

ABSTRACT

A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF THE COMPREHENSIVE SECONDARY SCHOOL IN ENGLAND AND IN THE UNITED STATES

by Gordon Austin Hoke

Introduction.

In past decades there has been little basis for a comparative study of English and American forms of secondary education. Now, with the advent of comprehensive schools in Britain, an examination of the societal context peculiar to each institution and an appraisal of the issues confronting comprehensive secondary schools in England and the United States should be of mutual benefit.

Statement of the Problem.

The basic premise of this study rests on a contention that England and the United States face the same fundamental task at the level of secondary education. The creation of broader avenues of equality of educational opportunity and the maintenance of schools which will adequately prepare individuals to assume leadership responsibilities comprise this two-fold duty. American high schools have been identified with efforts to carry out the manifold obligations inherent in any attempt to equalize opportunity. English secondary schools, on the other hand, for decades were engaged in



Gordon Austin Hoke

preparing "Christian Gentlemen" for leading roles in a class-conscious British society. Efforts to merge the best of these practices must reckon with the cumulative effects of great social-economic-and political changes. Whether or not the comprehensive school can satisfactorily honor its commitment to the ideal of fostering social unity is directly related to the increasing demands for individual specialization within a context of mass education.

Methods of Study.

A perusal of the relevant literature was undertaken. Works from the fields of sociology, psychology, history, political science, economics, and education were examined. Due to the sponsorship of the English comprehensive school by the British Labour Party, it was necessary to study both Conservative and Labour policies on secondary education.

Correspondence was initiated with the London County Council, the Educational Office of the Labour Party, the British Information Services in the United States, and with authorities in the field of English secondary education.

The author also tried to capitalize on his background of twelve years of experience in high schools in the United States.

Major Findings of the Study.

America's form of the comprehensive high school is a familiar part of the national landscape. In contrast, the comprehensive secondary school in England emerged during the late 1940's. Identified with the Labour Party and its drive for educational and social equality, the English school has been the target of much factional strife.

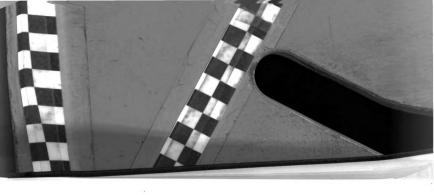
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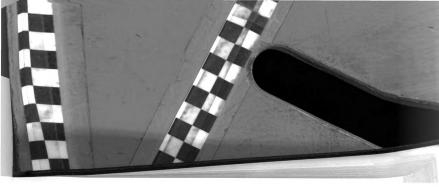
Gordon Austin Hoke

Educational practices in the United States, though commended by British scholars for their attempts to satisfy mass needs, are criticized for allegedly neglecting talented youth. Conversely, a traditional English allegiance to selectivity and specialization in secondary schooling represents an issue which the comprehensive school must resolve in order to achieve parity of esteem with older forms of secondary education.

Beyond this basic difference in philosophical approach, three major problems of mutual concern face the two types of comprehensive institutions. They are: (1) the issue of optimum school size; (2) the nature of education required by students of low ability; (3) the ability of comprehensive schools to cope with issues evolving out of industrialized, urban societies.

Comprehensive schools in England, while still few in number, are mainly confined to the cities. Particularly in London, they are identified with enrollments of two thousand, a figure of horrifying proportions to many Englishmen. In the United States, the question of size is more pertinent to the unseemly number of very small (under one hundred pupils) schools. However, fears are mounting over the possible illeffects of large size in terms of personality development, matters of discipline, etc.

Comprehensive schools in both nations are experiencing difficulty in devising adequate programs for students possessing low academic aptitude. In England this problem is linked to the drive for a better education for the working class. American high schools are caught up in the migration of Negroes, Puerto Ricans, and "poor whites" to the North.



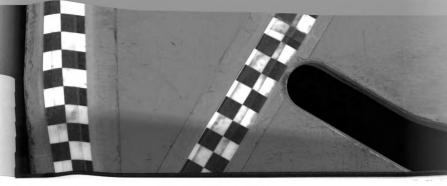
Gordon Austin Hoke

One result of this migration is reflected in the development of homogeneous residential areas which seriously challenge the degree of "comprehensiveness" of countless urban and suburban schools. British respect for the advantages of a Public (private) school education, and for the grammar school as a college-preparatory institution, continues to siphon off top-level students from that nation's comprehensive schools.

Economic changes wrought by interdependent, highly-industrialized, societies also have posed perplexing issues for comprehensive schools in both countries. Their confinement mainly to urban areas means that English schools must quickly grasp the significance of these changes. In America, there are indications that high schools are too slow in adjusting their practices to the rapid pace of metropolitan growth, and thus are restricted by adherence to the concept of a secondary school more appropriate to a rural-oriented, agricultural nation.

Summary.

America's faith in universal education, singularly revealed in the "ladder system" of elementary-secondary-university schooling, is mirrored in current attempts by the British to move in the same direction. The history of educational developments on both sides of the Atlantic is a turbulent one, and today controversy continues to focus on the idea of how best to implement education at the secondary level in England and in the United States.



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Gordon Austin Hoke

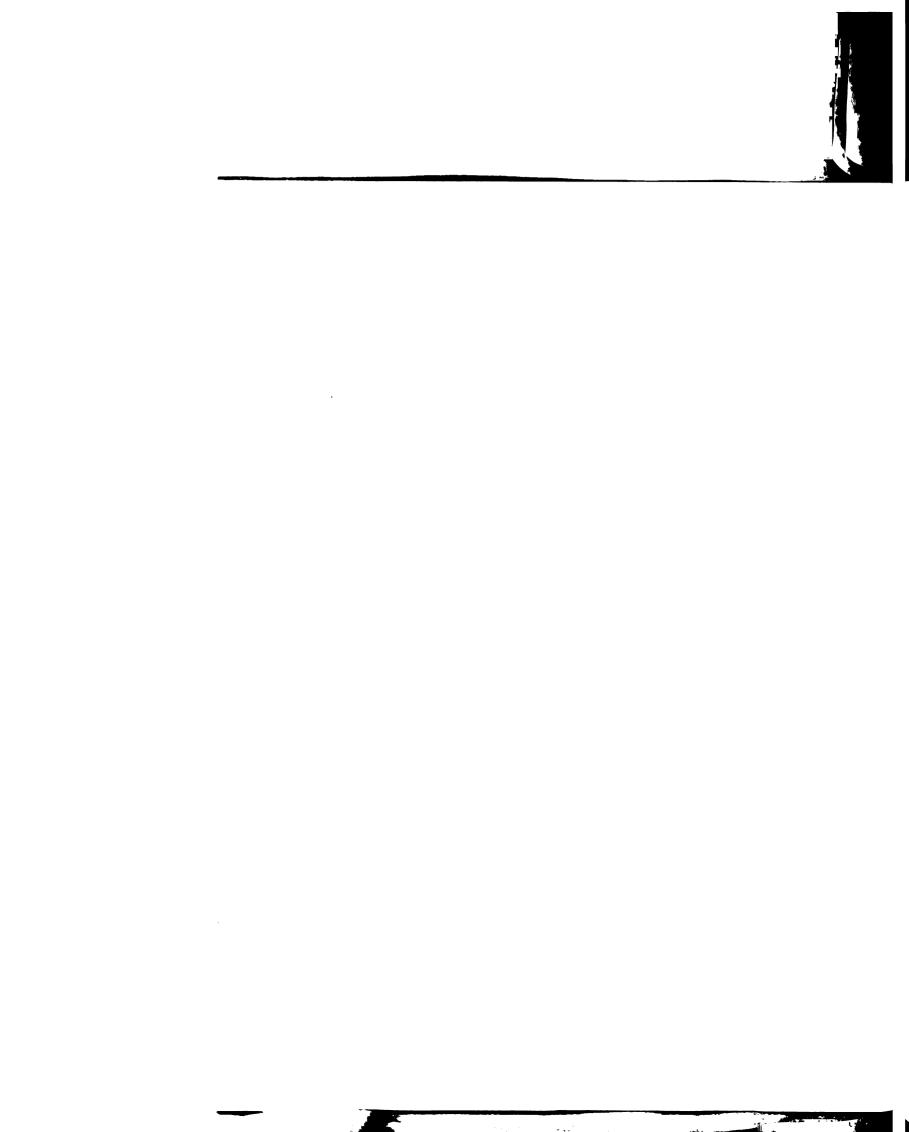
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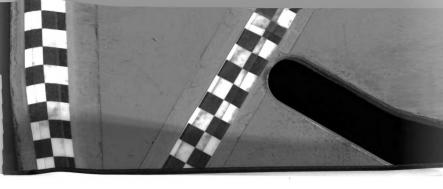
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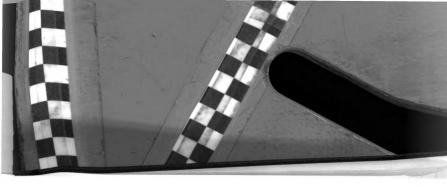
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Also, a note of appreciation should be extended to the other members of the graduate committee: Dr. James Fuzak, Dean of Students, Dr. John Howell, Associate Dean, Department of Sociology, and Dr. James Heald, Professor of Education.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

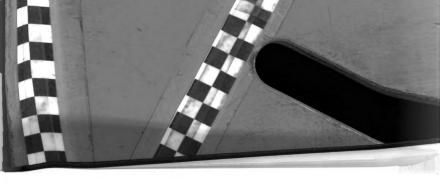
	OF TABLES	PAGE vi vii
CHA PT	TER	
I	INTRODUCTION	1
	Purpose of Thesis	1 5 8
	Organization of Thesis	9
II	HISTORICAL BACKGROUND OF THE COMPREHENSIVE SECONDARY SCHOOL	11
	In England	11 11 13 14 15 16 17
	In the United States A grammar school background. Rise of the academy. Nineteenth-Century developments. The Kalamazoo Case Establishment of the comprehensive high school.	20 20 22 23 24 25
III	SOCIOLOGICAL BACKGROUND OF THE COMPREHENSIVE SECONDARY SCHOOL	30
	In England The post-war drive for social equality A major political issue	30 30 33 35 38 38 39 41
	Impact of Negro migration	41



CHAPTE	R	PAGE
IV	PHILOSOPHICAL BACKGROUND OF THE COMPREHENSIVE	
	SECONDARY SCHOOL	45
	Sharing a Common Principle	45
	In England	48
	Educating an elite	48
	Searching for a broader base	49
	England at the cross-roads	50
	The debate grows	52
	In the United States	55
	Represents a fundamental democratic belief.	55
	Appearance of a scientific elite	58
v	COMPARISON OF THE COMPREHENSIVE SECONDARY	
	SCHOOL AS IT NOW EXISTS IN ENGLAND AND	
	IN THE UNITED STATES	60
	Objectives	60
	Organizational Structure	67
	Student Population	80
	Curriculum Development	82
	Methodology	95
	Other Aspects of Comprehensive Schools	97
	other hopeets of comprehensive sensors	-
VI	BASIC SIMILARITIES AND DISSIMILARITIES OF	
	THEORY AND PRACTICE	105
	Terminology and Context	105
	A Growing Bond	107
	Facing a mutual dilemma	107
	"Common Learnings"	109
	Functioning as a social institution	110
	Educating the working-class	112
	The Relevance of Size	114
	Fundamental Differences	116
	The concept of specialization	116
	A different base	118
VII	SUMMARY	119
		100
	Implications of Findings	120
	Needed changes in basic structure	120
	Adapting programs to economic change	122
	Modifying current practices	122
	Articulation with higher education	124

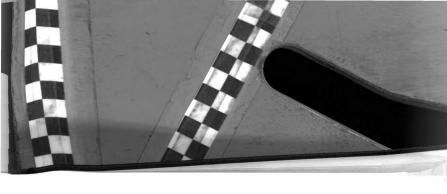


CHAPTER	1	PAGE
Meet	tions for Further Researching society's needs	125 125 127
Educat	ion as Preparation for Life	128
BIBLIOGRAPHY		130
APPENDIX A.	GLOSSARY OF ENGLISH TERMS	145
APPENDIX B.	THE STRUCTURE OF EDUCATION IN ENGLAND .	149
APPENDIX C.	IMPORTANT STEPS IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF SECONDARY EDUCATION IN ENGLAND, 1894-1960	151
APPENDIX D.	THE STRUCTURE OF EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES	155
APPENDIX E.	THE WORK OF NATIONAL COMMISSIONS, 1893 TO DATE, AND THEIR IMPACT UPON HIGH SCHOOLS IN THE UNITED STATES	157
APPENDIX F.	A CROSS-SECTION OF COMPREHENSIVE ORGAN- IZATIONAL PATTERNS, LONDON, ENGLAND	160
APPENDIX G.	EXAMPLES OF QUESTIONS USED ON THE ELEVEN-PLUS EXAMINATIONS	163
APPENDIX H.	A COMPARISON OF QUESTIONS USED ON EXAM- INATIONS FOR THE GENERAL CERTIFICATE OF EXAMINATION, "ORDINARY" AND "ADVANCED" LEVELS, AND THOSE USED ON THE COLLEGE BOARD ACHIEVEMENT TESTS	167
APPENDIX I.	AN ILLUSTRATION OF THE CARNEGIE UNIT SYSTEM IN AN URBAN MID-WESTERN HIGH SCHOOL	173
APPENDIX J.	GROUPING PROCEDURES IN PECKHAM COMPREHENSIVE SCHOOL, LONDON	176
APPENDIX K.	AN ILLUSTRATION OF FLEXIBLE SCHEDULING RIDGEWOOD HIGH SCHOOL, NORRIDGE, ILLINOIS	177



LIST OF TABLES

TABLE		PAGE
1	PERCENTAGE OF THIRTEEN-YEAR OLDS ATTENDING COM- PREHENSIVE SCHOOLS IN ENGLAND, JANUARY, 1962	12
2	GROWTH OF COMPREHENSIVE SCHOOLS, ENGLAND, 1952-53 TO 1961-62, INCLUSIVE	18
3	EXPANSION IN BRITISH SECONDARY SCHOOL ENROLLMENTS, SELECTED YEARS, 1952 TO 1962, INCLUSIVE	18
4	GROWTH IN ENROLLMENTS IN THE AMERICAN HIGH SCHOOL, 1890 TO 1960, INCLUSIVE	28
5	AVERAGE LEVELS OF STUDENT APTITUDE, ENGLISH COM- PREHENSIVE SECONDARY SCHOOL IN A NEW TOWN	69
6	NUMBER AND PERCENT OF PUBLIC SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN THE UNITED STATES BY SIZE OF ENROLLMENT; SELECTED YEARS, 1930 TO 1959, INCLUSIVE	
7	NUMBER AND PERCENT OF PUPILS ENROLLED IN PUBLIC SECONDARY SCHOOLS, BY TYPE OF SCHOOL: UNITED STATES, SELECTED YEARS, 1919-20 TO 1958-59	74
8	GENERAL EDUCATION PROGRAM, GREAT BARR COMPREHENSIVE HIGH SCHOOL, BIRMINGHAM, ENGLAND	94



LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS

FIGURE		PAG
1	ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE, WANDSWORTH COMPREHENSIVE SCHOOL, LONDON, ENGLAND	77
2	ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE, FOREST HILL COMPREHENSIVE SCHOOL, LONDON, ENGIAND	78
3	HOUSE PLAN OF ORGANIZATION, NEWTON SOUTH HIGH SCHOOL NEWTON, MASSACHUSETTS	79
4	RELATIONSHIP OF EXTERNAL EXAMINATIONS TO THE EDUCATIONAL STRUCTURE OF ENGLAND	83
5	EXTRA-CURRICULAR ACTIVITIES PROGRAM, WOODBERRY DOWN COMPREHENSIVE SCHOOL, LONDON, ENGLAND.	101



CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

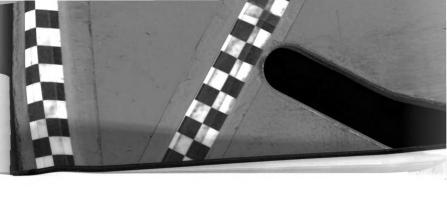
Purpose of Thesis

Need for this type of study.—The singular relationship between England and the United States is revealed in countless sources. Less well known, however, are specific ways in which the American colonial experience quickly modified institutional forms carried over from the mother country. Foremost among these changes was an early revision of the educational system inherited from England.

It was part of the rapid breakdown of traditional European society in its wilderness setting. In the course of adjustment to a new environment, the pattern of education was destroyed: the elements survived, but their meaning had changed and their functions had been altered. By 1800 education in America was a radically different process from what any one in the early seventeenth century would have expected. I

Today, England and the United States are confronted with numerous—
as well as similar—educational demands. In America, the comprehensive
high school is criticized for an alleged failure to cope with the intellectual needs of twentieth—century life. Yet one of the two leading
political parties in England promotes the comprehensive school ideal as
a major way of alleviating that country's contemporary problems.

¹Bernard Bailyn, <u>Education in the Forming of American Society</u> (New York: Vintage Books, <u>Random House</u>, Inc., 1960), pp. 14-15.



The Labour Party argues that a new society based on equality, including equality of opportunity, would mobilize the full resources of the people. Comprehensive schools are visualized as an important means of disseminating education throughout England, thereby speeding the nation along the path to social equality.²

Therefore, the idea embodied in a comprehensive high school, an American institution which is "the result of a long process of evolution," may play a vital part in the future educational development of England. Ironically, there are pressures building up in the United States to adopt some form of specialized secondary schools characteristic of traditional patterns in Britain. 4

Certainly there is a need to examine the reasons why these two developments are occurring, almost simultaneously. Equally important, perhaps, is the need to discover why there is so much controversy

²Thomas P. Peardon, "Politics in Britain," <u>Current History</u>, XLVI (May, 1964), p. 283. The Labour Party's four basic objectives in education are outlined in "Ammunition: Education," <u>Signosts for the Sixties</u>. They are: (1) To end over-sized classes; (2) To eliminate the elevenplus examinations, reorganize secondary schools on comprehensive lines, and lengthen the required secondary school course to five years rather than the current four; (3) To begin action on the problem created by the existence of private fee-paying schools; (4) To rapidly extend provisions for higher education.

³James B. Conant, Thomas Jefferson and the Development of American Public Education (Berkeley, California: The University of California Press, 1963), p. 43.

⁴G. Donaldson Robbins, <u>Teacher Education and Professional Standards in England and Wales</u> (Columbus, Ohio: The Ohio State University Press, 1963), p. 16.

surrounding comprehensive secondary schools in England and in the United States. Consequently, this thesis represents an effort to scrutinize and compare the underlying issues and operational features of comprehensive schools in England and in America.

Originality of the study.--To date, there has been no attempt, in Britain or in America, to conduct a comparative study of the historical, sociological, and philosophical issues influencing the development of comprehensive secondary schools in the two nations.

Professor Warren Ketcham of the University of Michigan has prepared a brief article dealing mainly with contemporary aspects of the British and American comprehensive schools.⁵ A thesis submitted in 1959 at Teachers College, Columbia University, relates the influence of English tradition upon the character of that country's comprehensive school.⁶

This study mirrors an effort to trace the historical antecedents of each nation's comprehensive school, to analyze the sociological forces instrumental in producing such institutions, and to contrast the basic differences in educational philosophy and practice which have resulted in placing the comprehensive school at the center of great controversy in England and in the United States.

⁵Warren A. Ketcham, "A Comparison of the British Comprehensive Secondary School and the American High School," Studies in Comparative Education: Education in England (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, 1961), pp.34-35.

⁶Heinrich Diehl, The Influence of Tradition Upon the Character of the Comprehensive School in England (unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, Department of Education, Teachers Gollege, Columbia University, 1959).

<u>Value of comparative studies.</u>—The authors of a commonly-used text in comparative education assert that scholarship in this field reflects at least two purposes:

[It] can enlighten both the professional educator and the layman about his own system; and it can shed light on the other national characteristics of the countries being studied, 7

Linking comparative education to the study of the history of education, I. L. Kandel states that both approaches seek to

discover underlying causes to explain why the educational systems of different countries differ from each other, what their sources are, and what general principles may emerge. 8

Pertinent to this particular study is the belief that a comparative examination of education can bring the realization that educational problems, wherever they occur, are not solely national. This contention is mirrored in the writings of a British scholar, who states:

From some of the speeches made in the United States [since Sputnik], one would think that America was the only nation with any doubts about its schools; yet the problem of how to give every child the best possible education worries every responsible community and government. In England there is considerable dissatisfaction with the secondary school provision . . . And many Englishmen are advocating comprehensive schools on the American plan, 9

Professor Ketcham agrees that evidence of a tendency on the part of the English to adopt American secondary-school practices is an important topic for discussion. He adds:

⁷John F. Cramer and George S. Browne, <u>Contemporary Education</u>: <u>A Comparative Study of National Systems</u> (New York: Harcourt, Brace & World, 1956), p. xiii.

⁸I. L. Kandel, "The Study of Comparative Education," <u>Educational</u> Forum, XX (November, 1955), p. 5.

⁹Maurice J. Tyerman, "England's Special Schools for the Gifted," School and Society, LXXXVII (April 11, 1959), pp. 168-169.



If there is evidence to that effect, it may serve as the much needed basis for combating some of the present criticism of the American high school and thus aid the institution in recovering some of its dwindling prestige. It is altogether possible that the British have imperceptibly begun to envisage a national system of comprehensive secondary schools as the best plan for educating all adolescents. Theoretically, at least, that is the basis on which American secondary education is organized and operated. 10

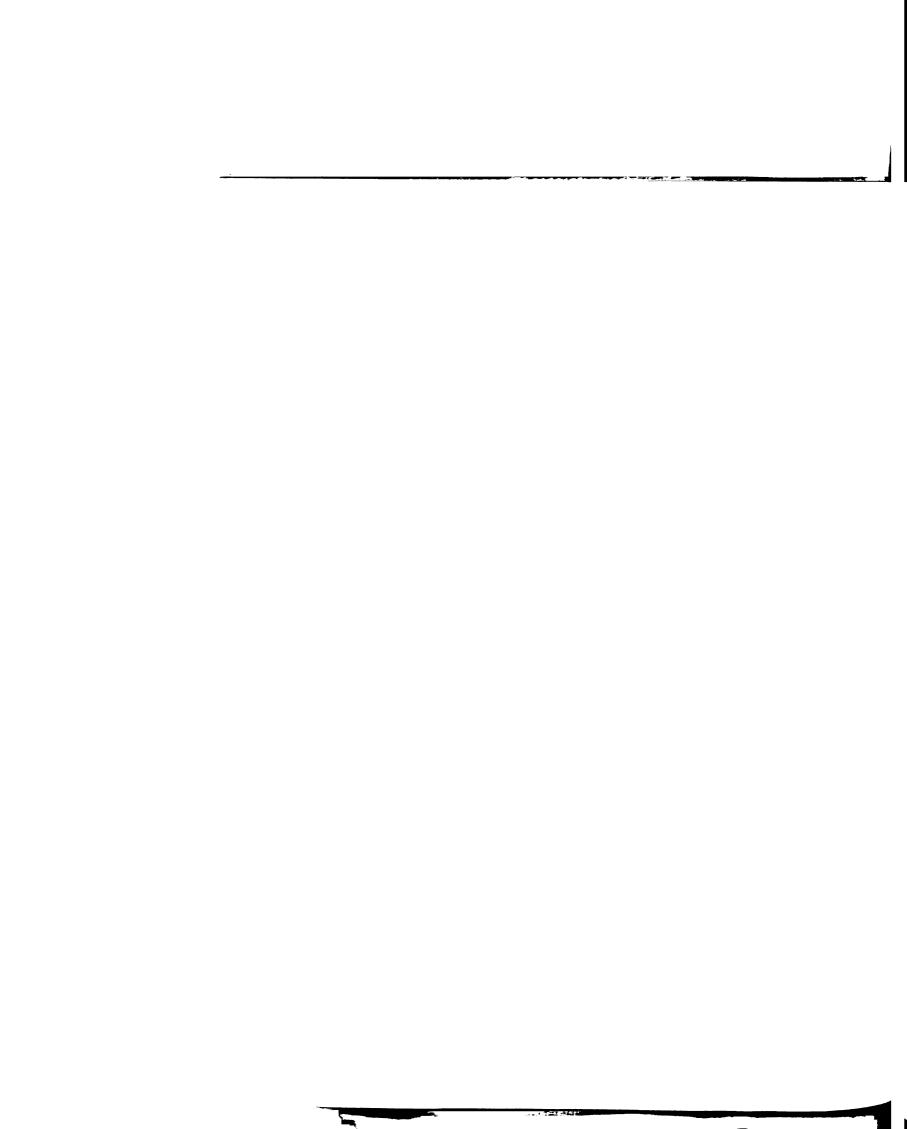
Author's personal interest in the study. --In both England and America, vital questions, raised by friends and foes alike, confront the comprehensive school. The author, having spent several years as a teacher and counselor in comprehensive high schools in the United States, became interested in pursuing the nature of these issues. Thus, a firm belief in the inherent values of a comprehensive school, combined with a growing concern for its ability to cope with the problems facing it, served as the original catalyst for this study.

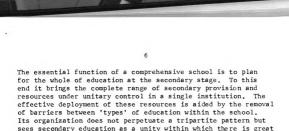
Comprehensive School Defined

In England. --Neither England nor the United States has one standard, all-inclusive, definition for its particular form of comprehensive school. In England, Dr. Robin Pedley, long associated with the comprehensive school movement, states that "the comprehensive secondary school is simply an extension of the comprehensive primary school, and has the same aims." Pedley's statement receives further clarification from the following material:

¹⁰Ketcham, op. cit., p. 35.

¹¹Robin Pedley, <u>The Comprehensive School</u> (Baltimore, Md.: Penguin Books, 1963), p. 21. Pedley adds that the usual form of comprehensive school includes students ranging from eleven-eighteen in age. Ibid., p.139.





variety in approach, methods, and content of curriculum to suit the varying abilities, aptitudes and ages of the pupils. 12

Subsumed within the above definition is that supplied by the British Ministry of Education—namely, the intent to develop a unitary structure to cater to all the children in a given area. 13 Throughout the following pages, though, the author has seen fit to use Edmund J. King's statement as an operational definition of the English comprehensive secondary school. King's material stresses the degree of "comprehensiveness" demanded and the comparatively recent development of such schools in chiefly urban regions.

A comprehensive school is one which sets out to provide for all kinds of needs within one genuinely complementary school life. In England it is an urban and a recent phenomenon. 14

¹² Inside the Comprehensive School: A Symposium Contributed by Heads of Comprehensive Schools in England and Wales (collected and edited by the National Union of Teachers; London: Schoolmaster Publishing Co., Ltd, 1958), p. 10.

¹³Great Britain: Organization of Secondary Education: Further Considerations Suggested by Development Plan Proposals (London: His Majesty's Stationery Office, 1947), p. 17.

¹⁴Edmund J. King, "Comprehensive Schools in England: Their Prospect," Comparative Education Review, III (February, 1960), p. 16. An American scholar concurs with King's stress on the concentration of comprehensive schools in urban areas, adding that they can be found, too, in new housing sectors and in a few rural communities. Theodore L. Reller, "Great Birtain," Comparative Education Administration, ed. by Theodore L. Reller and Edgar L. Morphet (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1962), p. 58.

In the United States. -- One of James B. Conant's best known publications, The American High School Today, provides a standard, generalized definition of the comprehensive high school in the United States. With few exceptions, he notes,

. . . The public high school is expected to provide education for all [italics his] the youth living in a town, city, or district. Such a high school has become known as a 'comprehensive' high school. 15

The most thorough definition, however, is furnished by the following account.

The comprehensive high school aims to serve the needs of all American youth. . . . It accepts without selection all the young people in the area it commands—all races, creeds, nationalities, intelligence, talents, and all levels of wealth and social station. . . . The comprehensive high school prepares the college oriented youth for college. It qualifies the non-college—bound youth, and, as far as possible, the boy or girl who will drop out before graduation for an occupation. It is adapted to give every one a general education for the common things he will do in life and it may and should give some students of high capacity preparation for both college and occupation. 16

Few, if any, comprehensive secondary schools in England or in the United States measure up to such a high standard. Specific reasons for these limitations are revealed in succeeding chapters. Though Professor Reller contends that the term "comprehensive secondary school" as used in Britain is not equivalent to its American counterpart, the two institutions do share certain common features of philosophy and practice. 17

¹⁵ James B. Conant, The American High School Today (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1959), p. 7.

¹⁶Franklin S. Keller, The Comprehensive High School (New York: Harper & Bros., 1955), pp. 33-34.

¹⁷Reller, op. cit., p. 57.



8

A perusal of these similarities, and dissimilarities, as well, is reflected in the following pages.

Type of Research

Statement of the problem. The basic premise of this study rests on a contention that England and the United States are faced with the same fundamental task at the level of secondary education. The creation of broader avenues of educational opportunity and the maintenance of schools which will adequately prepare individuals to assume leadership responsibilities comprise this duty. The essence of this dilemma, and its importance to both nations, is described by Professor W. R. Niblett of England. Commenting in a review of Quality and Quantity in American Education, Professor Niblett states:

What must strike the reader . . . is that the fundamental English and American problems in education are coming to be more and more the same problems 18

The urban setting of many of Britain's comprehensive schools, in company with the myriad of problems facing educational institutions

^{18&}lt;sub>W.</sub> R. Niblett, Review of Quality and Quantity in American Education, ed. by Frederick C. Gruber, British Journal of Educational Studies, X (November, 1961), p. 89. Lionel Elvin, Director of the Institute of Education, University of London, adds to Dr. Niblett's remarks. Alluding to the American experience, he said:

We [the English] are moving fast into the area of universal and longer continued secondary education, and it is not surprising that we are beginning to confront just those problems of quantity and quality which have perplexed some of your educationists and allowed us a certain feeling of superiority in the past.

The TransAtlantic Dialogue in Education: The Twenty-Ninth Annual Sir John Adams Lecturer, pamphlet (Berkeley, California: University of California, April, 1962), p. 9.



in metropolitan areas of America, focuses attention on a concomitant responsibility. In both England and the United States the rapid pace of urbanization has combined with an advanced stage of industrialism to produce additional burdens for public schools. Whether or not the comprehensive secondary school can satisfactorily honor its role as an agent of social unity is directly related to the increasing demands for individual specialization amidst a context of mass education.

The methods used. --A thorough examination of the relevant literature was undertaken. Sources from the fields of sociology, psychology, history, political science, and economics were used in addition to a vast number of items from the realm of education.

Much essential data and valuable suggestions were received from the British Labour Party, the London County Council, the Conservative Party Political Centre, and the British Information Office in the United States 19

Also, the author sought to capitalize on twelve years of experience in American secondary schools. The list of institutions includes rural, urban, and suburban schools, and the range of duties encompasses administration, teaching, and counseling.

Organization of Thesis

The dissertation consists of seven chapters with accompanying bibliography and appendix. Chapter I serves as an introduction and overview of the study.

 $[\]rm ^{19}See\ Appendix\ A\$ for a glossary of educational terms as used in England.

The historical background for the comprehensive school movement, in England and in the United States, is examined in Chapter II.

Sociologically-significant material is contained in the third chapter, particularly the issues presented by the growth of cities and their consequent effects on traditional patterns of school organization.

An examination of contrasting philosophies of education is the central theme for Chapter IV. The author's attempt to form a mutually-acceptable definition of the comprehensive secondary school given the background of these philosophies characterizes this chapter.

Chapter V focuses on school operations as they are reflected in the England and American comprehensive schools. Various facets such as organizational structure, curriculum and methodology, primary objectives, etc., are included.

The sixth chapter compares similarities and dissimilarities of theory and practice between England and the United States and attempts to analyze the reasons for these contrasts and likenesses.

Finally, Chapter VII summarizes the major findings of the study, their implications for further developments in secondary education in England and America, and suggests critical areas requiring further investigation.



CHAPTER II

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND OF THE COMPREHENSIVE SECONDARY SCHOOL

In England

A recent development. -- Though formal education has a long history of gradual development in Britain, the comprehensive high school is a recent innovation.

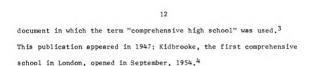
Perhaps the first espousal of a philosophy of comprehensive education came from the pen of R. H. Tawney. The famed economist visualized the general objective of English education as

both the improvement of primary education and the development of public secondary education to such a point that all normal children, irrespective of the income, class, or occupation of their parents, [Italics his] may be transferred at the age of eleven from the primary or preparatory school to one type or another of secondary school, and remain in the latter till sixteen. 1

Tawney's call for greater equality of educational opportunity was echoed by a wartime publication of the Labour Party. Stating that traditional Britain must not be restored, the Labourites asked for a post-war system of education designed to "provide full educational opportunity for all." The London School Plan was the first "official"

¹R. H. Tawney (ed.), <u>Secondary Education for All: A Policy for Labour</u> (London: The Labour Party, 1922), p. 7.

²British Labor on Reconstruction in War and Peace (New York: League for Industrial Democracy, 1943), p. 7.



Almost a decade later, a 1962 government bulletin, At School in Britain, states that only two out of every hundred children of secondary school age go to comprehensive schools.⁵ But these figures conceal important facts regarding the place of these new schools. For example, they fail to disclose the urban concentration of comprehensive institutions. In London, 39 percent of all thirteen-year-olds are enrolled in comprehensive schools. This fact, along with additional information concerning enrollment in such schools, is revealed in Table 1.

TABLE 1

PERCENTAGE OF THIRTEEN-YEAR-OLDS ATTENDING
COMPREHENSIVE SCHOOLS IN ENGLAND,
JANUARY, 1962

Locale	Percentage
England	5%
Wales	10%
London	39%
Anglesey*	100%

^{*}A county in rural Wales where all schools are regarded as being comprehensive.

^aAnthony Greeland, The <u>Education Service</u>: <u>England and Wales</u> (London: Conservative Political Centre & Local Government Department, Bulletin No. 280, April, 1963), pp. 16-17.

³London County Council, <u>London School Plan</u> (London: Staples Press, 1947), pp. 259-260.

⁴H. C. Dent, <u>Growth in English Education</u>, 1946-1952 (London: Routledge and Kegan Paul Ltd., 1954), p. 79.

⁵British Information Services, <u>At School in Britain</u> (Chicago: British Information Service, 1962), p. 20. For an overall view of the structure of education in Britain see Appendix B.



Effects of two world wars.--An American observer of the educational scene in England views the comprehensive school as evolving out
of a post-war need for the reshaping of public education. But it is
next to impossible for the British to discuss the comprehensive school
in an objective fashion, he continues. In fact,

Despite the drastic changes implied by Samuel Everett's account, secondary education in England has followed a pattern of gradual development.

8 If, as many sources assert, the movement for universal secondary education emerged from England's involvement in World War II, the stage was set by events of an earlier period. Robert Ulich describes the background to the Fisher Act of 1918.

As a compensation for accepting the duty to fight and die on the battlefields of France, the masses now demanded a further advance in public education. They insisted on the change from a class-structured school system, with more than 95 percent of the population confined to merely elementary training, over to a national school system, which could bring the more advanced forms of education, except the university, into the reach of the able youth of the people. The result was the so-called Fisher Act of 1918.

⁶Samuel Everett, Growing Up in English Secondary Schools: Significance for American Practices (Pittsburgh, Penn.: The University of Pittsburgh Press, 1959), pp. 9-10.

⁷Ibid. An interpretation virtually identical with that of Everett's is furnished by Max A. Eckstein, "Present Trends in English Secondary Education," Studies in Comparative Education, op. cit., p. 8.

 $^{^{8}}$ Appendix C furnishes a comprehensive outline of the various stages of secondary school development in Britain.

⁹Robert Ulich, <u>The Education of Nations</u> (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1958), p. 116.

The Education Act of 1944.—Following on the heels of two world wars, plus a world-wide depression, the Education Act of 1944, by its insistence on secondary education for all, paved the way for the development of comprehensive secondary schools. Presented to Parliament in 1943 by the Minister of Education, R. A. "Rab" Butler, this bill signaled a new day for British education. Before 1944, the job of education was to produce a literate democracy, writes an English sociologist, "now it is to develop an educated democracy." 11 Various provisions of the Act could not be implemented during the war years, and agitation for using it in conjunction with even broader post-war reforms was manifested in the famed Beveridge Report.

Though development of education is not the most urgent of reconstruction tasks, it is ultimately the most important.... Expenditure on education is the communal investment which in the end may bring the best return.

There remains the task of pressing the attack on Ignorance $\mbox{\footnote{inf}}$ with vigour and speed on all fronts. . . . In the development of education lies the most important of all the tasks of reconstruction, $\mbox{\footnote{inf}}$

¹⁰Grace G. Leybourne, A New Charter for Education (London: Fabian Publications, Ltd., Research Series No. 76, October, 1943), p. 1.

 $^{^{11}}$ A. W. Rowe, <u>The Education or the Average Child</u> (London: George C. Harrap & Co., Ltd., 1959), p. 12.

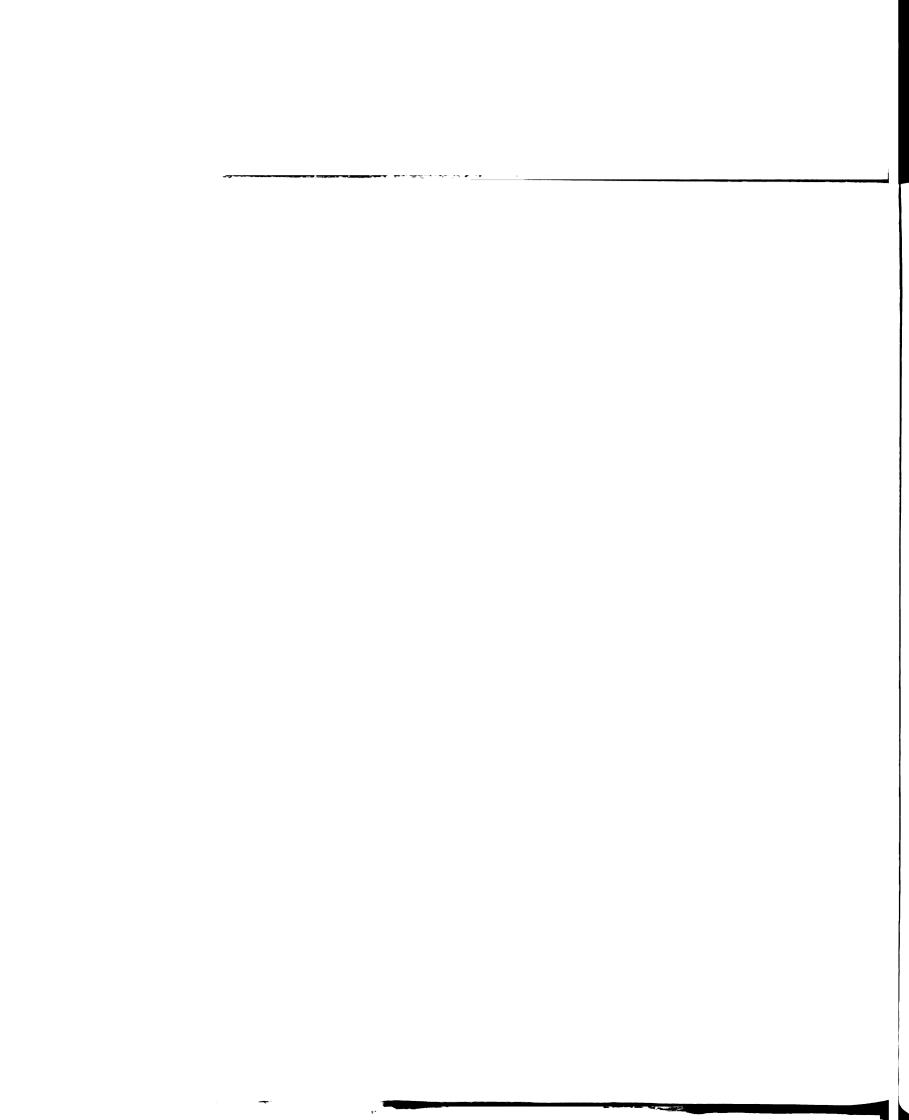
 $^{^{12} \}rm William$ H. Beveridge, Full Employment in a Free Society (New York: W. W. Norton Co., Inc., 1945), pp. 165, 265.

The accession of Clement Atlee and the Labour Party to political power in 1945 marks the real beginning of the comprehensive school movement in England. Official backing for these institutions was granted at the Margate Conference in 1950. The philosophy behind this declaration appeared in "Challenge to Britain: A Programme of Action for the next Labour Government," December, 1953.

Within a context of Conservative versus Labour political strife, the question of what type of secondary education to provide took on the semblance of a contest between Local Education Authorities (L.E.A.'s), seemingly determined to retain the selective system of pre-war Britain, and the Ministry of Education, bent on erecting comprehensive schools. 13

Bound up in political agitation at the local and national levels, the movement for comprehensive schools was also handicapped by a lack

¹³Among the many sources confirming this struggle, A. V. Judges, "Tradition and the Comprehensive School," British Journal of Educational Studies, II (November, 1953), pp. 3-18, is one of the most detailed. Nor was this the first occasion on which conflict had ensued between local powers and the central government. See Wallace T. MacCaffrey, Review of A Town Grammar School Through Six Centuries: A History of Hull Grammar School Against Its Local Background, by John Lawson, American Historical Review, LXIX (October, 1963), p. 163.



of unity among Labour Party members. Two factions quickly formed: the "conservatives," who favored maintenance of a separate grammar school for all who could profit from it; and a "radical" wing, advocating a common school with a comprehensive curriculum suited to the ability and aptitude of all children. 14 A Fabian tract admits that most Labour-controlled L.E.A.'s did not whole-heartedly support a policy of comprehensive schools, even though "it was officially advocated by the Labour Party," 15

Activities of the London County Council. --If Labour support, especially at the local level, has been somewhat vacillating, the London County Council has lent unquestioned backing to a plan for comprehensive schools. Outlining a proposal which Robin Pedley termeda "great social document," the London School Plan of 1947 opted for the comprehensive approach to secondary education. ¹⁶ The decision to rebuild secondary education on the basis of comprehensive schools was seen as a powerful stimulus to the idea of a neighborhood community; and, in spite of serious difficulties resulting from the social and economic costs of war, eight large (2,000) secondary schools, established on an experimental basis for eventual comprehensive status, were constructed in the years 1946-1949.

¹⁴Diehl, op. cit., p. 37.

¹⁵J. Thompson, Secondary Education Survey: An Analysis of L.E.A. Development Plans for Secondary Education (London: Fabian Research Series, No. 148, Victor Gollanez, 1952), p. 20. This appearance of unduc caution, in the opinion of British author T. L. Jarman, was simply a manifestation of the typical [his italics] British love of compromise. Landmarks in the History of Education: English Education as Part of the European Tradition (London: John Murray, 1962), p. 306.

¹⁶ Pedley, op. cit., p. 75.



This action by the London County Council was a graphic reminder that comprehensive schools were initiated primarily in urban areas where the Labour Party exerted post-war control of local government. Whether or not such sponsorship has been an asset or detriment to the cause of comprehensive education is debatable. H. C. Dent, one-time editor of the London Times Educational Supplement, sees the decision to experiment in London as a mistake. For the large size of London schools caused many Englishmen to reject them on that basis alone, he remarked, "and the idea of the comprehensive school has never quite recovered from the blow dealt it when England's largest municipality decided to adopt it." 17

Nevertheless, a recent report by the Council pays tribute to the original eight schools as "trail-blazers" in education.

Under the prevailing conditions, when no new building could be undertaken for secondary purposes, these schools had to occupy pre-war buildings In nearly all cases, they were formed by the enlargement of a former central school or by the amalgamation of a former senior with a former central school. These schools blazed a trail which has become a broad highway, and under conditions of great difficulty and in the face of some hostility they carried out pioneer work of the utmost value, 18

Growth of comprehensive schools.—As indicated in Table 2, comprehensive schools have grown at a rapid rate in recent years. The number of such schools remains small in comparison with other forms of secondary education in England, but the growth factor cannot be denied.

¹⁷Dent, op. cit., p. 79. A fellow-countryman regards the London County Council's statutory committee as "possibly the most important educational body in the country." C. B. Purdom, How Should We Rebuild London? (London: J. M. Dent & Sons, Ltd., 1946), p. 69.

¹⁸ London Comprehensive Schools: A Survey of Sixteen Schools (London: The London County Council, 1961), p. 14.

TABLE 2

GROWTH OF COMPREHENSIVE SCHOOLS IN ENGLAND, 1952-53 to 1961-62, INCLUSIVE

School Year	Number Enrolled	Number of Schools
1952-1953	9,217	10
1953-1954	12,306	13
1954-1955	15,891	16
1955-1956	27,315	31
1956-1957	42,416	43
1957-1958	75,081	86
1958-1959	107,186	111
1 9 59-1960	128,835	130
1960-1961	141,899	138
1961-1962	157,477	152

each of the calendar years, 1953 to 1962, inclusive; London: HMSO).

The student population of comprehensive schools more than doubled in the four years 1958 to 1962. Further information on this point is illustrated in Table 3. Gains in enrollment during the decade 1952 to 1962 are shown for the five major categories of state-supported secondary schools in Britain.

TABLE 3

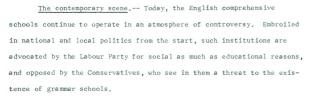
EXPANSION IN BRITISH SECONDARY SCHOOL ENROLLMENTS,*

SELECTED YEARS, 1952 TO 1962, INCLUSIVE

Type of School	1952	1958	1962
Secondary Modern	1,138	1,435	1,676
Technical	506	599	708
Grammar	74	95	97
Bilateral and Multilateral	29	33	45
Comprehensive	9	75	158

^{*}Enrollment figures listed in thousands.

a"The School Population in England," School and Society, LXXXXI (Summer, 1963), p. 245.



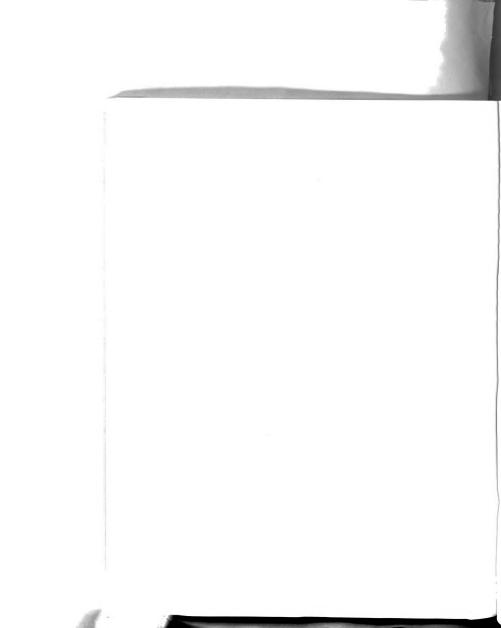
A recent "White Paper"--Secondary Education for All: A New Drive-though distributed by a Conservative Minister of Education, concedes the need for various patterns of education for different regions, including a place for comprehensive schools. 19 In particular, the National Ministry conceives of comprehensive schools as serving well the rural areas, "where education is comparatively sparse," and in sectors of mass new housing, "with no schools with well established traditions." 20 But the Conservative publication warns that the National Ministry will act to prevent the closing or amalgamation of thriving grammar or secondary modern schools simply to expedite the construction of large comprehensive structures.

The Labour Party's recent victory in the general elections may signal a renewed spurt in the construction of comprehensive schools.

In January, 1965, Minister of Education Michael Stewart asked Local Education Authorities to submit plans for reorganization of their schools on comprehensive lines. He could not "absolutely rule out" some form

¹⁹World Survey of Education, III, Secondary Education (New York: International Documents Service, UNESCO, 1961).

²⁰Ibid.





20

Overnment compulsion if local councils refused to cooperate, the of minister added.21

In the United States

A grammar school background.--Director of Project Talent Dr. John C. Flanagan writes:

A century and a half ago the United States originated an educational institution which has remained unique in the world. It is the American public secondary school. The Boston Latin Grammar School was the first and its purpose was to develop the talents of boys planning to enter the ministry, law, or possibly merchandising 22

The colonial grammar school's avowed puprose of preparing an elite for entrance into higher education is a vivid example of English influence upon the development of American institutions. In fact, Professor Edward Krug asserts, the American form placed greater emphasis on preparation for college than apparently had been the case in England.²³ And it is true that the Massachusetts Law of 1647 ordered

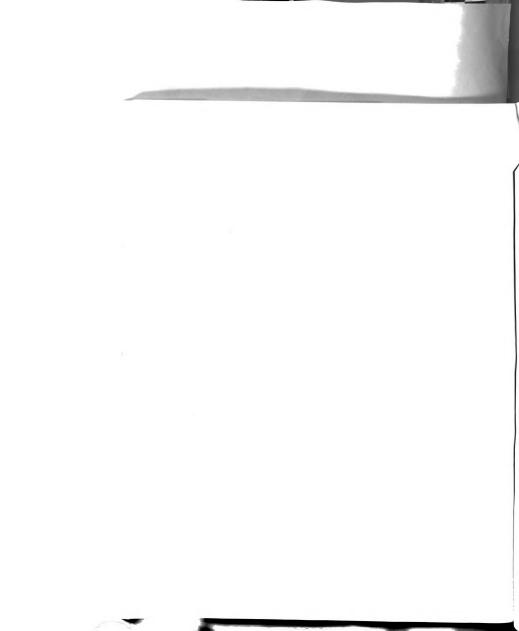
that where any town shall increase to the number of 100 families or householders, they shall set up a grammar school, the master thereof being able to instruct youth so far as they may be fitted for the university. 24

²¹Christian Science Monitor, January 30, 1965, p. 2.

²²John C. Flanagan and others, <u>Design for a Study of American Youth</u>, Part I (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1962), p. 39.

 $^{^{23}} Edward$ A. Krug, The Secondary School Curriculum (New York: Harper & Bros., 1960), p. $\overline{15}.$

 $^{24 \}text{Alexander Inglis, } \frac{\text{Principles of Secondary Education}}{\text{Houghton Mifflin Co., 1918)}}, \ \text{p. } 166.$



But its failure to survive throughout a period when its European counterparts were maintaining a virtual monopoly on secondary education reflects the impact of new environmental factors in America. Settlers in the New World, writes Dr. John Childs, came to view transplanted institutions as common human arrangements devised to satisfy certain social needs. 25 Thus, despite the historian's insistence that colonial America was, in many ways, a reproduction of the mother country's civilization, 26 the fate of the grammar school was a harbinger of the future. Feeble responses to the growing demands for a broader curriculum were only one manifestation of the school's fatal adherence to classoriented policies.

Though the role of the classical grammar school in the development of what is now called secondary education remains unclear--e.g., it accepted boys of an age common to today's elementary schools--two distinct legacies from this early period are apparent in current discussions of educational philosophy and practice.

One is the continued dualism of college-preparatory and noncollege-preparatory courses within the American public high school.

The implication that traditional academic subjects are of value only
to those aspiring to university study persists as a vexing problem for
secondary schools. Perhaps more important was the creation of a link
between religion and education, a relationship depicted in the following
account.

²⁵ John L. Childs, Education and the Philosophy of Experimentalism (New York: The Century Co., 1931), p. 21.

 $^{^{26}\}mathrm{See}$ Charles Beard, The Rise of American Civilization (New York: The Macmillan Co., 1927), p. 125.



22

The college and the grammar school . . . were parts of one educational system, though not bound together in one system. of Public service. In both alike the ideal of education was an ideal of public service. They were established to train up young men 'for the service of God, in church and commonwealth,' And the form of public service which was uppermost in the minds of their founders was the Christian ministry.

We shall not understand our educational development if we fail to see that modern systems of education, like much else in our modern civilization, are deeply rooted in the religious life of two and three centuries ago. 27

Rise of the academy. -- As the grammar school faded from the American educational scene, it was quickly replaced by the academies. The latter institutions also had English antecedents.

Following the restoration of Charles II and the Established Church in 1660, religious nonconformists found themselves outside the church and state. By 1689, however, their schools were openly functioning, and they became known as "academies," a term used by Milton in his treatise, Of Education, 28

An academy master, Charles Martin, emigrated to Massachusetts in 1685 and there erected an American replica of his school in England.29 Almost a century later--1751--Benjamin Franklin founded his famous Academy.

I. L. Kandel and Harold Spears credit Franklin's three-curricular institution as having a great influence on the development of secondary

 $^{$^{27}{\}rm Elmer}$$ Ellsworth Brown, $\frac{{\rm The}$ Making of Our Middle Schools (New York: Longmans, Green, and Co., $\frac{1905)}{1905)},$ p. 57.

²⁸Krug, op. cit., p. 19.

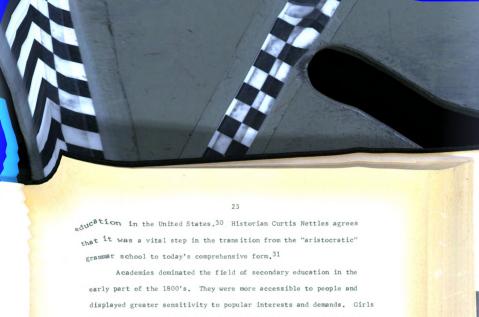
²⁹Krug, op. cit., p. 20.

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early part of the 1800's. They were more accessible to people and displayed greater sensitivity to popular interests and demands. Girls were admitted to some of them, and not all students were expected to prepare solely for college attendance. Academies particularly appealed to the rising middle class, and their curricula reflected the demands of a group which has consistently exerted much control over secondary education in the United States.

These schools appealed largely to the great middle class and provided training which prepared for the counting room, the sea, and the classroom as well as for the college. Although the offerings varied from institution to institution, taken together they presented rather widespread opportunity for any training whether cultural, practical, classical, or purely vocational, 32

Nineteenth-Century developments.--While the hundred years from 1750 to 1850 witnessed a rapid growth and subsequent decline of the academy, public high schools were slower to appear. In 1821, the English Classical School was founded in Boston. Its promoters desired a school "somewhat like the academy but one which was tax-supported and available in the hometown."33 The idea behind this school was incorporated into

 $^{30\}text{I}$. L. Kandel, <u>History of Secondary Education</u> (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1930), p. $\overline{450}$; <u>Harold Spears</u>, "A Second Look at the Emerging High School Curriculum," <u>Phi Delta Kappan</u>, XLV (November, 1963), p. 103.

³¹Curtis P. Nettles, The Roots of American Civilization: A History of American Colonial Life (2nd ed.; New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1963), pp. 490-491.

³²Newton Edwards and Herman G. Richey, The School in the American Social Order (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1947), pp. 397-398.

³³William E. Drake, The American School in Transition (New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1955), pp. 231-232.

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the Massachusetts school law of 1827, states Ellwood P. Cubberly, and

he describes this particular statute as being the real basis for today's secondary school.

The real beginning of the American high school as a distinct institution dated from the Massachusetts Law of 1827 . . . This law formed the basis of all subsequent legislation in Massachusetts, and deeply influenced developments in other states. The law is significant in that it required a high school in every town housing 500 families or over, in which should be taught United States History, bookkeeping, algebra, geometry, and surveying, while in every town having 4,000 inhabitants or over, instruction in Greek, Latin, history, rhetoric, and logic must be added. 34

Enforcement of the Massachusetts law was weak and often totally ineffective. Thus, the progress of "hometown" secondary schools was sporadic, particularly outside of urban sectors.

Unique though it was and as indigenous, in its conception at least, as has appeared in American education, the high school, except in Massachusetts and a few large cities as Philadelphia, Chicago, Cleveland, Baltimore, San Francisco, and New Orleans, did not spread as rapidly as might have been suggested, 35

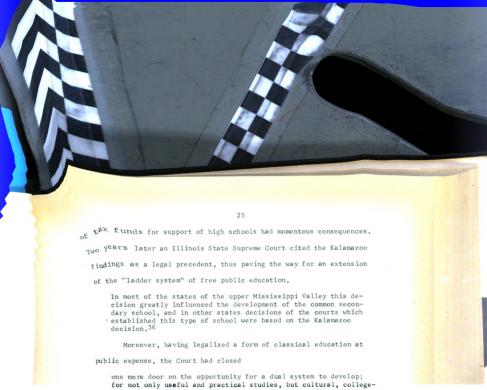
The Kalamazoo Case. -- Lack of widespread public acceptance of tax support for secondary education was long a stumbling block. Consequently, much of the credit for the spread of secondary schools in the latter part of the nineteenth century derives from the Kalamazoo Case.

Justifiably regarded as a milestone in the advance of public education, the 1874 decision of the Michigan court legalizing the use

³⁴Ellwood P. Cubberly, <u>Public Education in the United States</u> (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1919), p. 193. Virtually the same point was made by a noted contemporary. Inglis, <u>Principles of Secondary Education</u>, op. cit., p. 194.

³⁵Kenneth V. Lattich, "What is Indigenous in American Education?" Heritage of America, ed. by Richard Gross and Joseph Roucek (Boston: Allyn & Bacon, Inc., 1962), p. 438.





preparatory studies as well were now the just province of the secondary school.37

Establishment of the comprehensive high school .-- It is not easy to account for the origin of the term "high school." Leonard Koos writes that reference to such institutions reportedly occurred in Pennsylvania during the colonial period. 38 The origin of the term, he submits, "is not so important as its general early use in connection with institutions offering free secondary education at public expense [italics his].

This same element is designated by Dr. Conant as one of three distinguishing characteristics of the high school which emerged at the turn of the twentieth century. By 1900, he asserts, the public high school had become the recognized form of secondary education in the United States, and it was marked by public management on a local basis.

38 Leonard V. Koos, The American Secondary School (Boston: Ginn and Co., 1927), p. 27.

 $^{^{36}\}mathrm{Edgar}$ W. Knight, "The Evolving and Expanding Common School," Critical Issues and Trends in American Education: The Annals, CCLXV (September, 1949), p. 98. Appendix D supplies an illustration of how this principle was incorporated into the structure of American education. 37R. Freeman Butts and Lawrence A. Cremin, A History of Education in American Culture (New York: Henry Holt and Co., 1953), p. 419.

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with finances provided by tax funds, and a policy of non-selective $_{\rm admission.^{39}}$

In 1918, the comprehensive high school received a boost from the Commission on Reorganization of Secondary Education. This group favored the comprehensive institution as "the standard type of secondary school in the United States." Prior to this date, the Report of the Committee of Ten, in 1893, represented, in the eyes of Professor Ulich, "the end of the four-year high school as an academic and selective institution."

Support for mass education at the secondary level was increased as one effect of these Reports; and, according to Dr. Conant, the era from 1905 to 1930 marked a revolutionary transformation of the American high school. 42His ideas are similar to those expressed by R. Freeman Butts, who likewise saw radical changes taking place within the high school.

³⁹James B. Conant, Thomas Jefferson and the Development of American Public Education, op. cit., p. 49.

⁴⁰ Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Dept. of the Interior, Bureau of Education, Bulletin No. 35, 1918), p. 24. The same year Alexander Inglis referred to a "composite" or comprehensive high school. Principles of Secondary Education, op. cit., p. 704.

⁴¹Ulich, op. cit., p. 242.

⁴² James B. Conant, The Revolutionary Transformation of the American High School (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1959), p. 1. Appendix E supplies an illustration of the role of National Commissions in abetting the work of the American high school as a "comprehensive" institution.



27

Increasing numbers of youth flooded into the high schools after World War I, the curriculum expanded rapidly, and the college preparatory function was submerged, because it was assumed that most high school graduates would not go on to college. So commercial courses multiplied, aided by federal programs, especially the Smith-Hughes Act of 1917.43

However, there exists strong opposition to labeling the quartercentury from 1905 to 1930 as a period of startling change in American education. In words reminiscent of those used by British writers in stressing the gradual evolution of England's system of secondary schools, William H. Whyte declares that the American changes were in character. In retrospect, he confesses, they seem revolutionary,

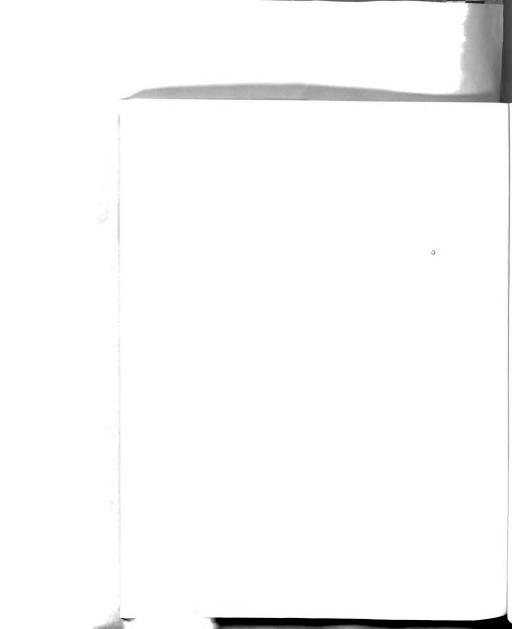
but they were an extension, not a reversal. Whether exaggerated or not, the inclination to the practical, the contemporary, has been thoroughly in the American tradition, 44

Whyte defines it as part of the American tradition; others refer to the striving for equality of educational opportunity as the American dream. 45 Whatever the terminology, twentieth-century developments in secondary education in the United States have demonstrated a steady progression along the lines of mass education. Table 4 on the following page offers one illustration of this rapid growth.

⁴³R. Freeman Butts, "How Well is Maryland's Secondary Education Program Meeting the Needs of the Pupil?" Major Speeches Delivered at the Conference of Maryland High School Principals and Supervisors (Baltimore, Md.: October 8, 1959), p. 15 (mimeographed).

 $^{^{44} \}rm William$ H. Whyte, Jr., <u>The Organization Man</u> (New York: Simon & Schuster, 1956), p. 96.

 $^{^{45}}$ L. O. Taylor and others, The American Secondary School (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1960), p. 6.





GROWTH IN ENROLLMENTS IN THE AMERICAN HIGH SCHOOL, 1890 TO 1960, INCLUSIVE

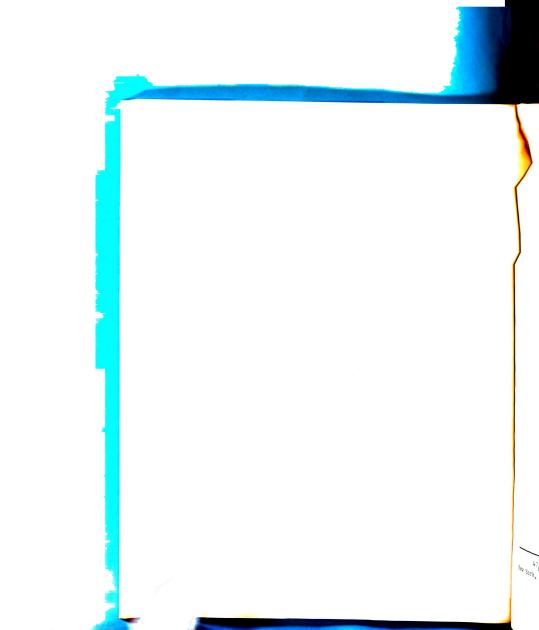
Year	Number Enrolled	Percent of Youth Aged 14 to 17 En- rolled
1890	202,963	6.7
1900	519,251	11.4
1910	915,061	15.4
1920	2,200,389	32.3
1930	4,399,422	51.4
1940	6,635,337	73.3
1950	5,757,810	76.8
1960	8,531,454	86.1

^aDigest of Educational Statistics (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, Bulletin No. 43, 1963), p. 11.

As in England, the task of the high school is becoming increasingly difficult. A tradition of college-preparatory work faces an equally insistent demand to supply training and knowledge for young Americans facing a bewildering world of science and technology.

In summary, Professor H. G. Good suggests that the American high school developed as a "public school, a local school, and a day school" 46--all three of which now are subsumed under the guise of a comprehensive school. But the fundamental problem of identifying the typical American high school remains. An English viewpoint on this matter is furnished by Edmund J. King.

 $^{^{46}\}text{H. G. Good,}$ A History of Western Education (New York: The Macmillan Co., 1947), p. 525.

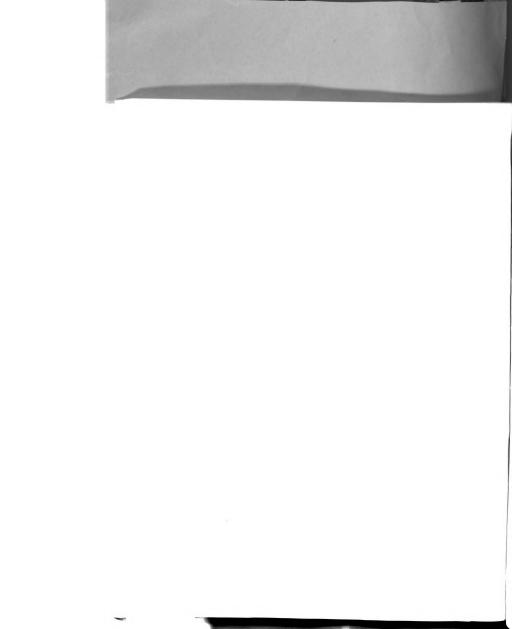




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No two comprehensive school systems are exactly alike, and no country is as diverse (from excellent to dreadful) as the United States, despite the textbooks and professors' talk about 'the comprehensive school'—much less $\underline{\text{the}}$ [italics his] American school. 47

⁴⁷ personal letter from Edmund J. King, Syracuse University, New York, July 23, 1962.





CHAPTER III

SOCIOLOGICAL BACKGROUND OF THE COMPREHENSIVE SECONDARY SCHOOL

In England

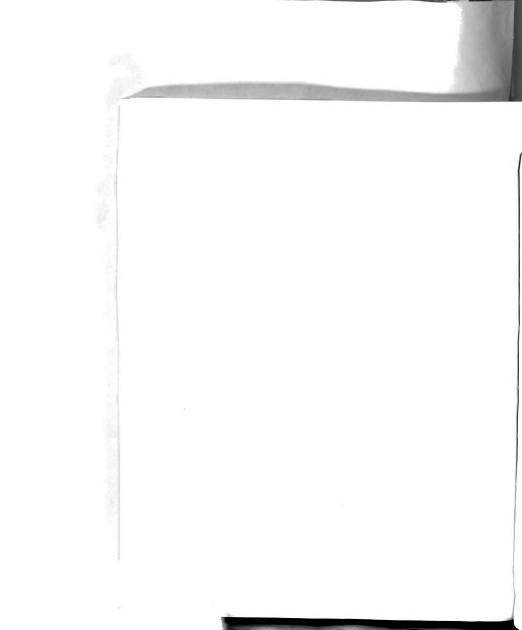
The post-war drive for social equality.--Professor Kandel warns that education must be adapted to and grow out of the cultural environment of the people to be educated. In England the salient feature of the cultural environment is the historical link between the educational system and the social class structure. British author John Vaizey phrases it thusly: "When we talk about schools in this country we talk autobiographically and we talk about class."

Tawney was far more vehement. "The hereditary curse upon English education," he cried, "is its organization upon lines of social class." These charges of persistent social class influence are grounded in reality, charges a third critic.

 $^{^{1}\}text{I.}$ L. Kandel, "The Study of Comparative Education," $\underline{\text{op. cit.}}$, p. 7

 $^{^2}$ John Vaizey, Education in Class Society: The Queen and Her Horses Reign. (London: Fabian Research Tract No. 342, January, 1962), p. 1. It is interesting to note that newly-elected Prime Minister Harold Wilson is the first person to hold this post who was not educated in a private (Public) school.

 $^{^{3}}$ R. H. Tawney, Equality (London: George Allen & Unwind Ltd., 1952), p. 154.





One of the most remarkable things about English education is the Persistence, through two world wars, and on into the egalitarian, welfare state world of the fifties, of a separate system of education for the rich. . . It is normal for children of the upper-middle and upper classes to go to a special kind of school in which children of the lower-middle and working classes are rarely met with.4

Consequently, much of the impetus behind the comprehensive school movement in England is to be found in a desire to ensure equality of opportunity and to break down social class barriers by promoting a feeling of social unity among adolescents. Spokesmen for comprehensive education believe that the school itself acts as an agent of social change. Charges that socialists and others on the left of British society are backers of the comprehensive school are true; and for good reasons, comments an English observer.

Only the left has a Faith. The left-wingers are the true descendants of the early pioneers, the Chartists of the nineteenth century, and the Levellers of the seventeenth. For them, the progress of political action is not to win power; it is to make a new heaven and a new earth. 5

In other words, the comprehensive school is seen as part of a larger drive towards social equality, encompassing both political and educational elements. Attempts to carry out a plan for comprehensive schools have added greatly to the air of controversy surrounding them, for such action raises the question of "the relationship between the

⁴J. D. Scott, <u>Life in Britain</u> (London: Eyre & Spottswoode, 1956), pp. 165-166.

 $^{^5 \}rm David$ Marquand, "England's Labor Party and Its Discontents," $\underline{\rm Coummentary},~\rm XXX$ (December, 1960), p. 492.

educational system and social stratification, and its solution neces-

This issue is particularly relevant to the furious controversy concerning the eleven plus examinations. The Butler Act's scheme for allocation according to aptitude and ability has not been realized.

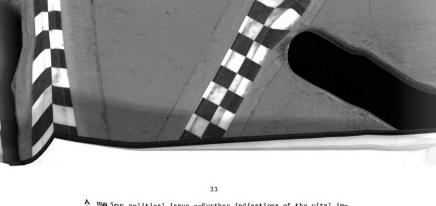
There is still great competition for grammar school openings. Approximately one-half of the youth compete for grammar schools equipped to take about 20 percent of their applicants. The middle class is especially angered, for these people feel that both the secondary modern and the comprehensive school put them on the same level as the working classes. "It is largely because class-feeling and political bias are so involved," writes an English scholar, "that it is so difficult to view the problem of secondary school selection impartially, or to devise any acceptable solution."

A second aspect of this interdependence is reflected in the steadfast opposition of the British class system to significant changes. This grudging reluctance to accept modifications of traditional patterns is, in the opinion of English historian Denis W. Brogan, directly attributable to the educational system. "In no other country," he submits "does the character of the formal education received have the permanent importance that it has in England."8

A Study in Educational Sociology (London: Rutledge & Kegan Paul, 1955), p. 242.

⁷P. E. Vernon (ed.), <u>Secondary School Selection</u> (London: Methuen & Co., Ltd., 1957), p. 22.

⁸Denis W. Brogan, The English People: Impressions and Observations (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1943), p. 20.



A major political issue. -- Further indications of the vital importance of the educational program are revealed in frantic attempts by each of the major political parties to identify with specific programs of education. Viewed in the light of a recently-completed public survey, the English people place the need for education above medical care.

A national poll sponsored by the London Institute of Economic Affairs revealed more discontent with the Welfare State than was generally assumed; but

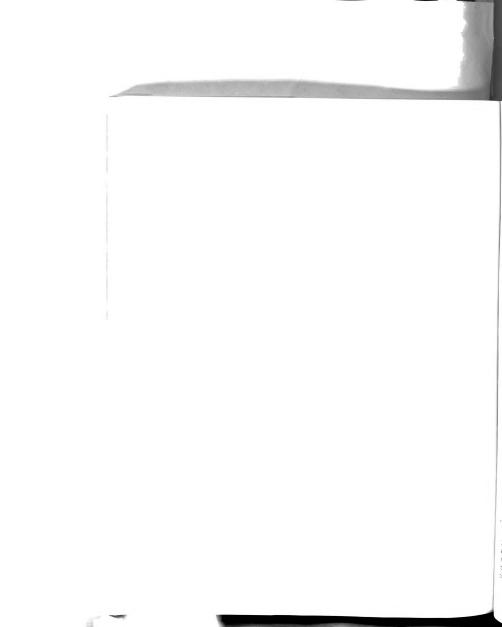
asked whether they wanted the State service to go on expanding out of taxation as at present if incomes continued to rise, 51 percent chose the option for education; 41 percent for health.

In fact, the pent-up demand for education has remained a constant factor in British political circles since Clement Atlee and the Labour Party took office in 1945. In the eyes of Labourites provisions for education, particularly secondary education, are intolerable. Economic and social changes of the 1950's have added their influence to the cries for more education, and Labour spokesmen state flatly that "the biggest single fact about our education today is that there is not enough of it." 10

As a result, measures of educational reform and questions concerning social class privilege have become enmeshed in partisan politics.

 $^{^{9}\}mbox{"Discontent}$ with the Welfare State," Manchester Guardian, July 25, 1963, p. 4.

¹⁰Learning to Live: Labour's Policy for Education (London: Labour Party, Transport House, 1958), p. 7.



These issues were clearly depicted in the election campaign of 1964,

Education is [another] subject of noisy debate in this sociall category. Legislation passed in 1944 has never been implemented fully. There are not enough schools, not enough teachers, too few universities. . . . Both parties are committed to educational expansion. 11

But, whereas the Labour Party accepts social equality as a major educational goal, the leaders of the Conservative Party generally deny this is a legitimate aim of education. In essence: the Labour Party offers social equality as a primary political goal; the Conservative Party does not. Thus traditional class patterns, political dogmas, and educational objectives become intermingled in the drive for comprehensive schools.

Within this new context, the Labour Party plans to promote scientific and technical education. Recent speeches by Harold Wilson hint that he is trying to portray the Labour Party as modern and businesslike rather than doctrinaire and socialistic. It may be that the demand for education is helping to create a new type of Labour ideology.

The Labour Party today no longer draws its support from cloth-capped workers clamoring to be delivered from the 'thralldom of wagedom,' as they called it. Its present and potential appeal is to middle-and working-class Britons who are skeptical of socialist dogmas and hostile to any radical social experiments that might threaten their living standards. What they desperately want is more and better education. . 12 [Italics in original].

¹¹ Thomas P. Peardon, "Politics in Britain," op. cit., p. 283.

^{12&}quot;Great Britain: The Road to Jerusalem," <u>Time</u>, LXXXII (October 11, 1963), p. 34. An Englishman sees the advance in material prosperity as a grim bit of irony for Labour. Since 1950, the party has been swimming against the social tide, he notes, and the knowledge that the tide was first set in motion by the post-war Labour government "does nothing to sweeten the experience." Marquand, op. cit., p. 495.

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Mainly an urban phenomenon.—Against this background of political strife and changing ideologies, two additional factors stand out: they are the growth of urbanism and the problem of limited facilities in rural regions.

London has become the hub of a vast metropolitan area. Government, commerce, research facilities, and education combine to draw thousands to the southern part of the British mainland. A planning report drawn up almost a decade ago warned that these very factors would cause London to reach a grotesque size, but little has been done to forestall the drift to the south. 13

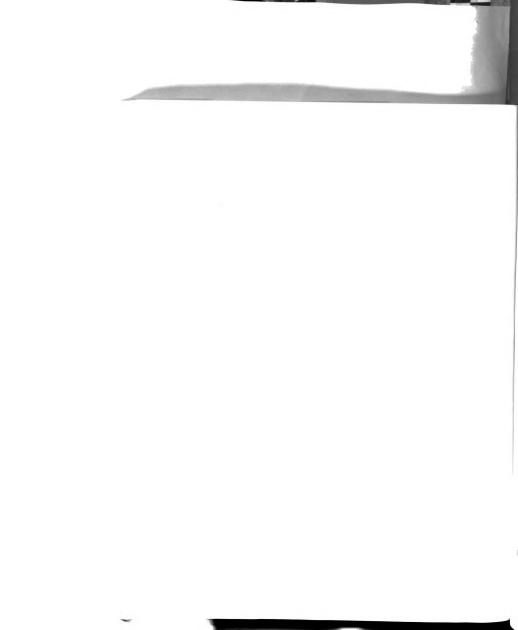
Geoffrey Moorhouse describes this pattern of migration as the most urgent problem of Britain's population growth. In England and Wales, he notes, the population more than doubled in the decade 1951-1961; or twice "what had been expected of a twenty-year period." 14 Furthermore, he adds, "the South has been growing at five times the rate of the North." Moorhouse quotes demographer Rugby Childs, that by the year 2000

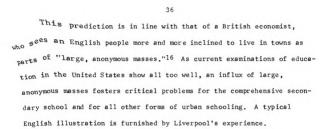
from Dover to Bristol and from the Home Counties up to Lancashire and Yorkshire there will be more people living under city conditions than there are in the whole of Britain today. Two-thirds of them will be confined in virtually unbroken conurbations.15

¹³ Report on Planning in the London Region (London: Town Planning Institute, 1956), p. 8.

¹⁴ Geoffrey Moorhouse, "An Explosion of People," Manchester Guardian, November 21, 1963, p. 12.

¹⁵ Ibid. "Conurbations" is a term used to define a human region largely urban in character. American demographers use the term "megalopolis." T. W. Freeman, The Conurbations of Great Britain (Manchester, England: The Manchester University Press, 1959), p. 1.





In 1930, this city had twenty secondary schools catering to 8,427 pupils. By January, 1958, it was supporting 106 secondary schools, many of them comprehensive institutions, with 42,782 students in attendance. 17

London's problems, moreover, are infinitely more complex. Edward Carter outlines the city's plight in words quite familiar to those working in urban and suburban schools in America.

By far the most important influence affecting the character of central London has been migration outward from the centre, stimulated by deterioration of residential amenity in the centre, the suburban pull, and the pressure of sponsored migration to 'new towns and estates.' . . One effect of the migration of young marrieds to the suburbs is naturally enough a very considerable difference between the number of children in the suburbs and the number in the centre.18

¹⁶Diana Spearman, $\underline{\text{Democracy in England}}$ (New York: The Macmillan Co., 1957), p. 149.

¹⁷John Barron Mays, <u>Education and the Urban Child</u> (Liverpool: Social Research Series, Liverpool University Press, 1962), p. 27. Liverpool is currently moving rapidly with plans to make all secondary schools comprehensive institutions.

¹⁸ E dward Carter, The Future of London (Baltimore, Md.: Penguin Books, 1962), pp. 51-52.

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The London County Council, then, was among the first to choose to me^{e^t} Post-war demands with the formation of comprehensive secondary schools. Without question, a drive for social equality was at the heart of this decision.

The Council thought that in a modern society it was essential that school life should promote a feeling of social unity among adolescents of all kinds of degrees of ability and that this could best be achieved in a 'comprehensive' school.19

Specifically, it was hoped that such a plan would do away with the necessity for the eleven plus examinations and provide a curriculum suitable to a wider range of student ability.

Dent's misgivings about London's sponsorship were cited in Chapter II.²⁰ His emphasis on the matter of size was a telling one, for this point has been hit time and again by critics of comprehensive schools. Continuing with direct attacks on London's role, the illeffects of an unwise egalitarianism are emphasized by a writer for the Economist.

The established standards of the abler children are being sacrificed in the name of egalitarianism and for the sake of benefits that are quite unproven.

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But London is the largest authority and the most in the public eye, and one of the unfortunate consequences of its doctrinaire folly is that the whole idea may get a worse name than it

 $^{^{19}\}underline{\text{Education}}$ in London, 1945-54 (London: London County Council, County Ha $\overline{11}$, 1954), p. 47.

²⁰cf., p. 19.

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really deserves. For there is something—and possibly a good deal—to be said for it. $^{21}\,$

In all likelihood, the erstwhile social benefits of comprehensive secondary schools have received too much attention in their early years. Scarcely a decade has passed since the first ones opened their doors, and evaluation procedures are just now beginning to appear.

In the United States

An agent for social unity. --Writing in defense of the American high school during the post-Sputnik era of attacks on public education, historian Henry S. Commager stated that

most of what we may call the non-academic functions of the schools in the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries have been performed: To give unity to a heterogeneous population; to create a sense of belonging; to inculcate democracy and equality, 22

An English contemporary supports Commager's general thesis. The social and political role of American education cannot be understood if it is regarded as only a means of formal learning, he agrees, for the high school, particularly,

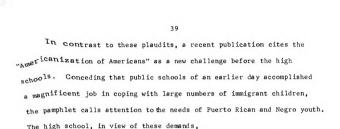
is not merely or mainly concerned with teaching English or chemistry. It is a centre of local social education; it brings together the children of all classes, or almost all classes, $2^{\rm 5}$

^{21&}quot;School and Privilege," <u>The Economist</u>, CLXVI (March,14, 1953), p. 711. The decision of Coventry—the "Detroit of the Midlands"—to rebuild its secondary schools on the model of comprehensive institutions has strengthened critical beliefs that such schools represent the outcome of socialist control of city councils.

²²Henry S. Commager, "Victims of Success," Saturday Review, XLI (May 3, 1958), p. 13.

 $^{^{23} \}rm Denis~W.~Brogan,~U.S.A.--An~Outline~of~the~Country,~Its~People~and~Institutions~(New York: Oxford University Press, 1941), p. 85.$

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can no longer survive merely as a place to prepare a small segment of the intellectually gifted. . . . It must become an instrument of the community for helping all children develop whatever talents they have $^{\rm 24}$

This plea for making the modern high school a comprehensive institution on all fronts has historical antecedents. Professor Carl Fish records the impressions of a visitor to the Hartford, Connecticut, high school during the 1870's. The observer was pleased to note that "friendships among its scholars were formed across class lines."25 Whether or not such liaisons actually do occur is still a hotly contested issue in American educational circles. Charges that public schools are dominated by the middle class indicate that here, too, England and the United States share a common concern.

Accused of middle-class dominance. --Though replacement of the academy by the public high school is described as a victory for the rising middle class, 26 much of the sociological and educational literature

²⁴ Teacher's Letter (pamphlet) XIII (April 1, 1964), p. 1.

²⁵Carl R. Fish, <u>The Rise of the Common Man: A History of American Life in Twelve Volumes</u>, eds. Arthur M. Schlesinger and Dixon Ryan (New York: The Macmillan Co., 1950), pp. 221-222.

 $^{^{26}}$ Carroll Atkinson and Eugene T. Moleska, The Story of Education (Philadelphia: Chilton & Co., 1958), p. 157.

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Th Defense o of the Past quarter-century portrays its alleged middle-class bias one of the major obstacles preventing the formation of a stronger, i.e., more "comprehensive," high school. Paul Goodman and C. Wright Mills charge the high school with being nothing more than a training ground for the production of corporate employees, oriented to middle-class values and destined to become members of a "white-collar society."²⁷ Edgar Freidenberg, professor of education and sociology at the University of California, presents a particularly caustic appraisal of the high school's role in maintaining social class barriers.

Its biases, though their impact is always on individual youngsters, operate systematically to mold entire social groups. These biases endorse and support the values and patterns of behavior of certain segments of the population providing their members with the credentials and shibboleths needed for the next stages of their journey, while they instill in others a sense of inferiority and warn the rest of society against them as troublesome and untrustworthy. In this way the school contributes simultaneously to social mobility and to social stratification. It helps see to it that the kind of people who get ahead are the kind who will support the social system it represents, while those who might, through interest or merely by their being, subvert it, are left behind as a salutary moral lesson. 28

Yet, there is a long-standing basis for this link between American secondary schools and the middle-class world of business and commerce. Business led the drive in the late nineteenth century for the training of skilled artisans and mechanics in the public schools and at the public expense. Before that time, Benjamin Franklin's Academy was designed as a preparatory institution for young men interested in the field of

²⁷There exists a host of books, articles, pamphlets, etc., dealing with the relationship of the high school to social class structure in the United States. Those cited in this study were selected on the basis of a representative sampling of the criticism.

²⁸Edgar Z. Freidenberg, "The Modern High School: A Profile,"
Commentary, XXXVI (November, 1963), p. 380. One source of rebuttal may
be found in a recent issue of Phi Delta Kappan. See James E. Heald,
"In Defense of Middle-Class Values," XLVI (October, 1964), pp. 81-83.

Rhea free 2 tev.; New 30 fork: Har community. And, as in the case of Britain, current demands for highly skilled Workers of all types are creating new problems for the comprehensive high school.

Role of American Labor. --Organized labor has played a significant part in the history of American secondary education. True, it has not influenced high schools in the United States to the extent that the Labour Party in England has contributed to the comprehensive school movement, but American labor has consistently supported proposals for the extension of educational opportunities.

Referring to the Jacksonian appeal to Eastern workingmen, Foster Rhea Dulles notes that the foremost demand of the latter was invariably free public education, 29 With respect to the comprehensive ideal,

Labor, in line with the American idea of a classless society, was more interested in the type of public school system proposed by Horace Mann, where all children, rich and poor, would have the same kind of education, 30

Impact of Negro migration. -- In the United States post-war waves of social and economic change have markedly affected the comprehensive high school, particularly in the urban and suburban regions. Oddly enough, similar changes in England stimulated the comprehensive school movement; in America, they threaten to perform a reverse function.

²⁹Foster Rhea Dulles, <u>Labor in America: A History</u> (2nd. ed. rev.; New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Co., 1960), p. 37.

³⁰ Harold U. Faulkner and Mark Starr, <u>Labor in America</u> (New York: Harper & Bros., 1944), p. 47.

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Replacing the middle-class householders who moved to the suburbs the underprivileged: Southern Negroes and poor whites, Puerto Ricans, and Spanish-Americans. Tever-increasing numbers of Negro residents pose many problems for northern cities; among the gravest of these is the question of education.

Who can deny in 1962, then, that the great problem of the American city is to demonstrate at least three things: first [talics author's] that it can solve the problem of education for the millions of people who are entering its gates. . . .32

A former public school administrator, now the president of Teachers College, Columbia University, John H. Fischer, pinpoints the enormity of this task.

The difficulties of operating schools which can cope successfully and, as they must, simultaneously with both racial and educational issues are . . . among the most puzzling of all the problems facing the American people. 33

Nor is the situation likely to ease in the near future. Speaking at the Annual Meeting of the American Association for the Advancement of Science, December, 1963, Dr. C. Horace Hamen, professor of rural sociology at North Carolina State University, predicted that the Negro population will number about thirty million by 1980—an increase of almost 200 percent. Over half of it, he said, will be living outside the South. 34

³¹ Two excellent descriptions of this transition are those of Morton Grodzins, The Metropolitan Area as a Racial Problem (Pittsburgh: The University of Pittsburgh Press, 1958); and Richard C. Lonsdale, The School's Role in Metropolitan Area Development (Syracuse, New York: University Press, 1960).

³²Morton and Lucia White, The Intellectual Versus the City (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1962), p. 238.

 $^{^{33} \}rm{John}$ H. Fischer, "Educational Problems of Public Schools," $\underline{\rm Vital}$ Speeches, XXXVIII (June 15, 1962), p. 539.

³⁴ As reprinted in the Chicago Daily News, December 28, 1963, p 3.

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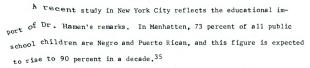
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Two distinct types of high schools have crystallized in the past decade, both stemming in large part from the Negro migration northward. Both case doubts as to the authenticity of American secondary schools acting as comprehensive institutions. One is the "ghetto" high school of the cities; the second is the suburban high school, which,

by teaching the values of participation, warmth, understanding, and group activity, is much more in the mainstream of contemporary American education and philosophical thought than is the city school, 36

The neighborhood school concept, long a cherished fixture of American ideology, is also giving ground under the impact of population changes. Homogeneous patterns of upper- and middle-class whites provide a narrow range of social-class differences in the suburbs; meanwhile, in the urban center cries of <u>de facto</u> segregation signal attempts by civil rights groups to revise educational policies.

Though the Supreme Court recently upheld the legality of an educational system based on neighborhood schools, even when racially-imbalanced student bodies are thereby created, various agencies continue

³⁵Barbara Carter, "New York's 'Jim Crow' Schools: Bleak Facts and Bright Visions," Reporter, XXXI (July 2, 1964), p. 23. The same article states that with the best will in the world, "New York City simply cannot attain the kind of racial integration most civil-rights leaders have been demanding for the public schools." Ibid.

³⁶Harold M. Hodgkinson, Education in Social and Cultural Perspectives (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1962), pp. 57-58.

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The secondary school lines are drawn at the residential color lines and are held rigid, resisting all the pressures of exploding population growth and new construction . . . There are eight senior high schools, not one of which is able to meet the educational needs of a city this size 38

In a country famed for its creation of new social institutions to meet changing needs—so well illustrated in the history of secondary education in the United States—a refusal to critically examine community—school inter—relationships in response to new conditions of American life threatens to nullify the most honored value of the comprehensive high school.

The neighborhood school has become sacred. It might be added that the nearer Negroes get to it the more sacred it becomes. The concept was borrowed from the idea of the community school. The community school, however, never was intended to be a 'turf' which shut out life. Its strength was because of the very opposite connotation. It was that a community's children would go to school together. 39

³⁷Chicago Daily News, November 1, 1963, p. 1. Groups protesting modifications of the neighborhood school policy are equally vehement in defense of it. See Max Gunther, "Why A Northern Town Fights School Integration," Saturday Evening Post, CCXXXVII (September 19, 1964),pp. 66-67.

³⁸Max Wolff, "Segregation in the Schools of Gary, Indiana," The Journal of Educational Sociology, XXXVI (February, 1963), p. 253.

³⁹Dan W. Dodson, "Preparing for Desegregation--Excerpts from a Statement Presented at U.S. Civil Rights Commission Conference on Education," Journal of Educational Sociology, XXXVI (February, 1963), p. 273. It is interesting to note that one of Dr. Conant's most recent reports on American education conteins suggestions that "radical" changes will be needed to further the cause of comprehensive secondary schools. In words similar to those used by Dodson, Dr. Conant states: "The way some of them [in education] talk you'd think school district lines had been drawn in the Bible." As quoted in the Chicago Sun-Times, November 15, 1964, p. 14.

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PHILOSOPHICAL BACKGROUND OF THE COMPREHENSIVE SECONDARY SCHOOL

·Sharing a Common Principle

The basic purpose.—The theoretical basis supporting comprehensive school organization in either country is that of bringing all the youth of secondary-school age in a given area into one institution, thereby fostering the goal of social integration. While Alexander Inglis was among the first to call attention to the social significance of the secondary school, ¹ a prominent British writer submits that the concept of a comprehensive institution stems from the philosophy of John Dewey.

. . . The single or 'common school' for all is an idea that comes from Dewey, and those who by the establishment of comprehensive schools seek to break down social barriers are, consciously or unconsciously, putting his creed into practice.²

But changes in both English and American modes of living have brought about conditions which make it extremely difficult to impelement the theory behind comprehensive schools.

 $^{^{\}mathrm{l}}\mathrm{Alexander}$ Inglis, $\underline{\mathrm{Principles}}$ of Secondary Education, op. cit., preface.

²W. O. Lester Smith, Education: An Introductory Survey (Baltimore, Md.: Pneguin Books, 1958), p. 54. Certain British and American scholars, however, contend that the "common school" was suggested by the work of Horace Mann; cf., pp. 47, 135.

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Functional problems. -- In theory, both English and American comprehensive secondary schools should represent true cross-sections of
the youth of the nation. Whether or not this ideal form of comprehensiveness can ever be attained is questioned by British scholar
Edmund J. King.

Ideally, to the pursuits in comprehensiveness, there should not be selection by residence or parental choice either; but the only way of ensuring this state of affairs (if desired) would be to provide only one type of secondary school, to make it include an accurate cross-section of the whole community, and to eliminate any such variants as private or parochial schools or schools attached to teachers' colleges. Such comprehensiveness does not exist even in the communits countries. It would not be tolerated in the United States. . . . 3

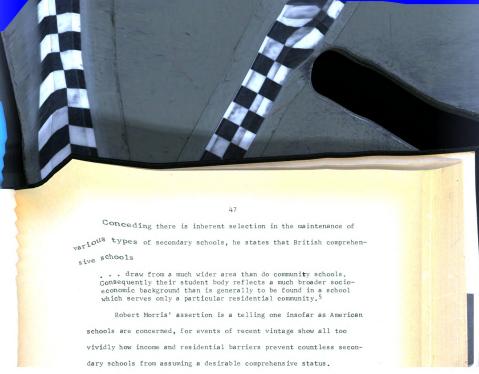
Events of recent months testify to the accuracy of King's remarks. The vast majority of top-level students in Britain still elect the grammar school as their first choice in the field of public-supported secondary education. The Conservative Party argues that English people care greatly about education, including freedom of choice as to the kind of education a parent can provide. And there appears to be little doubt concerning the future drawing power of the grammar school. American observers are quick to cite this siphoning off of talent as a sign that English comprehensive schools are not adhering to the basic principle of a common school. An official spokesman for Britain demurs.

³Edmund J. King, "Comprehensive Schools in England: Their Context," Comparative Education Review, III (October, 1959), p. 13.

⁴That Other Election," <u>Chicago Sun-Times</u>, Section 2, October 4, 1964, p. 2.

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Thus, for various and sundry reasons, many "comprehensive" schools in England and in the United States cannot qualify as such when measured against Dr. Conant's standard of educating all [italics his] the youth residing in a town, city, or district. But they can be judged against the three main objectives used in his famous study-namely, the need to provide a general education for future citizens

from all ranks of American life, to provide good elective programs for the terminus student, and to satisfactorily prepare students for college and university work. 6

True, there are significant differences in the means used by the two nations in their attempts to resolve the duties listed above. Despite the fact that each country professes to have "comprehensive" schools, basic philosophical beliefs account for wide variances in actual practice.

6Conant, The American High School Today, op. cit., p. 17.

⁵Robert W. Morris, "A Variation on the Theme: Dilemmas in British Education," Educational Imperatives of the 1960's: Bulletin of the Bureau of School Service, XXXIII (March, 1961), University of Kentucky, p. 29.

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Educating an elite. --British practice rests upon a long history of respect for an aristocracy of brain and character, similar to the Jeffersonian ideal of colonial America, and has served Britain well in the past.

A spokesman for the "conservatives" of English education contends that it has great value for the future of his country, too. Dispensing with the preparation of an intellectual elite in an aging and sparsely populated country like England would be an "act of national suicide," he warns. 7

However, one of the staunchest critics of England's traditional pattern of secondary education, Harold J. Laski, admitting to its production of some extraordinary individuals, stated that it was not a system which deliberately and consciously set for itself the purpose of elevating the common man.⁸ This should not be a surprising result, for elite education is the foundation of class distinction.

In Britain, during past decades, this combination of selective schooling

⁷R. A. Butler, "Education: The View of a Conservative," <u>The Yearbook of Education</u> (Yonkers-on-Hudson: World Book Co., 1952), Chapter 2, p. 35. A famed American scholar agrees. "Least of all," writes Robert Ulich,

can a modern democracy live without it [an elite]. With modifications required by the changes of time, Jefferson's plan to recruit an aristocracy of talent out of a broad social foundation is still the only one that will work, because it is just, realistic, and appreciative of excellence. The Education of Nations, op. cit., pp. 306-307.

⁸Harold J. Laski, Reflections on the Revolution of Our Time (New York: Viking Press, 1943), p. 225.

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class Privilege produced a "Christian Gentleman's" form of training. Products of this system, espoused by John Milton, have dominated British life, and are collectively termed the "Establishment."

The latter's control of secondary education is seen by an American observer as symbolic of the continuing strength of elitist values.

He writes: "It may even be argued that the power of the elite in Britain is supported more through its monopoly of good education than by any other source."

Searching for a broader base. --Political happenings of the past few years, however, suggest that a turning point in social as well as political history has arrived. An English correspondent notes:

What seems to be coming to an end is this long age of government by great schools, by Eton and Harrow, by Oxford and Cambridge, and by great families and patrician accents, 10

If true, the anticipated change may speed-up the comprehensive school movement in England. In any case, provisions must be made for educating all of the nation's talent. These are the thoughts of Lord Halisham, formerly Minister of Education for the Conservative government. He underscores the meaning of his statement in the following lines.

We can maintain our place in the world only if we deliberately set out to develop to the full all [italics his] the talent in the nation. To produce an elite class of leaders, even if that were morally and politically desirable, would not be enough. Our economic position alone demands that we make a conscious effort to educate all our people to the limit of their ability. 11

 $^{^9} S {\rm eymour}$ Lipset, "The British Voter, II: Sex, Age and Education," The New Leader, XLIII (November 21, 1960), p. 17.

^{10&}quot;Britons Study Turning Point," Christian Science Monitor, October 12, 1963, p. 1.

¹¹As quoted by Claude A. Eggerston, "English Education and the Cultures of East and West," Studies in Comparative Education, op. cit., p. 48,

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iate of se Posse for t in thi to oth Lord Halisham thus places himself in opposition to the philosophy set by his Conservative predecessor, "Rab" Butler.12 Butler's actions in pushing through the Education Act of 1944, however, had represented a break with the extreme rigidities of a class system of education. One indication of what this gradual disintegration of an elitist concept portends for the future of Britain is mirrored in the writings of Denis W. Brogan.

A most urgent problem is that of making secondary education available to far more of the able boys and girls born to poor parents, even if that means denying secondary education to the dull boys and girls who are often born to prosperous parents. 13

Brogan's statement appeared during the war years; a generation later Geoffrey Crowther used stronger language in assessing the state of secondary education in England. Admittedly, he wrote, England possessed a high quality of secondary schooling, but it was provided for too few. Moreover, "Under that top layer [I] believe that conditions in this country are bad; they are bad absolutely; they are bad relatively to other countries." 14

England at the cross-roads.--Plans for universal secondary education seem certain to encounter fierce opposition, for the proposal suggested by Brogan and underscored by Crowther strikes at the heart of the English system of education. The growing availability of

¹²cf., p. 55.

¹³Brogan, op. cit., The English People . . .; p. 39.

 $^{^{14}\}mbox{Geoffrey Crowther, "The Case for Advance," (pamphlet, The 1963 Campaign for Education, Hamilton House, London), p. 2.$

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the dominant classes that private (public) schools are the best. 15

Moreover, there has been a great swing by the middle class to these

same institutions in opposition to the provisions of the Education Act

of 1944.

Formation of comprehensive secondary schools has been an especially bitter blow for those persons comprising the English middle class. 16 Plans for comprehensive institutions in urban areas frequently have incorporated the grammar school thus depriving such families of a prized alternative to admission by the revered Public Schools. Now the comprehensive school movement threatens to destroy even this opportunity; any idea of adopting the solution suggested by Brogan would spark grim resistance.

If many Englishmen have been left embittered by the growing upsurge of comprehensive schools and other proposals for universal secondary education, the change in educational philosophy has offered new hope to countless British homes.

The ever-increasing opportunities of secondary and even university education which are available to boys and girls of promise have had their effect on working-class family life. The outlook of the parents as well as the child is enlarged. . . . It is no longer assumed without question that a lad will follow

¹⁵Roy Lewis and Angus Maude, <u>The English Middle Classes</u> (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1950), p. 261.

¹⁶colm Brogan, writing in The Educational Revolution (London: Frederick Miller Ltd., 1954), stresses the angry reactions of middleclass families to changes in English education.

qti of the tion take great giver kind, educa facili of Englishes, furnishes fu the same employment as his father or be taken on at the same factory or pit. This break-up of the old tradition 'like father, like son' is due in part to the increased interest of educational authorities. . . . 17

The debate grows.--When viewed against this background of education's pervasive effects, the raging debate over comprehensive schools in contemporary England reflects a cause and effect relationship.¹⁸

In 1958, T. L. Jarman wrote, the most controversial educational question in England was--"as it has been in recent years"--the question of what type of secondary education to provide. 19 Four years later, the research director for the University of London Institute of Education stressed that the biggest change in education since the war had taken place in the field of secondary education. 20

This controversy is labeled by Barbara Ward Jackson as the greatest since the nineteenth century, when public support was finally given to elementary schools in England.²¹ The need for skills of every kind, she continues, further emphasizes the far-ranging effects of education on such topics as apprenticeships, the expansion of scientific facilities, the system of schools, the rewards of teaching, etc.

¹⁷Sir George Reid, "The Human Side of Industry," <u>The Character of England</u>, ed. by Ernest Barker (Oxford, England: The Clarendon Press, 1947), p. 174.

 $^{^{18}\!\}mathrm{A}$ weekly reading of the London Times Educational Supplement furnishes ample evidence of the intensity of this debate.

¹⁹T. L. Jarman, "The Main Developments in Education in Great Britain in 1958," International Review of Education, V (September, 1959), p. 253.

²⁰John Vaizey, Britain in the Sixties; Education for Tomorrow (Baltimore, Md.: Penguin Books, 1962), p. 43.

²¹Barbara Ward, "John Bull X-Rays Himself," New York Times Magazine, July 14, 1963, pp. 8, 26.

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C. P. Snow is in basic agreement with Lady Jackson, and he that England is not coping with the scientific revolution. Both the Russians and the Americans, he avers, are more sensitive to the world they are living in.²²

Indeed, Russian accomplishments are used by critics in both England and the United States to cast aspersions on democratic education, nor is this criticism reserved for the comprehensive schools. English scholar W. O. Lester Smith attributes it to the ferment of modern times, stating that "this charge of aimlessness is not confined to the newer types of education, schools like the secondary modern or comprehensive, which have yet to establish a firm tradition."23

While the "radical" Socialists argue for all schools to be transformed to comprehensive ones, with a "common curriculum to ensure equality of educational opportunity," 24 present comprehensive schools are not expected, or even fashioned, to accomplish this objective.

Sir Geoffrey Crowther cautions that there is no retreat from the philosophy of selective education in England's secondary schools. "The only change," he declares, "is that a growing number of the people—but

²²C. P. Snow, Two Cultures (Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press, 1959), p. 35. Representatives from twenty-six European countries, including Great Britain, concurred in a general agreement that the traditional pattern of European secondary education had been disrupted by the pressures of population change and technological change, and that further modifications were needed. Report of Conference held at Sevres, France, School and Society, LXXXVI (December 20, 1958), pp. 460-461.

²³Smith, op. cit., p. 30.

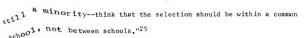
²⁴Brian Simon (ed), New Trends in English Education (London: MacGibbon & Kee, 1957), p. iii. The same point was made by a British observer writing for an American journal A. W. Rowe, "Average and Less in Britain," <u>Teachers College Record</u>, LXVI (October, 1964), p. 45.

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This limited change suffices to illustrate the basic challenge to the English philosophy of education; for the creation of a public-supported, democratic system of secondary education must overcome the resistance of class structure and outlook. American sociologist Seymour Lipset, summarizing his experiences in Britain, saw the lingering effects of a class system as a major obstacle in the path of educational reform.

Speaking out for the values of a comprehensive school, particularly with respect to its avowed purpose of bringing together pupils from all ranks of life, Lipset warned that segregation of adolescents into different schools reinforced a type of cultural deprivation already inherent in a class system. Simply broadening the base of secondary education will not be sufficient for Britain's needs, he continued, for "the fact that ability qualifies some of lowly origin to enter the elite does not change the class consequences." 26

²⁵Sir Goeffrey Crowther, "Contrasts in British and American Education," Major Speeches Delivered at the Conference of Maryland High School Principals and Supervisors, op. cit., p. 35. Among many others stressing the same fact is Allastair Buchan, "Britain Looks At Its Schools," Reporter, XXII (February 18, 1960), p. 31.

²⁶Lipset, <u>op. cit.</u>, p. 17. Two British sociologists concur with their American contemporary. Agreeing that the continued existence of a private school system and a highly-selective policy of college admissions has serious social consequences, they state: The effect which this latter feature [access to higher education]

The effect which this latter feature [access to higher education] in particular, may have on the social distribution of such educational facilities as exist still has to be explored in precise terms. But almost certainly it helps to give the patterns of educational inequality the character of a self-perpetuating cycle.

A lan Little and John Westergaard, "The Trend of Class Differentials in Educational Opportunity in England and Wales," The British Journal of Sociology, XV (December, 1964), pp. 301-302.

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In the United States

Represents a fundamental democratic belief. --Tracing the evolution of the modern American high school, the authors of a popular text in secondary school administration note that such a school is "congenial to and in harmony with some deep-rooted American democratic beliefs."

They continue:

This belief in equality which insists that all children ought to attend a common high school may appear naive and unrealistic to some, but $\{it\}$ is a very real belief and may provide an avenue for social integration of a people which is overlooked by those who profess to be impressed by the supposed educational efficiency of the specialized high school. 27

Furthermore, an undue stress on educational efficiency, writes Will French, overlooks the ultimate value of a comprehensive high school as part of a system of common education.

. . . Free, public, state-supported secondary education as an upward extension of the earlier common school has as its chief function the helping of all youth to become able to carry on their personal, social, and civic life at better levels than would be possible had youth education not been available at all.28

Crowther agrees that the American concept of secondary education

is linked to an attempt to serve social needs. And this is an imperative

need, he suggests, for only in a harmonious and balanced society can

"the principle of a democratic society work properly."29

²⁷Will French, J. Dan Hull, and B. L. Dodds, <u>American High School</u>
Administration: Policy and Practice (ed. rev.; New York: Rinehart &
Co., Inc., 1957), p. 91.

²⁸will French, "Role of the American High School," <u>Bulletin of</u>
the <u>National Association of Secondary School Principals</u>, XXXIX (February, 1955), p. 8.

²⁹Crowther, op. cit., p. 28.

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Yet as late as 1890 secondary education in America was highly selective. Then came the huge enrollments of the 1900's, with each decade witnessing a doubling of high school population. The secondary school was fast becoming the school for all adolescents in much the same sense as the elementary school was the school for all children. 30

This democratization of the secondary school forced it to redefine its purposes. Traditionally, the high school had fulfilled its mission by selecting and preparing youth for college; now each passing year was forcing it to take on the character of a terminal institution, Writing in 1925, Professor Leonard Koos outlined the significance of these changes.

The profound nature of the differences between this older selective concept of the role of the American secondary school and present-day concepts at once becomes apparent when one attempts to summarize recent statements of the purposes which should dominate secondary education . . . Over four-fifths of these statements propose training for social-civic responsibility, training for recreational and esthetic participation, training for physical efficiency, and training for occupational efficiency. That is to say, these leaders and groups of leaders are unanimous or wellnigh unanimous on the four large aims of an adequate education. Similar proportions urge a democratic secondary education which recognizes individual differences, while more than half propose a corollary purpose, affording opportunities for exploration and guidance. In striking contrast with these proportions are the small numbers contending that the secondary school should emphasize training for leadership and selection for higher education.31

³⁰cf., p. 32.

³¹Leonard Koos, Trends in American Secondary Education (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1927), pp. 8-10.

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the m the he This quotation serves to pinpoint the nature of the controversy concerning comprehensive schools in England and in America. Belief in the school's ability to act as an agent of social unity does seem naive and extremely unrealistic to critics. In England, these skeptics are supported by a long tradition of specialized schools; in the United States increasing racial tensions compound the issue of social equality, while concern for intellectual schievement and leadership presents additional perplexities.

Actually, in comparison with its British counterpart, the American comprehensive school is a venerable institution; and, in the opinion of Kandel, reflects the deep faith of American people in the importance and value of education. The provision of equality of educational opportunity for boys and girls between the ages of fourteen and seventeen, he submits, is "... the most striking expression of the faith of the American people in education..." This same belief, Kandel adds, is being severely tested in the crisis that has developed during the post-war years, 33

Much of this crisis has centered on the question of educating an elite to cope with the problems presented by modern civilization. The renewed popularity of ability grouping, sparked by the educational furor resulting from Sputnik's appearance in 1957, has raised anew the "elitist" issue in American education. Philip H. Phenix describes the basic issue.

³² I. L. Kandel, <u>History of Secondary Education</u> (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1930), p. 140.

^{331.} L. Kandel, "Some Unsolved Issues in American Education," Educational Forum, XX (March, 1956), p. 269.

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The tension between class and classification is nowhere more evident than in the continuing discussions over ability grouping versus mixed grouping in the schools, 34

Appearance of a scientific elite. --To add to the bewildering demands, a new conception of the term "elite" is forming in both England and America. The "privileged elite" of Britain and the "natural aristocracy" of Jeffersonian tradition are being replaced by a technological elite which recognizes no national boundaries. Its emergence is forcing changes in political philosophy, both in England and in the United States. That it may very well provoke similar effects in educational philosophy is a possibility suggested by the following account.

Political liberalism no longer entails a commitment to the belief that mass popular education shall be used to redeem the promise of an agalitarian democratic dream. The political liberal of today has not lost his commitment to the welfare of the common man, but he is likely to believe that in a mass technological society, the common Man's welfare is best served by training a scientific and technical elite that will define his goals and prescribe the means. Sputnik merely brought this change of perspective into the open, 35

If Dr. Harry Broudy is right, the fundamental problem confronting the comprehensive high school is, indeed, magnified. The need for a greater degree of "social comprehensiveness" is viewed as a paramount demand for secondary schools throughout England and Western Europe. 36

³⁴Philip H. Phenix, Education and the Common Good: A Moral Philosophy of the Curriculum (New York: Harper and Bros., 1961), p. 172.

³⁵Harry S. Broudy, "Conant on the Education of Teachers," Educational Forum, XXVIII (January, 1964), p. 201.

³⁶Milton J. Gold, "Europe Plans for Extended Schooling," Educational Forum, XXV (May, 1961), p.436.

tin th: Likewise, U.S. Commissioner of Education Francis Keppel has urged

Americans to discover---even at this late date"--whether they really
believe in a system of comprehensive rather than selective education.

Desires for comprehensive education, however, cannot neglect the need for differentiation within a common school. If England and the United States are to use the comprehensive high school as a means of realizing the goal of equal educational opportunity for all youth, then the programs offered must not be identical for all. "Different boys and girls of different ages, in different communities," writes a noted American educator, "may well need a variety of programs to produce common learnings," 38 It is of overriding importance to note this distinction. Otherwise, the three objectives cited at the beginning of this chapter are surely impossible for the comprehensive school to achieve.

³⁷As quoted in Education Summary, Pamphlet, XVII (April 1, 1964)

³⁸French, op. cit., p. 21.

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CHAPTER V

COMPARISON OF THE COMPREHENSIVE SECONDARY SCHOOL AS IT NOW EXISTS IN ENGLAND AND IN THE UNITED STATES

Objectives

Trying to meet universal needs.—Equality of educational opportunity can only be interpreted to mean the adaptation of education to the abilities and aptitudes of the pupils, asserts Kandel. In attempting to discharge this responsibility, the American comprehensive school, in his opinion, suffers from criticism directed at its alleged neglect of both the gifted and those below average in ability. Yet the American struggle to offer secondary education on a universal basis, for the first time, is now being mirrored by similar efforts in Britain.

General education. -- Proponents of the comprehensive school in England see it as a necessity if education is to aid that nation in developing a sense of social unity. Dr. Conant's stress on the role of general education in the preparation of future citizens is amply illustrated in Labour Party directives; 2 unfortunately, though, Labour is not united in its stand. Harold Wilson has maintained that priority

¹I. L. Kandel, The New Era in Education: A Comparative Study (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1955), p. 252.

²cf., p. 38.

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of 85 pe given to training more scientists and technologists.³ In contrast, a publication of the National Union of Teachers cautions that the "real test" of the success of comprehensive schools lies in their general education schemes.⁴

The difficulties inherent in reaching a consensus on the type of general education required are intensified by the behavior of the English citizen. "Half the electorate votes Labor in a general election," writes Edmund J. King, "but educationally the British remain conservative."

This conservatism is mirrored in their adherence to the ideal of a grammar school education. Identified in the minds of many Americans as the training ground of the English "gentleman," the grammar school's ties to a rigid policy of pupil selection and intensive preparation for external examinations are often overlooked or even unknown.

For the overwhelming demands inherent in America's approach to the issue of general education at the secondary level frequently prevent this country from carefully examining other systems. Much of this reluctance is seemingly bound up in the faith that American people have in the beneficent values of education. 5 Joseph Justman, in an article

³Wilson, op. cit., p. 84.

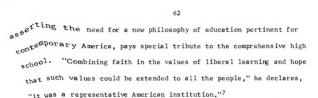
⁴S. W. B. Watson, "Educational Opportunities: Courses for Pupils Who Do Not Intend to Attempt Any External Examination," <u>Inside the Comprehensive School</u>, op. cit., p. 56.

 $^{^{5}} Edmund$ J. King, <u>Uther Schools and Ours</u> (New York: Rinehart and Co., Inc., 1958), pp. 96-97.

⁶Nor is this feeling confined to the United States. Noting that "no responsible government" can afford not to give its blessing to a policy of more education for its people, two British authors state that "Education has become the slightly miraculous panacea." Michael Hutchinson and Christopher Young, Educating the Intelligent (Baltimore, Md.: Penguin Books, 1962), p. 555.

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Ironically, a co-worker of Dr. Conant's submits that the man whose educational fame is so closely linked with the fate of the comprehensive secondary school is skeptical of its ability to satisfactorily resolve the duties implied by its "comprehensive" nature. Professor Merle Borrowman notes that Horace Mann evidently believed that all men are educable and that the schools could so equalize educational opportunities that differences in heredity or socio-economic background would be of little import. "On no issue is the difference between the two men clearer than on the issue of the relationship of the mass to the elite, of class to class."8

Two additional factors stand out in any attempt to compare

English and American forms of general education. Traditionally,

British secondary schools have prepared an elite for higher education,

Prior to the Education Act of 1944 general education for the populace

was viewed as a logical task of the elementary schools. In the United

States much of the difficulty confronting the establishment of adequate

⁷Joseph Justman, 'Wanted: A Philosophy of American Education," School and Society, LXXXIII (May 12, 1956), p. 159.

⁸Merle Borrowman, "Conant, the Man," <u>Saturday Review</u>,XLVI (September, 1963), p. 58.

? Ē 511 cf. 210 teti čary 1962 in Se tent, of suc divers locate the per With th 10 general education programs has derived from the dual commitment to those completing formal education at the secondary level and to those preparing for college.

The far-reaching implications of this dilemma were outlined in Franklin's Academy; in fact, Franklin himself appears to have had little sympathy for the humanistic studies so common to traditional schemes of general education.

Expanding the basic program. -- Dr. Conant's call for good elective programs for the terminus student also highlights a major contrast between England and American forms of the comprehensive school.

Prior to the appearance of comprehensive institutions, secondary education in Britain was carried out in specialized schools. In 1962, for example, 68 percent of the age group eleven to fifteen were in Secondary Modern Schools; Grammar Schools contained another 20 percent, with 5 percent enrolled in Secondary Technical Schools. 10 Comprehensive schools, though enrolling only 2 percent of the total number of such students, are thus faced with the task of preparing a truly diversified program of studies; particularly so, since they are mainly located in heavily industrialized, urban areas, or in new towns, where the percentage of students going on to higher education is quite low.

English views on secondary education have expressed disagreement with the great range of elective courses found in American high schools.

⁹Krug, op. cit., p. 20.

¹⁰At School in Britain, op. cit., back cover.

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of et in the of all Much of the English criticism directed at high schools in the United States is specifically aimed at this feature.

True, a great number of courses has been added to the curriculum of the American comprehensive schools. To a degree, these actions have reflected uncertainty as to what the school should do with its changing population make-up.

As new subjects were added to the curriculum and new course organizations were worked out to meet the needs of an increasingly diverse high-school population, the high-school program tended to become chaotic and confused. The fact was that the emerging high school had no model to serve it in giving order and system to its work. 11

By 1925, the realization was fast growing that the high school was for the most youth a terminal institution. The new goals of secondary education, as viewed within this context, were "social-civic competency, healthy living, constructive use of leisure time, and occupational efficiency." 12 These needs are no less urgent today, and the momentous changes of recent years have focused renewed attention on all four objectives.

The famed <u>Cardinal Principles of 1917</u> listed the development of ethical character as an additional objective. An educational journal in the United States recently devoted its entire issue to an examination of alleged weaknesses in this area. Comments from both British and American writers marked this particular issue, stressing the need for

¹¹Edwards and Richey, op. cit., p. 736.

¹²Ibid., p. 741.

vit inte curr Were a clarification of the basic dimensions of modern life. 13 It seems doubtful if this can be done in the secondary schools of either country unless stronger efforts are made to interpret and integrate knowledge from the various disciplines. An American observer described the essence of this problem which is even more acute today—twenty years later.

The application of the elective system was an easy, opportunistic way of meeting the enormous expansion in the field of knowledge which resulted from the application of science and scientific methods of investigation. It permitted expansion of the curriculum by simply adding new subjects, now particularly endemic at the level of college and secondary education . . . We did not try to interpret and integrate the new knowledge and are now facing a dilemma! 14

But the lack of clear-cut models persists. And today, when other nations, including Great Britain, are looking to the United States to provide this standard, many American high schools continue to reflect the same weakness which the Lynds detected in the 1930's. They condemned the practice of making alterations in the superstructure without examining the basic foundations of the comprehensive school.

Preparation for higher education. -- Pressure from commercial interests helped the academy to break with the format of the classical curriculum of humanistic studies. Over a century later, new attacks were directed at a purportedly overextended period of general education

¹³Phi Delta Kappan, XLVI (October, 1964).

¹⁴Guy T. Buswell, "Essential Functions of Education in a Democracy," Education in a Democracy, ed. by Newton Edwards (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1941), pp. 46, 48.

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£85 000 cha: 002 in American schools. 15 Spearheaded by President Eliot of Harvard, these criticisms were instrumental in paving the way for the broad range of elective courses now found in American schools. Both domestic and British critics of American high schools have been questioning this result ever since; but, again, these accusations often overlook fundamental differences in English and American concepts of secondary education.

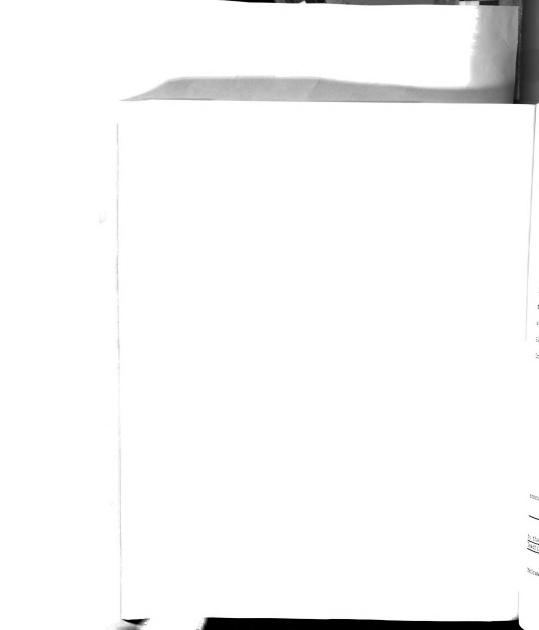
The grammar school has served as England's college-preparatory institution. Few pupils are admitted to higher education in Britain who have not received a grammar or "Public-school education. Failure to gain comparable status with the highly regarded grammar school has drastically affected the operations of comprehensive institutions.

First, many of the outstanding students in the area served by a comprehensive school enter the grammar school. Second, the esteem in which the latter is held has forced comprehensive schools to engage in a type of specialization which they were hopefully designed to counteract. Lastly, a combination of the above elements seriously challenges the "degree of comprehensiveness" present in many of England's comprehensive schools.

American secondary schools were originally designed to prepare an elite for college. ¹⁶ Such factors as the frontier influence, the rising tide of industrialism, the immigration patterns of the nineteenth century, and the Depression of the 1930's, all combined to create vast

Matthew W. Willing, "From 1890 to 1920 American Educators Changed the Purpose and Practice of High Schools," General Education in the American High School, ed. by Stephen M. Corey and Others (Chicago: Scott Foresman & Co., 1942), p. 53.

¹⁶cf., p. 23.



new demands. Then, the post-war ideological competition with Russia, personified by the appearance of Sputnik I, brought about a new emphasis on subject matter preparation.

Despite evidence that high schools fail to meet the needs of numerous students by continued allegiance to a more-or-less standardized college-preparatory curriculum, there are indications that entrance demands of institutions of higher learning will continue to dominate much of the thinking concerning the proper role of secondary schools.. In past years this relationship has fostered a great many problems, for the lack of understanding between college and high school creates ". . . wholly different worlds which should be in close communication." 17 Referring to this period of great social change, Dr. Conant gives his interpretation of why these "different worlds" came about.

When social changes in this century transformed the nature of the high school, the typical college professor himself was viewing with disgust and dismay what was happening in the schools. (I am reporting on personal observations of fifty years). With few exceptions, college professors turned their backs on the problem of mass secondary education and eyed with envy Great Britain and the Continent, where such problems did not exist. 18

Organizational Structure

<u>Inherent problems</u>.--English and United States educators alike concur with an observation made by the Headmaster of Forest Hill, one

¹⁷ Education of the Academically Talented: Summary of a Discussion by the Trustees of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching (New York: Annual Report, 1958-59), pp. 15-16.

¹⁸ James B. Conant, The Education of American Teachers (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1963), p. 5.

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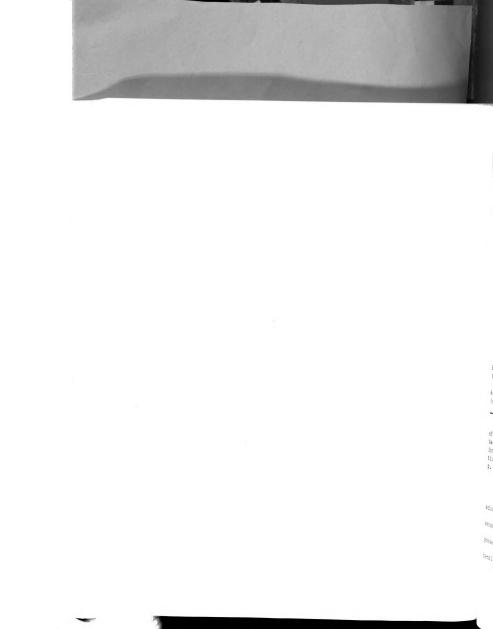
of London's most prominent comprehensive schools. A.E. Howard states:
"There is no typical comprehensive school." However, there are
general characteristics which should prevail in the organizational
structure of a comprehensive institution.

One of these features is reflected in Britain's attempt to provide for a balanced entry--i.e., approximately one-fifth of the pupils in any single comprehensive school should come from each of five ability groupings as judged by results of the Junior Leaving Examination.

But comprehensive schools are frequently faced with the necessity of dealing with a disproportionate number of students from the lower ranks of academic aptitude. Since English practice has permitted parents to nominate two schools at the secondary level, the prestige-laden grammar school normally draws off a large number of the most capable pupils. Schools located in new-town areas are particularly exposed to this condition, a fact which is illustrated in Table 5.

Many high schools in the United States likewise do not portray the idea of a "balanced entry." The link between residential areas and local schools frequently results in an unbalanced student body-intellectually and in a socio-economic sense. Comprehensive schools in

Inside the Comprehensive School, op. cit., p. 25. A survey of various organizational forms used in constructing English comprehensive schools is shown in Appendix F. It should be noted that British comprehensive schools do not operate on the type of school-week that is characteristic of high schools in the United States. Though English students, too, attend classes full days a week, the same subjects are not studied every day, nor is the British pupil scheduled on a weekly basis. For example, his sequence of courses may be based on a 7 or 10 day sequence. An illustration of this feature is revealed in Appendix J.





England, too, generally give enrollment preference to students living near the school. This issue presents an enormously complex and controversial problem for high schools in the United States and seems certain to do the same for Britain. At the moment, neither country appears ready with an answer to the question: "Can secondary schools reach a 'comprehensive' status and yet remain tied to local residential patterns?"

TABLE 5

AVERAGE LEVELS OF STUDENT APTITUDE, ENGLISH COMPREHENSIVE SECONDARY SCHOOL IN A NEW TOWN

Year of Entry	1959	1960	1961	1962
Intelligence Quotient				
(national average 100)	86	91	88	92
English Quotient				
(national average 100)	82	94	91	95
Arithmetic Quotient				
(national average 100)	87	91	94	96

aPedley, The Comprehensive School, op.cit., p. 66. Some indication of the significance of these scores is revealed in remarks that "a typical backward class is one with an average Intelligence Quotient of 76 and an intelligence range from 71 to 86..." F. A. Hobart, "Remedial Education in a Comprehensive School," Inside the Comprehensive School, op. cit., p. 103.

Seeking an acceptable format.--Programs offered by comprehensive schools in England do not differ radically from the customary forms of secondary education previously offered to British youth. This plan represents a deliberate move, fashioned in an effort to make the comprehensive school an acceptable form of schooling in the eyes of tradition-



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min^{ded} Englishmen.²⁰ Despite these attempts, the comprehensive school suffers from a condition common to all types of public-supported education in Britain. Professor John Sharp refers to it as the feeling that "nublic education is not for the best people."²¹

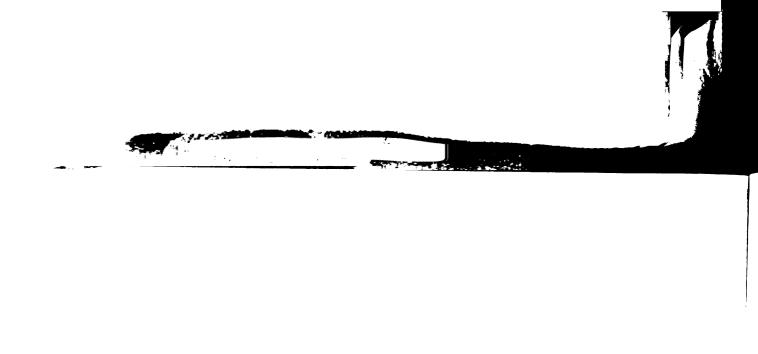
Robin Pedley is more specific, signalling out the intensive specialization of the sixth form as the "Achilles Heel" of comprehensive secondary education. 22 Because of these various elements, comprehensive schools thus far have failed to seriously challenge the traditional form of English secondary education.

Efforts to remain within the orthodox pattern of public education may be ill-conceived, in Britain and in the United States. Intensified demands for equality of educational opportunity coupled with the need for educating youngsters whose style of life sorely handicaps them in schools organized on the basis of heretofore acceptable structure seemingly call for a sharp break with the past. Yet the British comprehensive school, while a new idea in that country, is criticized

²⁰Robin Pedley, Comprehensive Education: A New Approach (London: Victor Gollanez, 1956), pp. 112-113; H. Raymond King, "The Comprehensive School in England: Broadening the Field of Opportunity and Stimulating Response," The Yearbook of Education, 1962, ed. by George Z. F. Bereday & Joseph H. Lawerys (New York: Harcourt, Brace & World, Inc., 1963) Section II, Ch. 1, p. 192.

 $^{^{21} \}rm{John~Sharp,}$ Educating One Nation (London: Max Parrish & Co., Ltd., 1959), p. 15.

²²Pedley, Comprehensive Education , op. cit., p. 196.

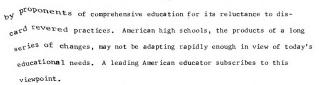


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In fact, the American secondary school as we know it today may not withstand its various impending crises. Structure that managed to expand and contract during a hundred years of generally effective movement now threatens to collapse completely under pressures inadequately planned for.²³

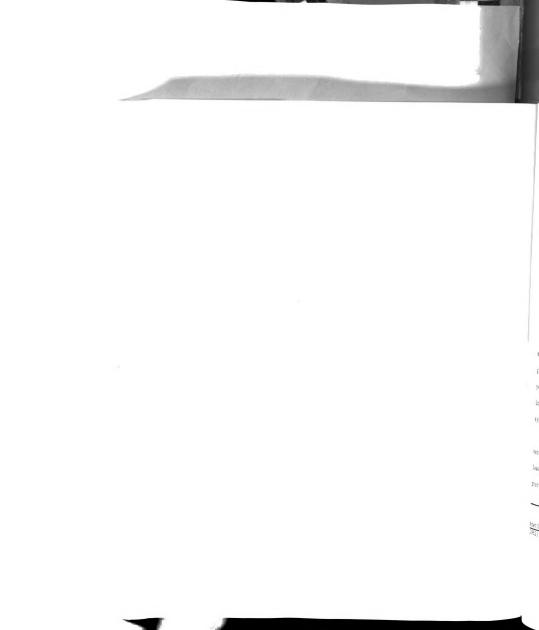
The issue of proper size.—In order to have a strong sixth form, English writers insist, it is necessary for the non-selective comprehensive school to have a catchment (student body) of 2,000 pupils. 24 On the other hand, the same type of school in rural regions suffers, as it does in the United States, from insufficient numbers of students necessary to make special classes economically feasible.

"To be reasonably comprehensive," declares an American educator,
"a high school of four grades must have a minimum of around 2,000 students."25 If this figure is a desirable one, then thousands of self-

²³John I. Goodlad, "The Increasing Concern for Effective Teacher Utilization," <u>The High School in a New Fra,</u> ed. by Francis Chase and Harold A. Anderson (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1958), p. 137. Studies of the possible relationships between the organizational structure of a school and student success and failure are currently underway at Johns Hopkins University, Dr. James Coleman, Director.

²⁴The Responsible Society (London: Conservative Political Centre, Pamphlet No. 200, March, 1959), p. 58. Supporters of comprehensive schools counter with remarks that Conservative attacks on the issue of size would be more impressive if so many of them were not made by persons loyal to Eton (1,180 boys) and Manchester Grammar School (1,340).

²⁵William P. McLure, "The Challenge of Vocational and Technical Education," Phi Delta Kappan, XLVIII (February, 1962), p. 214.



proclaimed comprehensive schools in America are seriously challenged.

Though many urban, as well as suburban, secondary schools have enrollments surpassing this mark, over 50 percent of the total number of high schools in the United States have less than three hundred pupils.

Information confirming this figure, along with additional data, appears in Table 6, page 73.

There are approximately 20,000 public high schools in the United States, and about 94 percent of these institutions classify themselves as generally comprehensive; however, this classification is not fixed to any specific form of organization. These facts are revealed in Table 7 on page 74.

Field studies for <u>Project Talent</u> discovered that the overall modal, secondary structure is the four-year high school consisting of grades nine through twelve. Schools with patterns based on a three-year sequence of grades ten through twelve were found to be predominant in the cities, with kindergarten through the twelveth year unitary systems most common in rural regions.²⁶

Complex forms emerging. -- Research findings emanating from the second stage of Project Talent indicate that no evidence exists, at least in the United States, to prove that size per se is a necessary prerequisite for student achievement; but, Dr. Flanagan adds: "Size

²⁶John Flanagan and others, Project Talent II: Studies of the American High School (Pittsburgh: University of Pittsburgh Press, 1962), Ch. 2, p. 5.



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TABLE 6

NUMBER AND PERCENT OF PUBLIC SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN THE UNITED STATES BY SIZE OF ENROLLMENT; SELECTED YEARS, 1930 TO 1959, INCLUSIVE

	19	1930	1946	9+	19	1959
Enrollment	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Small Schools						
1-9	*	*	234	1.0	39	0.2
10-24	2,077	9.3	975	4.0	216	6.
25-49	3,866	17.4	2,685	11.1	1,010	4.2
50-74	3,521	15.8	3,116	12.9	1,478	6.1
75-99	2,543	11.4	2,547	10.6	1,513	6.2
100-199	4,603	20.7	5,917	24.5	5,210	21.5
Medium-size Schools						
200-299	1,633	7.4	2,641	11.0	3,386	14.0
300-499	1,478	6.7	2,370	8.6	600,4	16.5
666-009	1,421	4.9	2,200	9.1	4,528	18.7
1,000-2,499	934	4.2	1,303	5.4	2,652	10.9
Large Schools						
2,500-4,999	134	9.	122	5.	181	1.
5,000 or more	27	.1	12	.1	4	-90.

*Data not tabulated in 1930.

apublic Secondary Schools (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1958-1959 Series), p. 7.

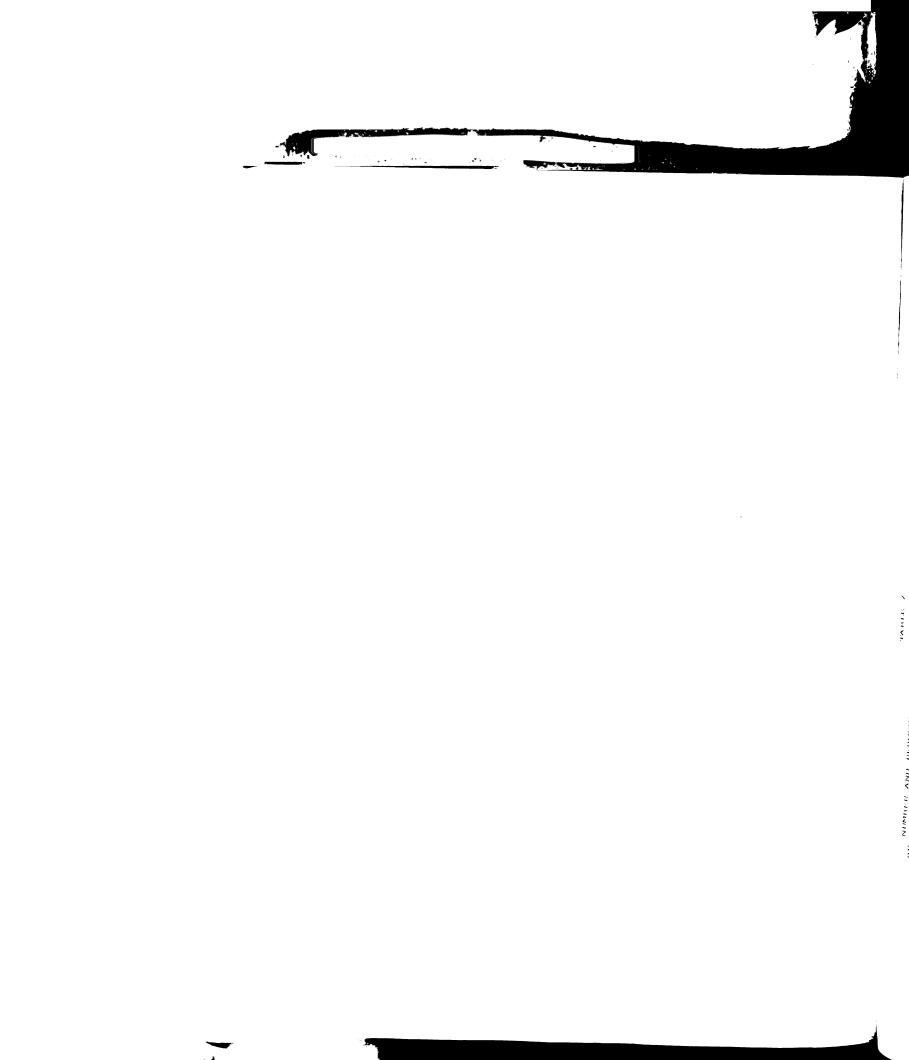


TABLE 7

BY TYPE OF SCHOOL: UNITED STATES, SELECTED YEARS, 1919-20 TO 1958-59 NUMBER AND PERCENT OF PUPILS ENROLLED IN PUBLIC SECONDARY SCHOOLS,

١	ypes	100.0 100.0 13,573 100.0 100.0
	All T	1,999,106 100.0 7,423,573 100.0 11,044,119
	Senior ³ Junior-Senior ⁴ All Types	276,504 1 13.8 1,812,063 7 24.4 3,536,921 11
Type of School	Senior ³	17,791 0.9 972,218 13.1 2,818,479 25.5
Type	Junior ²	37,331 1.9 1,408,584 19.0 2,749,602 25.0
	Traditional	1,667,480 83,4 3,230,708 43,5 1,939,117
	School Year	1919-20 Number Percent 1937-38 Number Percent 1958-59 Number

3Includes 3-year and 4-year senior high schools preceded by junior high schools. Includes 4-year high schools preceded by 8-year elementary schools. 2 Includes 2-year and 3-year junior high schools. 4 Includes 5-year and 6-year high schools

there is a growing trend involving the establishment of 6-3-3 districts in metropolitan areas 1964), p. 10. The above chart represents the most recent compilation from the U.S. Office of Education. However, the 8-4 plan has almost disappeared in the majority of states, persistunion high school districts that are separate from elementary school districts. In general, aDigest of Educational Statistics (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, American Education: An Introduction to the Teaching Profession, 3rd ed. rev. (New York: The ing chiefly in California and Illinois, where there are township high school districts and and 6-6 sequences in less populated, rural regions. Calvin Greider and Stephen Romine, Ronald Press Co., 1965), p. 292.



of a school is very important insofar as it controls course offerings and services."27

School size is also viewed as a vital factor in the individual student's perception of his role as a member of the school and of society. Thus English and American schoolmen are united intheir efforts to combat charges that "bigness" has made comprehensive schools highly impersonal, often psychologically damazing, institutions.²⁸

In their efforts to establish an adequate sixth form, to create a social community, and to counteract the type of accusation cited above, comprehensive schools in England have developed some extremely complex organizational patterns.

Academic streaming, similar to multiple tracking procedures in America, is employed. The House system, adapted from the "best feature of the English Public School," is frequently used to help build a sense of community and to add a semblance of close personal relationships within the larger structure. ²⁹ Here, too, comprehensive schools reflect their British heritage, states an American observer.

²⁷<u>Ibid.</u>, Ch. XI, p. 5. A recent study conducted by Temple University also disclosed that school size, considered by itself, is not related to student achievement. <u>The Nation's Schools</u>, LXXIV (September, 1964), p. 98.

²⁸The argument that large schools have certain "dangers" appears, for example, in <u>Practices and Principles of Secondary Education</u>. The authors state that the excesses of departmenualization, the difficulties of cooperative study by the staff, and the impersonal relations between staff and pupils are severe problems in large high schools and have never been properly evaluated in the rush for school consolidation. Vernon E. Anderson and Paul K. Grim, authors (New York: The Ronald Press. Co., 1951), p. 498.

²⁹Howard, op. cit., p. 29.



It should be noted that the comprehensive schools have been grappling with the problem [of size], adopting the school uniform, the house system, and the sports organization among other means of developing 'belongingness' and a sense of tradition. Such procedures reveal a concern for educational purposes other than training in intellectual or manual skills, and are to be found throughout the school systems. Perhaps in the way they operate and the values they teach, they are the characteristics which distinguish British education from that of other countries. 30

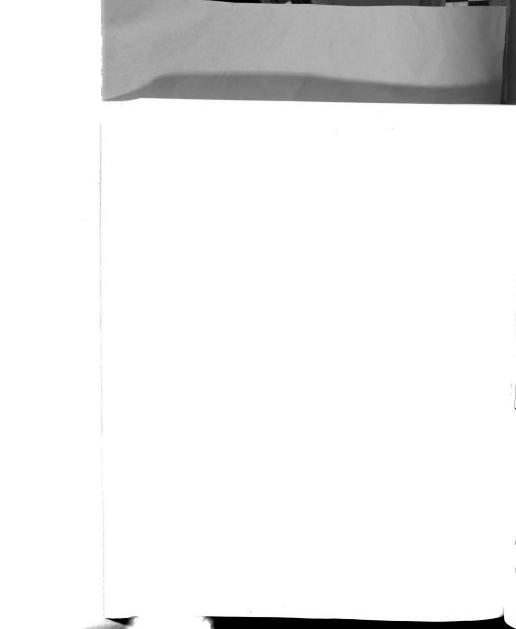
Illustrations of the House system are revealed on pages 77 and 78. Tutors may be assigned to a set, or small group, of pupils within a specific subject matter area--e.g., Wandsworth School; or tutor masters may be assigned by the House affiliation instead--e.g., Forest Hill School.

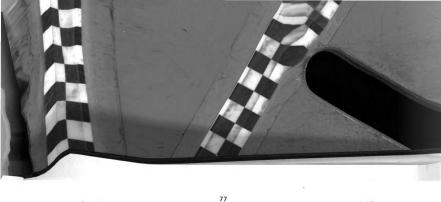
American comprehensive schools, in turn, have borrowed from the British. Some have incorporated certain features of the "House" plan--i.e., dividing the school plant into "Houses," whereby administration, guidance, and teaching functions are linked directly to a specific group of students. An example of this form is represented by Figure 3, page 79.

Many other high schools have been forced by circumstances to work with older facilities, trying to improve them by using conventional classrooms as homerooms for small groups of students.

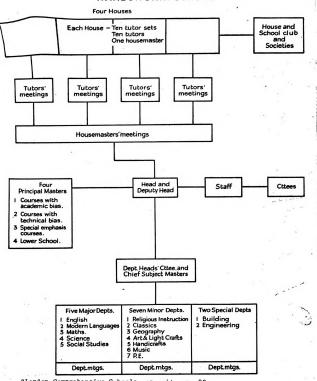
Perhaps the major issue confronting current organizational patterns of comprehensive schools in both England and America rests in an American appraisal of British practices. Rigid systems of streaming,

³⁰Max Eckstein, "Britain's White Paper in Education and Its Implications," Comparative Education Review, III (June, 1959), p. 17.

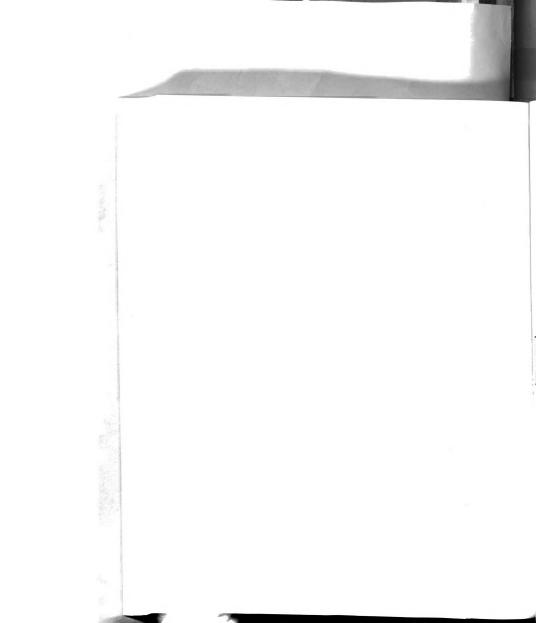




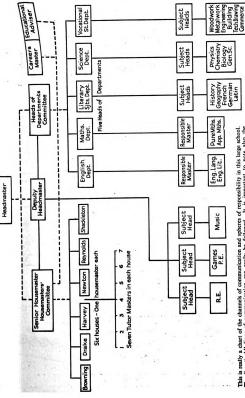
WANDSWORTH SCHOOL



aLondon Comprehensive Schools, op. cit., p. 23.



78



FOREST HILL SCHOOL

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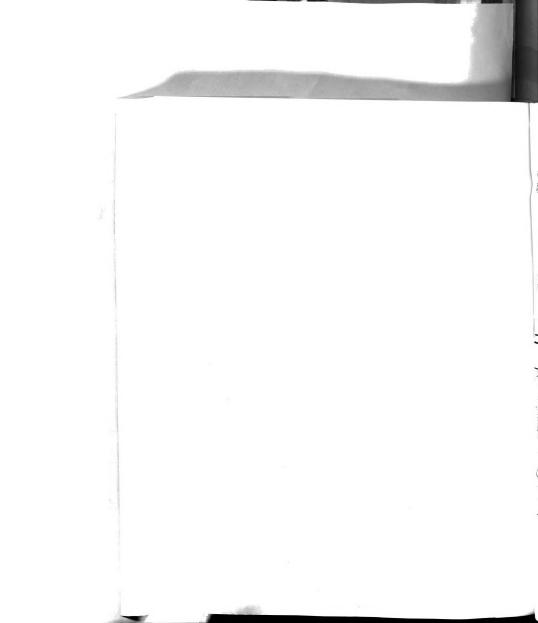
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ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE, FOREST HILL COMPREHENSIVE SCHOOL LONDON, ENGLAND

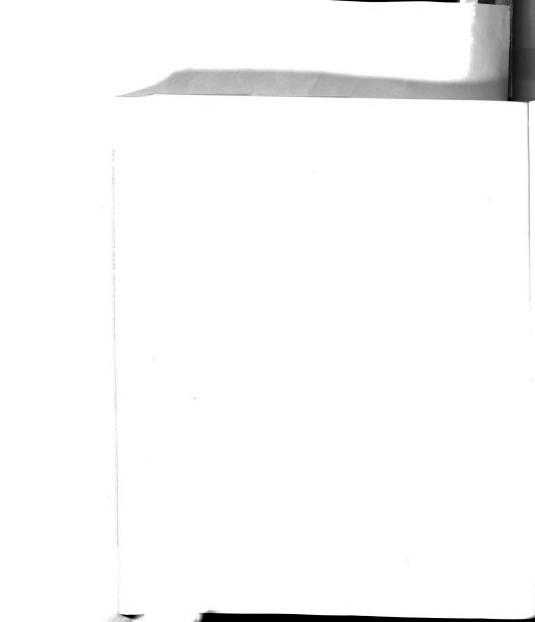


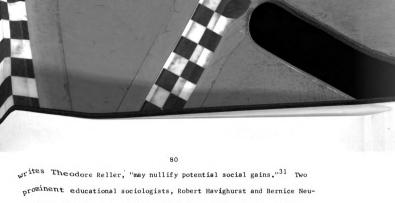


79

udi torium HOUSE PLAN OF ORCANIZATION, NEWTON SOUTH HIGH SCHOOL NEWTON, MASSACHUSETTS The plan of the school. FIGURE 3

 $^{\rm aE}{\rm ducational}$ Facilities Laboratories, Inc. (pamphlet) New York: February 1960, p. 7.





rites Theodore Reller, "may nullify potential social gains." Two
prominent educational sociologists, Robert Havighurst and Bernice Neugarten, echo his remarks with respect to American schools, stating
that failure to provide for meaningful ways of bringing together students from the various curricula within a comprehensive school may
easily destroy any chance of developing social unity. 32

These observations are very pertinent ones, for they directly relate to the fundamental question of whether the comprehensive school can satisfy both intellectual <u>and</u> social needs in an era when each is making greater demands.

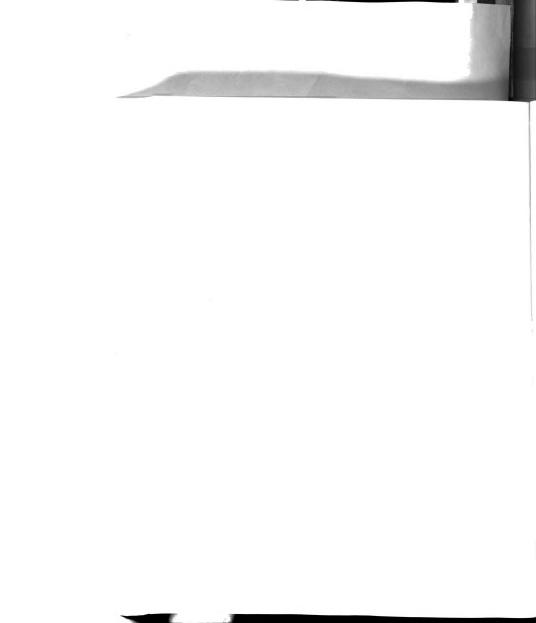
Student Population

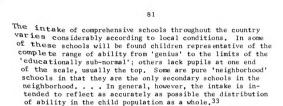
Marked by great variability.--Optimum forms of school organization cannot be profitably discussed without examining the student
population of British and American comprehensive schools. Such institutions are charged with educating groups of adolescents fundamentally
"new" to secondary education.

A passage written by the headmaster of Walworth Comprehensive School, London, is strikingly reminiscent of descriptions of high schools in the United States.

³¹Reller, op. cit., p. 68.

 $^{^{32}}$ Robert Havighurst and Bernice Neugarten, Society and Education (Boston: Allyn & Bacon, Inc., 1957), pp. 272-273.



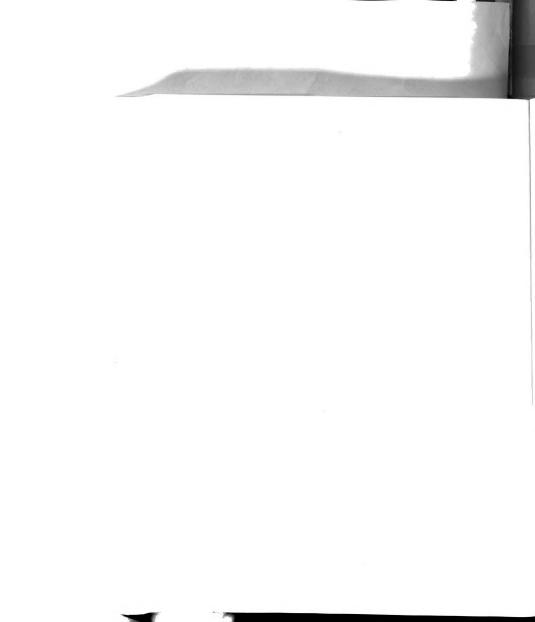


Engrained beliefs in the value of local control have characterized the educational history of the United States. And, with the exception of certain sectors of the East, the student bodies of comprehensive schools in the United States do reflect the make-up of the community or neighborhood in which they reside. While this relationship is similar to that of a growing number of such school-community patterns in England, the complex problems facing urban high schools cast a shadow over the future well-being of the practice.

The pupil population of an individual school building mirrors the sociological make-up of the residential area served. This has been the basis of the segregation problem in the northern cities. Such a reflection may not occur in districts where school buses permit the arbitrary assignment of pupils to school buildings, but even such shiftings seldom make the social composition of a school's pupil population radically different from that of its neighborhood. Therefore, population trends affecting a neighborhood affect a school's educational program, since the nature of that program depends in part upon the nature of the pupils served.34

 $^{^{33}\}text{G.}$ A. Rogers, "Educational Opportunities: Intake and the Early Years," Inside the Comprehensive School, op. cit., p. 31.

³⁴Lonsdale, op. cit., pp. 40-41.





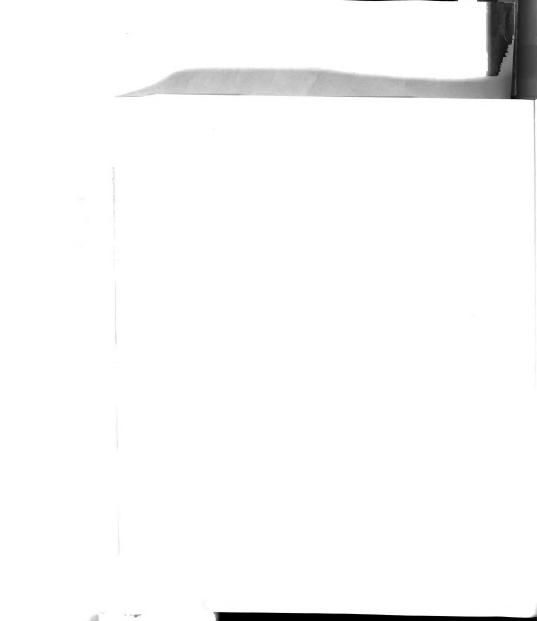
Influence of external examinations.--The school curriculum is central to all other problems of secondary education, assert the authors of a recent British publication. They ask: "Are we teaching the right things?"35

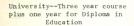
In general, comprehensive schools in England have done little to change the basic curriculum; much of their energy has been concentrated in fashioning a type of organization which, hopefully, could foster a sense of social unity. Attempts along this line, however, have included efforts to meliorate the competitiveness inspired by the existence of a national set of examinations and to broaden and enrich the curriculum in order to retain and attract a greater percentage of secondary-age youth.

In theory, every secondary school in England can determine its own curriculum, ³⁶ But the aforementioned examinations, though taken mainly by grammar school students, and the efforts entailed in trying to remain within the traditional context of English education militate against drastic curricular modifications. An illustration of the controls imposed by these external examinations is shown in Figure 4, page 83. Though the English Ministry of Education clearly states that examinations must follow and not determine the curriculum, it is easy to see that preparation for them must, of necessity, play a major role in the programming for students.

³⁵Hutchinson and Young, op. cit., pp. 58-59.

³⁶In fact, a famed British educator, Joseph Lauwerys, states that it is the Head Master, not the Ministry and not the Local Authority, who determines the curriculum of his school. "Comments by British Educators," Studies in Comparative Education, op. cit., p. 3.





7-6-5Three year training College for Teaching Certificate

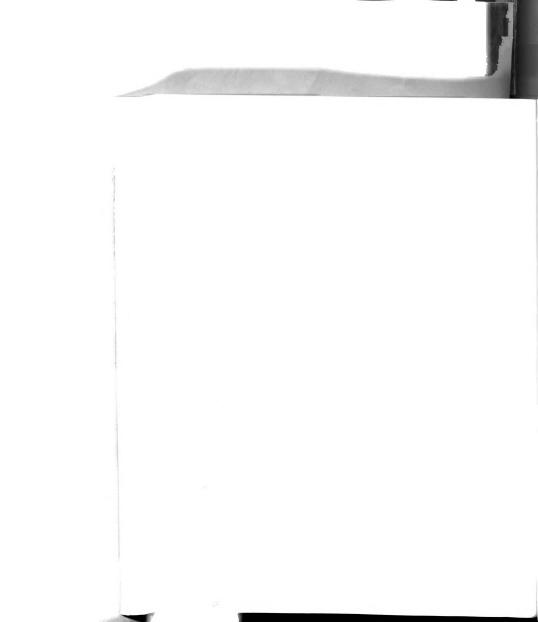
18-	General Certificate of Education: "A" or "S" Level
17-	
16-	General Certificate of Education: "O" Level
15-	Certificate of Secondary Education
14-	
13-	
12-	
11-	Examination for Allocation of Places in Grammar Schools, Secondary Technical, or Secondary Modern
10-	
9-	
8-	

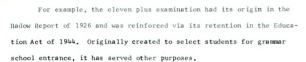
^aCompulsory attendance laws are in effect until age fifteen. The Crowther Report urged that the age be raised to sixteen. Students in England attend classes approximately 236 days per year. Thus they often spend a large total of <u>days</u> in school even though they devote fewer years to actual attendance than do American pupils.

b_{The sixth} form normally includes the years sixteen to eighteen. Generally speaking, the only avenue to higher education through the public-supported system is via the Secondary Grammar School.

FIGURE 4

RELATIONSHIP OF EXTERNAL EXAMINATIONS TO THE EDUCATIONAL STRUCTURE OF ENGLAND





S. J. Curtis points to its relationship to the official school leaving age, declaring that as long as the latter remained fixed at fourteen, "it was necessary to make the transfer to post-primary school at eleven-plus in order to ensure that every child would have a three-year course." Ourtis also replies to those who criticized the Butler Act for accepting the selective features of the Hadow Report. He notes current demographic pressures, and, in company with other supporters of external examinations, adds that so long as the number of potential applicants to universities exceeds the number of available places selection is inevitable. 38

London school authorities dropped the eleven plus system of examinations in 1963; among those hailing the move was Sir Eric Ashby, master of Clare College, Cambridge. British schools have been unscientific, he charged, and of value only to a privileged few. This

³⁷S. J. Curtis, <u>History of Education in Great Britain</u> (London: University Tutorial Press Ltd., 1948), p. 35.

³⁸Ibid. The same point is made by R. A. C. Oliver, "Education and Selection," Examinations and English Education ed. by Stephen Wiseman (Manchester: Manchester University Press, 1961), p. 174.

³⁹Phi Delta <u>Kappan</u>, XLV (November, 1963), p. 119.



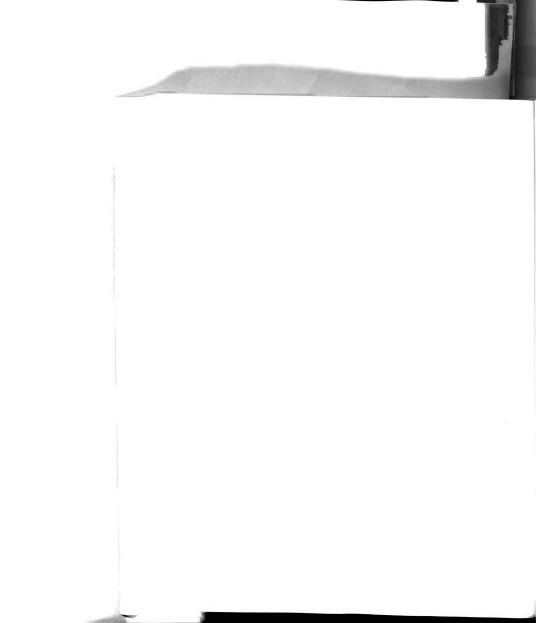
External examinations have been less important in determining the curriculum content of American comprehensive high schools, with the Regents' Examinations in New York State a notable exception. 41 But the influence of testing programs is increasing as demands for higher education spiral upward. And while the role of outside examinations has not been a particularly significant one, college requirements, as manifested in a subject-centered, secondary-school curriculum, have left a lasting imprint on high school practices.

Pervasive effects of the sixth form.—Max Eckstein notes that, in order to be accepted by the British people, "comprehensive schools must prove themselves as good as grammar schools according to the latter's criteria of what is good."⁴² One manifestation of this criteria is seen in the efforts made by comprehensive schools to maintain strong sixth forms. This same specialization, which also marks the British universities, threatens the basic purposes of the comprehensive secondary school since it is committed to a different social philosophy. True, these schools have attempted to soften the effects

 $^{^{40}\}mathrm{Sir}$ Eric Ashby, "Education as Investment in Man," $\underline{\mathrm{Overseas}}$, III (March, 1964), pp. 8-14.

⁴¹Among the numerous sources confirming this contrast in British and American systems of secondary education are Everett, op. cit., p. 55; W. O. Lester Smith, op. cit., pp. 56-57; Ulich, The Education of Nations, op. cit., pp. 124; Cramer and Browne, op. cit., pp. 34-35; Ketcham, op. cit., p. 41.

 $^{^{42}\}mbox{Eckstein},$ "Present Trends in English Secondary Education," $\mbox{op.}$ cit., p. 8.



The danger of excessive specialization, as mirrored in the attention lavished on the sixth form, Robin Pedley asserts, is that it may combine with the element of size to nullify the goals of a plan for comprehensive education.

It appears that steadily increasing size theoretically makes possible a broadening of the education of the English boy and girl, since more teachers and subjects can be provided; in fact, it usually becomes narrower and more specialized. As the pupils go up the school, the concentration on a comparatively narrow field increases. . . .

One consequence of this arrangement is that although a grammar school of 700 pupils or a comprehensive school of 1200 may offer altogether as many as twenty Sixth Form subjects, since each boy takes but two or three for examination purposes the size of each class is usually small, that is, ranging from one pupil to a dozen. 43

Moreover, the Robbins Report substantiates Pedley's argument. Students are taking the "O" level examination as soon as possible, the Committee found, in order to devote more time to studying for the "A" level. Consequently, intensive preparation for examinations is nullifying many aspects of the general education program.

 $^{^{43}}$ Robin Pedley, "The Effect of the Size of the School," $\frac{The}{343-344}$. Yearbook of Education, 1958, op. cit., Section III, Ch. 6, pp. $\frac{343-344}{343-344}$.



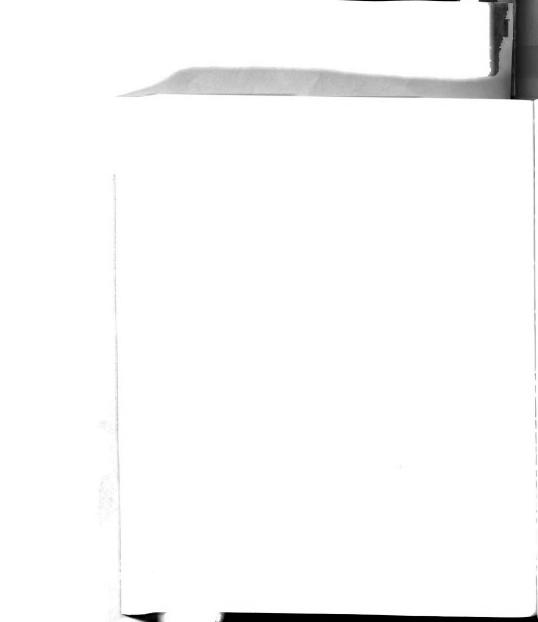
Although subjects taken for examination do not always correspond to the whole range of subjects studied, these figures suggest strongly that, even at this level [11-15] there is in many schools an excessive narrowing of the area of study.44

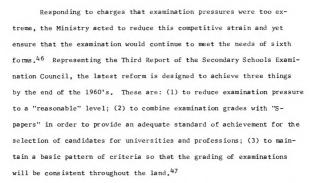
The Robbins Report also submitted that present conceptions of sixth form were too narrow for many pupils. Prior to the issuance of the Report, comprehensive schools were attempting to broaden their curricula and to expand opportunities. They have managed, at least in London, to rid themselves of the eleven plus examination. In addition, recent changes in the examination process have abetted their cause.

Changes in the examination system. -- No university in England accepts the statement of a secondary school as sufficient evidence for student admission. Examinations for the General Certificate of Education are normally held in June; three levels are involved. In 1951 the Ministry of Education acted to relieve the pressures created by this testing program. Students were given the choice of electing an "ordinary," "advanced," or "advanced with scholarship" level. 45 Ten years later, in May, 1961, the Minister of Education announced alterations in the Advanced Level of the General Certificate of Education examination.

⁴⁴ Higher Education in Great Britain: Report of the Committee Appointed by the Prime Minister under the Chairmanship of Lord Robbins 1961-63 (London: HMSO, 1963), p. 76.

⁴⁵Appendix G provides examples of questions used on the eleven plus series of examinations; a comparison of sample questions taken from the "O" and "A" levels of the General Certificate of Education Examination and from the College Board Achievement Tests used in the United States are contained in Appendix H.

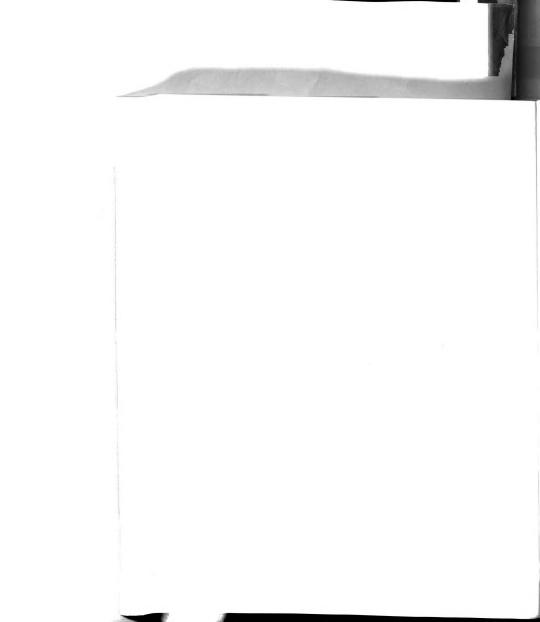




The Fifth Report of the same Council proposes that a new examination, the Certificate of Secondary Education, be offered to certain students beginning in 1965. Designed for students who normally could not qualify for the General Certificate of Education and who would not anticipate enrolling in the sixth form, the examination would be taken during a student's fifth year of secondary schooling (age fifteen). Future employers would be provided with some evidence of the youth's scholastic background, and ideally, each school would gain more freedom in constructing an examination best fitted to its own students. An externally-approved syllabus may be followed in devising tests for the

⁴⁶Young and Hutchinson, op. cit., p. 165.

^{47°}S" means "special;" it indicates a paper written by the more able candidates and is designed to range beyond the basic requirements of sixth form specialization.





C.S.E., but schools are urged to develop their own and then submit them to examining boards for approval. Thus far, deplores the <u>London</u>
<u>Times Educational Supplement</u>, few institutions are taking advantage of this opportunity. 48

Curricula modifications in the United States,—Revisions in secondary school practices in the United States also are underway.

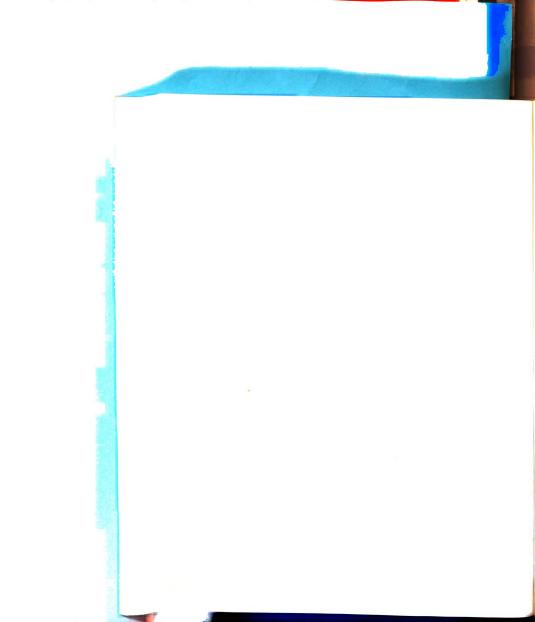
For the most part, these have not represented drastic changes in the basic operational structure. Furthermore, Lloyd Trump, whose name is linked with changes in American public education, suggests that gradual modifications may represent the wisest move. Unlike Great Britain, where a national edict can set the stage for sweeping changes, 49 the local autonomy of American schools militates against widespread reforms.

In general, though, the fundamental trend in curriculum planning for high schools in the United States has followed in line with an enlarging concept of the job which secondary schools should do. That trend continues to dominate curriculum developments in 1965.

But this system of enlarging and diversifying the secondary school curriculum obscures an even greater need to define and analyze areas of

⁴⁸London Times Educational Supplement, November 27, 1964, p. 961.

⁴⁹An editorial in <u>Science Magazine</u> describes other differences. "Curriculum organization in this the United States country called for I-year courses in biology, chemistry, and physics. The British system has permitted them to start with 5-year sequences in each of these fields. . . Thus they have been able to adopt a much more longitudinal or developmental approach than we have." Course content Improvement, British Style," <u>Science Magazine</u>, CXLII (December 6, 1963), p. 1263.

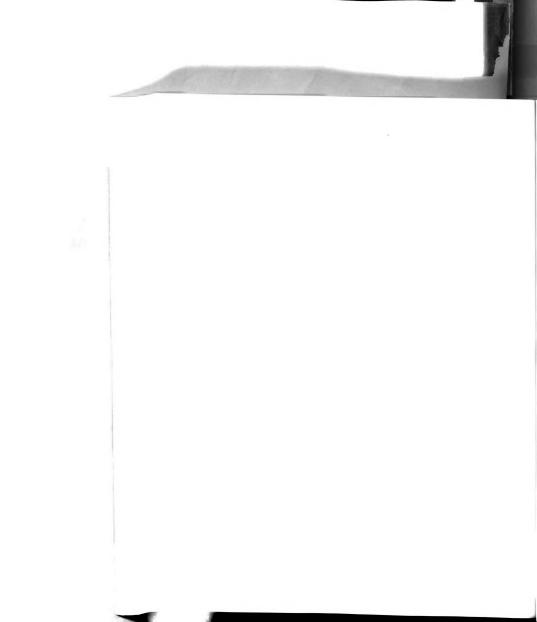


During the decade of the 1930's the problems of youth served as the central foci of an unusual series of experiments in curricular revision; outstanding among these was the Eight-Year Study. 50 Despite evidence that students involved in this study did as well or better than their contemporaries in orthodox programs--i.e., in terms of success in college--there is little in high school practices today to indicate that the Study ever took place. The stress on individual subjects, continued reliance on the Carnegie Unit, and the influence of university admission policies stand in the way of devising a program more in line with the needs of many high school youth.

The Carnegie Unit.--Any attempt to integrate separate disciplines, let alone the inauguration of major curricular changes, must reckon with this form of measurement of secondary work. Unique to America, and originally developed to bring order into both college and high school education, the Carnegie Unit still dominates about 65 percent of the academic programs offered by secondary schools in the United States.51

⁵⁰Progressive Education Association, Thirty Schools Tell Their Story (New York: Harper and Bros., 1943).

^{51&}quot;The History of the Carnegie Unit," Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals, XLVIII (January, 1964), p. 19. Appendix I contains an illustration of the Carnegie Unit system as it affects the curriculum of a typical mid-western, urban high school.

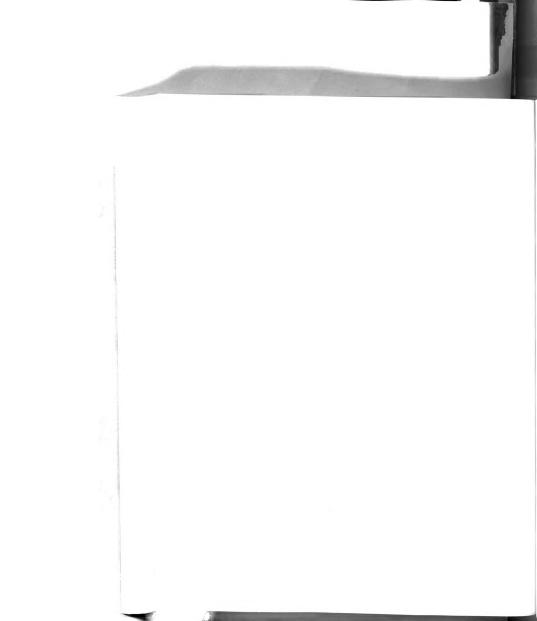


An American high school student may enjoy a wider range of choices within a single discipline area than his British counterpart, but critics of the unit system charge that it keeps the high school curriculum college-centered, with needed innovations in the program unduly restricted.

Though a follow-up study of the graduates from the "Thirty Schools" disclosed that unit requirements for admission to college failed to reveal the fitness of all potential candidates, there seems to be no sizeable amount of opposition to the system, either from high school or from university ranks. Consequently, no satisfactory substitute has been clearly defined and agreed on.

Grouping practices.—Ability grouping represents one form of endeavor conceived to accommodate the standard curriculum to the varying needs and abilities of individual students. A long-accepted practice in British schools, where it is referred to as "setting," grouping in American secondary schools has spread rapidly in the last decade. Although it is not a new procedure, particularly in major cities, the division of students for instructional purposes encounters fierce opposition.

Opponents see it as a divisive force within the school community; furthermore, in racially-mixed schools the lower levels of ten consist of a preponderance of minority groups--e.g., Negroes, Puerto Ricans, Mexicans--and "poor whites" from the South, a combination presenting all types of serious problems for teachers and administrators. Bruno Bettelheim, Director of the Orthogenic School at the University of Chicago, is a severe critic of grouping practices, linking them to an





How does Sputnik enter the picture? It was the feeling of defeat that Sputnik aroused that set off insistent demands, first, for more and better scientists, and, second, for special provisions for the education of the gifted.

The purpose of such a school [that uses grouping] is as much to set off an intellectual elite as to secure more scientific talent. . . .52

Dr. Bettelheim has continued his attacks on grouping as a method of establishing an educational elite within American schools; 53 but, during a recent public appearance, he disavowed any opposition to special classes for the gifted. Moreover, Dr. Bettelheim said his stand was not to be interpreted as steadfast opposition to the practice of grouping; rather he was raising a warning voice that little evidence exists to support grouping as a way of improving learning, and "we should try to go after the evidence."54

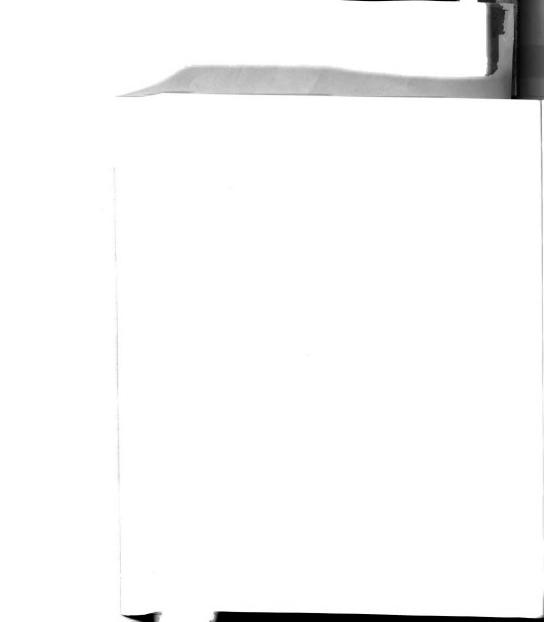
A common curriculum, --A strong feeling persists among English schoolmen that the general education program is the most important phase of the secondary school curriculum, 55 In comprehensive schools this program is based on three points.

 $^{^{52}} Bruno$ Bettelheim, "Segregation: New Style," $\underline{School\ Review}$, LXVI (Autumn, 1958), pp. 251, 272.

⁵³See "Speaking Out: Stop Pampering Gifted Children," <u>Saturday Evening Post</u>, CCXXXVII (April 11, 1964), pp. 8, 10.

^{54&}quot;Reactions to a Magazine Article Entitled 'Stop Pampering Our Gifted Children,'" Gifted, Talented, Creative: A Workshop Report (Evanston, Illinois: Elementary School District 65), p. 7. (mimeographed)

⁵⁵See Rogers, op. cit., pp. 35-36; Pedley, op. cit., The Yearbook of Education, pp. 343-344; Rusholme, op. cit., p. 5.



A diagnostic period, usually catering to pupils from ages eleven to thirteen, and often referred to as pre-secondary, serves as the foundation. A sequence of required courses follows during the third and fourth years. 56 Concomitant with this basic core of general education is the opportunity of studying an additional group of subjects, the series chosen depending on the ability, achievement, and interest of the pupil. An example of this plan is found in the general education program at the Great Barr Comprehensive School, Birmingham, England, as illustrated on page 94. The required subjects reflect the basic disciplines of language, mathematics, and science, both natural and social. All students must choose from these categories. Groups one through four indicate other possibilities for the student, depending on a particular individual's ability and performance. These additional sequences are similar to the elective system found in United States comprehensive schools, but student choice is more closely governed by school dictates in England.

Reference was made previously to the large number of courses taught in American high schools.⁵⁷ Today, however, there is a growing concern that the idea of a common curriculum emphasizing general education should receive careful consideration. A recent publication,

⁵⁶British schools use the term "course" when referring to a sequential program of study; the term "subject" when speaking of a single unit of work.

⁵⁷cf., p. 72. .

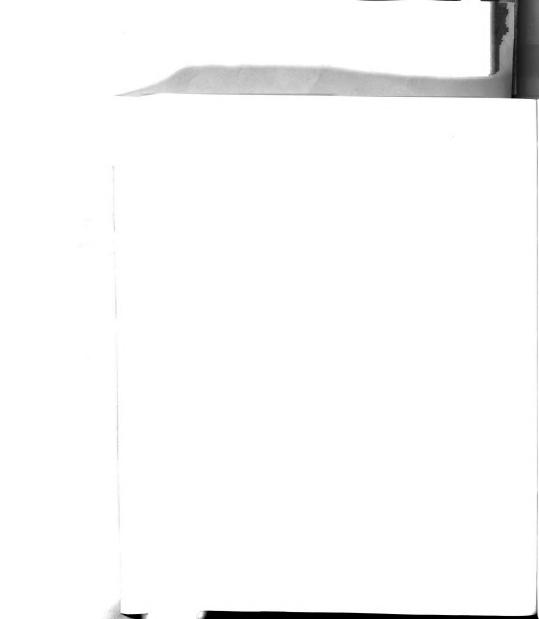




TABLE 8

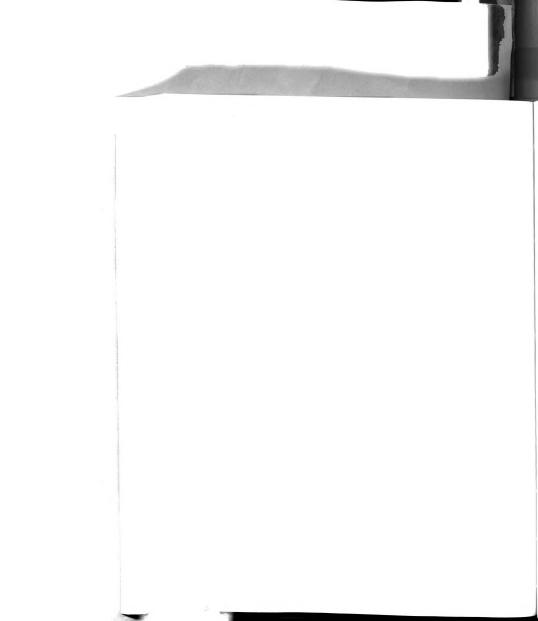
GENERAL EDUCATION PROGRAM, GREAT BARR COMPREHENSIVE SCHOOL,
BIRMINGHAM, ENGLAND

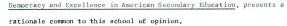
Required Subjects	Group One	Group Two	Group Three	Group Four
English Literature	Me	Ge	GS	EC
English Language	EG	La	A	H
Mathematics	Wc	Α	Mu	G
French	GD	Mu	Dr	A
Physics or Biology	A	Dr	RE	Mu
History	Но	RE		Dr
Geography	Nc			RE
Religious Education Physical Education	GS			

Key to Abbreviations

Α	. Art	H History
Dr	. Drama	Ho Housecraft
EC	. Elementary Commerce	La Latin
EG	. Engineering Drawing	Me Metalcraft
G	. Geography	Mu Music
Ge	. German	Nc Needlecraft
GD	. Geometrical Drawing	PE Physical Education
GS	. General Science	RE Religious Education
	Wc Wood	craft

^aO. Benyon, "Educational Opportunities: The Middle School and the Build-Up of Courses," Inside the Comprehensive School, op. cit., pp. 41-42. For an illustration of the complexity of grouping procedures accompanying a program of this general nature see Appendix J.





American secondary education can and should be common education, in the sense that it is basically the same for all in regard to what is taught. 58

This form of general education would not be a "survey of generally everything," a criticism hurled at American high schools, but would represent an "essential set of key concepts, skills, and logical operations." 59

These studies, according to the authors, would closely parallel the basic nexus of general education schemes in England. The main types of instruction would include: (1) Symbolics of information--English, foreign language, and mathematics; (2) Basic sciences; (3) Developmental studies--social science; (4) Exemplars--art, music, drama, literature; and (5) Molar problems--contemporary social problems.⁶⁰

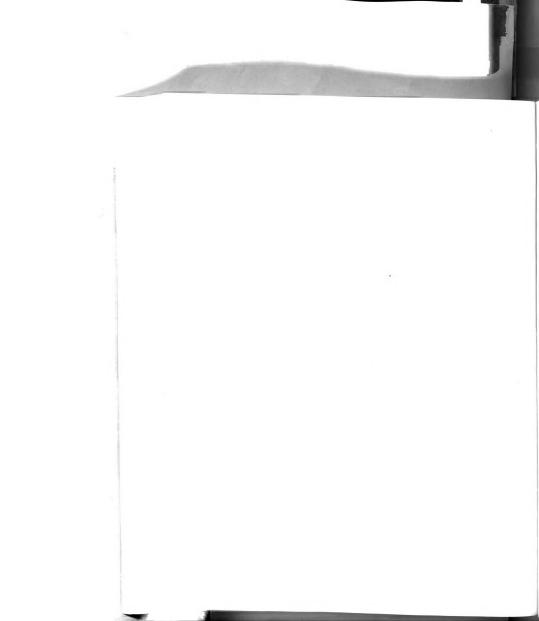
Methodology

Contrasting approaches. -- Textbooks used in the two nations differ vastly in form and in content. Texts used in English comprehensive schools reflect the more personal touch -- i.e., subjective opinion -- of an author and are much cheaper, using less costly grades of paper with

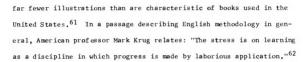
⁵⁸As quoted in Phi Delta Kappan, XLVI (September, 1964), p. 31.
One of the authors, Dr. Harry Broudy, had written in an earlier source
that the "sole concern" of the secondary school is general education.
Building a Philosophy of Education (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: PrenticeHall, Inc., 1961), p.379.

⁵⁹Ibid.

⁶⁰Ibid.







Teaching innovations, such as educational television, programmed learning, team teaching, etc., have received far more attention in America than in Britain. British comprehensive schools, though, are making plans to implement these features. Edmund J. King notes that plans for team teaching and the formation of "teams" involving teachers and laboratory or workshop technicians are emerging in these institutions. 63 Moreover, these same schools are attracting a number of superb young teachers.

The classroom scene. --Dr. Roy Niblett, Edmund J. King, and John Vaizey all agree that one reason for the attraction of enthusiastic teachers to the English comprehensive school lies in

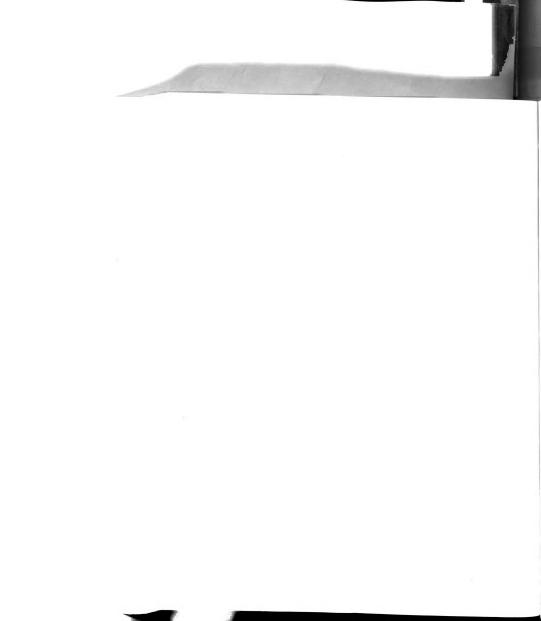
a comprehensive school's atmosphere which is likely to be one of much greater exhilaration and satisfaction than one would encounter in the average grammar school. The head teachers have been hand-picked, of course, and are clearly crusaders. There is a tendency to have young and enthusiastic staff, though many teachers who first go to a comprehensive school with profound misgivings are belated converts. . . .64

⁶¹Mark Krug, "The Distant Cousins: A Comparative Study of Selected History Textbooks in England and in the United States," School Review, LXXI (Winter, 1963), p. 428.

⁶²Ibid.

 $^{^{63}\}rm Edmund$ J. King, "Comprehensive Schools in England: Their Prospect," Comparative Education Review, III (February, 1960), p. 19.

⁶⁴Ibid.



Other Aspects of Comprehensive Schools

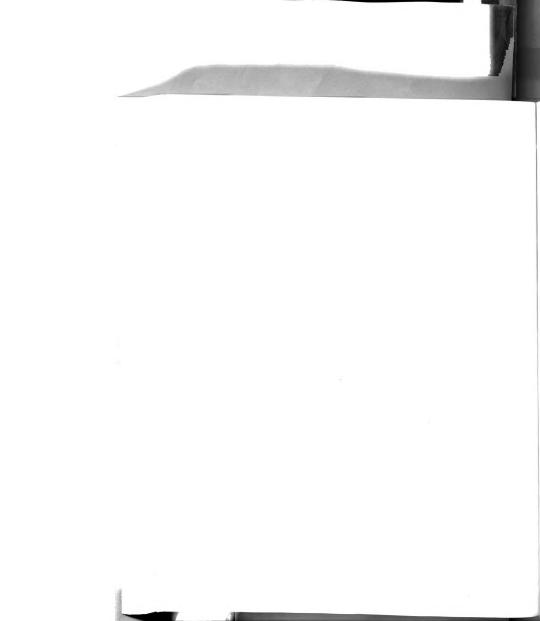
<u>Guidance and counseling.</u>—Intensified demands on teachers have resulted in the creation of counseling services as a separate part of the total school program. While the function of counseling and guidance is fundamentally the same in either country, English and American comprehensive institutions differ in the methods used to carry out these services.

English secondary schools, including those labeled as comprehensive, do not have guidance counselors. 66 Guidance and counseling functions are related to the organizational system used by a particular school. 67

⁶⁵The Brookings Institute's recent study of the civil service in America concluded that, next to the dedicated civil servant, "the most faithful exponent of public service is the high school teacher, who is therefore the master key to the future of democracy." As reported in the Saturday Review, XLVI (September 7, 1963), p. 41.

⁶⁶Noting that the English are often glib in their conviction that nothing can be learned from the United States, the London Times Educational Supplement states that the Stokes-Trent Educational Committee came away from their visit to the United States with a profound admiration for the latter's use of school counselors. A program to train such personnel is now underway. July 3, 1964, p. 1.

⁶⁷cf., pp. 88-89.



Vocational counseling is offered through the Youth Employment Service, a benefit provided by the Local Education Authority to all schools in the area, and a service which reflects the relationship between the National Ministry and the local schools.⁶⁸ Welfare services of this type, wherein the government's role is made obvious, are multifold. Ranging far beyond the realm of national aid given in the United States, L.E.A.'s

supply shoes and clothing to needy pupils. .; camps are arranged in rural and seaside districts. .; in October, 1952, . . . 596 million midday meals were served free in England.69

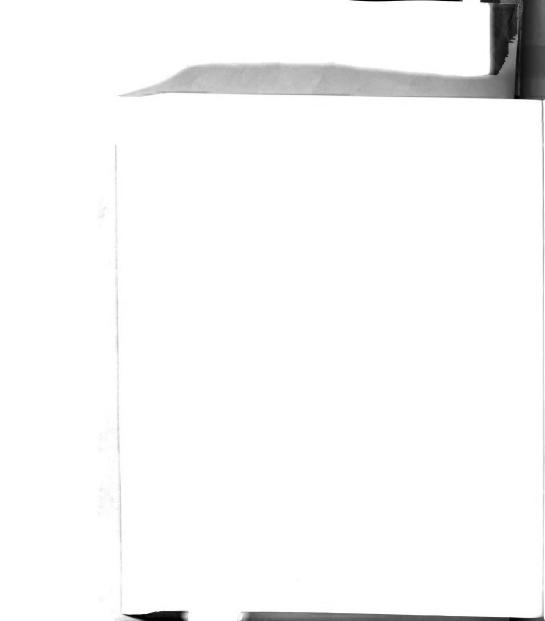
Comprehensive schools in the United States are marked by an erratic pattern of guidance activities. In part, this condition exists because of the disparity between high school districts. In the past decade the federal government, through the National Defense Education Act, has provided considerable financial backing for enlarged and improved programs of guidance in the secondary schools. Yet the contrast between schools persists. A study of current practices in American high schools reveals that

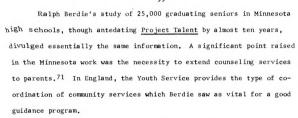
these schools provide guidance services which range from excellent to poor. Some are intensive, others superficial; some are continuous, others hit-or-miss; some are staffed by trained men and women, others by overworked classroom teachers.70

⁶⁸The Youth Service is staffed mainly by part-time paid or Voluntary workers. The main source for recruitment is qualified teachers. Social workers also supply personnel for this valuable service.

⁶⁹Cramer and Browne, op. cit., p. 245.

⁷⁰Flanagan, Project Talent, I, op. cit., p. 40.

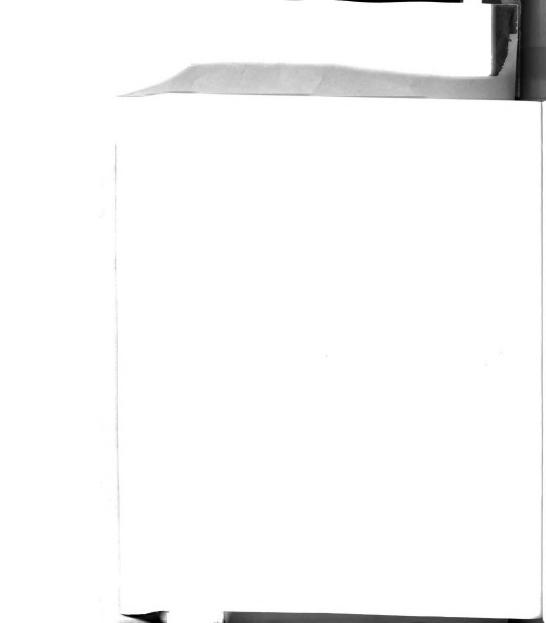




Extra-curricular activities.—The growing field of counseling and guidance is admittedly linked to limitations of the academic curriculum. In addition, research has shown that the extra-curricular activities program is failing to reach many of the same youths who are, for one reason or another, not benefiting from contemporary school programs. Most of this evidence comes from studies done in America where activity programs have been in existence for many years. English comprehensive schools advocate a broad range of activities, too, but there are marked differences in actual practices between the two nations.

First of all, there is nothing in the English program of extracurricular activities comparable to the complex pattern of inter-scholastic sports which characterizes the American high school. In line with the British tradition of producing a "cultured gentleman," individual effort in physical education and games is constantly stressed. The former is

⁷¹Ralph Berdie, After High School, What? (Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1954). The expanding role of counseling is stressed by Professor Burton R. Clark, who writes: "'Counselor' is perhaps the most significant role emerging in educational organization." Educating the Expert Society (San Francisco; Chandler Publishing Co., 1962), p. 179.





 τ^{eQu} ired of all students in comprehensive schools, and no secondary school is approved by the National Ministry unless it has a gymnasium and adequate playing fields.

Where schools are organized on such a basis, there exist inter-House contests; inter-school matches, particularly in crew and rugby, are common, but, again, they do not occupy the position held by competitive athletics in the United States. Figure 5 on the following page furnishes an illustration of a typical extra-curricular activities program in English comprehensive schools.

The extent of student activities in American high schools is indicated by the title of a book: The Third Curriculum: Student Activities in American Education, 72 The problems inherent in sponsoring a myriad of activities is reflected in the following series of statements.

In the area of extra-class activities, the high schools have done an excellent job promoting democracy. . . . The school of the future will extend such opportunities to the regular work of the classroom, 73

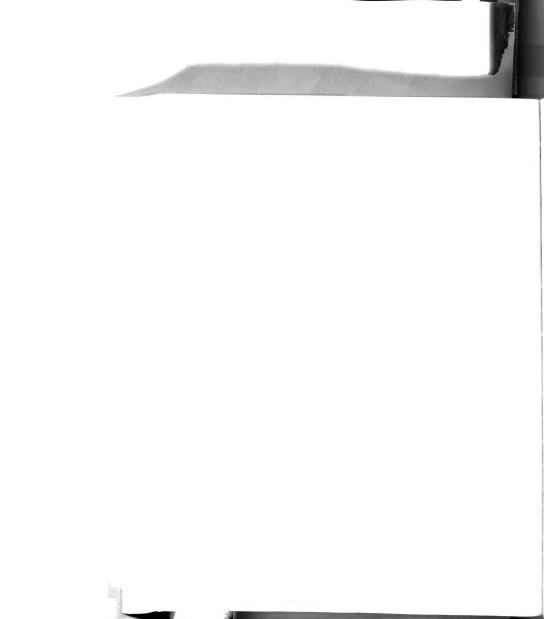
School awards No upper-lower and lower-lower class students were among the winners. [italics in origina] No lower-lower class student held an office, 74

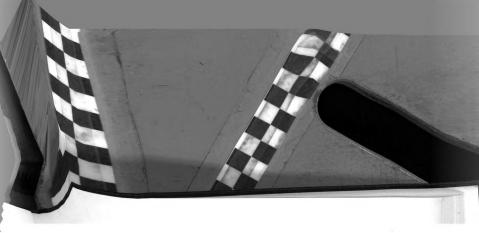
More and more educators are coming to see the importance in the total educative process of the informal learning that takes place between pupils. . . . It is necessary to be accepted more or less as an equal, to be taken in, in order to profit fully

⁷²Robert W. Frederick, The Third Curriculum: Student Activities in American Education (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1959).

⁷³Harold Alberty, "How May the Schools Further Democracy?" The Annals, CCLXV (September, 1949), pp. 21-22.

⁷⁴Stephen Abrahamson, "Our Status System and Scholastic Rewards," Journal of Educational Sociology, XXV (April, 1952), pp. 446-447.

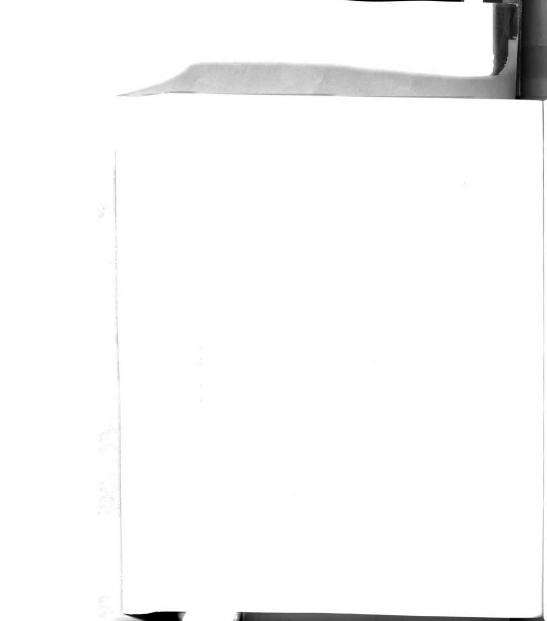




Monday		Tuesday		Wednesday		Thursday		Friday	
Activity	Open 10:	Activity	Open to:-	Activity	Open to:	Activity	Open to:	Activity	Open to:
Chess Club (L)	All years	Chess Club	ΑΠ	Geography Club	Ψ	History Club (L)	Years 1-3	Years 1-3 Swimming Club	Ψ
Christian	Years 1	Recorders (L)	Year 1	Fellow-	Year 3	3 Boat building	Year 3	(nerote school)	
Fellowship (L) Recorders (L)	and 2 Years	Art Club (L)	Ψ	ship (L) P.E. Club	and up	Handicraft Club	and up	French plays (L)	Year 2
Handicraft Club	₹ ₹	Drama Club	Year 3	Boat building	Year 3	3 Past and Present	Seniors	Recorders (L)	Year 1
Debate and Discus-		Choir	and up Year 1	Choir (School)	and up	Tennis Club	Years 4	Fencing	Year 2
P.E. Training Club	and up	Badminton	ΨI	Handicraft Club	ИΑ	Science Models	and 5	Piano Class	and up
Stamp	TV TV	First Aid, Duke of Edinburgh	Boys	Fencing	Year 2 and up	Drama Club— Speech for Duke	Year 4		
Biology	Year 3	Swimming Club	Year 2		Years 1				
Orchestra	and up	Dress Design Club		girls Drama Club		Art Club	Year 1		
Violin Classes	ΑII			Dress Design	Year 3				
Brass band	Ψ			Duke of Edinburgh	Year 4				
Duke of Edinburgh	Over 14			,	dn pur				
Photography	ΙΙ								
All Houses Advisory Any Aud-5.0 p.m. and	Any pupils and parents	All Houses Advisory	Any pupils and parents	All Houses Advisory	Any pupils and parents	All Houses Advisory	Any pupils and parents	All Houses Advisory	Any pupils and parents
Recreational	1 House	124	1 House	124	1 House	24	1 House		
And parents' inter- Year views and t	Year 3	And parents' inter-	Year 3	And parents' inter-	Year 3	And parents' inter-	Year 3		

All clubs are at the end of afternoon school unless marked (L) when they are held at Lunch Time.

**alLondon Comprehensive Schools, op. cit., p. 30.



from one's educational opportunities. Pupils who are excluded miss some of the most important consequences of school life.75

Competitive athletics. -- The challenge to make American secondaryschool programs meaningful to all youngsters, unfortunately, is often lost amidst the hubub of high school athletics.

In a study conducted during the 1940's, Lloyd Trump concluded that more had been written, more public and private arguments engaged in, on the issue of high school athletics than on any other phase of the total program. 76 "High School athletes are different," Citalics in original declares an educational journal. "They aren't looked upon as other students, nor can they be treated under the same general rules."77

The attitude expressed above is a logical one, in the opinion of Harold Laski, for in America, he says, the cult of athletics is almost a kind of religion, although only ". . . a small proportion of the boys or girls in high school actually play the game themselves." His statement that an important part of a school's rating in the community is derived from the success of its varsity sports programs agrees with the findings of numerous domestic observers. 79 But a country-man

⁷⁵Henry P. Smith, "A Study in the Selective Nature of American Secondary Education: Participation in School Activities as Conditioned by Socio-Economic Status and Other Factors," <u>Journal of Educational Psychology</u>, XXXVI (April, 1945), pp. 229-230.

⁷⁶Lloyd Trump, "Extra-Curricular Activities: Some Principles of Management," The American Secondary School, ed. by Paul B. Jacobson (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1952), p.247.

^{77&}quot;How to Discipline High School Athletes," School Management VII (March, 1963), p. 63.

⁷⁸Laski, op. cit., p. 337.

⁷⁹For example, see Wilbur Brookover and others, A Sociology of Education (New York: American Book Co., 1955), p. 55.



of Laski's professes that some of the stress on sport is admirable and necessary. It helps to unite a school (and a community) divided by a lot of barriers; writes Denis Brogan, and it is the activity in which racial prejudice plays its least important role.80

The school as a smaller community. -- Student government, as represented in the form of "student councils," so common in American high schools, is not a feature of English comprehensive schools. In an article commenting on the favorable "tone" of good English comprehensive institutions, Edmund J. King underlines the importance of having both fine teachers and quality students, "because it is in these circumstances that one is most likely to find 'student government' in the American pattern--otherwise a rarity in English schools,"81

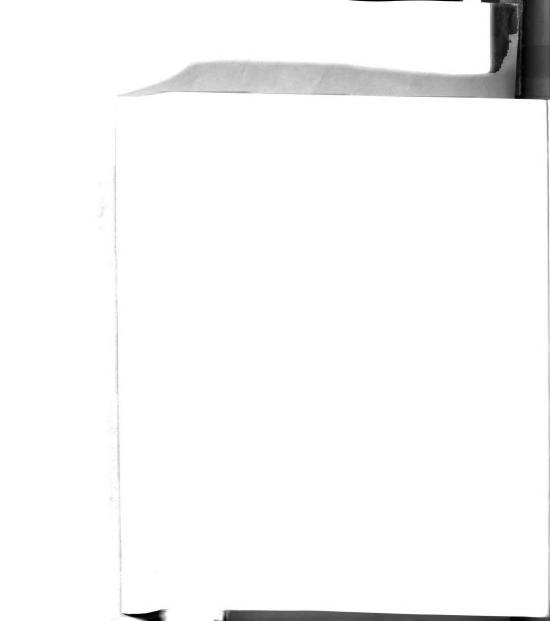
Students in Britain are held individually responsible to their "House" or sub-unit. Older students assume the duty of handling many issues of rule infractions. They perform these acts first as House prefects (monitors) and later as student representatives of the entire school.

Provisions for individual growth in student responsibility are matched by attempts to use the House system as the hub of a social community.82 Illustrations of this format are also evident in the chart

⁸⁰Brogan, America in the Modern World, op. cit., p. 72.

 $^{^{81} \}text{King}, \, \underline{\text{Comprehensive Schools in Britain: Their Prospect, op.} \, \underline{\text{cit., p. 19.}}$

⁸²The idea of a "social community" is somewhat offset by the large number of single-sex schools in England. Though co-educational institutions are increasing, they are far less numerous than those made up of boys or girls only.



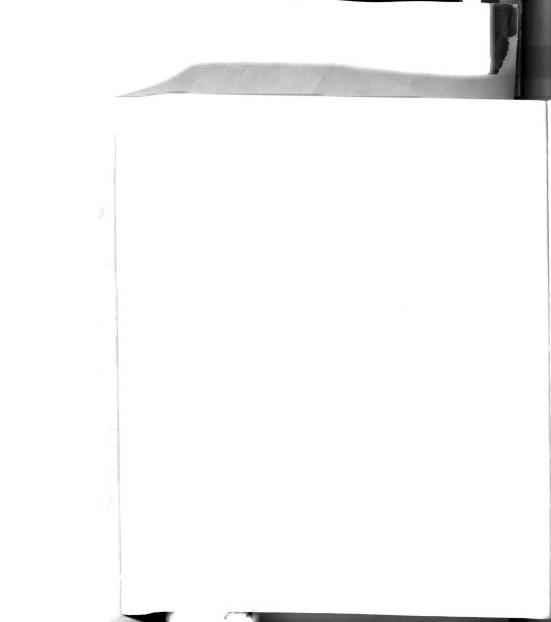
on page 101 Similar in purpose to the "schools within a school" concept which is rapidly gaining a favorable reception in the United States,
both plans envison a plan whereby a student's intellectual pursuits
and extraneous activities will link him directly with the sub-unit
rather than simply as one of many in attendance. "Houses" normally
consist of sixty to eighty pupils; thus loyalty to the smaller group
becomes an issue when efforts are made to weld these sub-units together
as part of the larger entity.83

Religion and the schools.--Finally, no comparison of British and American educational practices can overlook the role of religious instruction. The entire system of national education in England rests on a religious foundation; religion is the only course, for example, which must be taught in the comprehensive school. An agreed syllabus of religious instruction signifies that "the churches are . . . active partners with the state and the Local Education Authority,"84

The same issue is bound up in stormy debates in the United States, and the historical separation of church and state clearly has had ramifications for the educational arena.

^{83&}quot;... Pride of house membership is often as strong as pride in school membership," Primary and Secondary Schools in Britain (Chicago: British Information Service, HMSO, 1962), p. 7.

⁸⁴William P. Alexander, Education in England: The National System-How It Works (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1954), p. 135.





CHAPTER VI

BASIC SIMILARITIES AND DISSIMILARITIES OF THEORY AND PRACTICE

Terminology and Context

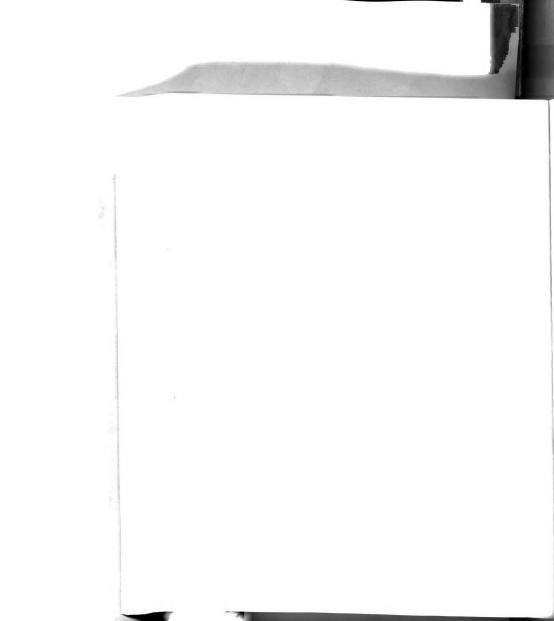
Labour's policies for Britain, in the opinion of conservative
Englishmen and sundry American observers, are tinged with a "socialistic"
hue. Since the comprehensive school is so closely identified with the
Labour Party, it, too, is often regarded as an example of similar schemes.
Actually, much of the heated discussion results from a failure to interpret specific terms within their proper context.

Edmund J. King states, for example, that the British people abhor the "socialistic" principle they see embodied in the non-selective comprehensive high school, and reject the very ideal which it represents. The First Secretary of Education for the British Embassy in America confirms King's remarks. "Strict division by ability is standard practice in England," he warns.

so that whereas in a few areas by establishing comprehensive schools we have recently been trying to get away from the idea of selection for secondary education, we have not given up our belief in the need to practice selection within our secondary schools. 2 [tialics in original]

¹Edmund J. King, <u>World Perspectives in Education</u> (Indianapolis, Indiana: Bobbs-Merrill Co., Inc., 1962), p. 147.

²Morris, op. cit., p.32.



the comprehensive school does not satisfy critics of comprehensive education. Nor do all proponents of comprehensive schools share a belief in selection under any circumstances. The Head Master of Walworth School notes that "setting" of certain subjects in order to yield more homogeneous teaching units represents an arrangement "about which controversy rages inside as well as outside the comprehensive school."3 To compound the issues, the very presence of a system of selectivity, according to English schoolmen, distorts American evaluations of English schools.

106

Americans have long been accustomed to analyse educational policy mainly in sociological terms and they tend to equate progress with the abolition of class privileges. . . . Nevertheless, this treatment tends to minimize the importance of other aspects, such as that of sheer persistence of tradition, the influence of habit and of history.4

The American authors seem to be obsessed by the idea that England is a class-ridden community, and their interpretation of our educational system is dominated by this one idea.5

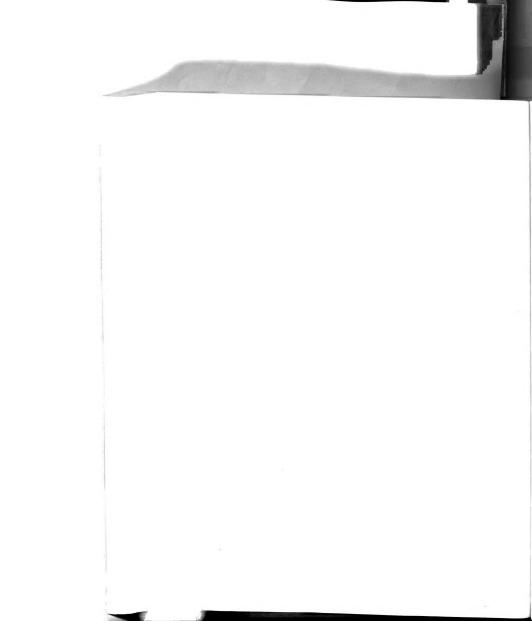
British observers, as King noted previously, visualize the nonselective American high school as an unwise example of egalitarianism. Kandel sees this same principle as comprising the "formidable and un-Precedented" task facing secondary schools in the United States.6

³G. A. Rogers, "Educational Opportunities: Intake and the Early Years," Inside the Comprehensive School, op. cit., p. 36. Pedley agrees that "it seems probable that this point [of grouping]... will meet with stronger challenge in the future." The Comprehensive School, op. cit., p. 90.

⁴Lauwerys, op. cit., p. 2.

⁵Lord James Rusholme, op. cit., p. 4.

⁶Kandel, "Some Unsolved Issues in American Education," op. cit., p. 275.



ut many American high schools do practice selection within their individual buildings. Looming above the selectivity implied by grouping practices, moreover, is the contrast between American high schools.

An understanding of these differences is vital for anyone wishing to compare secondary schools in England and in the United States.

Theoretically, the American high school is a social melting pot. In reality, the differences in students' average ability and achievement among American high schools is so great that it is impossible to think in terms of comparable student bodies. This condition is an integral part of the American system of comprehensive secondary education, and it is tolerated to the extent that its important consequences are rarely considered. The same conditions would be intolerable to British tradition and practice which emphasizes homogeneity through selection as a necessity for securing predictable standards of academic achievement commensurate with recognized differences in background and ability in the child population.

A Growing Bond

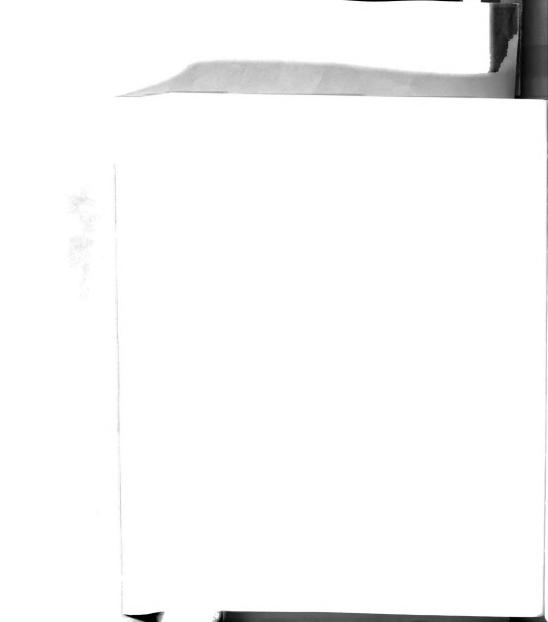
Facing a mutual dilemma. --The problem in the forefront of American secondary education for almost four decades, writes I. L.

Kandel, has been "How to implement educationally the idea of equality of opportunity?" His statement appeared in 1957; virtually a decade later the central issue of secondary education was expressed in different terms. "The outstanding problem of our time," the educators wrote, "is precisely that of providing excellence in the educational context of popular or mass democracy."9

⁷Ketcham, op. cit., p. 39.

⁸I. L. Kandel, American Education in the Twentieth Century (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1957), p. 178.

⁹Harry S. Broudy and others, <u>Democracy and Excellence in American Secondary Education</u> (Chicago: Rand McNally Co., 1964), preface, p. i.



Though both countries now are facing similar demands, England and America historically have followed different paths in devising secondary schools. Both nations are educating for democracy, declares Roger Armfelt, but follow divergent paths. England inherited two main traditions of educating a few at the grammar school level and the many at the elementary phase. 11 With the eleven plus examination playing a major role, there has been little in English education to suggest the type of "ladder system"—linking elementary-secondary—and higher education—common to America.

Sir Goeffrey Crowther warns of these contrasts between English and American systems, stating that the two have little in common. 12

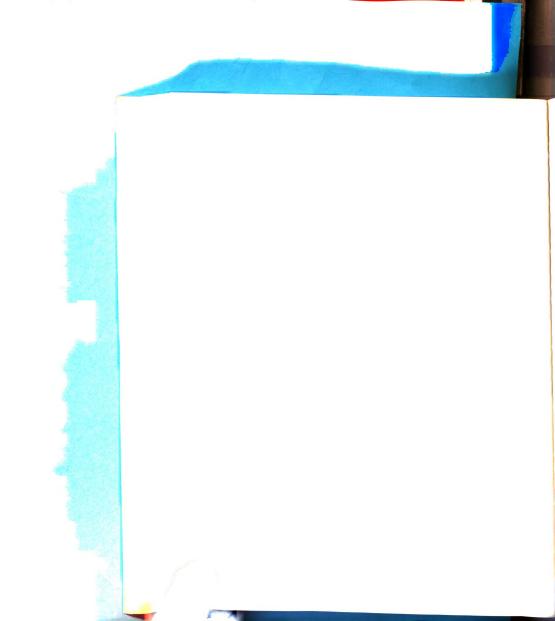
Professor Reller's contention that the British interpretation of "comprehensive school" is not equivalent to its American usage was mentioned earlier. 13 But the comprehensive school in both nations is committed to the establishment of equality of educational opportunity—a merit long attributed to the American concept of education, and to providing

¹⁰cf., p. 5.

 $^{^{11} \}rm Roger$ Armfelt, "From Across the Atlantic," $\underline{\rm Educational~Forum}$, XX (May, 1956), p. 362.

¹²Crowther, Major Speeches . . ., op. cit., p. 43.

¹³cf., p. 87.



"Common Learnings"--A famed American educator pinpoints the most difficult problem confronting high schools in his country as that of constructing an adequate program of general education. This element is the weakest part of the typical high school program, he writes.

Fundamental reconstruction is needed, and

a more effective common learngins program in the junior and senior high school is, therefore, the most central and crucial problem in the development of American youth education. 15

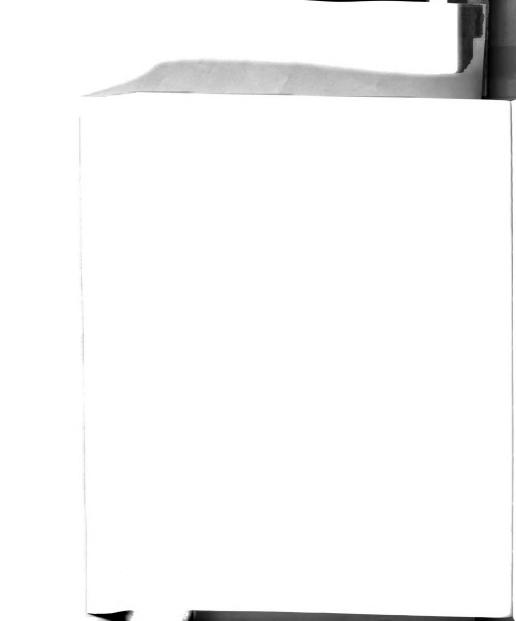
It is extremely important that both nations construct solid programs of "common learnings" if the goal of equality of educational opportunity is to be approximated. An American textbook contains an admonition of direct relevance for England, too. "The citizens of every local community, every state, and every region," the author proclaims, "have a direct stake in the educational services which are provided in every other area," 16

But the question of equality of educational opportunity goes even deeper into the fabric of English and American societies. The area differentials which Robin Pedley sees depicted in the comprehensive schools located in new towns have much in common with many urban

¹⁴Lionel Elwin states that the sixth form, at its best, takes young people to the point "where their academic work is in serious measure self-directed." Teachers College Record, op. cit., p. 516.

¹⁵French, op. cit., p. 36.

 $^{^{16}\}text{J.}$ O. Hertzler, American Social Institutions (Boston: Allyn & Bacon, Inc., 1961), p. $\frac{486}{\cdot}$



The current emphasis on programs of general education is a reminder that if the comprehensive high school opens its doors to all types of youth--as it must if it honors its stated purposes--curriculum revision should accompany this acceptance. A half-century ago, Alexander Inglis wrote that

the efficiency of the comprehensive or composite high school depends in no small degree on the proper organization and administration of its curriculum, 18

Functioning as a social institution. -- Professors Edward Krug
and Robert Havighurst, among others, view the rapid growth of secondary education in the United States as a social adjustment to the appearance of an idel-age group. 19 Havighurst explains:

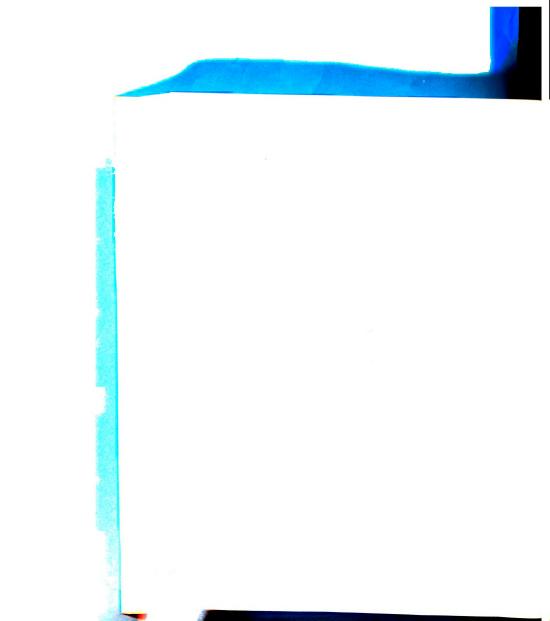
People disagree as to whether the school can perform this custodial function or should attempt to do so. Some people argue that this defeats the school in its other function of helping the ablest young people develop their mental powers through study.²⁰

¹⁷The current migratory patterns from the rural South to the urban North emphasize a point made several years ago by Dr. Harry Passow. "The talent loss," he wrote, "may well be the greatest in rural areas." "The comprehensive High School and the Gifted Child," Educating the Gifted, ed. by Joseph L. French (New York: Henry Holt and Co., 1959), p. 196.

¹⁸ Inglis, Principles of Secondary Education, op. cit., p. 704.

¹⁹krug, op. cit., p. 32. Robert Havighurst, "The Issues are Three-Social, Psychological, and Educational," General Education in a Free Society, op. cit., p. 164.

²⁰Ibid.



111

A contrasting interpretation of the rapid spread of secondary schooling in America links it to the constant search for equality of opportunity.

The transformation of the Latin grammar school to the modern American high school reflects in many ways the developmental history of this country—a constant shaping and invention to meet the emerging conditions of a new way of life dedicated to the high purposes of freedom and opportunity for an entire people.21

However, with revisions in curriculum and school organization lagging behind technological and scientific innovations in the world of industry and commerce, the comprehensive school has assumed certain custodial obligations.²² An English scholar stresses the need to evaluate American high schools on this basis. As things are now, he writes, American high schools are

unmistakably faced with a custodial (rather than a training) problem that is unfamiliar in other countries. . . . Criticisms of American education based upon its slow progress miss a very important educational assumption, and also underestimate the interplay of economic and scholarly considerations. 23

This combination of complex factors is beginning to affect comprehensive school practices in England, as well. Troubles with the "C" stream--or lower ability group--are mounting, states Brian Simon, 24

²¹Robert N. Bush and Dwight W. Allen, A New Design for High School Education (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1964), preface, p. v.

 $^{22 {\}rm The}$ impact of this change upon the high school is mirrored in the controversy regarding the compulsory attendance law in the State of Illinois. Governor Kerner insists that the legal minimum be raised to eighteen, citing the needs of an automated age. Public school people oppose the measure, mainly because they view it as an "unfair" burden for high schools to assume.

²³ E d m und J. King, Other Schools and Ours (New York: Rinehart and Co., 1958), p. 115.

 $²⁴_{Brian}$ Simon, The Common Secondary School (London: Lawrence & Wisehart, 1955), p. 100.





We are failing to meet our responsibility to the slow learners in fundamental areas—democratic, educational and psychological We seem unable to provide an atmosphere which will allow them to become fully developed human beings who can lead meaningful lives, 25

Perhaps, states a second report, attention directed to slow learners in high school represents a "too little, too late" affair. Criticizing the Gonant Report, the writer complains:

The report has not developed a program designed to try to overcome the deficiencies of the non-academic pupils. One is left with the distinct feeling that their inability, once it is established in the eighth grade, is permanent . . . Almost no serious attention is paid to the causes of Slow learning and the possible steps to be taken to remedy this condition 26

Educating the working-class.--Effective work with the slow learners or "lowest stream," to use a British term, is directly related to the goal of providing better education for the working class.

In England, the study of such families by Brian Jackson and Dennis Marsden concluded that the chief question facing schools in Britain was

²⁵Elizabeth Drews, The Effectiveness of Homogeneous and Heterogeneous Ability Grouping in Ninth Grade English Classes with Slow, Average, and Superior Students. (East Lansing, Michigan: Office of Research Publications, Michigan State University, 1963), p. 17.

²⁶Jack Abramowitz, "Implications of the Conant Report for the Social Studies," The High School Journal: The Conant Report After Five Years, XLVI (April, 1962), p. 264. And yet this problem may well be the most difficult task facing secondary education in America for years to come, writes psychologist Karl C. Garrison. Psychology of Adolescence (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1956), p. 384.



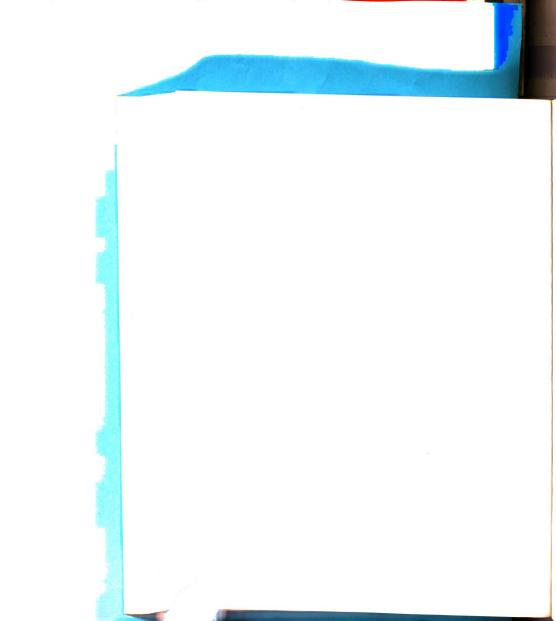
now to open education to the working class.²⁷ Their work also lent additional credence to a proposition stated by American sociologist Robin Williams--namely, that the lack of motivation of the lower-class student suggests that class and caste controls are much deeper and far more subtle than any mere question of "formal opportunity." 28

The pressures exerted on comprehensive schools to effectively cope with such youngsters come from many sources. Sociological and economic needs have been mentioned on previous pages; the philosophical basis for comprehensive education implies that all pupils can be successfully accommodated. And the selective system of secondary schools in England helped pave the way for the British comprehensive school by its reluctance to teach lower-class children.

Twenty years ago, in the United States, Dean Francis Spaulding of the University of Chicago, referring to the rise of the Civilian Conservation Corps and the National Youth Administration during Depression years, warned that the American nation had witnessed a cycle in secondary education. The academy, he noted, came into prominence after the Revolutionary War, and was then replaced by the public high school during the post-Civil War era. Lastly, economic misfortune had created

²⁷Brian Jackson and Dennis Marsden, Education and the Working Class: Some General Themes Raised by a Study of Eighty-Eight Working Class Children in a Northern Industrial City (New York: Monthly Review Press, 1962), p. 211. The same general theme is raised by American author Andrew Hacker. The political scientist writes: "The dropouts form the core of what must in all frankness be called the American working class." "The Boy Who Doesn't Go To College," New York Times Magazine, June 24, 1962, Section 6, p. 11.

²⁸Robin Williams, American Society: A Sociological Interpretation (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1961), p. 356.



 n^{gw} Situations forcing the high school to accept all types of youth-or face the prospect of losing its place in the educational structure
of America.29

Yet the American high school did survive without making any radical changes in its basic structure; likewise, British comprehensive schools are accused of retaining too many features relevant to another age. 30 In 1964 a new charge was given to the comprehensive school. For the next few decades, the report of a United States organization of educators declared, millions of youngsters from previously submerged groups were going to have to be dealt with on new terms. In words which hold great significance for schools in England as well, their statement urges that

Both schools and teachers must learn to accept the lower-class child and look beneath the surface at his humanity, while offering him the option of self improvement within his own class, or of making use of the school as an instrumentality for upward mobility, if he and his family so choose.³¹

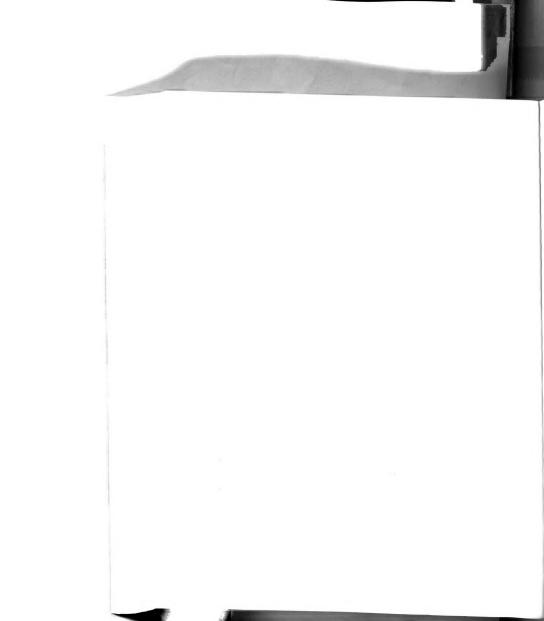
The Relevance of Size

Amidst the hue and cry of better education for all students, arguments over the proper size of comprehensive schools continue.

²⁹Francis T. Spaulding, "The Challenge of Secondary Education," Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals, XXV (March, 1941), pp. 13-16.

³⁰cf., pp. 119-120.

^{31&}quot;Some Intergroup Factors Influencing the Teaching of American Social Values," <u>Tentative Working Papers</u>, 1-4, (Washington,D.C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1964), p. 45.



Support for the fears expressed in the foregoing statements may be found in any number of English and American documents. On the other hand, the research, limited as it is, is contradictory.

Recent studies conducted by Roger Barker and associates in Kansas ended in favor of small schools; that is, with respect to participation in school activities, identification with the school, etc.³³ Project Talent, II, found that school size is "not likely" to be a prime factor in student achievement.³⁴ Conversely, a study of Minnesota high schools indicated that small institutions seriously handicap their students in a variety of ways.³⁵ And a British authority finds some evidence that large size, while a problem, is not in itself an insuperable issue.³⁶

Large schools, with their greater number of programs and services, may be a necessity, moreover, if the goal of equality of educational opportunity is to be realized. But the major obstacle in their paths

 $^{^{32}\}text{U.S.}$ Office of Education, The Secondary School Plant ington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1956), p. 15.

³³Roger Barker and others, Big School-Small School: Studies of the Effects of High School Size Upon the Behavior and Experiences of Students. (Lawrence, Kansas: Midwest Psychological Field Station, University of Kansas, 1962) "Small" was any school with less than a hundred students enrolled.

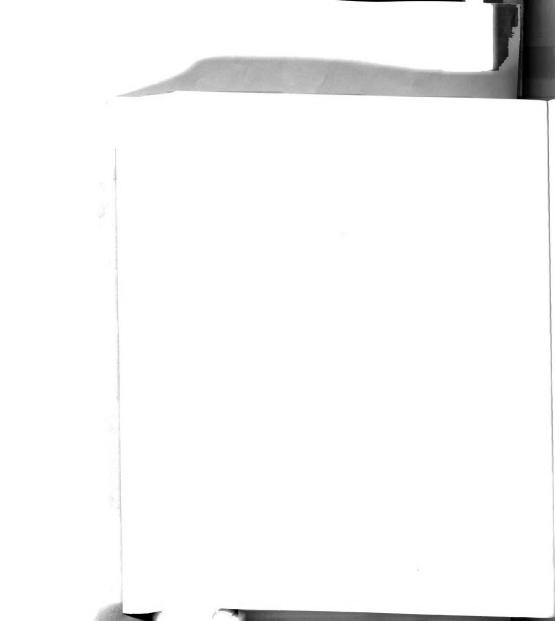
³⁴Flanagan and others, op. cit., II, Ch. X, p. 10.

³⁵Robert S. Keller, "Curriculum Planning and Development,"

<u>Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals,</u>

XLVII (November, 1963), p. 3.

 $^{$36}_{\rm Ronald}$ Fletcher, Issues in Education (London: Stanton CoIt House, 1960). p. 34.



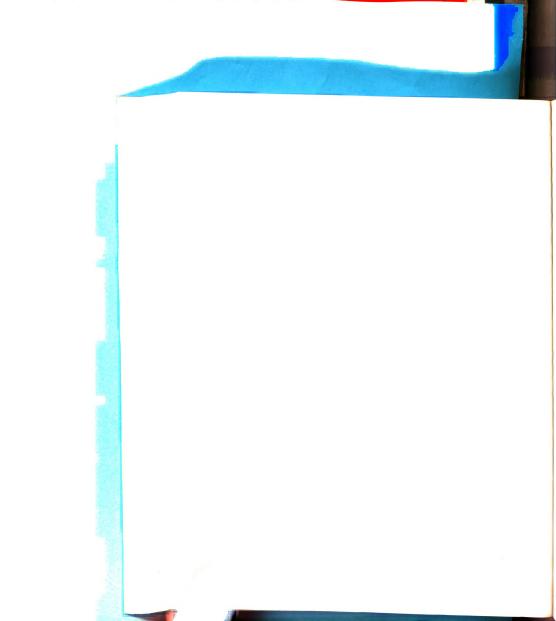
Fundamental Differences

The concept of specialization.—A hallmark of the operational context of British secondary schools is the sixth form. This example of intensive preparation, states Sir Goeffrey Crowther, is unique in the world. 38

The issue of specialization at the secondary level, assuming a two-fold relationship of high standards and adequate attention to the needs of gifted students, marks a clear separation of theory and practice in American and English forms of comprehensive secondary schools. Furthermore, fears that this contrast will lose its sharpness with the passing years lie at the heart of much opposition to comprehensive institutions in Britain.

³⁷Pedley, The Comprehensive School, op. cit., p. 80.

³⁸ Crowther, Major Speeches. . ., op. cit., p. 39.



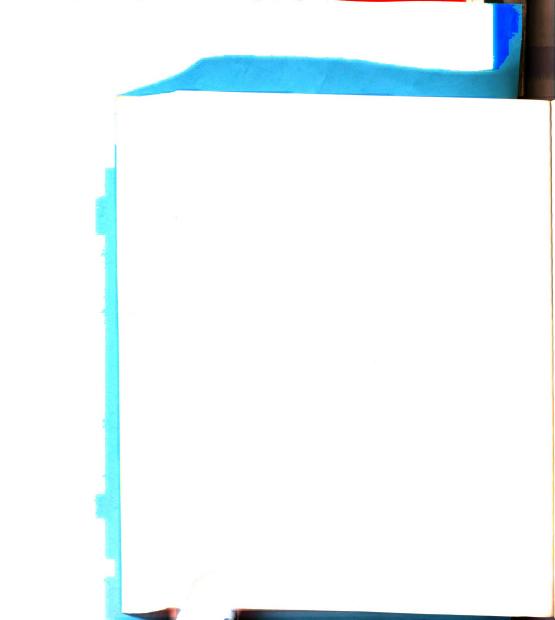
While George Bereday and Sir Eric Ashby, among others, declare that England is failing in the education of her average talent, 40 British secondary schools, including those labeled as "comprehensive," must continue to strive for a strong sixth form. In fact, even the Crowther Commission, created to help broaden and extend the opportunities for secondary education in England, reported in favor of continued specialization. Conceding there were abuses in the system, nevertheless the Advisory Council "made up of educators of all kinds," reached a unanimous decision. 41

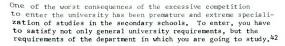
But a more recent report prepared by the Robbins Committee did not agree. Stating that its members were "firmly against" the present degree of specialization at school, the committee also condemned the role of higher education in perpetuating this English custom. Noting that the lack of openings in higher education was creating as much tension for eighteen-year-olds as that caused for young adolescents by the eleven plus examination, the Committee stated:

³⁹T. R. McConnell, "Some Unresolved Problems of Secondary Education," North Central Association Quarterly, XXVIII (January, 1953), p. 259.

George Z. F. Bereday, "Equality, Equal Opportunity, and Comprehensive Schools in England," Educational Forum, XXII (January, 1958), p. 138, Ashby, op. cit.,p.9.

⁴¹Crowther, Major Speeches. . ., op. cit., p. 41.





A different base. -- England is in the throes of a transition from a class system of secondary education to one which will reflect a classless system or classes existing only in a loose sense. In its schools, as so often occurs,

the educational ideals and programs designed in the earlier phase for education of the upper classes tend to persist in the latter phase under the guise of general or common education.43

The same criticism has been made of education in the United States, but the two nations have followed distinctly different paths in adapting to the needs of a mass society.

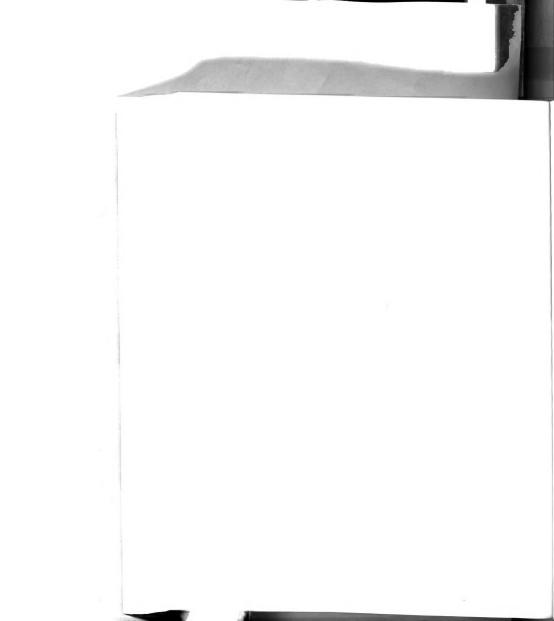
In place of the systems of separate schools which evolved in Europe, including England, the United States developed the comprehensive high school as a vital cog in a program of public-supported education. The lasting importance of this plan is emphasized by an English educator.

Your [America's] educational history has been one of expansion from the basis of the common school in the sense in which Horace Mann helped to establish a system of common schools. For us, as the historians of education pointed out, the common school meant the school for the common or ordinary people not provided for by the fee-charging schools already in existence for the wealthier classes.44

⁴²Lionel Elvin, "The Robbins Report: Higher Education in Britain," Teachers College Record, LXV (March, 1964), p. 515.

⁴³B. Othanel Smith and others, <u>Fundamentals of Curriculum Development</u>, rev. ed. (New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc., 1957), p. 11.

⁴⁴Elvin, The TransAtlantic Dialogue. . . , op. cit., p. 5.





SUMMARY

Professor Ketcham stresses that the emergence of a comprehensive secondary school in England and in the United States stems from political, social, and economic ideologies held in common by the two nations. $^{\rm 1}$

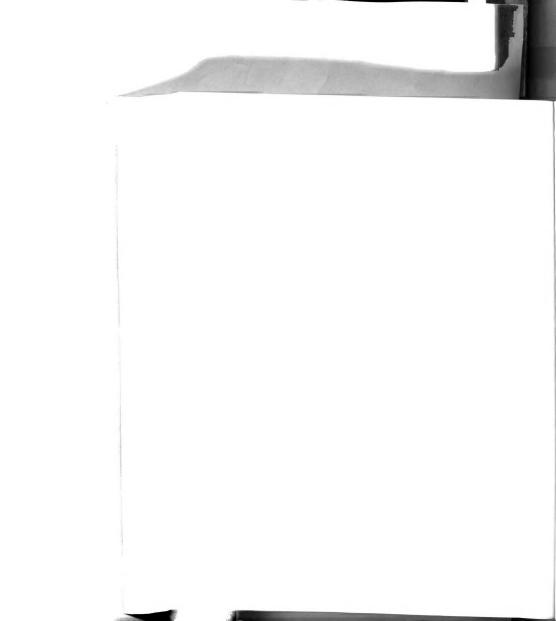
The chief motive in both countries has been to secure the opportunity for a college education for more children. Viewed in this light the purposes of comprehensive secondary schools and the efforts to secure them in Great Britain and the United States have much in common.

Dr. Ketcham reminds his readers, however, that, despite their interchangeable labels, the two types of institutions are not identical. A British contemporary enlarges upon Ketcham's statement by citing "typical" English inconsistencies and an overly-excessive sense of caution in executing plans for comprehensive education. But, he continues,

. . . a widespread groping towards the comprehensive type of education Of course, if British comprehensive schools are to be successful they will be in the British idiom and not the American. They will have the faults that go with British qualities, 2

¹Ketcham, op. cit.,p.42.

²Edmund J. King, "Comprehensive Schools: Their Prospect," op. cit., p. 21.



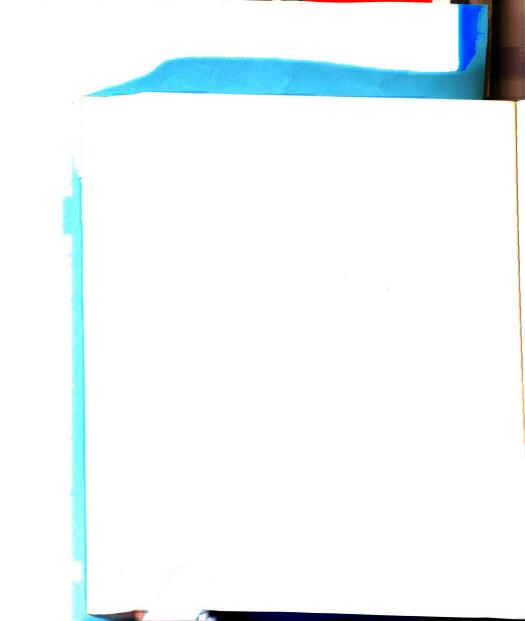


Nevertheless, the comprehensive secondary school does represent an organizational form which both nations have adopted in their attempts to furnish a broad base for mass education. This study has endeavored to examine the national backgrounds and operational features characteristic of comprehensive schools in England and the United States. Certainly other issues--e.g., the training and supply of teachers, local control as opposed to a national ministry--are important topics for consideration, but they were outside the author's field of investigation. Instead, he has tried to focus attention on the elements these schools hold in common, with the hope that acknowledgement of these ties would spur additional studies in both countries.

Implications of Findings

Needed changes in basic structure. There is no denial that the entire question of school organization is vital to the future of comprehensive education in both nations. Can the comprehensive secondary school resolve the demands made of it? To this observer, the study of English and American practices suggests that it cannot—at least not without major revisions. Here, it seems, is where the two nations can learn from each other's mistakes and accomplishments.

New models and ideas exist, but consensus is lacking. The
Leicestershire Experiment, with a grammar school combined into a single
"comprehensive" unit in company with a number of secondary modern schools



is one example.³ There is no examination at eleven plus; selection is Postponed until age fourteen. Students are involved in a general education program from eleven until fourteen. Then, on the basis of tests and interviews, they are streamed into the appropriate institutional part of the comprehensive unit.

Originally conceived and developed, as the title suggests, at Leicestershire, the proposal has suffered from two major criticisms. First, that the break at fourteen is still an artificial one. Second, English conservatives protest that comprehensive schools simply come in via the "back door" of this plan.4

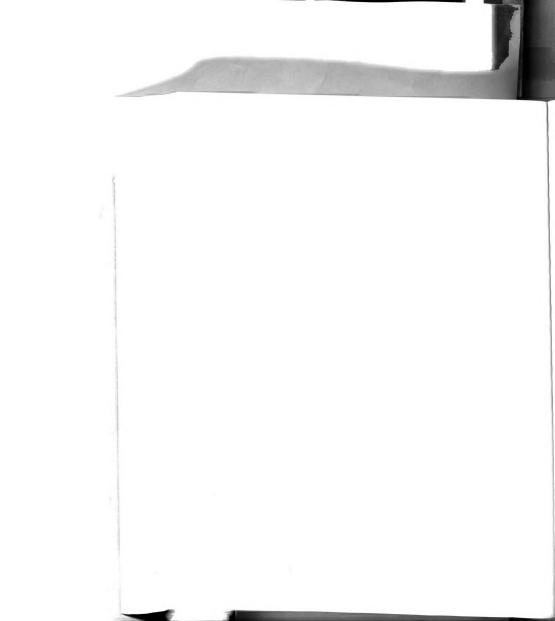
Philip Phenix, professor of educational philosophy at Teachers College, Columbia University, asserts that secondary education in the United States might well benefit from a modification of the current policy based on an all-inclusive school. "Separate schools for considerably different courses of study," he comments, "may be much more effective and economical."

Obviously, this proposal strikes at the very foundations of the comprehensive school as a social community; but it does point to the growing needs of the field of employment, needs which threaten to bring about the creation of specialized vocational schools.

³Stewart C. Mason, <u>The Leicestershire Experiment and Plan</u> (London: Councils and Educational Press, Ltd., 1960), p. 10. Another possibility suggests M. L. Jacks, "is the development of the School Base, round which would be grouped a diversity of schools, varying in their curricula, but sharing in a common cultural and recreational and social life." <u>Total Education: A Plea for Synthesis</u> (Oxford, England: Kegan Paul, Ltd., 1946), p. 36.

 $[\]frac{\mu_{\rm Education\ Today:\ The\ Existing\ Opportunities}}{\rm British\ Broadcasting\ Co.,\ 1963),\ p.\ 27.}$ ed. by Edward Blishen (London: British Broadcasting Co., 1963), p. 27.

⁵Phenix, op. cit., p. 144.



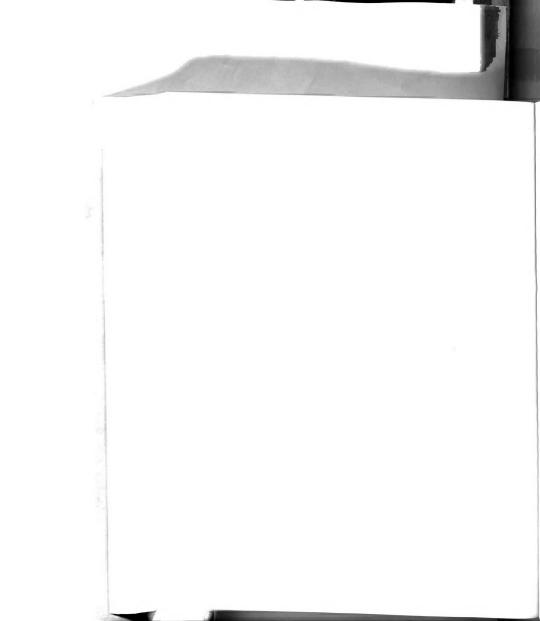


Adapting programs to economic changes.—While neither country is apparently pleased with the job comprehensive schools are doing in the field of vocational education, the British operation suggests certain criteria for American schools to consider. Cooperation between L.E.A.'s and organized labor is more evident in the case of England, with the link between comprehensive schools and the Labour Party a matter of record. The liaison between the National Ministry, the Local Education Authority, and the English Youth Service offers an opportunity that cannot be matched by most comprehensive schools and the communities they serve in America. This is one phase of school-community relationships in which Britain anticipated practices of the United States.

Moreover, the British requirement of a basic core of general education is in line with recent thinking in the United States concerning the dangers of a specialized vocational curriculum at the secondary level. Failure to attain a minimal amount of English, science, and mathematics will mean less equality of opportunity in the changing job market of the future is the warning given by a United States government report.⁶

Modifying current practices. -- As the implications of comprehensive education become more evident in Britain, the English schools will profit from a consideration of the flexible scheduling gradually making inroads in American high schools; likewise, comprehensive schools in

⁶Wilbur Brookover and Sigmund Nosow, "A Sociological Analysis of Vocational Education in the United States," Education for a Changing World of Work (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1962), Appendix III, p. 44.

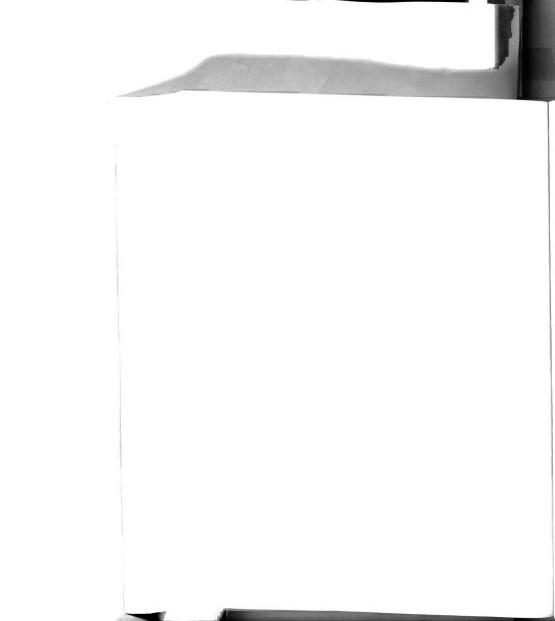


the United States would do well to carefully examine the provisions for independent study characteristic of good sixth forms. Overall, however, the American experience indicates that scheduling the lower ability levels is the more arduous task. Efforts to adapt a school curriculum to a wide range of student abilities is reflected in the type of arrangement shown in Appendix K.

American high schools are moving away from the idea of "tracking"--i.e., placing students into large homogeneous blocs of roughly similar intellectual levels and then scheduling these pupils together in classes throughout the day as the British do in their pattern of "A," "B," and "C" streams--in deference to the use of grouping by ability in a specific subject area and the employment of individual scheduling.

English schools also would benefit from an appreciation of the variety of teaching techniques and classroom aids now typical of some of the better high schools in the United States. The "chalk and talk" methods, along with a great deal of emphasis on note taking and priming for tests, which Pedley so deplores, 7 will not suffice when teachers are faced with educating all of the youth of all the people. Many American teachers have learned the "hard way;" there is no reason why British instructors need repeat the same errors.

⁷Pedley, The Comprehensive School, op. cit., p. 109.



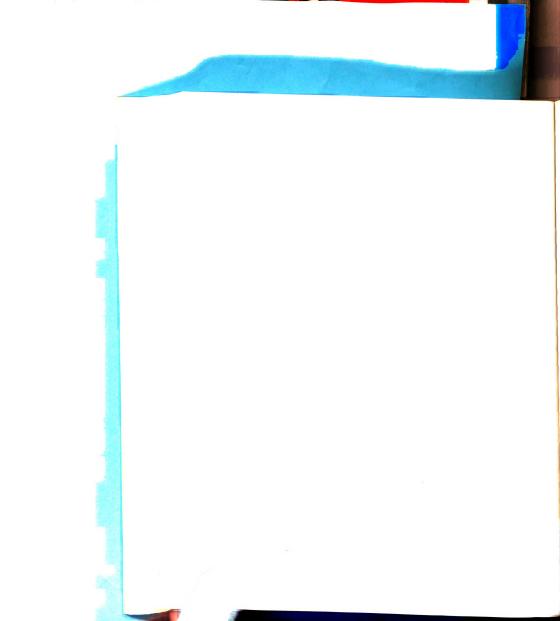
Articulation with higher education. --Though university admission requirements have long influenced American secondary schools, a singular lack of articulation between high school and college operations remains as a prominent defect in American public education. But it is interesting to note that a new sympathy for the secondary school experience is developing among college and university personnel as the demands for higher education bring more and more students to their classroom doors.

A modification of the sixth form may represent one way of improving the ties between college and secondary education in the United States; furthermore, there is a promise of additional rewards.

An adaptation of the British plan could abet the desires of young men and women to begin professional specialization at an earlier age thereby helping, also, to alleviate a growing shortage of trained personnel in the vast realm of social services. The term "secondary education" would assume greater importance in providing a firmer meeting ground between British and American usage of the expression. Student-teacher exchanges would take on the semblance of continuity, at least two years, presenting the instructor with more opportunities of fulfilling the critical requirements of the educational counseling role.

Too, the experience of high schools in the United States, featuring such innovations as the Advanced Placement Program, the National

⁸English charges that American interpretations of the term are quite misleading are illustrated by Vernon Mallinson, Review of The Revolution in Education, by Mortimer Adler and Martin Mayer, British Journal of Educational Studies, VII (May, 1959), pp. 171-173.



Merit Scholarships, and the participation by outstanding university scholars in construction of secondary school curricula, can offer exploratory avenues for closer ties between comprehensive schools and the universities of England.

However, the job of uniting higher education with comprehensive schools in England will be a truly formidable one, since college education in England has traditionally been within the reach only of "Public-" school and grammar-school graduates.

Suggestions for Further Research

Ten years ago, Will French saw the development of a <u>truly</u> [italics author's] comprehensive high school as one of the "great challenges" of American public education. 9 To do so, he said, would necessitate a fundamental reconstruction of the public high school.

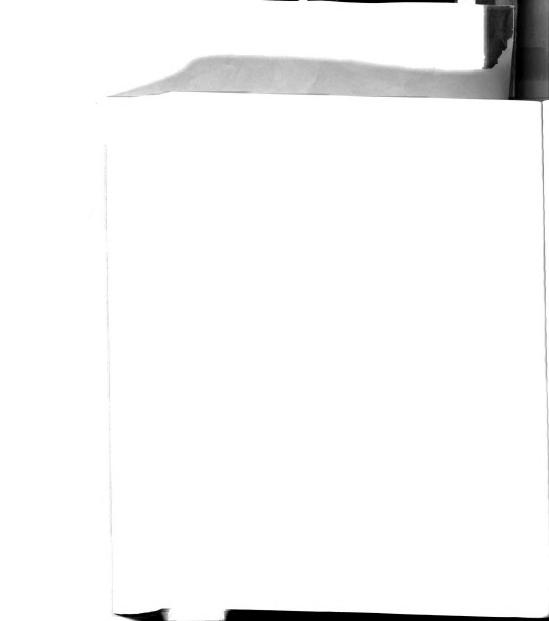
Comprehensive schools in England are identified with a Labour Party whose leader, Harold Wilson, professes to sense a desire of the populace for a "radical new kind of society." 10

Thus, if the guiding philosophy behind comprehensive schools is to reflect the values suggested by their advocates, at least two crucial issues must be accorded the most searching inquiry.

Meeting society's needs.--First is the question of whether a system of secondary education based on comprehensive schools is relevant

⁹French, op. cit., p. 10.

^{10&}quot;That Other Election," $\underline{\text{Chicago Sun-Times}}$, October 4, 1964, Section 2, p. 1.



126

to the industrialized and urban societies now present in England and America.

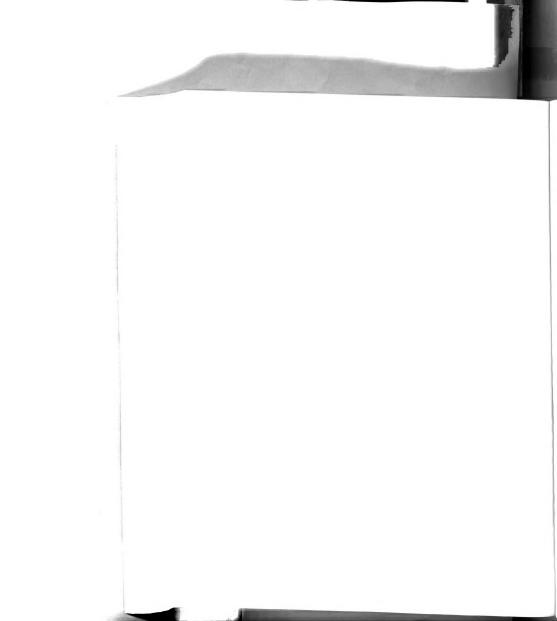
It appears in these metropolitan areas that we are evolving a new, and perhaps little understood, pattern of . . . life. If we believe in the concept that schools need to serve the contemporary society, the schools then will need to be different and teacher preparation will need to be different, simed at the unique problems and the unique phenomenon of metropolitan man, 11

A specific illustration of the changing needs wrought by an urban society is reflected in attempts, in the United States and in Britain, to alter the school year. In England, the school year begins in September and continues until late July. There are three terms, with Christmas and Easter vacations accounting for approximately three weeks each, and the summer respite amounting to about double that number of days. American high schools operate on a two-semester plan, normally ending by mid-June and resuming after Labor Day in early September. This practice is symbolic of an earlier era, when students were needed manpower for an agricultural society. Critics in both nations who argue that changes in socio-economic structures fuse with enlarging dimensions of knowledge to require a new type of year-round school are hard put to bring about revisions. "Tradition dies hard," writes the editor of the London Times Educational Supplement, but spokesmen for a longer school year have left unanswered numerous questions regarding finances, the feasibility of operating buildings on a twelve-months basis, the need for in-service teacher training, to name a few.

¹¹ Irving Melbo, "Education of Metropolitan Man," Symposium:

Changing Points of Control in Public Education (Los Angeles: University

F Southern California, 1963), p. 4.





Controversies surrounding the employment of grouping practices in American schools were previously cited. Research on the effects of grouping cannot, however, be isolated effectively from studies of curriculum change and teacher behavior. But a proposition stated by Philip Phenix sorely needs to be evaluated. He writes:

As a general rule, heterogeneous grouping provides unique opportunities for learning human relations, while homogeneous grouping is normally best for intellectual growth and mastery of specialized techniques and skills.

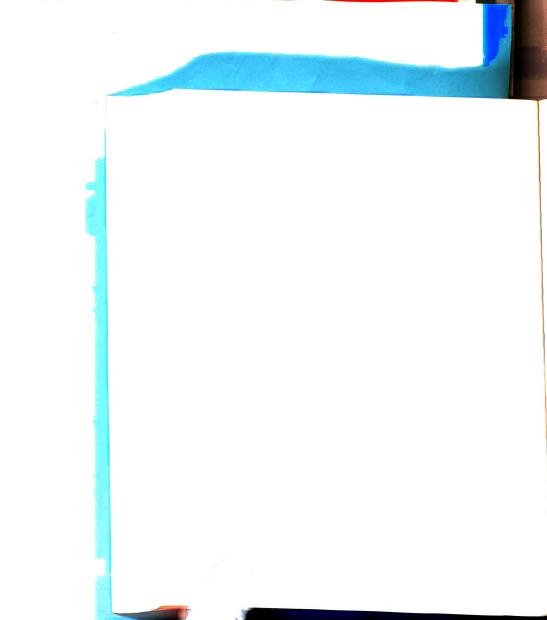
Grouping procedures were devised, here and in England, as a way of better educating $\frac{all}{l}$ pupils. But there is growing fear that the

¹²London Times Educational Supplement, December 25, 1964, p. 1432.

¹³Ibid., October 16, 1964, p. 633.

¹⁴Ibid.

 $^{^{15}\}text{Philip}$ Phenix, $\underline{\text{Philosophy of Education}}$ (New York: Henry Holt \mathbf{a} \mathbf{nd} Co., 1958), p. 99.





128

lower rung of the ability ladder is not receiving its just measure.

Cyril Burt, famed English psychologist, notes that the Crowther Report was least convincing with respect to its plans for the "C" stream. 16

Debates on the quality of English comprehensive schools often hinge on recriminations concerning allegedly poor work done with these weak students. 17

Education as Preparation for Life

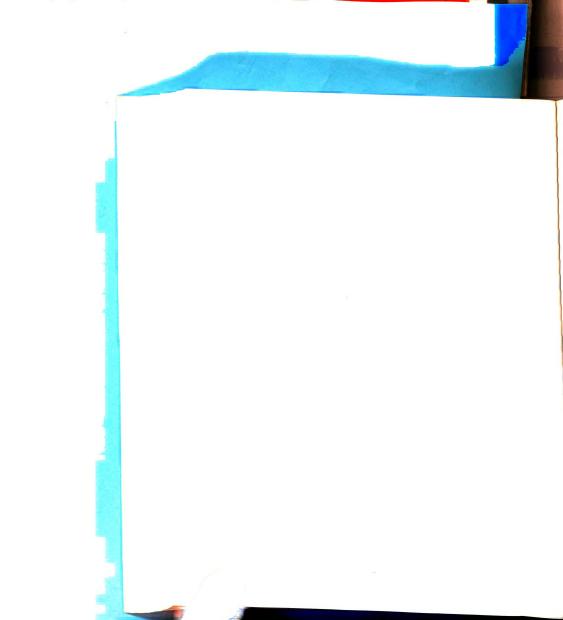
Moving beyond the academic arena, a political philosopher in England interprets the moral crisis of youth in his day as directly related to weaknesses in secondary education. The crass indifference of modern man, he submits, is a logical aftermath of the rejection of the values of secondary-school education by the alienated children of the working class. "It is clear," he asserts, "how this teen-age nihilism can be carried over into adult life." 18

If the comprehensive school is to remain an effective agent in the continuing struggle to help the young develop into productive and humane adults, a better understanding of how and why British and American comprehensive schools are both different <a href="mailto:and-display="mailto:an

¹⁶Cyril Burt, "Critical Notice: The Crowther and Albemarle Reports," British Journal of Educational Psychology, XXX (November, 1960), p. 278.

¹⁷London Times Educational Supplement, Issue of February 12th, 1965; February 19th, p. 525.

¹⁸Jean B. Quandt, "Political Philosophy and Educational Debate in England," <u>International Review of Education</u>, VI (January, 1960), p. 96.

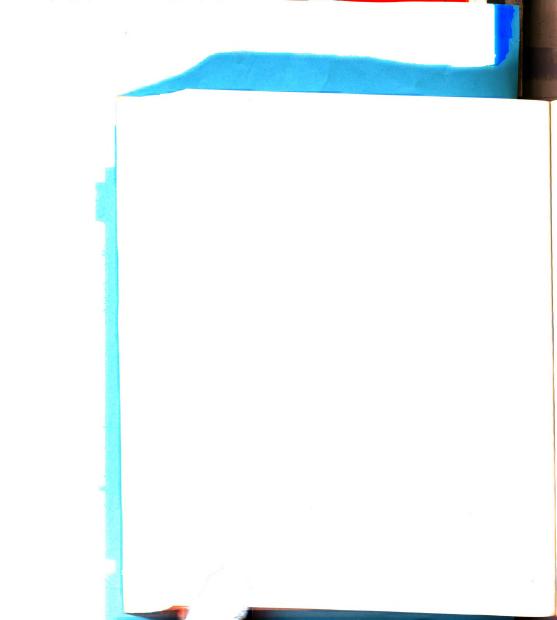




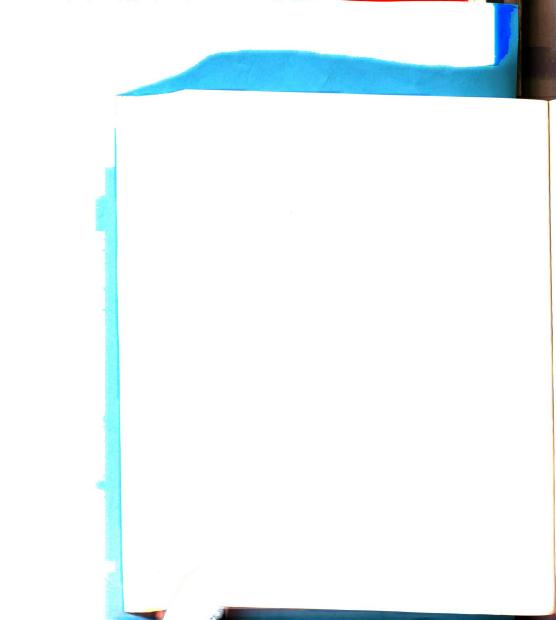
merge the best of the old tradition, as exemplified in England's history of selective education, with practices common to America's evolving pattern of universal schooling. The result: A stronger comprehensive high school on both sides of the Atlantic.

America and England are concerned with opposite sides of a single problem: we need to learn how to identify and develop our talented youth; England needs to learn how to provide opportunities for the large numbers of youth many of whom are not academically orientated. We have not solved all of the problems of 'mass education,' but we have done a better job than England. England has not solved the problem of developing its talented youth to the fullest extent, but they have done a far better job than we have. Both of us can learn . . . from the other.19

¹⁹Passow, Secondary Education for All . . . , op. cit., p. 217.







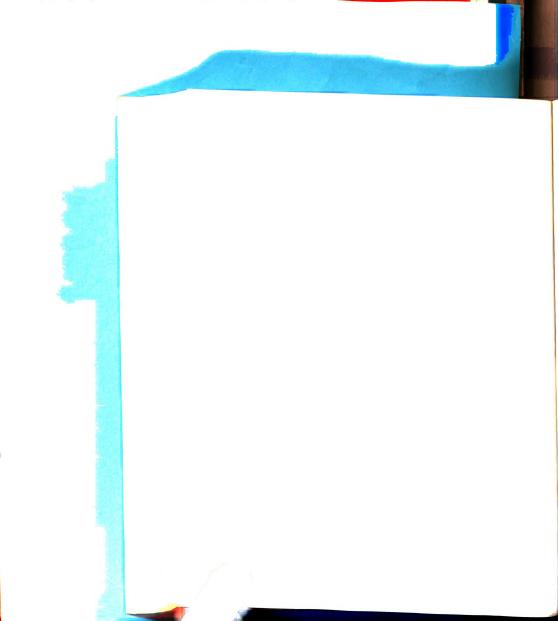


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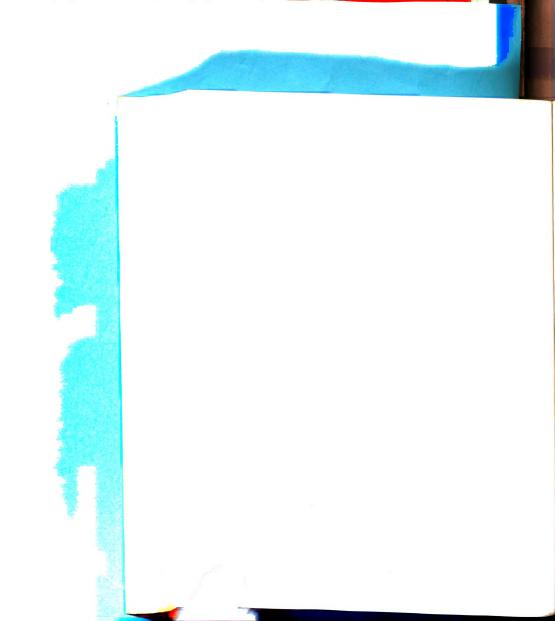


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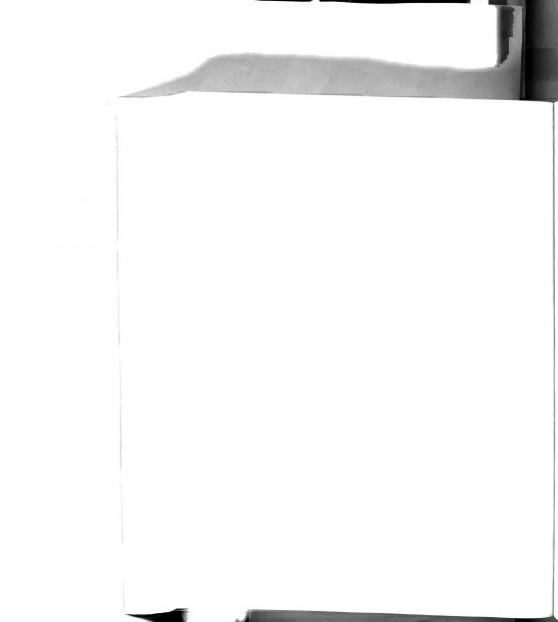
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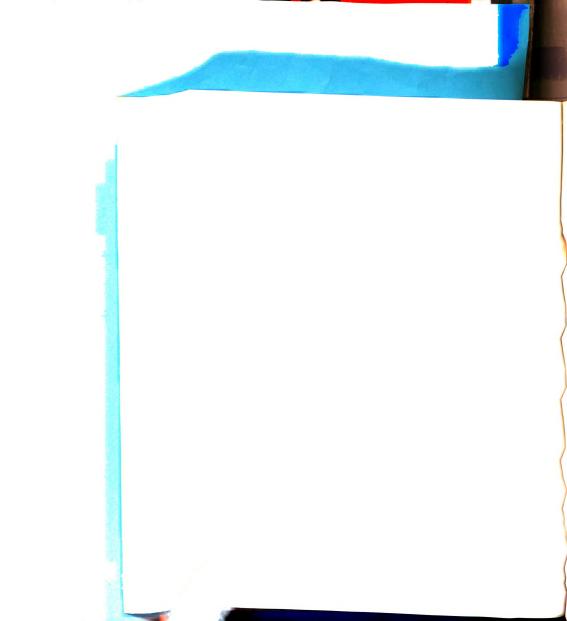
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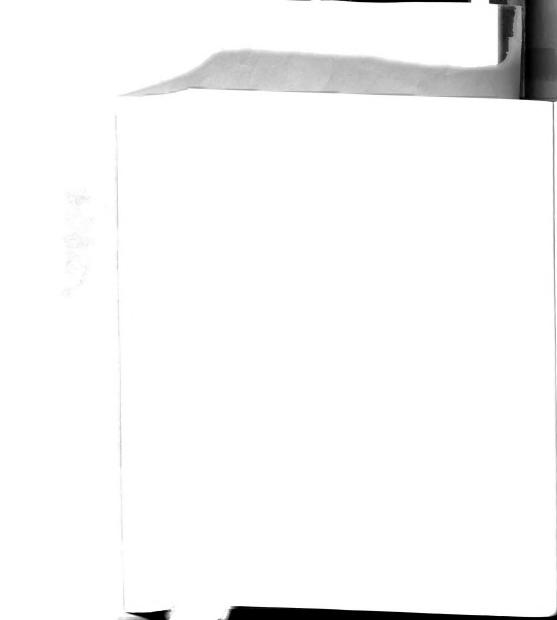
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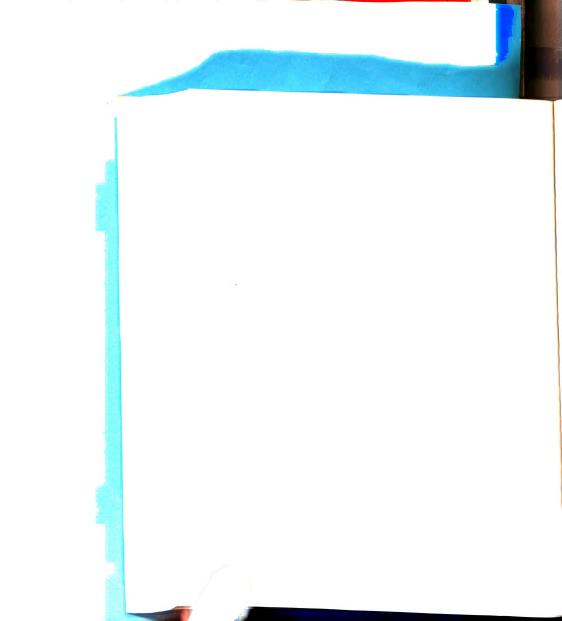
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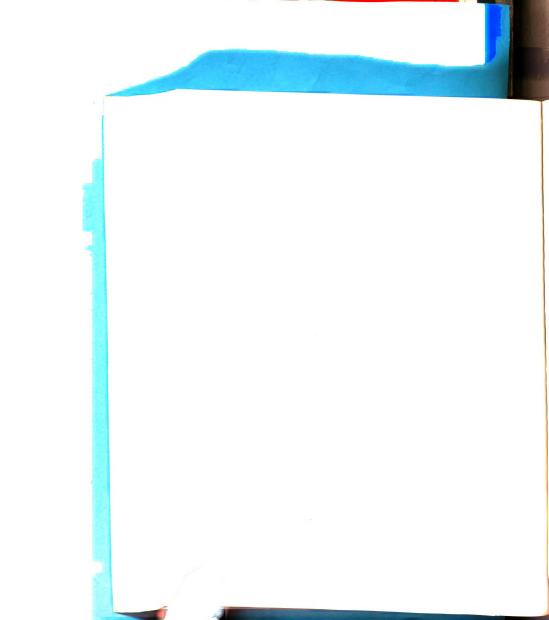
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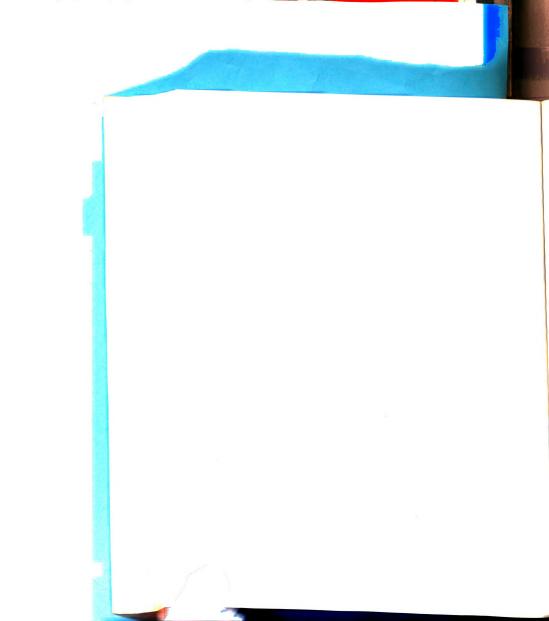
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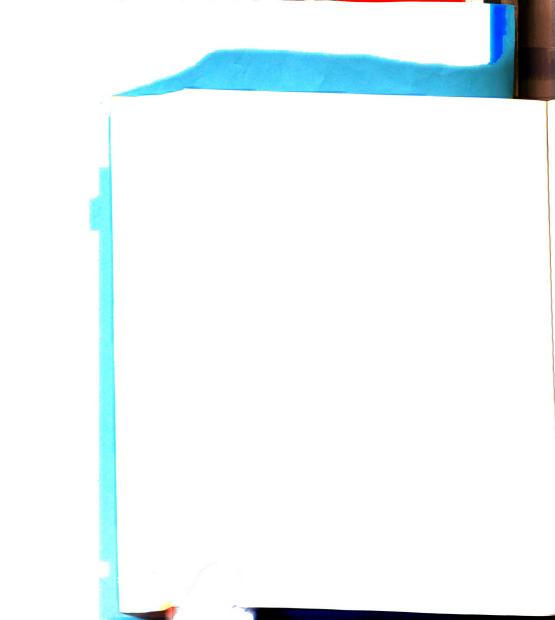
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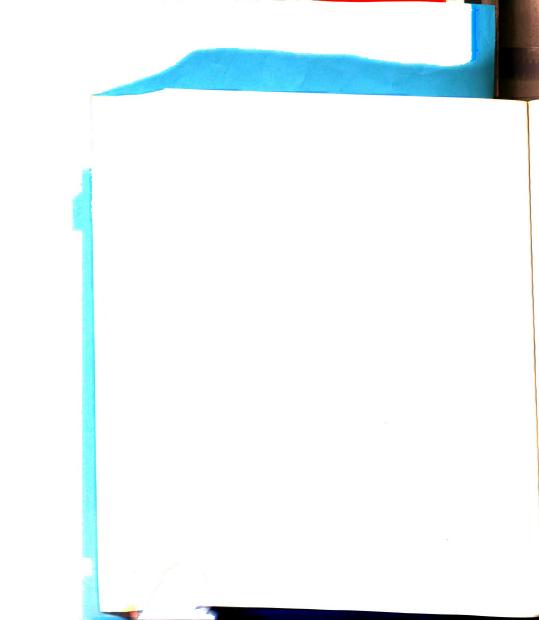
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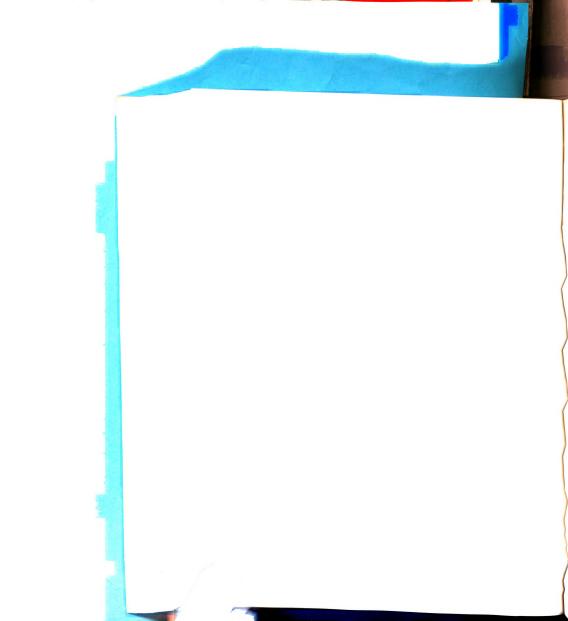


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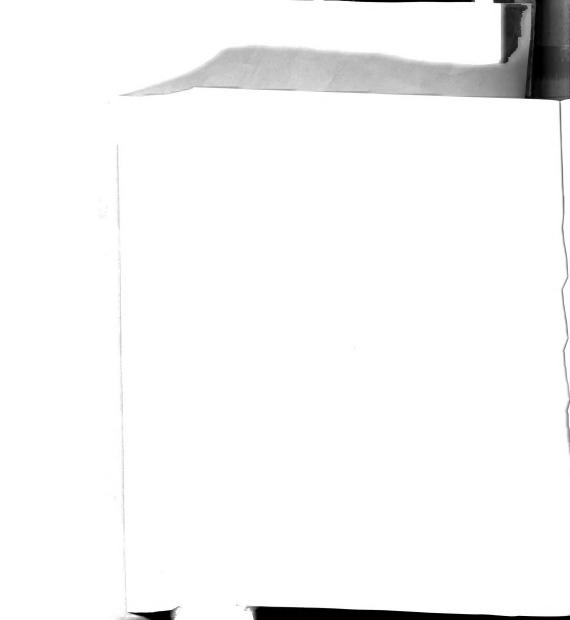


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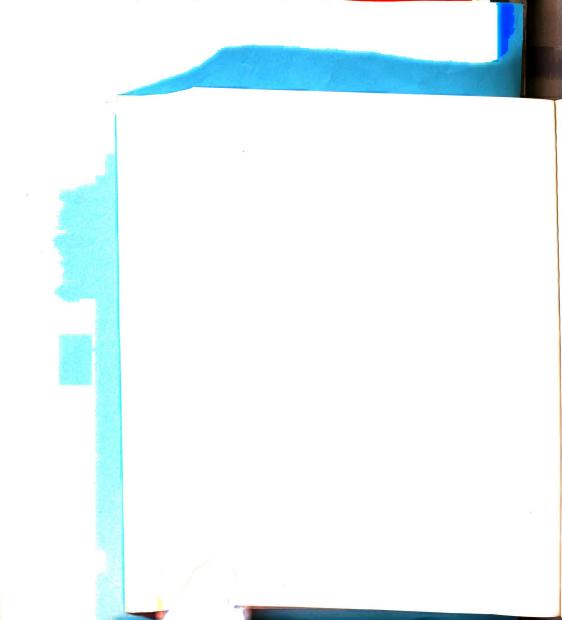
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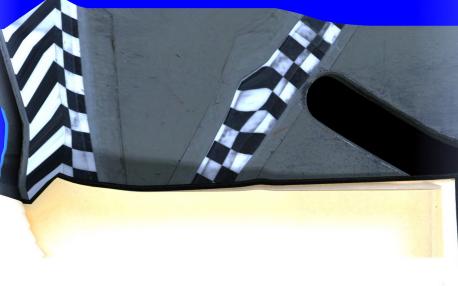


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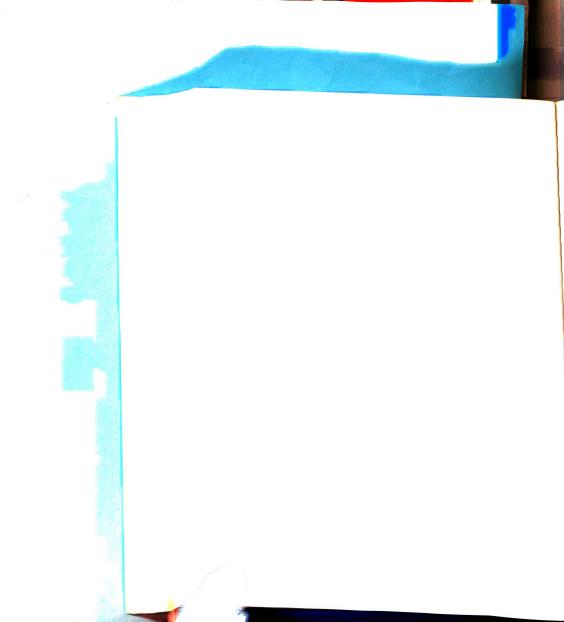
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- , 1962: The Gifted Child. Edited by George Z. F. Bereday and Joseph A. Lauwerys. Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: Harcourt, Brace and World.
- World Survey of Education, III, Secondary Education. New York: International Documents Service (UNESCO), 1961.





APPENDICES

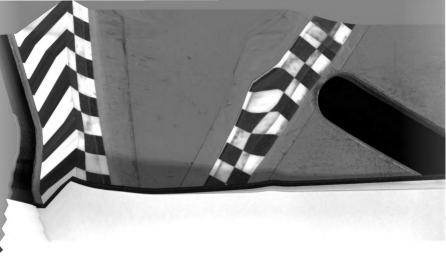




APPENDIX A

GLOSSARY OF ENGLISH TERMS





APPENDIX A

GLOSSARY OF ENGLISH TERMS

Advanced Level (G.C.E.) papers are designed to provide a reasonable test in a subject for pupils who have taken it as a specialist subject for two years after they have taken or might have been expected to take a group of papers at the Ordinary Level.

Central Schools were provided in many urban areas mostly in the interwar years as a result of the Education Act, 1918, requiring consideration of "courses of advanced instruction." They were of various types, selective and non-selective, and admitted children at varying ages. They had courses more advanced than those in elementary schools, not so complex as those in secondary (grammar)schools, and expected to keep most of the pupils to fifteen years of age. London Central Schools dated from 1911 and a few other localities had pre-1914 schools of this kind.

Certificate of Secondary Education was originally proposed in 1959.

It represents an attempt to allow teachers greater flexibility in devising a type of examination more in line with a particular school's needs, but which would be acceptable in the eyes of the Secondary Schools Examination Board. Designed to be taken in the fifth year of secondary education by students of low ability, the first examinations for this certificate will be given in 1965.

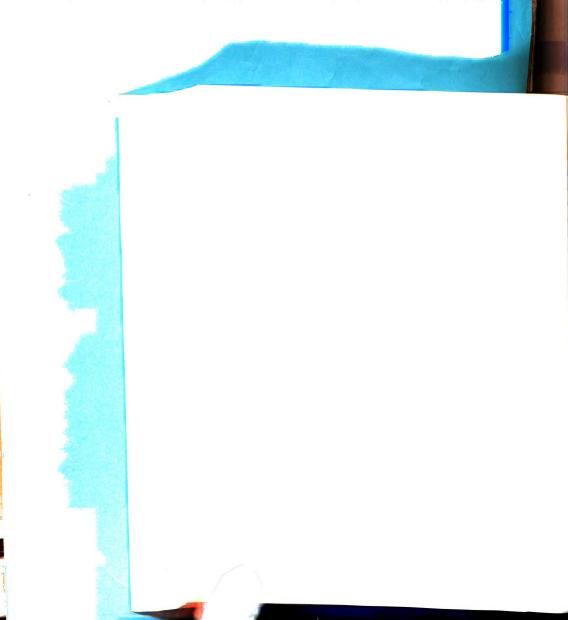
Eleven Plus (11+) Examination is the popular name given to any examination about the age of eleven for deciding the manner in which pupils are selected for the various secondary schools of a given area.

General Certificate of Education is awarded by the nine examining bodies approved by the Ministry of Education. It can be taken in most subjects studied at secondary schools. It is open to everyone over the age of sixteen and to those under sixteen whose Head Master or Mistress will certify that it is in their interest to take certain papers before sixteen. Candidates, who need not be pupils still at school, can take any subject or combination of subjects (with a few exceptions) at either Ordinary Level or Advanced Level or at both levels.

Grammar Schools provide a mainly academic course of secondary education

for pupils who mostly remain at school until sixteen years of

age. Some stay until they are seventeen, eighteen or nineteen.





"House" is the name given to a group or cross-section of pupils formed for some organizational purpose. It has been taken over, somewhat artifically, by day schools from the better known boarding schools where often groups of pupils lived in separate houses. In the day school the "house" is largely an artificial grouping (except in some comprehensive schools where there is a physical basis) for competitive or social purpose in club activities, games, etc.

Local Education Authorities—In England and Wales there are 146 local education authorities. These are 62 county councils and 83 county borough councils, besides one joint board representing the areas of a county and a borough. In order to use local knowledge and initiative, certain of the educational functions of county councils may be delegated to specially constituted divisional executives. These executives are individual county districts or combinations of districts or parts of districts.

Each local education authority must establish an Education Committee to which it entrusts its educational work, with the exception of certain financial transactions. Education committees must contain a number of persons of experience in education who may or may not be members of the council.

They build schools and colleges, pay teachers, provide materials, equipment, etc., meeting the cost out of local taxes, with the help of grants paid by the central government through the Ministry.

Ordinary Level (G.C.E.) papers are designed to provide a reasonable test in a subject for pupils who have taken it as part of a general secondary school course up to about the age of sixteen, and for pupils who have taken a subject in a non-specialist way thereafter.

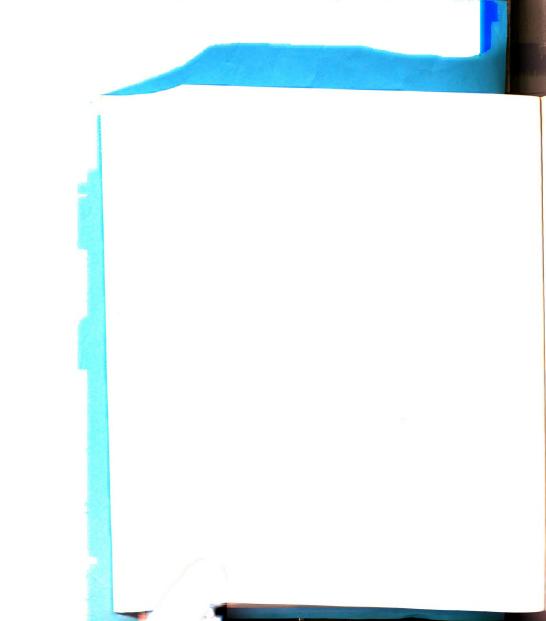
<u>Prefects</u> are senior boys or girls selected to assist the staff and serve the school in certain ways such as maintaining order about the school when the staff are not present, helping with games, clubs and activities, and taking part in the organization of regular special school functions.

Setting is the regrouping of the classes of a given year into "sets"
of roughly equal ability for a particular subject; it is quite
similar to the American concept of ability grouping by subject-

Sixth Form is the traditional name given to the top form of a school.

It is basically a minimum two year course above Ordinary Level standard in the G.C.E. and normally leading to the Advanced Level.

In this concept most of the sixth form pupils would be following a fairly highly specialized course, possibly mainly in three, or, perhaps, four subjects up to the standard of university entrance and beyond. Students planning to try for State Scholarships



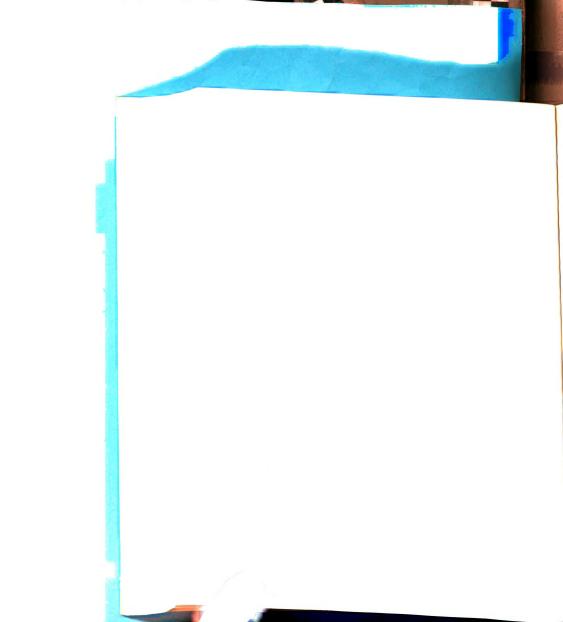
may spend three or four years in the sixth form. Others spend the conventional two years and attempt the examination for "advance Level." Still others may spend only a year in order to broaden their minds before taking a job. The new comprehensive schools, in particular, are developing very diversified sixth forms. The sixth form, however, remains the symbol of sustained, high academic work at school.

Streaming is the grouping of the students of each year's intake into classes according to their general ability. Thus ninety pupils would be divided into three classes of thirty each: A (above average); B (about average); C (below average).

Tripartite System or Pattern is the practice of dividing children of secondary school age into three groups, grammar, technical or modern, on the basis of ability and aptitude. Separate schools were established to carry out these provisions. The comprehensive school, of course, represents a break with this custom.

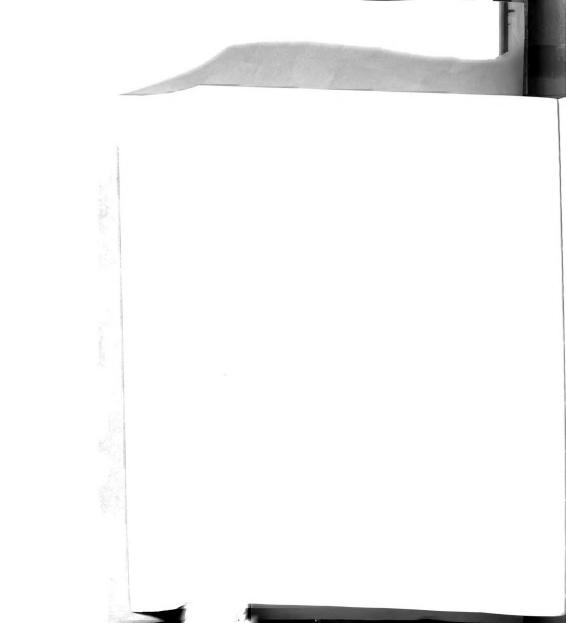
Youth Employment Service--Under the Employment and Training Act, 1948, local education authorities may be authorized to operate a Youth Employment Service. Otherwise the function is performed by the Ministry of Labour and National Service through the Central Youth Employment Executive. Where local authorities operate their own service control is vested in Youth Employment Committees whose full-time officers for guidance, placing and other functions are called "Youth Employment Officers."

PP. 151-162.



APPENDIX B

THE STRUCTURE OF EDUCATION IN ENGLAND



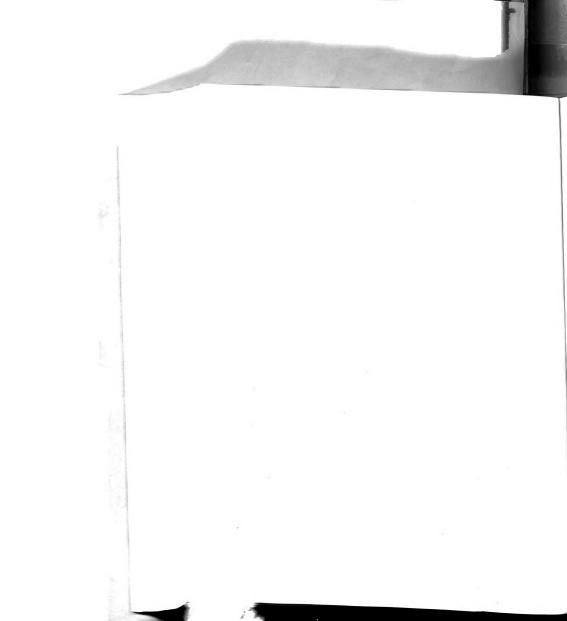
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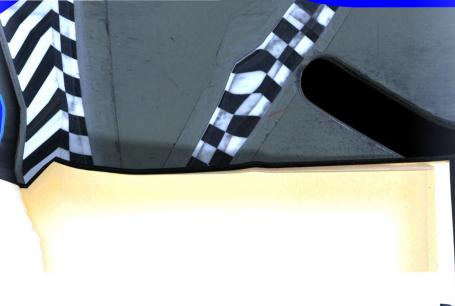
	A	PPENDIX I	3		
ТНЕ	STRUCTURE	OF EDUCA	Independent ('public' and other private schools)	ENGLAND	2% Training Colleges for Teachers
	5% Independent (private schools)		Inde ('public private		3% Universities
	GS% Seaso formery schools (Infants and Juniors)		2% Comprehensive Schools		3% Full-time courses In colleges (technical and commercial, etc.)
			5% Secondary Technical Schools		19% Part-time courses in day colleges (technical and commercial, (tec
			20% Secondary Grammar Schools		Par in (technic
					FURTHER
	Age Group G-11	Age Group 11-15	68% Secondary Modern Schools		15% Evening classes in technical & commercial commercial colleges and evening institutes

At School in Britain, op. cit., back cover.

2% Nursery classes and schools

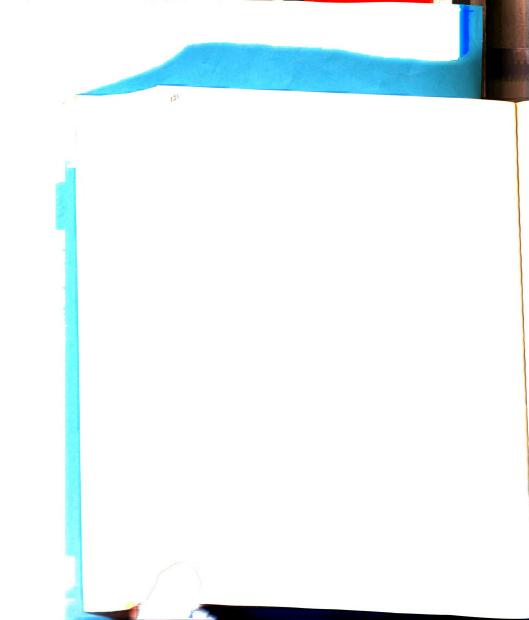
Age Group 2-5





APPENDIX C

IMPORTANT STEPS IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF SECONDARY
EDUCATION IN ENGLAND, 1894-1960



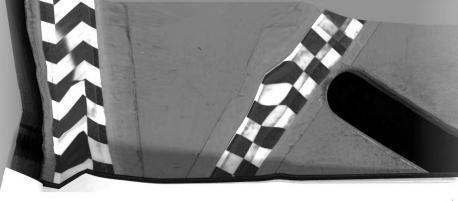


APPENDIX C

IMPORTANT STEPS IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF SECONDARY EDUCATION IN ENGLAND, 1894-1960

- 1894-95--The Bryce Commission on Secondary Education recommended a state system of secondary schools which would admit transfers of brighter students from the elementary schools. The commissioners urged that a central education authority be established, that the training of secondary teachers be systematized, and that a frontal attack be made on the problem of insuring 'that in all schools and in every branch of study the pupils be not only instructed but educated.'
- 1902--The Education Act established for the first time some sort of coordinated national school system. School boards were replaced by Local Education Authorities in counties and county boroughs with responsibility for both elementary and higher education, the latter defined as 'education other than elementary.'
- 1904--The Board of Education began regulating standards and working definitions of curriculum. The curriculum was to include an approved course of general instruction for a minimum of four years with students not younger than twelve years of age. The regulations generally followed the traditional grammar school curriculum. The Board did little to develop or encourage secondary schools of the quasi-vocational type.
- 1918--The Education Act (Fisher Act) bolstered post-primary education by making the L.E.A. responsible for providing central schools, central or special classes, or other training centers for more intelligent children willing to stay beyond age fourteen, and for other children, practical general instruction at more advanced levels. This law tightened the partnership between central and local education authorities, improving the procedure by which the latter could submit schemes of development for approval by the former.
- 1926 -- The Hadow Report, Education of the Adolescent, was issued by the Consultative Committee. The Committee proposed a general scheme of post-primary education which began at eleven-plus, ended for the majority of pupils between fourteen-and fifteen-plus, and made



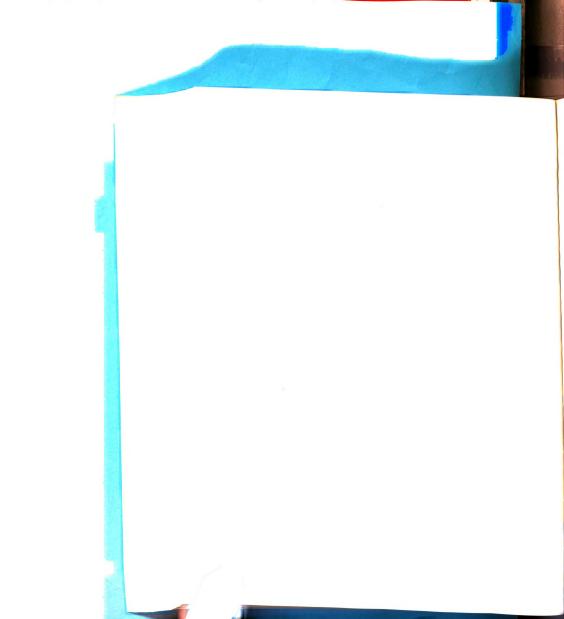


153

provisions up to age nineteen for some boys and girls. The Committee recommended that education up to eleven-plus be known as primary education, that education after age eleven be called secondary education, and that the schools at the secondary stage be designated as grammar schools, modern schools, and senior classes in elementary schools. The Committee discussed the curriculum of the modern schools and senior classes in terms of a practical bias; suggested adequate arrangements for transfer from one type of post-primary school to another; called for constructing and equipping modern schools appropriate to their function but not inferior to the grammar school; proposed framing a new type of leaving examination; and recommended teacher training and staffing comparable to that of the grammar school.

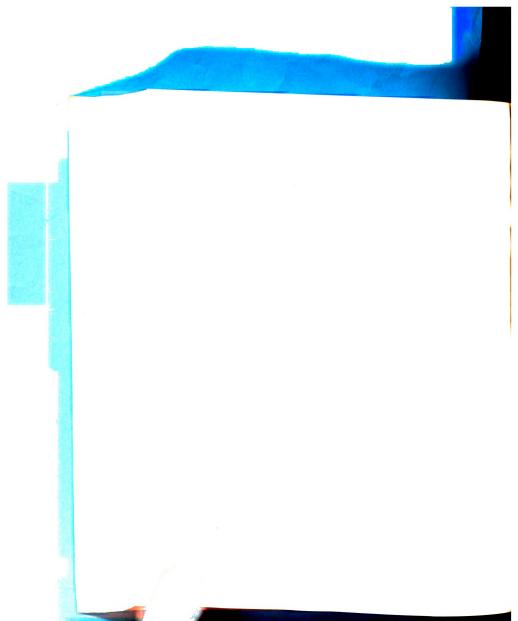
The Hadow Report is generally viewed as the beginning of a new era in English education, setting the foundation for future policy in secondary education which eventually resulted in the passing of the 1944 Act. The concept of education in stages, the provision of different types of education for all, the break at age eleven, the arrangement of transfer from one type of school to another, and even terminology date from this report.

- 1938--The Spens Report on Secondary Education With Special Reference to Grammar Schools and Technical High Schools was issued by the Consultative Committee which sat between 1933 and 1938. The Committee reviewed the development of the traditional curriculum in secondary schools and made specific proposals for the program and examinations for grammar and technical schools, stating their belief that there really was "no clear line of demarcation, physical, psychological, or social, between the pupils who attend Grammar School and those who attend Modern Schools," but that the latter were not included in their terms of reference. The Committee discussed the possibilities of a multilateral type of school but could not advocate such schools as part of a general policy except in sparsely populated areas. Parity among all types of secondary education was urged.
- 1943 The Norwood Report on Curriculum and Examinations in Secondary Schools was issued by the committee appointed by the President of the Board of Education in 1941. The report examined the nature of secondary education and concluded that there were three types of pupils, distinguished by particular types of minds, and that there should be three corresponding types of curriculum. The transfer at eleven-plus into an appropriate secondary school was to be regarded as a convenient administrative term covering children between ten-plus and twelve-plus. At thirteen-plus a review of each pupil's attainment should be made, and he should be promoted to the most appropriate type of school.



- 1944--The Education Act (Butler Act) presented for the first time in English history the basis for a comprehensive educational system. It contained the idea of a minimum of full-time education for every boy and girl irrespective of rank or station, compulsory, enforced by the state, to extend to the age of fifteen or sixteen. It was to be paid for out of the public treasury without subscriptions and without charity.
- 1959--In August, 1959, the Central Advisory Council issued a report entitled Fifteen to Eighteen (known as the Crowther Report) which strongly recommended extending the compulsory age to sixteen, somewhere between 1966 and 1968. The studies the Committee undertook-representing more than three years of work--were thorough and comprehensive. Its 519 charts include seventy-four tables and twenty-one charts. The Committee put the issues and problems of secondary education into a social, economic, psychological, historical and philosophical framework.
- 1960--The National Ministry issued a statement of policy on secondary education entitled Secondary Education for All: A New Drive. The place of comprehensive schools was acknowledged, particularly for rural regions and for new housing developments. However, the Ministry declared that comprehensive schools should not usurp the position held by other forms of secondary education. The continuing shortage of teachers was cited as a major problem facing education in England.

a Information obtained from Secondary Education for All: The English Approach, op. cit., pp. 12-17; 193-194.



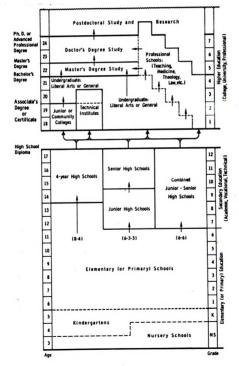
APPENDIX D

THE STRUCTURE OF EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES



APPENDIX D

THE STRUCTURE OF EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES



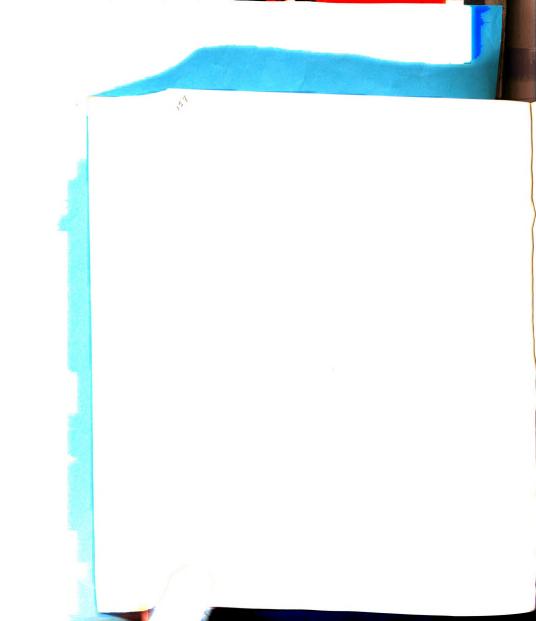
aDigest of Educational Statistics, op. cit., p. iv.





APPENDIX E

THE WORK OF NATIONAL COMMISSIONS, 1893 TO DATE, AND THEIR IMPACT UPON HIGH SCHOOLS IN THE UNITED STATES





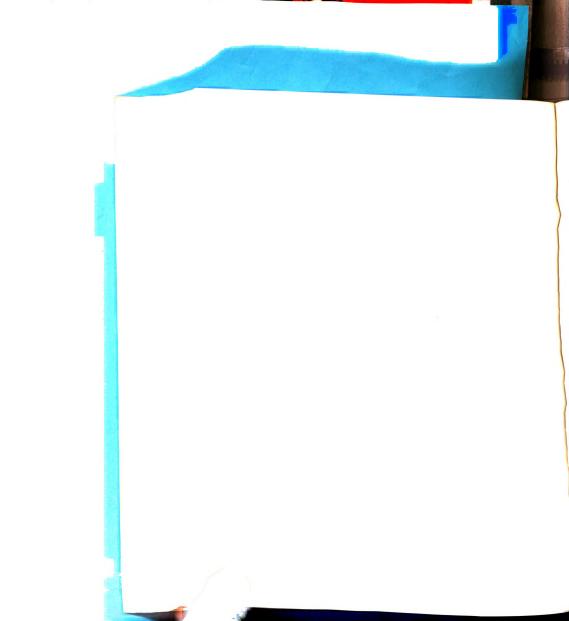
APPENDIX E

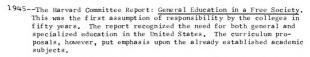
THE WORK OF NATIONAL COMMISSIONS, 1893 TO DATE, AND THEIR IMPACT UPON HIGH SCHOOLS IN THE UNITED STATES

- 1893--The Committee of Ten: Report of the Committee of Ten on Secondary
 School Studies. The high school curriculum was standardized around
 the college-preparatory objective, and the practice of setting up
 national committees to deal with issues was established.
- 1918--Commission on the Re-Organization of the High School: Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education. The Commission submitted that secondary education should be determined by the needs of the society it serves, the character of the individuals comprising it, and the knowledge of educational theory and practice available.
- 1937--Committee on the Orientation of Secondary Education: Functions of Secondary Education. Functions listed by the Committee were:

 (1) integration of subject matter; (2) satisfaction of needs; (3) evaluation of the social heritage; (4) exploration of interests, aptitudes, and capacities; (5) systematization and application of knowledge; (6) establishment and direction of interests; (7) guidance; (8) methods of teaching and learning; (9) retention and direction of learning.
- 1939--The American Youth Commission: Secondary Education for Youth in Modern America. An emphasis on education for citizenship wars stated. The needs in areas of recreation and leisure-time pursuits also were stressed. Schools were urged to educate for "life" as well as college study.
- 1940--The American Youth Commission--a series of reports: How Fare
 American Youth?; Youth Tell Their Story; and Equal Educational
 Opportunity. These reports represented studies of youth during
 a time of depression, and were designed as constructive proposals
 for aiding youth to combat this depression.
- 1942-The North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools:

 General Education in the American High School. General education, according to this report, is intended for everyone and is concerned with the whole personality.
- 1944--The Educational Policies Commission: Education for All American Youth (revised in 1952). The ten Imperative needs of youth were outlined; so were the ten imperative needs of society.

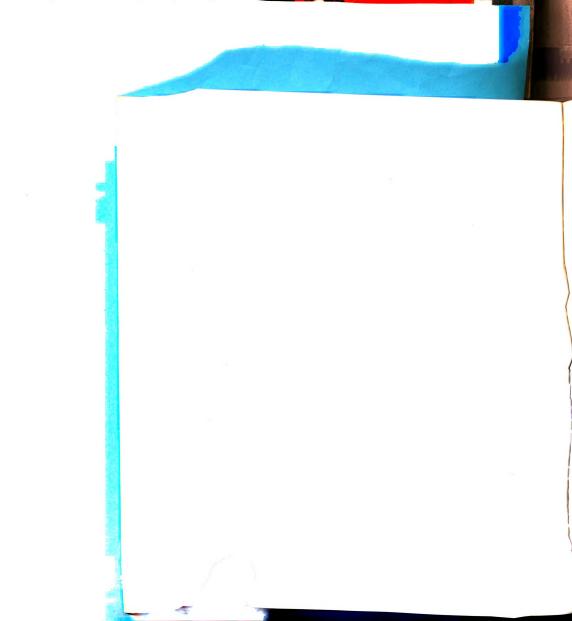


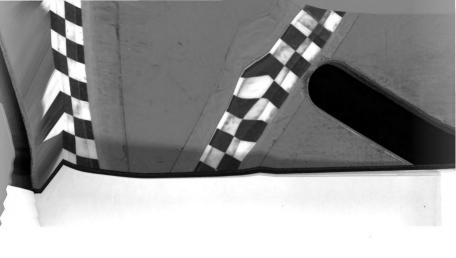


- 1946--Report of the John Dewey Society: <u>The American High School</u>. Suggestions for change were based upon the idea that the high school should live up to its promises.
- 1947--The United States Office of Education: The Prosser Resolution (the need for life adjustment education). The responsibility of making the high school truly a school for all was reiterated. General education was stressed along with more emphasis upon social integration.
- 1959--Carnegie Corporation, The Conant Report: The American High School Today. Its main proposals focused on elimination of the smaller high schools, and the need for ability grouping to challenge the gifted.
- 1960 to date--The United States Office of Education: Project Talent:

 Design for a Study of American Youth. This plan is conceived as a large-scale, long-range educational research project to determine the best methods for the identification, development, and utilization of human talents.

aInformation obtained from $\underline{\text{The American Secondary School}}$, $\underline{\text{op. cit.}}$, Pp. 20-21.





APPENDIX F

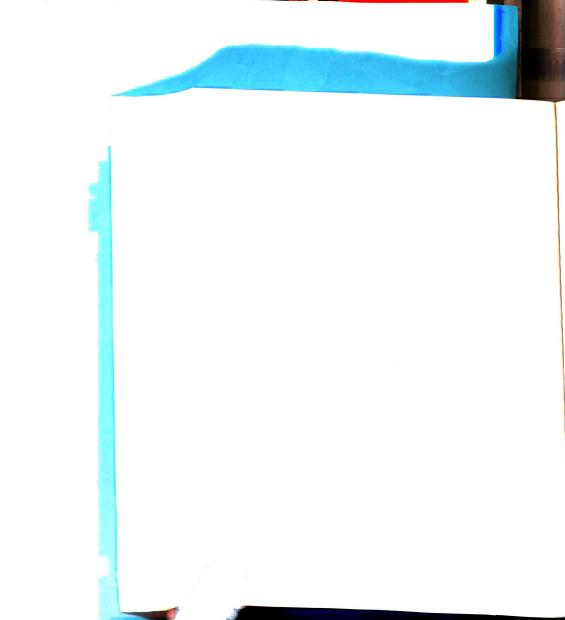
A CROSS-SECTION OF COMPREHENSIVE SCHOOL ORGANIZATIONAL PATTERNS, $\label{eq:longon} \mbox{LONDON, ENGLAND}$

APPENDIX F

A CROSS-SECTION OF COMPREHENSIVE SCHOOL ORGANIZATIONAL PATTERNS, LONDON, ENGLAND

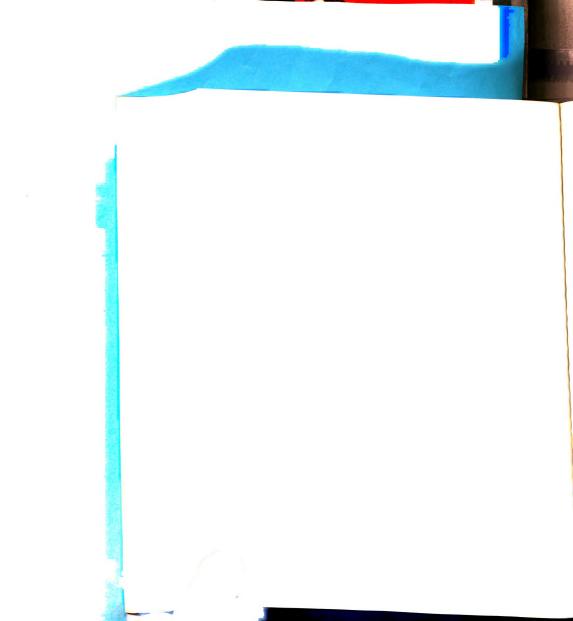
- 1. South-East London is a six-form entry boys' school. It was formerly a secondary technical school and in 1957 it was amalgamated with a non-selective secondary school and now has the use of two old buildings on sites some distance apart. It provides courses to "O" and "A" levels of the G.C.E. and special studies in engineering, building, and commerce.
- 2. Walworth is a six-form entry fully comprehensive school, established as long ago as 1947 as one of the first group of experimental schools formed shortly after the preparation of the London School Plan. It is at the present time (1960) undergoing a major remodelling and has the use of a new block together with old buildings which are being extensively remodelled. It is in due course to incorporate a three-form entry non-selective school. It provides courses to "O" and "A" levels of the G.C.E. and special studies in commerce and engineering.
- 3. Samuel Pepys is a seven-form entry boys' school planned as a complement to a three-form entry voluntary-controlled grammar school. It was formerly a mixed school but it ceased to recruit girls in 1954 and took in seven forms of boys suitable to its role as a complement; the remaining girls finally left the school in 1955. An annexe had to be used until a new block on the school site became available in 1956. In 1959 a neighbouring unselective mixed school was closed and the boys of this school were transferred to Samuel Pepys, the school for the time being making use of the premises of the former mixed school as a temporary annexe. The annexe is some distance away from the main school and will soon be given up. Samuel Pepys provides courses to "O" and "A" levels of the G.C.E. and special studies in engineering and commerce.

^{*}There are two kinds of schools within the public system; the county school, which is provided and maintained entirely by the local education authority; and the voluntary school, where a voluntary organization also carries responsibility. Both types are described as "maintained" schools.



- 4. Parliament Hill is a fully comprehensive eight-form entry girls' school formed in 1956 by the extension of an existing grammar school. The addition of a major amount of new accommodations enabled the school to provide not only for the academic courses already existing in the former grammar school up to "A" levels of the G.C.E. but also for special studies in commerce, pre-nursing, catering and needle trades.
 - 5. Woodberry Down is an eight-form fully comprehensive mixed school opened in new buildings in 1955. When the new school opened it incorporated a former mixed central school and these transfers were augmented by a considerable number of voluntary transfers. The school has had a fully comprehensive entry from its opening and provides courses to "O" and "A" levels of the G.C.E. and for special studies in pre-nursing, commerce, needle trades and engineering.
 - 6. Wandsworth is a thirteen-form entry boys' school which has during the period of pressure upon secondary accommodations in certain years taken a somewhat larger entry than this. The school was formed by the extension of a three-form entry country grammar school with new buildings completed in 1956 and the school is fully comprehensive. The grammar school in 1947 was extended experimentally with the addition of a technical school as an annexe but the full integration of the school and its extension to become a fully comprehensive community took place when the new buildings were complete. The school provides courses leading to "O" and "A" levels of the G.C.E. and has full provisions for special studies in both building and engineering.

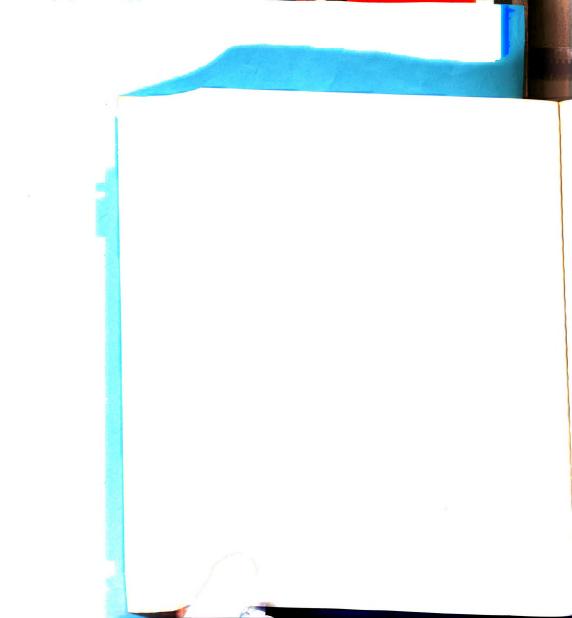
aInformation obtained from London Comprehensive Schools, op. cit.,. PP. 17-18.





APPENDIX G

EXAMPLES OF QUESTIONS USED ON THE ELEVEN-PLUS EXAMINATIONS





APPENDIX G

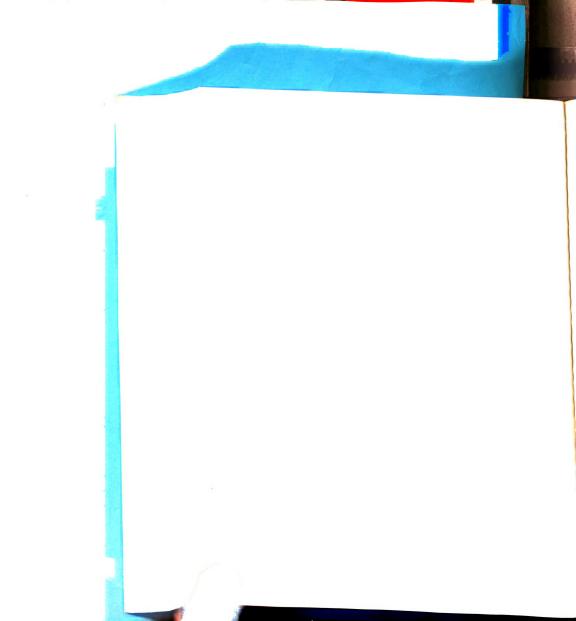
EXAMPLES OF QUESTIONS USED ON THE ELEVEN-PLUS EXAMINATIONS

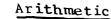
English

Some authorities require an essay to be written. Sometimes a child is expected to draw on his experience (as in the topic "Fireworks"). sometimes he is expected to use his imagination (as in writing a story introducing an island, a storm, a wrecked ship, an old man). Sometimes he is asked to write a description using an outline drawing. This may be of a person (such as a circus clown or an untidy boy) or a plan or geometrical drawing drmanding precision of language. In addition, there is often a question designed to test comprehension of reading, knowledge of vocabulary, spelling, simple punctuation and grammar.

Some of the newest test material is designed to induce the child to make a creative response in a controlled situation, e.g.:

- (1) Write down one complete sentence beginning with the words:
 - (a) To seek for
 - (b) Under no circumstances.
- (2) Make one sentence with the group of words: boots--father -armchair -- home by adding words of your own to those given. Words supplied may be used in any order.
- (3) Sometimes groups of words belonging to blank spaces in a paragraph are given. The groups of words inserted by the pupil from those supplied must make the paragraph sensible and in good English.
- (4) Sometimes separate sentences are to be joined to make one sentence, e.g.: Daddy went fishing. I went with him. We caught seven plaice. In so doing the child has to add some words of his own and also to leave out some of those provided to make a neat sensible sentence.





The questions set often fall into two or three types:

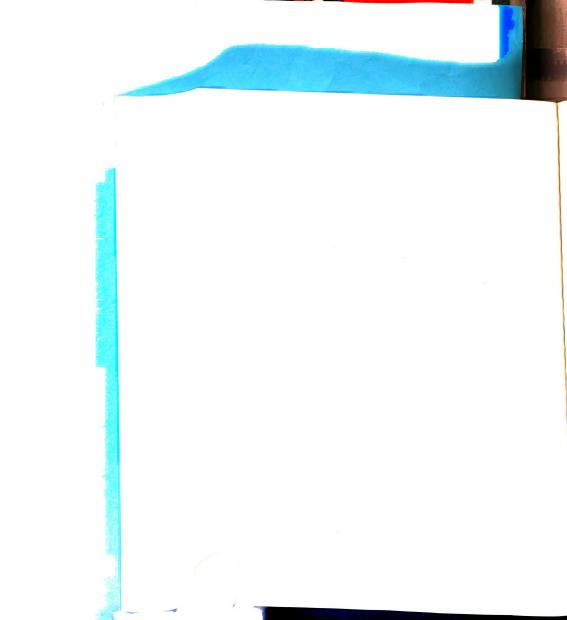
- (1) Those to be worked mentally, answers only required. Examples of these are:
 - (a) 7 + 13 = 24
 - (b) 9 x 7 x 10
 - (c) 73 27
 - (d) $\frac{1}{2}$ gross + 12
 - (e) How many $2\frac{1}{2}$ d. stamps can be bought for 5s?
 - (f) How many 2 oz. packets of sweets can be made from a jar containing 7 lb. of sweets?
 - (g) I can walk at the rate of $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles per hour. How long will it take me to walk 21 miles?
- (2) Those testing knowledge of the processes addition, subtraction, multiplication and division using tables and measures.

Multiply	bbA	Subtract	Divide
632 79	s. d. 3 6 5½ 9 11 5 14 6½	1b. oz. 13 5 8 7	
	J.		

- (3) Those requiring logical reasoning and careful statements; stages in the working are to be shown.
 - (a) The starting wage for a job is 5 10s. a week. At the end of every 6 months a raise of 7s. 6d. a week is given. If an employee started work on 1st January, 1959, how much would he earn for the whole of 1961?
 - (b) A plane commences a journey with $2\frac{1}{2}$ tons of petrol. It flies at 210 miles for an hour and uses 3 gallons of petrol a minute. If 300 gallons of petrol weigh 1 ton, what weight of petrol is left after the plane has flown 700 miles?

If the speed is then changed so that 2 gallons of petrol are used a minute, the plane can fly a further 225 miles. Calculate the new speed.

One authority is known to include practical arithmetic questions such as:

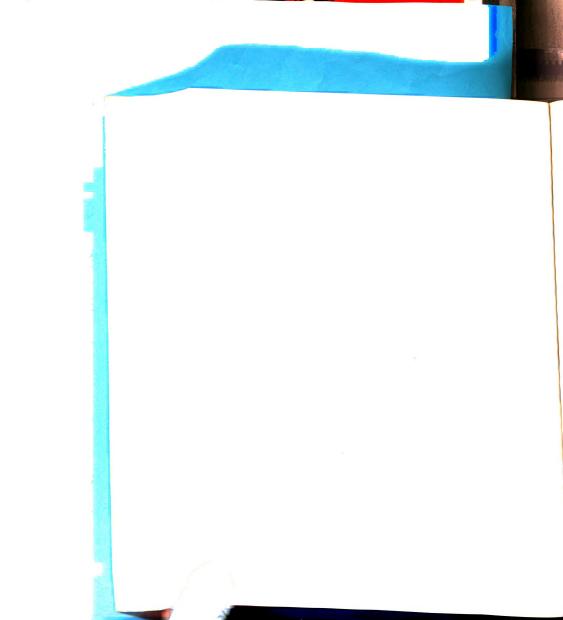


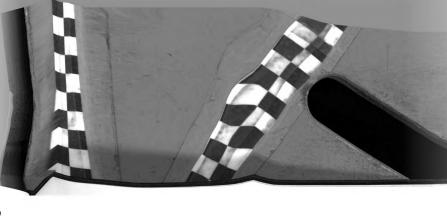


- (2) A good runner can cover a mile in $\,$ 30 min.; 60 min.; 2 min.; 5 min.; 5 min.; 15 min.
- (3) About how long does daylight last in England in the middle of summer? 24 hr.; 12 hr.; 9 hr.; 18 hr.; 36 hr.

The same authority sets several questions on information supplied: e.g., questions on a bus timetable; on an outline road map; on inserting advertisements in newspapers.

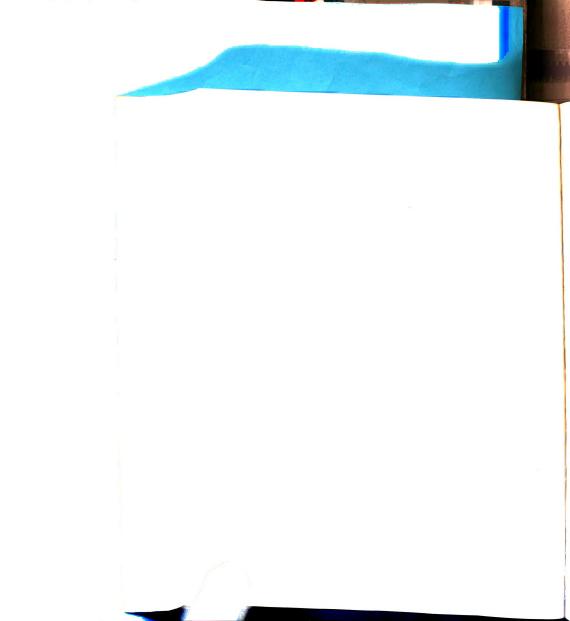
aInformation supplied by <u>Primary and Secondary Schools in Britain</u> (New York: British Information Services, 1962), pp. 7-9.





APPENDIX H

A COMPARISON OF QUESTIONS USED ON EXAMINATIONS FOR THE GENERAL CERTIFICATE OF EXAMINATION, "ORDINARY" AND "ADVANCED" LEVELS, AND THOSE USED ON THE COLLEGE BOARD ACHIEVEMENT TESTS



APPENDIX H

A COMPARISON OF QUESTIONS USED ON EXAMINATIONS FOR THE GENERAL CERTIFICATE OF EXAMINATION, "ORDINARY" AND "ADVANCED" LEVELS, AND THOSE USED ON THE COLLEGE BOARD ACHIEVEMENT TESTS

"Ordinary Level"--G.C.E.: English

English Literature: One paper of $2\frac{1}{2}$ hours, testing knowledge of prescribed textbooks. Five questions must be answered from a wide choice covering a variety of texts.

- (1) On As You Like It. "Rosalind's character is made up of gaiety and natural tenderness." What evidence is there in the play that Rosalind possesses these two qualities?
- (2) On Macbeth. "Security is mortals' chiefest enemy."
 - (a) Explain this sentence, showing how the idea expressed in it is applied by the witches to bring about Macbeth's downfall, and (b) show how Macbeth finally came to realize how he had been misled.
- (3) On A Book of Narrative Verse. "Morte d'Arthur is the story, not only of the death of a King, but of the passing of an age." With close reference to the poem and with particular reference to the words of Arthur and Bedivere, show how this opinion can be justified.
- (4) On <u>Keats: Selections</u>. Show how interest in the story of The Eve of St. Agnes is enhanced by the poet's vivid presentation of detail. Support your answer by quotation or close reference, but do not tell the story of the poem.

"Advanced Level"--G.C.E.: English.

English Literature: 3 papers of 3 hours each.

(1) Prescribed texts of Chaucer and Shakespeare. Five questions must be answered, including at least two from the Chaucer section and two from the Shakespeare section.



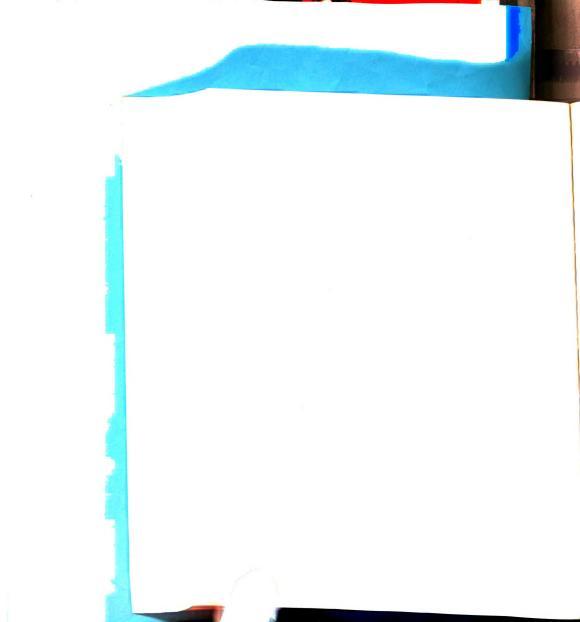
- (a) By close reference to his descriptions of three or four pilgrims, show how Chaucer varies his method of characterization in the Prologue.
- (b) "The Elizabethan audience demanded action and sensation."

 Describe in detail one scene in Hamlet that you think would satisfy this demand, and indicate its importance in the course of this tragedy.
- (2) Prescribed texts representative of English literature from Chaucer to the present day. The paper is divided into 15 sections; five questions must be answered, from five different sections.
 - (a) Spenser: Selections. Illustrate and comment on Spenser's excellence in pictorial description in one of the following from your Selections: Epithalamion; the Cave of Mammon; Arthegall and the Giant.
 - (b) Milton: Comus and Some Shorter Poems. "A blend of magic and mortality." How far has Milton been successful in achieving this blend in Comus?
 - (c) Johnson: Prose and Poetry, or A Shorter Boswell. What aspects of Johnson's personality described in Boswell's Character have you found reflected in his writing? Illustrate from your selections of Johnson's Prose and Poetry.
 - (d) Jane Austen: Northanger Abbey. "Jane Austen's characters are often ridiculous, but they are seldom unpleasant." How far have you found this to be true of the characters in Northanger Abbey?
 - (e) Shaw: The Apple Cart. Mention some of the devices whereby Shaw makes discussions dramatically effective in The Apple Cart.
- (3) Paper three consists of passages in verse and prose which are designed to test the candidates ability to elucidate their meaning and to show his appreciation of their literary form and content.

College Board Achievement Test--English

English composition: You will have 20 minutes to plan and write an essay on the topic below.

It is common assumption that only the old are resistant to change. We forget that the teen-ager, despite his interests in rockets and rock 'n' roll, is the conservative of the human family. The teenager typically finds a pattern and follows it without deviating an inch; he avoids being different as he would avoid a contagion.





"Ordinary Level" -- G.C.E.: History

History: one paper of $2\frac{1}{2}$ hours. The paper is divided into 12 sections: 7 sections on English history from 55 B.C. to A.D. 1931, and 5 sections on European history (and the development of the Commonwealth) from 1500 to 1933. Five questions in all chosen from any two sections must be answered.

- (1) In <u>English</u> history, 55 B.C. to A.D. 1216. What was Domesday Book? What do we learn from it about English life during this period?
- (2) In <u>English</u> history, 1763 to 1832. Explain the reasons which led the American colonists to issue the <u>Declaration</u> of Independence.
- (3) In English history, 1880 to 1931. Trace the growth of the Labour Party during the period 1880-1924.

College Board Achievement Test--History

American history: "The history of ideas in America indicate the strong and positive influence of scientific thinking." Which of the following would provide the <u>least</u> support for the above statement?

(A) Pragmatism

(C) Relativism

(B) Rationalism

- (D) Social Darwinism
- (E) Transcendentalism

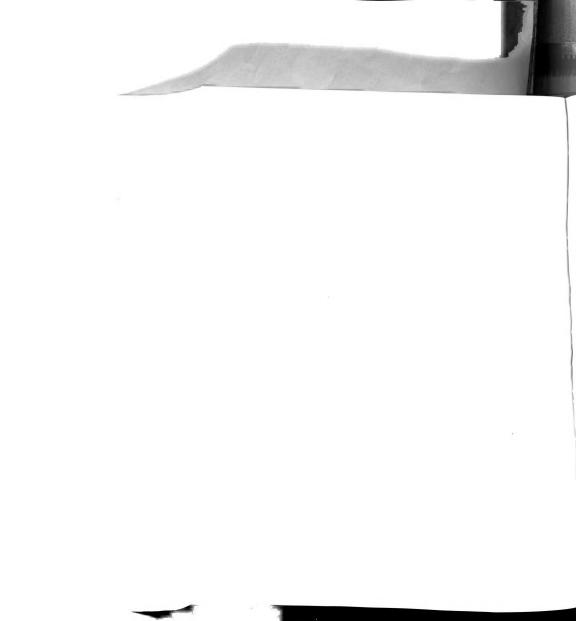
European history: "We are from fifty to one hundred years behind the advanced countries. We must run through the distance in ten years. Either we do this or they will crush us. We must switch over from the rails of medievalism and darkness to the rails of modern industry and machine-equipped agriculture." This statement was probably made by

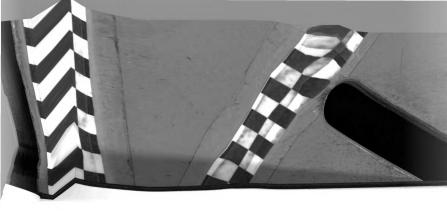
(A) Nehru

(C) Mussolini

(B) Hitler

- (D) Stalin
- (E) Peron





"Ordinary Level"--G.C.E.: Science

Chemistry: one paper of 3 hours, with 6 questions out of a choice of 10.

- (1) Give a full description of chemical tests, one for each pair of substances, that would enable you to distinguish between the members of five of the following pairs:
 - (a) carbon and manganese dioxide
 - (b) sodium nitrate and sodium sulphate (c) metallic zinc and metallic lead
 - (d) oxygen and nitrous oxide
 - (e) sodium carbonate and sodium bicarbonate
 - (f) ferrous sulphate and ferric sulphate.
- (2) Describe how cast iron is usually obtained from iron ores, paying special attention to the chemical reactions involved in the process. Given some iron filings, describe how you could prepare from them(a) ferrous sulphate crystals, and (b) anhydrous ferric chloride.

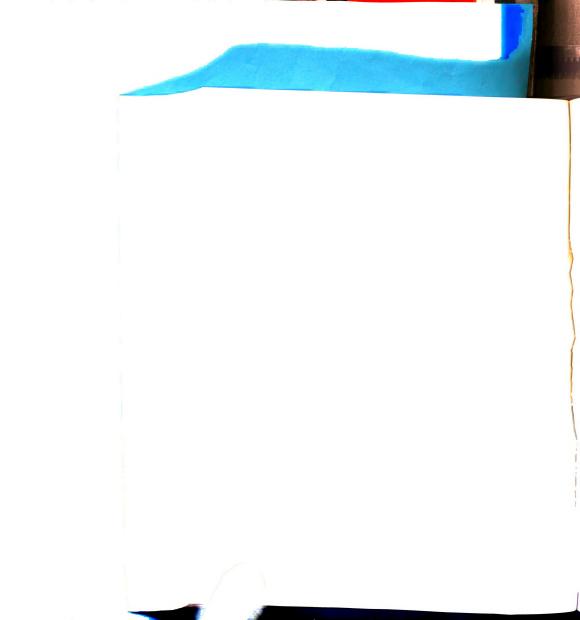
"Advanced Levels" -- G.C.E.: Science

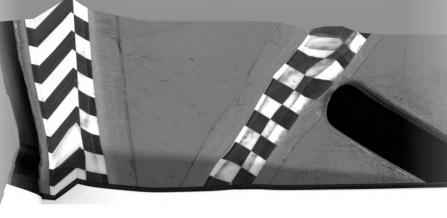
Chemistry: two 3-hour papers, and one 3-hour practical test. In the written papers, five questions out of ten in each are required.

(1) White graphic formulae fro compounds containing an alkyl radical attached to (a) the primary alcoholic group, (b) a secondary alcoholic group, (c) the carboxyl group, (d) the primary amino group. State briefly, giving examples and equations, the characteristic reactions of these compounds.

What is the most important ore of mercury? Briefly explain how the metal is obtained from it. Describe the purification of mercury containing small amounts of other metals. What happens when aqueous solutions of (a) sodium hydroxide, (b) stannous chloride, (c) ammonia are added to an aqueous solution of mercuric chloride?

(2) Give an account of the laboratory preparation of a pure dry specimen of ethyl bromide. Describe the reactions of ethyl bromide with (a) metallic sodium, (b) moist silver oxide, (c) alcoholic potassium hydroxide, (d) ammonia. In each case give the equation.





Give a brief account of three of the following, illustrating your answer with examples:

- (a) the effect on the freezing point of a solvent produced by the addition of a non-volatile solute;
- (b) the differences between a complex salt and a double salt; (c) isotopes:
- (d) electrovalency and covalency; (e) the theory of acid-base indicators.
- (3) Practical. Two exercises are required, with no choice.
 - (a) Use the given sodium chloride (NaCL) to determine the normality of the silver nitrate solution A. By means of A find the number of grams of potassium thiocyanate (KCNS) per litre of solution B.
 - (b) Make a solution containing between 1 1 and 1 3 grams of sodium chloride in 250ml, and use 25ml, portions for titration with A. Rinse out the burette with distilled water and then with a few ml. of solution B. Fill the burette with B and titrate 25ml. portions of the silver nitrate A, using the ferric alum indicator solution provided. Analyze qualitatively the mixture C which contains four radicals.

College Board Achievement Test--Science

Chemistry: Direct current is passed through a concentrated aqueous solution of sodium chloride. If inert electrodes are used, which of the following result?

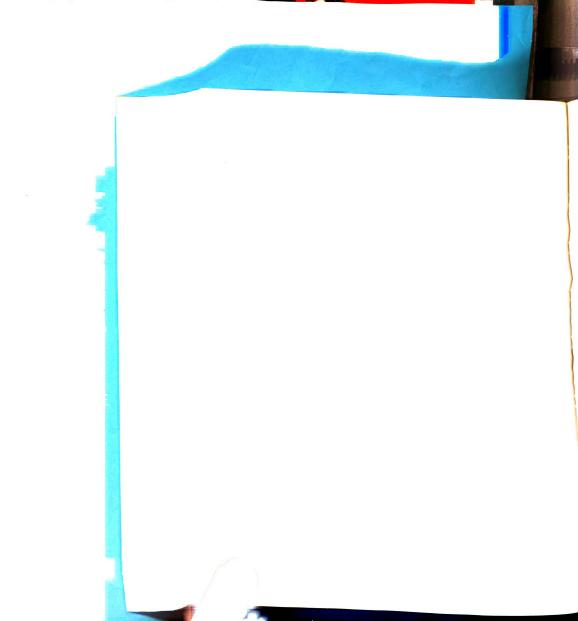
- (a) Evolution of chlorine gas
- (b) Evolution of oxygen gas
- (c) Formation of sodium hydroxide solution
- (d) Plating out of metallic sodium on the cathode

The theory of ionization is useful in explaining

- (a) the conduction of electricity through water solutions of salts
- (b) neutralization reactions
- (c) gas pressure
- (d) the existence of isotopes

aSample questions concerning the General Certificate of Education taken from Primary and Secondary Schools in Britain, op. cit., pp. 9-13.

 $[\]mathbf{b}_{Sample}$ questions concerning the College Board Achievement Test taken from A Description of the College Board Achievement Tests, College Entrance Examination Board, 1963, pp. 14, 68, 75, 104.

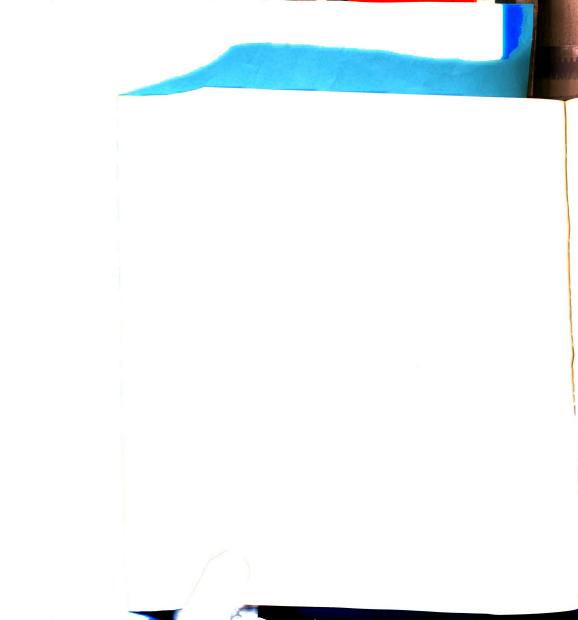




APPENDIX I

AN ILLUSTRATION OF THE CARNEGIE UNIT SYSTEM

IN AN URBAN MID-WESTERN HICH SCHOOL





APPENDIX I

AN ILLUSTRATION OF THE CARNEGIE UNIT SYSTEM IN AN URBAN MID-WESTERN HIGH SCHOOL

Subject	Units
English Social Studies	 31
Mathematics	 21:
Mathematics Science	 12
Foreign Language	 2
Physical Education	 1
Elective	 23
Total	 16

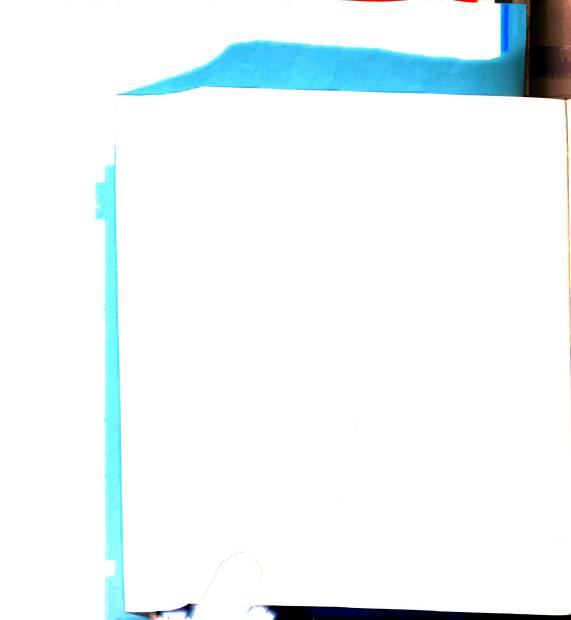
 $^\circ\textsc{One-half}$ unit may be omitted by passing exemption test. Fifteen units must be solids; that is, subjects granting full credit, for this college-preparatory course.

Subject	Units
English	. 31
Social Studies	. 3
Mathematics	. 12
Mathematics. Science.	. 12
Commercial	. 1
Physical Education	. 1
Electives	. 4½

*One-half unit may be omitted by passing exemption test. Majors and minors; subjects to make a total of 32 credits are required for graduation. English and social studies provide the two required majors. Electives must be chosen in such a way as to make two minors in subjects other than English and social studies. A minor consists of four credits taken in any of the following subject fields: mathematics, foreign language, science, commerce, home economics, art, or printing.

174

a"The Present Role of the Carnegie Unit in Secondary Education," Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals, XLVIII (January, 1964), p. 27.

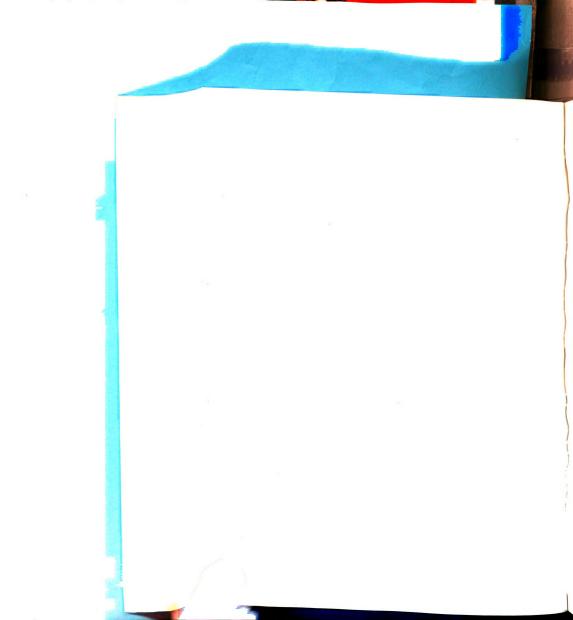




APPENDIX J

GROUPING PROCEDURES IN PECKHAM COMPREHENSIVE

SCHOOL, LONDON





History

Physical Education Religious Education

House M Mu Ndk PE RE Sc

Housecraft Mathematics leedlecraft Science

Key to Abbreviations

Chem1stry Commerce

Biology

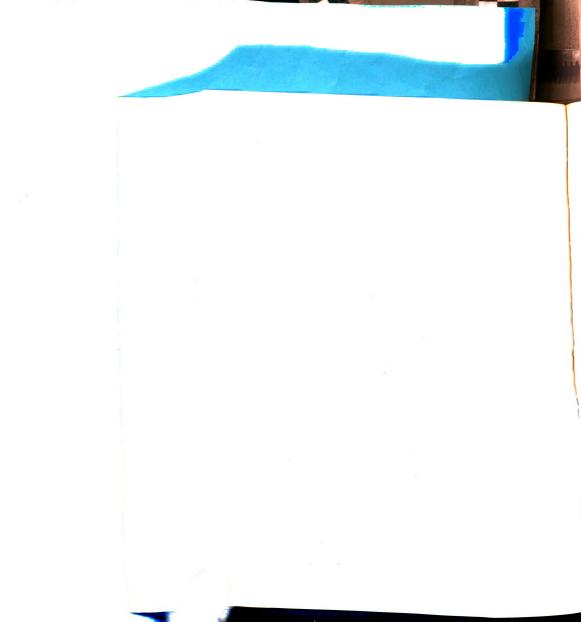


PECKHAM SCHOOL

GROUPING PROCEDURES IN PECKHAM COMPREHENSIVE SCHOOL, LONDON

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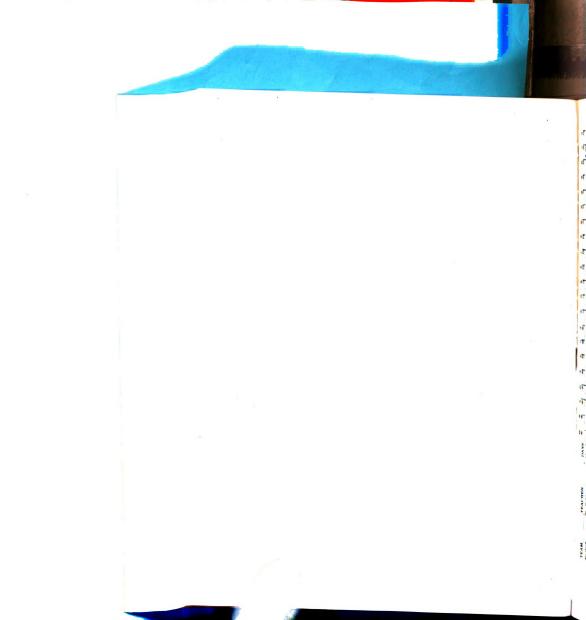
a London Comprehensive Schools, op. cit.,





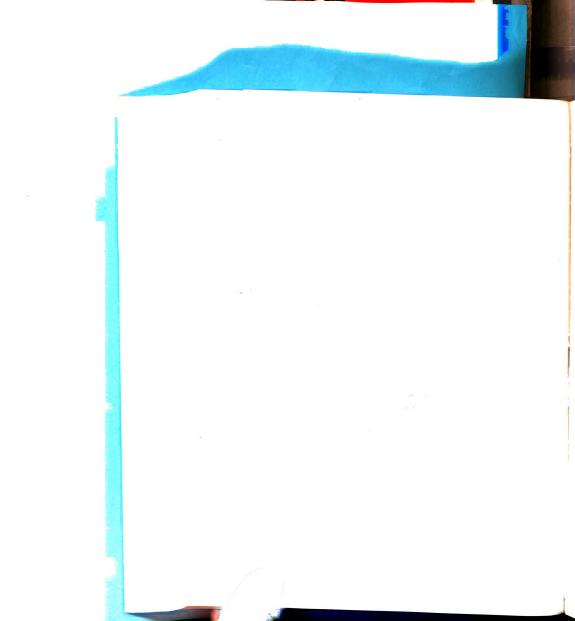
APPENDIX K

AN ILLUSTRATION OF FLEXIBLE SCHEDULING
RIDGEWOOD HIGH SCHOOL, NORRIDGE, ILLINOIS

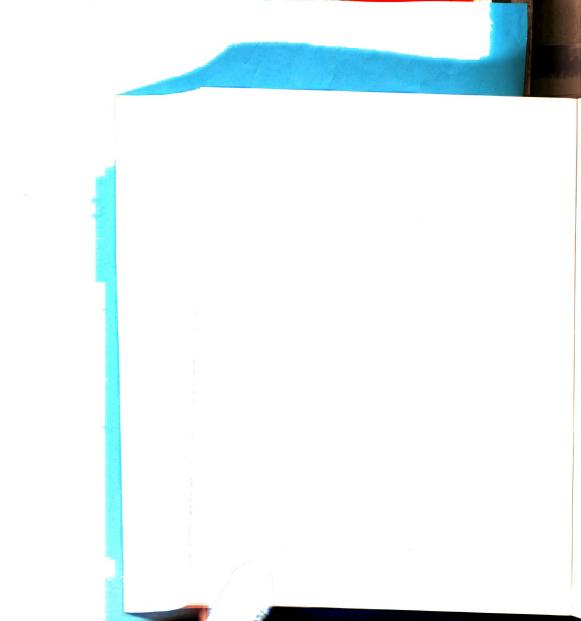


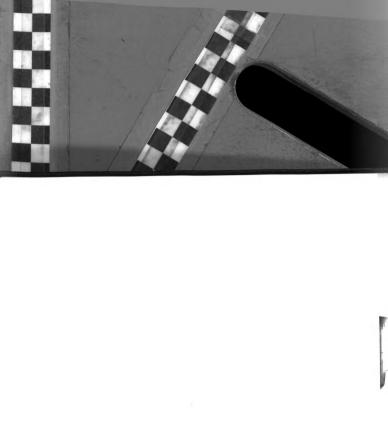
AN ILLUSTRATION OF FLEXIBLE SCHEDULING, RIDGEWOOD HIGH SCHOOL, NORRIDGE, ILL.

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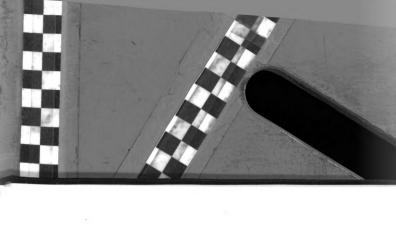












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