education Authorities and the Governors of Direct Grant, Voluntary Aided and Special Agreement Schools.

Department of Education and Science

Curzon Street

London W1

12 July 1965

All communications should be addressed to the Permanent Under-Secretary of State

The organisation of secondary education

I Introduction

1. It is the Government's declared objective to end selection at eleven plus and to eliminate separatism in secondary education. The Government's policy has been endorsed by the House of Commons in a motion passed on 21 January 1965:

'That this House, conscious of the need to raise educational standards at all levels, and regretting that the realisation of this objective is impeded by the separation of children into different types of secondary schools, notes with approval the efforts of local authorities to reorganise secondary education on comprehensive lines which will preserve all that is valuable in grammar school education for those children who now receive it and make it available to more children; recognises that the method and timing of such reorganisation should vary to meet local needs; and believes that the time is now ripe for a declaration of national policy.'

Appendix 7: Circular 10/65 (1965)

The Secretary of State accordingly requests local education authorities, if they have not already done so, to prepare and submit to him plans for reorganising secondary education in their areas on comprehensive lines. The purpose of this Circular is to provide some central guidance on the methods by which this can be achieved.

II Main forms of comprehensive organisation

2. There are a number of ways in which comprehensive education may be organised. While the essential needs of the children do not vary greatly from one area to another, the views of individual authorities, the distribution of population and the nature of existing schools will inevitably dictate different solutions in different areas. It is important that new schemes build on the foundation of present achievements and preserve what is best in existing schools.

3. Six main forms of comprehensive organisation have so far emerged from experience and discussion:

(i) The orthodox comprehensive school with an age range of 11-18

(ii) A two tier system whereby all pupils transfer at 11 to a junior comprehensive school and all go on at 13 or 14 to a senior comprehensive school.

(iii) A system under which all pupils on leaving primary school transfer to a junior comprehensive school, but at the age of 13 or 14 some pupils move on to a senior school while the remainder stay on in the same school. There are two main variations: in one, the comprehensive school which all pupils enter after primary school provides no course terminating in public examination, and normally keeps pupils only until 15; in the other, this school provides GCE and CSE courses, keeps pupils at least until 16, and encourages transfer at the appropriate stage to the sixth form of the senior school.

(iv) A two tier system in which all pupils on leaving primary school transfer to a junior comprehensive school. At the age of 13 or 14 all pupils have a choice between a senior school catering for those who expect to stay at school well beyond the compulsory age, and a senior school catering for those who do not.

Appendix 7: Circular 10/65 (1965)

(v) Comprehensive schools with an age range of 11 to 16 combined with sixth form colleges for pupils over 16.

(vi) A system of middle schools which straddle the primary/secondary age ranges. Under this system pupils transfer from a primary school at the age of 8 or 9 to a comprehensive school with an age range of 8 to 12 or 9 to 13. From this middle school they move on to a comprehensive school with an age range of 12 or 13 to 18.

NB The terms 'junior' and 'senior' refer throughout this Circular to the lower and upper secondary schools in two-tier systems of secondary education.

4. The most appropriate system will depend on local circumstances and an authority may well decide to adopt more than one form of organisation in the area for which it is responsible. Organisations of types (i), (ii), (v) and (vi) produce schools which are fully comprehensive in character. On the other hand an organisation of type (iii) or (iv) is not fully comprehensive in that it involves the separation of children of differing aims and aptitudes into different schools at the age of 13 or 14. Given the limitations imposed by existing buildings such schemes are acceptable as interim solutions, since they secure many of the advantages of comprehensive education and in some areas offer the most satisfactory method of bringing about reorganisation at an early date. But they should be regarded only as an interim stage in development towards a fully comprehensive secondary organisation.

5. Against this general background, the Secretary of State wishes to make certain comments on each of the systems described in paragraph 3:

(i) Orthodox comprehensive schools 11 to 18 (see paragraph 3(i))

6. There is now a considerable volume of experience of all-through comprehensive schools; and it is clear that they can provide an effective and educationally sound secondary organisation. If it were possible to design a new pattern of secondary education without regard to existing buildings, the all-through comprehensive school would in many respects provide the simplest and best solution. There are therefore strong arguments for its adoption wherever circumstances permit.

7. In practice, however, circumstances will usually not permit, since the great majority of post-war schools and of those now being built are

Appendix 7: Circular 10/65 (1965)

designed as separate secondary schools and are too small to be used as all-through comprehensive schools, There is of course some scope for building new schools of this type; and it should be borne in mind that such schools need not be as large as was once thought necessary to produce a sixth form of economic size. it is now clear that a six or seven form entry school can cater properly for the whole ability range and produce a viable sixth form. In rural areas or in small towns where only one secondary school is needed its size will inevitably be determined by the number of children for whom it must cater; and this may well not support a six form entry school. But wherever a six form entry is possible, within the limits of reasonable travelling for secondary pupils, it should be achieved.

8. It will sometimes be possible to establish a single comprehensive school in buildings designed for use as separate schools. But any scheme of this type will need careful scrutiny. If buildings are at a considerable distance from each other, or separated by busy roads, the disadvantages are obvious. Even where they are close together the amount and type of accommodation available may cause groupings of pupils which are arbitrary and educationally inefficient. It is essential that any such school could make a satisfactory timetable, deploy its staff efficiently, economically and without undue strain, and become a well-knit community.

9. There are examples of schools which function well in separate buildings, and there will often be advantages to offset the disadvantages mentioned above. For example, the sharing of different premises by a single school may ensure that all the children enjoy at least part of their secondary education in a new building. Moreover additional building already approved or likely to be included in an early programme may help to overcome the drawbacks of the initial arrangements.

(ii) Two-tier systems whereby all pupils transfer at 11 to a junior comprehensive school and at 13 or 14 to a senior comprehensive school (see paragraph 3(ii))

10. Two-tier systems consisting of junior and senior comprehensive schools, each with its own head teacher, and with automatic transfer of all pupils at 13 or 14, have two clear advantages over other two-tier systems. They avoid discrimination between pupils at the point of transfer; and they eliminate the element of guesswork about the proportion of pupils who will transfer to the senior school. They may, it is

Appendix 7: Circular 10/65 (1965)

true, produce problems of organisation, particularly where a senior school is fed by more than one junior school. If pupils are not to suffer unnecessarily from the change of school, the schools involved will have to cooperate fully and positively in the choice of curriculum, syllabus and teaching method (see paragraph 34). In the interest of continuity all the schools will have to surrender some of their freedom. But this system is attractive in that it will often fit readily into existing buildings; and it can develop into an all-through system of orthodox comprehensive schools in the course of time as new buildings become available.

(iii) A two-tier system under which all pupils transfer at 11 to a junior comprehensive school and at 13 or 14 some pupils move on to a senior school while others remain in the junior school (see paragraph 3(iii))

11. The two main forms which this system may take have been described in paragraph 3(iii) above. That in which the junior comprehensive school keeps pupils only until 15 can clearly be no more than an interim arrangement; there must eventually be automatic transfer of all pupils from the junior to the senior school.

12. If local circumstances rule this out for some years then at the very least there should be a reorganisation of the junior schools to make satisfactory provision until 16 for those pupils who do not transfer at 13 or 14. Such provision will certainly have to include courses leading to the CSE examination; whether it should also include GCE Ordinary Level courses is a more open question. Where staffing permits, there is much to be said for including GCE courses in the junior schools. This gives an added stimulus to the work and to the teaching; it gives intellectually able pupils who do not transfer an opportunity nevertheless of gaining the qualifications which they would have won if they had transferred; it makes it easier for them, through gaining GCE Ordinary Levels, to transfer in due course to the sixth form in a senior school or to a college of further education; and it reduces the danger of creating social differences between junior and senior schools, with the junior schools regarded as 'poor relations'.

Source: Department of Education and Science, Circular 10/65 (1965), The organisation of secondary education, Department of Education and Science, London, 1965.

Appendix 8: 1988 Education Reform Act

ELIZABETH II

c. 40



Education Reform Act 1988

1988 CHAPTER 40

An Act to amend the law relating to education. [29th July 1988]

BE IT ENACTED by the Queen's most Excellent Majesty, by and with the advice and consent of the Lords Spiritual and Temporal, and Commons, in this present Parliament assembled, and by the authority of the same, as follows:—

PART I

SCHOOLS

CHAPTER I

THE CURRICULUM

Preliminary

1.—(1) It shall be the duty—

- (a) of the Secretary of State as respects every maintained school;
- (b) of every local education authority as respects every school maintained by them; and
- (c) of every governing body or head teacher of a maintained school as respects that school;

Duties with respect to the curriculum.

to exercise their functions (including, in particular, the functions conferred on them by this Chapter with respect to religious education, religious worship and the National Curriculum) with a view to securing that the curriculum for the school satisfies the requirements of this section.

(2) The curriculum for a maintained school satisfies the requirements of this section if it is a balanced and broadly based curriculum which—

- (a) promotes the spiritual, moral, cultural, mental and physical development of pupils at the school and of society; and
- (b) prepares such pupils for the opportunities, responsibilities and experiences of adult life.

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c. 40

Education Reform Act 1988

PART I

Principal provisions

The National Curriculum.

2.—(1) The curriculum for every maintained school shall comprise a basic curriculum which includes—

- (a) provision for religious education for all registered pupils at the school; and
- (b) a curriculum for all registered pupils at the school of compulsory school age (to be known as “the National Curriculum”) which meets the requirements of subsection (2) below.

(2) The curriculum referred to in subsection (1)(b) above shall comprise the core and other foundation subjects and specify in relation to each of them—

- (a) the knowledge, skills and understanding which pupils of different abilities and maturities are expected to have by the end of each key stage (in this Chapter referred to as “attainment targets”);
- (b) the matters, skills and processes which are required to be taught to pupils of different abilities and maturities during each key stage (in this Chapter referred to as “programmes of study”); and
- (c) the arrangements for assessing pupils at or near the end of each key stage for the purpose of ascertaining what they have achieved in relation to the attainment targets for that stage (in this Chapter referred to as “assessment arrangements”).

(3) Subsection (1)(a) above shall not apply in the case of a maintained special school.

Foundation subjects and key stages.

3.—(1) Subject to subsection (4) below, the core subjects are—

- (a) mathematics, English and science; and
- (b) in relation to schools in Wales which are Welsh-speaking schools, Welsh.

(2) Subject to subsection (4) below, the other foundation subjects are—

- (a) history, geography, technology, music, art and physical education;
- (b) in relation to the third and fourth key stages, a modern foreign language specified in an order of the Secretary of State; and
- (c) in relation to schools in Wales which are not Welsh-speaking schools, Welsh.

(3) Subject to subsections (4) and (5) below, the key stages in relation to a pupil are as follows—

- (a) the period beginning with his becoming of compulsory school age and ending at the same time as the school year in which the majority of pupils in his class attain the age of seven;
- (b) the period beginning at the same time as the school year in which the majority of pupils in his class attain the age of eight and ending at the same time as the school year in which the majority of pupils in his class attain the age of eleven;

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- PART I
- (c) the period beginning at the same time as the school year in which the majority of pupils in his class attain the age of twelve and ending at the same time as the school year in which the majority of pupils in his class attain the age of fourteen;
- (d) the period beginning at the same time as the school year in which the majority of pupils in his class attain the age of fifteen and ending with the majority of pupils in his class ceasing to be of compulsory school age.
- (4) The Secretary of State may by order—
- (a) amend the foregoing provisions of this section; or
- (b) provide that, in relation to any subject specified in the order, subsection (3) above shall have effect as if for the ages of seven and eight there mentioned there were substituted such other ages, less than eleven and twelve respectively, as may be so specified.
- (5) The head teacher of a school may elect, in relation to a particular pupil and a particular subject, that subsection (3) above shall have effect as if any reference to the school year in which the majority of pupils in that pupil's class attained a particular age were a reference to the school year in which that pupil attained that age.
- (6) In this section—
- “class”, in relation to a particular pupil and a particular subject, means the teaching group in which he is regularly taught that subject or, where there are two or more such groups, such one of them as may be designated by the head teacher of the school;
- “school”, except in subsection (5) above and the above definition, includes part of a school.
- (7) For the purposes of this section a school in Wales is a Welsh-speaking school if more than one half of the following subjects, namely—
- (a) religious education; and
- (b) the subjects other than English and Welsh which are foundation subjects in relation to pupils at the school;
- are taught (wholly or partly) in Welsh.
- 4.—(1) It shall be the duty of the Secretary of State so to exercise the powers conferred by subsection (2) below as—
- (a) to establish a complete National Curriculum as soon as is reasonably practicable (taking first the core subjects and then the other foundation subjects); and
- (b) to revise that Curriculum whenever he considers it necessary or expedient to do so.
- (2) The Secretary of State may by order specify in relation to each of the foundation subjects—
- (a) such attainment targets;
- (b) such programmes of study; and
- (c) such assessment arrangements;
- as he considers appropriate for that subject.

Duty to establish
the National
Curriculum by
order.

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- (3) An order made under subsection (2) above may not require—
- (a) that any particular period or periods of time should be allocated during any key stage to the teaching of any programme of study or any matter, skill or process forming part of it; or
 - (b) that provision of any particular kind should be made in school timetables for the periods to be allocated to such teaching during any such stage.

(4) An order under subsection (2) above may, instead of containing the provisions to be made, refer to provisions in a document published by Her Majesty's Stationery Office and direct that those provisions shall have effect or, as the case may be, have effect as amended by the order.

(5) An order under subsection (2)(c) above may authorise the making of such provisions giving full effect to or otherwise supplementing the provisions made by the order as appear to the Secretary of State to be expedient; and any provisions made under such an order shall, on being published by Her Majesty's Stationery Office, have effect for the purposes of this Chapter as if made by the order.

Courses leading to external qualifications.

5.—(1) No course of study leading to a qualification authenticated by an outside person shall be provided for pupils of compulsory school age by or on behalf of any maintained school unless the qualification is for the time being approved by the Secretary of State or by a designated body and either—

- (a) a syllabus provided by the outside person for the purposes of the course is for the time being approved by such a body; or
- (b) criteria so provided for determining a syllabus for those purposes are for the time being so approved.

(2) An approval under this section may be given either generally or in relation to particular cases.

(3) In this section—

“designated” means designated by the Secretary of State;

“outside person”, in relation to a school, means a person other than a member of staff of the school.

Religious education

Collective worship.

6.—(1) Subject to section 9 of this Act, all pupils in attendance at a maintained school shall on each school day take part in an act of collective worship.

(2) The arrangements for the collective worship in a school required by this section may, in respect of each school day, provide for a single act of worship for all pupils or for separate acts of worship for pupils in different age groups or in different school groups.

(3) The arrangements for the collective worship in a county or voluntary school required by this section shall be made—

- (a) in the case of a county school, by the head teacher after consultation with the governing body; and
- (b) in the case of a voluntary school, by the governing body after consultation with the head teacher.

Source: Education Reform Act 1988, Chapter 40, HMSO.1988

L'intervention de l'Etat dans l'éducation britannique (1833-1988)

Résumé :

Avant le XIXe siècle, l'éducation en Grande-Bretagne dépendait principalement sur les organismes bénévoles et les institutions religieuses sous le contrôle de l'Église à travers différents types d'écoles. Ces écoles assuraient un enseignement élémentaire pour les pauvres, qui s'est révélé inefficace et insuffisant. Les changements économiques et sociaux causés par la révolution industrielle ont stimulés l'attitude de la population envers plus d'enseignement, et donc ont conduit l'Etat à assumer progressivement sa part de responsabilité dans l'éducation des masses. Par conséquent, l'éducation était devenue une préoccupation commune pour l'Église et l'État. Ce travail tente de mettre en évidence l'évolution de l'éducation en Grande-Bretagne à partir d'un caractère purement volontaire, privé et religieux à un système d'État entièrement contrôlé. Il porte sur les facteurs politiques, sociaux et économiques qui ont conduit à une telle intervention démontrant le rôle de l'Etat dans l'élaboration d'un système national d'éducation fiable.

Mots clés : Etat - Eglise - intervention - éducation - Grande-Bretagne - Loi sur l'éducation

State Intervention in British Education (1833-1988)

Abstract :

Before the nineteenth century, education in Britain relied mainly on charitable organizations and religious institutions under Church control through different types of schools. These schools provided basic elementary education for poor children, which proved inefficient and insufficient. The economic and social upheavals caused by the Industrial Revolution, stimulated people's attitude towards literacy, and thus gradually led the State to assume its part of responsibility in the education of the masses. Therefore, education had become a common concern for both the Church and the State. This work attempts to highlight the shift of education in Britain from a purely voluntary, private and religious character to a fully controlled State system. It is about the political, social and economic factors that led to such intervention demonstrating the role of the State in shaping a reliable national system of education.

Key words: State – Church – intervention – education – Britain – Education Act

تدخل الدولة في التعليم البريطاني (1833-1988)

المخلص :

قبل القرن التاسع عشر، اعتمد التعليم في بريطانيا بشكل أساسي على المنظمات التطوعية والمؤسسات الدينية الخاضعة لسيطرة الكنيسة من خلال أنواع مختلفة من المدارس، بحيث تضمنت هذه المدارس تعليماً أساسياً للفقراء والذي ثبت أنه غير فعال وغير كافٍ. فالتغيرات الاقتصادية والاجتماعية الناجمة عن الثورة الصناعية كانت حافزاً إيجابياً لتغيير نظرة الطبقة العاملة لأهمية التعليم، وبالتالي أدت تدريجياً إلى اعتراف الدولة بمسئوليتها في تعليم الجماهير. ومن هنا، أصبح التعليم اهتماماً مشتركاً بين الكنيسة والدولة. يحاول هذا العمل تسليط الضوء على تطوره وتحول نظام التعليم في بريطانيا من تابع تطوعي وديني إلى نظام عمومي تحت إشراف الدولة مركزاً في ذلك على العوامل السياسية والاجتماعية والاقتصادية التي أدت إلى هذا التدخل موضعاً دور الدولة في تطوير نظام تعليم وطني ذو فعالية.

كلمات مفتاحية: الدولة - الكنيسة - التدخل - التعليم - بريطانيا العظمى - قانون التعليم