

English Educational Policy



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UNIWERSYTETU
ŁÓDZKIEGO

Arleta Suwalska

English Educational Policy

Contemporary Challenges
in a Historical-Comparative
Context



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Introduction

Analysis of the evolution of the ideology of education and pedagogical thought in each country creates new opportunities for understanding the conditions and course of the educational process and policy management in macro-, mezzo- and microinstitutional dimensions. The philosophy of education itself contributes not only to a new look at education in European countries, including the educational policy of Great Britain (which is of interest to me in the present studies), but also raises questions about its future, which is subject to discussion in academic and educational circles.

The dissertation, which concerns contemporary ideological discourses, is preceded by a synthetic analysis of the roots of the political changes in education in the UK from the tenth century to the first decade of the twenty-first century, with particular emphasis on the last century. I present British political and education thought during the first seven centuries, then in the Age of Enlightenment; I show the roles of positivist current in British education, the Chartists movement, and the educational changes related to them. The remainder of the dissertation focuses on the trends and stages of educational development to World War II, the post-war reform of the education system in England and Wales, the neoliberal trend in the educational policy of Britain, and the genesis of the 1998 educational reforms in England and Wales and their consequences up to 2013. The dissertation was written under supervision of Prof. B. Śliwerski (dr. h.c. multi) from University of Łódź, the Department of Education Theory.

1.1. State of knowledge of the ideologies of education and subject of study

The subject of the research presented here is the evolution of the educational policy of the UK due to changing educational ideologies within school management. Ideology is focused on “the ideas and beliefs (true or false) symbolizing conditions and specific life experiences of a socially significant group or class” (Rudnicki, Starnawski, Nowak-Dziemianowicz (eds), 2013, p. 297).

Educational ideologies are the carriers of values, views, or ideas about the world accepted *a priori* by their followers, along with beliefs about the potential for their implementation. Ideologies express the political and pedagogical interests of particular groups and classes or nations, communities, and religious or political movements seeking to impose their particular aims and interests and to dominate others. Ideologies have made a long-term and multidimensional contribution to educational thought in the creation of educational systems. On the other hand, the reality of the past decade draws attention to the fact that the programs of the major political parties of Great Britain, i.e., the Conservative and Labour Parties, with regard to education are not discussed very often. It should be noted that current changes in policy will also depend on the ideology of education in the European Union. Another aspect of the educational policy is social expectations regarding education.

It is significant to look at the individual trends and thoughts regarding planned and implemented educational reforms in this selected European country, whose experience became a point of reference for the transformation of education in the Third Republic of Poland after 1989. In the social sciences, there are three major ideologies: conservatism, liberalism, and the radical (left-wing) current. Each political party in authority wants to stress its expectations for the place, role, education, and upbringing of the younger generation. Thus it is not surprising that the ideological premises of the party will affect the educational policy of the state. According to Krzysztof Konarzewski, "educational expedience breaks it into ideological camps and subjects it to political pressure" (Konarzewski, 1995, p. 127).

As part of the critical analysis of the educational policy of Great Britain, I will examine the current state policy and its educational ideologies and, moreover, will discuss their roles in universal and compulsory education. Like Michael Fullan, a Canadian world expert in this field, I will begin my analysis with a review of the theory and practice of educational change. This will enable me to explain why such change occurs and what should be done to increase chances of educational success. Educational changes have been occurring for many years.

The difficulty is that educational change is not a single entity even if we keep the analysis at the simplest level of an innovation in a classroom. Innovation is multidimensional. There are at least three components or dimensions at stake in implementing any new program or policy: (1) the possible use of new or revised materials; (2) the possible use of new teaching approaches (i.e., new teaching strategies or activities); and (3) the possible alteration of beliefs (e.g., pedagogical assumptions and theories underlying particular new policies or programs) (Fullan, 2001, p. 39).

According to Fullan, one of the primary problems of modern education is to reform it without a clear and coherent vision of changes, without asking questions: "What is the introduced change in education for, what is it, and how does one run it?" (Potulicka, 2001, p. 11). Research on changes in education started in the 1960s. Fullan compares the paradigm of thinking about change to a world in which change is like a journey to an unknown destination.

This philosophical and political approach contributes not only to a new look at education of the UK, but poses new questions that are open for discussion. The first half of the 1970s was marked by an educational crisis of credibility. It was a time when writers began to write and speak about the main factors associated with the introduction of educational innovation. The 1980s constituted a period in which large-scale educational changes were introduced in England and the United States. A compulsory curriculum was also introduced. Moreover, students' competences were clarified, and the standards of work and responsibility of professional teachers were changed, creating the conditions for a wave of intensified reform.

The current situation in education is marked by tensions and divisions between political supporters of centralization and decentralization reforms. The former favors strong top-down regulation of educational policy along with permanent control of the educational system. Their system monitors the growth or decline of the student's knowledge and skills. This group uses the strategies of local management of schools and transfer of power over the schools to institutions outside the school. On the other hand, political supporters of decentralization reforms favor management within the schools, with a greater role for headmasters and teachers. They prefer the development of the mission and goals of schools to be created within the community of students and teachers.

According to Fullan (1995, p. 31), supporters of both of these trends are carrying on a fruitless struggle. The contemporary world needs a different understanding of educational change. Without a change in the thinking of educational policymakers, teachers, parents, and students have no alternative to conservative thinking in the analysis of changes in ideology. "No innovation can be assimilated unless its meaning is shared" (Fullan, 1995, p. 31).

Every teacher should understand the changes which result from reform and the legitimacy of their implementation in the educational institution in which he or she works. The process of change should take place according to a model: initiation, implementation, follow-up, and results. In the beginning, the direction of change should be properly defined and explained by its initiator in order for it to be presented to interested parties. The next step is the implementation phase, which may be more or less effective.

Changes in education policies are initiated by influential party leaders and educators. Where such changes are politically motivated, we see greater involvement on the part of political leaders, new educational ideas, and financial expenditure. This results in unrealistic demands on education and schedules as well as simplified solutions. In terms of educational motivation, the introduced changes are desirable in school practice and enable the efficient functioning of education.

The most important factors influencing a change in education are the properties of that change. Here, we consider needs, clarity, complexity, and its practical aspect. "If the specific needs of schools have been identified, implementation is more efficient" (Potulicka, 2001, p. 22). Moreover, diffuse aims, poorly chosen measures, and a lack of clarity present difficulties in implementing local reforms at schools.

Changes in educational policy are positive insofar as they are seen as practical, even when they are characterized by many stages. Their purpose must be understood and implemented by teachers, headmasters, and government agencies. A more detailed study of the literature in this area of academics shows that some issues still require additional theoretical findings. The analysis of these issues is the subject of the proposed dissertation.

1.2. Methodological justification of the research

The aim of the inquiry in the theoretical part of the dissertation is the distinction of ideologies of education. I wish to systematize the existing knowledge about their relationship to political ideologies. Another issue is an attempt to search for the role of ideology in the educational policy of the state. Preparation of a multifaceted response to the question of how to ensure the success of school reform will permit the achievement of the established cognitive goals. This will enable us to see the impact of political and social change on educational strategies and the direction of education management in the UK in the last quarter-century.

Based on a historical analysis of literature, I will investigate the conditions and scope of educational change and its impact on British education. Today's social realities and educational practice are not free from hidden ideological premises that promote specific ways of describing and explaining educational realities. They constitute a special atmosphere of acquiescence to the practical consequences of ideological changes in school.

Realization of this overriding goal has been subordinated to the following specific objectives:

1. An analysis of the determinants of political-historical-economic thought and ideology of teaching in the educational policy of the UK.
2. Indications of continuity and change in the dominant ideology of the educational system of Great Britain since 1988.

Taking the above into account, I pose the following research questions:

3. To what extent did the education policy of the Conservative Party during the period of Prime Minister Margaret Thatcher (October 13, 1979–November 28, 1990) influence changes in educational policy and what changes resulted in the school system?
4. What was the role played by the New Left in changing educational ideology under the leadership of the Labour Party from May 2, 1997 under the government of Tony Blair, and from May 2, 2007 under the government of Prime Minister Gordon Brown?
5. What measures (priorities in education, unchanged in the face of education reform in connection with changing ideologies) have been applied to reduce the negative impact of the “negative” ideology of predecessors on the work of contemporary British schools, including on students' achievements?

1.3. Research methodology

There are many factors that significantly inhibit the conduct of comparative research and limit the potential for development of a sub-discipline of education science such as comparative pedagogy. These factors include comparability, which “is always set in a context, and can take place only on a historical, cultural, socioeconomic, and political basis” (Nowakowska-Siuta, 2014, p. 15). It is more important in comparative pedagogy “to understand information than just to collect it” (Nowakowska-Siuta, 2014, p. 15). To understand the problems that arise in the course of comparative studies, some knowledge of foreign languages is essential in connection with various forms of terminology serving to designate the facts and phenomena of education in a historical context.

As well, understanding the multidimensional problems of education is an unusually difficult and complex task. Comparative education is helpful, because it shows the development of reform and educational policy and establishes the necessary principles helpful in explaining the functioning of education systems. In this dissertation, the research instrument is the problem method, which makes it possible to “[...] make predictions and formulate possible variants of educational policy.” The problem method derives from “[...] the phenomena of education and upbringing located in time and made relevant to the society through contrasting different views” in order to discern patterns and principles (Nowakowska-Siuta, 2014, p. 16).

Overcoming interdisciplinary barriers in various academic fields, such as sociology, political science, history, and philosophy, is helpful in achieving this goal. Its purpose is to demonstrate the comparative reconstruction of the evolution of the ideology of education in the educational policy of Great Britain at the end of the 18th and beginning of the 19th centuries.

It was necessary to review literature previously published (to 2014) on the Polish publishing market related to the subject of the dissertation. Textbooks on pedagogy and comparative education were taken into consideration: Śliwerski (ed.) (2006); Pachociński (1995, 1998); Gmerek (2011); Nowakowska-Siuta (2014); Průcha (2006).

In the Polish literature, there is a dearth of detailed studies concerning education policies and the dominant ideology in Great Britain after 1997. During the preparation of this dissertation, the author used English-language literature (magazines, academic textbooks, educational laws and debates, and UK websites devoted to education) as well as the website of the British Ministry of Education (Department for Education, <http://www.education.gov.uk/>, accessed: September 24, 2016), and also purchased thematically related English-language (Canadian and American) textbooks from the last ten years.

1.3.1. The politolinguistic approach in the analysis of political rhetoric

The political aspect of educational ideology in this dissertation was analyzed through a transdisciplinary approach in political rhetoric through the politolinguistic approach, “[...] which brings together and combines critical discourse

analysis and concepts derived from political science” (Wodak, Krzyżanowski, 2008, p. 152). Political rhetoric has many connections with political education (*docere*), political considerations (*logos*), political justification or legitimization (*probare*), and political entertainment (*delectare*). Politolinguistics implies acceptance of a transdisciplinary perspective connecting rhetoric, political science and linguistics. It distinguishes three different “[...] dimensions of politics: polity, policy and politics” (Wodak, Krzyżanowski, 2008, p. 152). The polity dimension is created using formal frames of reference that give rise to political activities and manifest themselves in the political norms, principles, rules, and values of a given political culture. Thus political rhetoric associated with this dimension is characterized by the purposefulness and mindfulness of the created message. The adjective “rhetorical” is the easiest to explain, using the element of politicization, which can be attributed to everything that politicians do.

Political activities refer to the dimensions of policy and politics. Various political arenas are shaped by the dimension of policy and implemented by leaders of political parties. Policy is manifested in the dimension of the educational policy of the national government. Its main goals are achieved through offering political justifications and finding political allies. “Politics [...] applies to processes related to the articulation of political interests” (Wodak, Krzyżanowski, 2008, p. 152). The most important goal for politicians is to convince their listeners to accept their proclaimed political opinions and to gain followers. In a broader sense, political rhetoric in the dimension of politics is aimed at achieving the greatest interest in a specific political position and maintaining power.

In this dissertation, *political fields* are social forms of the action of political rhetoric, in terms of the legislative procedures regarding educational laws in the UK. They influence the attitudes, opinions, and wills of the dominant political party in terms of the party’s internal educational policy as well as its relationship to the educational policy of the opposition party. Another study area was the political administration and implementation of specific laws.

The author’s conviction concerning the suitability of the planned historical research and the politolinguistic approach in the analysis of political rhetoric, along with their interpretation, was a basic premise of the recording of changes in the ideologies of education in the educational policy of the United Kingdom in view of the goal set by the author.

1.3.2. Analysis of documents and study of discourses in political rhetoric

In view of the historical character of the subject of research, work on the dissertation will include triangulation in the collection and creation of discourse data for analysis. The data collection process applies to “[...] macro-themes of discourse, specific political agents, and political activity” (Wodak, Krzyżanowski, 2008, p. 156) in the field of education ideology and educational policy.

Analysis of documents applies to the process of “[...] the emergence, transformation and mutation of ideas, practices, and identity, as well as [...] the mech-

anisms by which they become a relatively enduring element of the present" (Wodak, Krzyżanowski, 2008, p. 205). It consists of an attempt to understand and describe "[...] the trajectory of all of these modern ideas, practices and identities that are currently taken for granted" (Wodak, Krzyżanowski, 2008, p. 205). This method of text analysis leads researchers to conclusions as to why people behave a particular way and not otherwise, as well as why some people have the power to learn about others and affect their environment. Reconstruction of "the trajectory of studied discourses and description of specific strategies" (Rapley, 2010, p. 206) leads to the production of one particular education ideology and the rejection of others.

Text analysis is meant to focus equally on what the document says, i.e., "[...] the constructive mechanisms contained in the arguments, ideas or concepts, as well as what is not said, that is, silence, shortcomings and omissions" (Rapley, 2010, p. 194). Another important aspect of the analysis of text is its rhetorical power: how the issues constituting the subject of the text are "structured and organized, as well as how it tries to convince us of the legitimacy of the interpretation contained within it" (Rapley, 2010, p. 194).

In this paper I intend to use documents originating from primary sources, rather than secondary sources emerging in a different time or place than the reported events. I have translated fragments of documents and laws into Polish, in order to analyze the collected material to meet the requirements of the doctoral thesis. The first step is to create an archive of newspaper articles, government publications, and materials from parliamentary debates which outline the directions of government policy and the strategy behind changes in educational policy. This enables me to trace "the trajectory of individual discourses" (Rapley, 2010, p. 41), since the intentions of and planned changes in the legislation are also described therein. In Great Britain, for example, all debates held in the House of Commons and House of Lords are documented in a series of publications issued under the Hansard aegis (Rapley, 2010, p. 41).

The pedagogical thought present in the educational policy of Great Britain to the nineteenth century will be analyzed and reconstructed on the basis of the analysis of historical documents, while educational ideologies changing with particular governments and prime ministers of the UK will be discussed based on government archives (government publications and parliamentary debates), UK government web pages which make the content of laws available in the original English (.pdf), academic websites, newspapers (articles on British education), and British academic studies on the subject. This method was chosen because the historical documents and above-mentioned websites are, in my opinion, the best way to learn about the realities of changing educational ideology which constitute the subject of the research.

The method of analysis of historical documents involved the National Archives (the official government archives of the United Kingdom); the Women's Library; and the National Film and Television Archive. Other sources included the websites of the most famous universities in the UK, namely, the Cambridge University Library (ul.cam.ac.uk), the Libraries of Oxford University (library.ox.ac.uk)

and the Library of the University of London's political collections (blpes.ise.c.uk, accessed: September 24, 2016), as well as UK government pages in the .pdf format (<http://webarchive.nationalarchives.gov.uk/20130401151715/https://www.education.gov.uk/publications/eOrderingDownload/01049-2008DOM-EN.pdf>, accessed: September 24, 2016). American and British historical sources on the Internet, containing links to bibliographies, documents, archives, source texts, maps, statistical information and photos (<http://www.educationengland.org.uk/history/chapter08.html>, accessed: September 24, 2016), were helpful in the analysis of documents.

Sampling of relevant sources within the documents led to the creation in this dissertation of a set of materials for further analysis. The next step was the deliberate choice of materials for final analysis in the area of the planned topics. I also sampled the most picturesque, evocative, supportive, and perhaps also the most controversial, conclusions.

The authorities of the Maria Grzegorzewska Academy of Special Education in Warsaw made it possible, by way of a research grant "Educational policy of the UK government over the last twenty years," for the author to make a week-long trip to London at the end of January and beginning of February 2013 to participate in academic training. My stay in England enabled me not only to use the library collections of the University of London (Department of Education), London School of Economics and Political Science (LSE), and the British Library, but also to consult with academics at those schools on the legitimacy of using these sources, rather than others, to resolve the formulated issues.

CHAPTER 1

The political system of the state, the school system, and democracy

1.1. The nature and content of the concept of “educational ideology”

1.1.1. Development of the concept of “ideology”: its origin and content

According to the *Dictionary of the Polish Language*, an ideology is a system of the political, sociological, legal, ethical, religious, or philosophical views, ideas, and concepts of individuals or groups of people, conditioned by time, place, and social relations; it is a view of the surrounding world (Szymczak (ed.), 1978, p. 767).

In the eighteenth century, the French Enlightenment *philosophes* used the term *ideology* “to explain how groups generate and use ideas.” Moreover, Etienne Bonnot de Condillac (1715–1780) denied “that ideas were innately present in the mind as Plato asserted,” and claimed that sensation was the source of all human ideas. In relation to the development of ideology, Condillac and other *philosophes* “asserted that human ideas did not originate in a metaphysical realm [...] but rather resulted from the human being’s sensory experience within the environment” (Gutek, 2009, p. 164). The term *ideology* originally meant the “science of ideas that examined how people originated and used ideas to create institutions and to regulate their behavior” (Freedden, 2003, p. 4). The *philosophes* wanted to explain how ideas are born and how to use them. They rejected not only theological but also metaphysical interpretations. Their studies suggested the idea of a scientific approach.

The term *ideology* was used by Antoine Destutt de Tracy, a philosopher and thinker of the French Enlightenment, in his *Éléments d'idéologie*, published in 1817–1818. The term comes from Greek and derives from “*eidos* – idea and *logos* – science, connected to the designation of the social doctrine of ideas”

(*Encyklopedia PWN*, 1991, pp. 466, 867). Destutt de Tracy “used the word *ideology* to designate his efforts to create a science of ideas that examined how people originated and regulate their behavior” (Freeden, 2003, p. 4).

The views presented by the ideologues of the Enlightenment helped to change the structure of social and political institutions. The *philosophes* asserted that

[...] absolute and erroneous political and social residues should be discarded and replaced by scientific ones. [...] In the past, individuals had been indoctrinated by archaic structures of religious or classical education to accept a static view of society. A new education had to be developed to educate a rising generation of republican citizens who could establish representative institutions and govern themselves by the method of science and reasons (Guttek, 2009, p. 164).

According to the philosophers, an enlightened person should use the scientific method to analyze social phenomena.

Karl Mannheim, a pioneering sociologist, wished to find the pattern of ideas that “govern society” (Guttek, 2009, p. 169). With reference to Mannheim, it makes sense to ask whether a general ideology—one which creates the shapes of educational ideas—exists. Mannheim, as other early scholars “disagreed on critical issues ranging from the sources of ideology to the nature of its content.” Moreover, he presented “the processes through which shared mental representations of the political world emerged and shaped political behavior” (<http://jspp.psychopen.eu/article/view/36/32>, p. 2, accessed: September 24, 2016).

Until the mid-nineteenth century in Western Europe, the main aim of ideas was the rational justification of a particular system of concepts and attitudes. As a result, ideologies have been classified “on a continuum that ranges from the political and cultural right with Fascism, then Conservatism, moving to Liberalism at the center, and to Socialism at the left and Communism at the far left” (Guttek, 2009, p. 166). The ideologies of the Enlightenment shaped and expressed educational, social, political, and economic ideas. The French Revolution of 1789 was a victory of secular ideas and values, such as freedom and equality, over the traditional social order. Its consequences have had a huge impact on the political doctrines and ideologies.

Moreover, as Leszczyński and Snarski have stated, ideologies are “the most general and systematic set of ideas, values, world views, and beliefs about the organization and functioning of society and the rights of any group or social class. They create a desirable, simplified, and ordered picture of the world. Thus they are readily accepted by the broad masses of society” (Leszczyński, Snarski, 2006, p. 86). Moreover, creation of a political ideology was associated with the rise of political parties in the nineteenth century.

The industrial revolution that occurred at the end of the eighteenth century in Great Britain spread throughout Europe and the territory of the present-day United States. Industrial steam power and mechanization were accompanied by social changes involving the mass migration of peasants from the countryside to factories. Cities developed rapidly, and with them, new forms of social relationships.

Subsequent revolutions, such as the Bolshevik Revolution of 1917 and the Chinese Communist Revolution of 1949, were largely dictated by the dominant ideology of Marxism, which had a significant impact on education in the USSR (from December 30, 1922) and the Peoples' Republic of China (from October 1, 1949).

Karl Marx accused existing ideologies of falsifying reality, making it difficult for workers to understand their socio-professional situation. Liberalism and conservatism, on the other hand, explained to workers that power should belong to those who live from their work, and did not permit criticism of the current system of capitalist principles. False consciousness, according to Marx, concerned the use of ideology to fulfill the mission of justifying the status quo and to "pulling the wool over the eyes of opponents, as in the case of the capitalist middle class" (Leszczyński, Snarski, 2006, p. 146).

The metaphysics of Georg Wilhelm Friedrich Hegel has had a huge impact on the political life of Europe and the world. Hegel created the foundations of the Prussian bureaucracy and presented them in his *Encyclopedia of Philosophical Sciences*: "The Prussian state became a state of officials which, with the help of political supervision, guarded the interests of the affluent class and repressed liberal and revolutionary opposition" (Konieczna, 2011, p. 25). Hegel's doctrine on the state formed the basis for future theories of nationalism, imperialism, and fascism. According to Hegel, "in any period of history, there is only one nation that truly represents the spirit of the world. This nation has the right to rule all other nations" (Konieczna, 2011, p. 26). Hegel is considered to be the creator of the Prussian bureaucracy, in which the interests of the rich were guarded by political supervision.

The economic struggle between classes for control of production results from historical change. Marx, in his *Communist Manifesto*, predicted that

the fight for control of the means of production will lead to class war, that is, the proletarian revolution. Although the acquisition by the proletariat of control over the means of production is a historical necessity, it is also inevitable that the capitalists will rely on this necessity in a vain attempt to stay in power (Marks, Engels, 1982, p. 28).

Marxist ideology became the foundation for the ideology of communism in Russia and for many years was able to take over the minds of those living there.

In this context, ideology exposes the unjust social and economic relations in the nation and provides the capitalist class with justifications for maintaining power. Moreover, we note their goals, which depend on transforming the surrounding reality in the interests of their own class. This is especially important in considerations concerning the "ideological nature of the evidence-based policy. Moreover, there is taken into account the aspect of the understanding of ideology (understanding it as a tool of legitimacy) which was undertaken in the work of later authors situated themselves in circles of Marxist inspiration, including Antonio Gramsci and Louis Althusser" (Rudnicki, Starnawski, Nowak-Dziemianowicz (eds), 2013, p. 260).

The Italian anti-fascist Antonio Gramsci (1891–1937) continued the ideology of Marx. His definition of ideology became the basis for the neo-Marxist perspective. Gramsci presented ideology as

[...] a large and complex network of ideas that were connected culturally as well as economically and politically. These ideologies shaped the group vision of religion, politics, law, and culture. They influenced the present family and media as well as institutions of formal education. They included a broad network of cultural, ethical, and moral beliefs, which were disseminated through the mass media and educational institutions (Gutek, 2009, p. 171).

Gramsci broadened “the concept of hegemony to mean social control of the culture and the way culture was expressed” (Freeden, 2003, pp. 19–20). Hegemony is based on violence and coercion and “is a set of actions and procedures by which the ruling class in a given social system legitimizes its dominant position” (Majmurek, Szumlewicz (eds), 2009, p. 121). These procedures involve so-called institutions of civil society, in particular schools, universities, and the media, because they set standards of rationality.

According to the French philosopher, sociologist, and theorist Raymond Aron, no political system gives the mind freedom. Political progress or regression depends on the dominant social class. The author of *The Opium of the Intellectuals* asked the question “How could ideologies resist these changes, if one understands by ideology the synthesis of an interpretation of history and of a program of action toward a predicted or hoped-for future?” (Aron, 1962, p. 15). Moreover, the book criticized Marxist ideology. Aron foresaw the end of a century of ideology. His forecasts have not been confirmed; on the contrary, in the social sciences, the definition of ideology has been extended in new directions, e.g. feminism in the 1960s, the New Right in the 1970s, and the New Left in the 1990s in the UK.

The role of hegemony, along with that of ideology, in Gramsci’s view is a condition of political power, which is able to design social changes. Gramsci’s ideological thought was expanded by the philosopher Louis Althusser (1918–1990), who introduced the distinction between

[...] political and cultural-intellectual rule. The state distinguishes two types of state apparatus used to maintain the domination of the ruling class: the repressive and the ideological. The repressive state apparatuses operate according to the rule of violence. The ideological state apparatuses, such as schools, the family, religious institutions, and the media, operate in accordance with the rule of ideology. Repressive state apparatuses include the government, the administration, the army, police, courts, and prisons, and their uniformity is guaranteed by political centralization (Rudnicki, Starnawski, Nowak-Dziemianowicz (eds), 2013, p. 261).

Althusser believes that maintaining hegemony over the state apparatus is a condition for maintaining state power.

The role of ideology in society was presented by the British literary critic Terry Eagleton (b. 1943) who focused on the function played by ideology. Despite the omnipresent concept of ideology as false consciousness, in any analysis it is worth considering the concept of ideology understood as:

[...] the process of constructing and constituting the practice of ideological elements of social reality, and not the phenomenon of masking this reality. In this context, the ideological dispute, whose arena is policy, including education policy, is not simply about how to present social

reality or how it is portrayed, but about what this reality will be like, about its formation; this is a dispute about the real social effects of ideology (Rudnicki, Starnawski, Nowak-Dziemianowicz (eds), 2013, p. 262).

The political party in question, prior to the seizure of power and at the moment of its consolidation, subordinates pedagogy to its own political interests. This contributes to delineating the direction of education change towards “[...] education, care and upbringing” (Śliwerski, 2009b, p. 14).

On the other hand, Paulo Freire (1921–1997) perceived and defined ideology as being dependent on politics, economy, and culture. As people learn the truth about social reality, they can explain the personal and social relationships that influence them. The simplicity of means used by Freire, belief in the possibility and effectiveness of changes, and the romantic approach are examples of education that has the power to emancipate. Freire tried to omit institutions and rigid curricula. The impulse to change was something

[...] he saw in action. He took advantage of available resources and in a short time educated others, showing how easy it is to acquire skills that radically change the position of people able to read and write (Rudnicki, Starnawski, Nowak-Dziemianowicz (eds), 2013, p. 370).

Paulo Freire contributed to the revival of a sense of citizenship through the awareness of citizens that they could change their lives, although this was not desired by the political authorities in the 1960s in Brazil. He stigmatized the dangers of an education regime “based on mindless and useless knowledge, but desired by various institutions, starting with the school, and ending with the state (Rudnicki, Starnawski, Nowak-Dziemianowicz (eds), 2013, p. 367). He believed that the teacher should decide what education is to be — whether it will emancipate, or be subject to and accepting of the present political situation.

Education supports us in our understanding of the world and enables us to realize the need to change the surrounding reality. M. Seliger, in defining ideology, takes into account the past, present, and future of the community based on the following assumptions:

From a social-scientific viewpoint, an ideology is a more or less coherent set of ideas that provides a basis for organized political action, whether this is intended to preserve, modify, or overthrow the existing system of power relationships. All ideologies therefore a) offer an account of the existing order, usually in the form of a “world view”; b) provide a model of a desired future, a vision of the Good Society; and c) outline how political change can and should be brought about. Ideologies are not, however, hermetically sealed systems of thought; rather, they are fluid sets of ideas that overlap with one another at a number of points (Heywood, 2006, p. 43).

However, according to A. Giddens, a prominent British sociologist and co-founder of the ideology of the New Left in the time of Tony Blair, ideology means

[...] shared ideas or beliefs which serve to justify the interests of dominant groups. Ideologies are found in all societies in which there are systematic and ingrained inequalities between

groups. Its concept has a close connection with that of power, since ideologies legitimize the differential power held by groups (Giddens, 2006, p. 1020).

From Thompson's (1990) point of view, de Tracy's view is a neutral concept of ideology, while in Marx's view is rather critical. "A neutral concept of ideologies characterizes phenomena as ideology or ideological without implying that such phenomena are necessarily misleading, illusory, or aligned with the interests of any particular group." Moreover, the critical concept of ideologies "convey[s] a negative, critical, or pejorative sense" and presents them with "criticism or condemnation" (Thompson, 1990, pp. 53–54).

The definition of ideology presents variable social divisions and indicates a strong relationship between power and the ideology which holds a dominant position in a given social group. Ideologies explain the existing order and present a correct vision of society. They create the framework and conditions for political change. *Political ideas*, according to Heywood, are not "merely passive [...] thus, at an *operational level*, *ideologies* could *take the form of broad political movements*" (Heywood, 2002, p. 53).

Today ideology is used to confirm a "certain political viewpoint, serve the interests of certain people, or to perform a functional role in relation to social, economic, political and legal institutions" (Law and Ideology, p. 1, <http://plato.stanford.edu/entries/conservatism/>, accessed: September 24, 2016).

In the social sciences, there are three major types of ideologies: conservatism, liberalism, and the radical (left-wing) current. Particular trends and thoughts about issues related to changes in education show that in the programs of the major political parties of Great Britain, i.e., the Conservative and Labour Parties, education issues are not often raised. It should be noted that recent changes in policy also depend on the ideology of education in the European Union. Another aspect of educational policy is social expectations regarding education.

The phenomenon of colonialism has had a huge impact on the ideological map of the modern world. Colonizers from Western Europe dominated societies of hunters and gatherers in North America, Australia, and New Zealand. From the seventeenth to the early nineteenth centuries, Western countries, by virtue of military superiority, established colonies in countries with traditional societies. In some of these, industrialization followed, along with the development of a multiparty system of government. These countries joined the First World countries (the countries of Europe, Australia, New Zealand, Tasmania, Melanesia, and Japan). Second World countries included the Soviet Union of that time and Eastern European countries (Czechoslovakia, Poland, East Germany, and Hungary). In the regions of former colonies in Asia, Africa, and South America, economic growth remained at a low level. Despite political systems on the model of Western countries introduced there, these countries belong to the Third World. Due to the fall of Communism in Eastern Europe, since the end of the 1980s, division of the world into "three worlds" has become outdated. In this way, the liberal-democratic social order has become the dominant form of maintaining power in a state.

1.1.2. Features of contemporary ideology

The term *ideology* is used to describe political, social, and academic processes. Władysław Stróżewski, in analyzing the word *ideology*, calls our attention to the etymology of the word, and presents a broader meaning of this term:

The idea is understood as a regulating and normative factor. [...] The second factor of ideology refers us to *logos*. *Logos* means a word, thought, law, or knowledge. But ideology is not "knowledge" about an idea. It is rather a way to express, reveal, and propagate it. The *logos* of ideology turns into a password that seeks help not as much in logic as in rhetoric (Stróżewski, 1992, p. 138).

The most important functions of ideology include:

validation involving the existence of different political groups [...] which involves influencing programs of political parties and social movements. [...] For the individual, the cited ideology is the key to learning and understanding the mechanisms of social and political life. The integrating functions depend on bringing together people who identify with different views (Leszczyński, Snarski, 2006, p. 87).

These views lead to the formation of a kind of emotional bond. If individuals work together, they form an organizational bond. It is worth quoting here the most important features of ideology, formulated by Tokarczyk. Ideology is

[...] an ordered set of political ideas, reflecting political consciousness and views and the beliefs of particular social groups, not only in the description of social reality, but also in postulated directions and ways to change them. Ideology, which orders the enormous complexity of the social world, gives it a simple and comprehensible meaning for almost all intelligent people. Ideology rationalizes and stimulates emotions, describes and advocates, convinces and appeals, informs and misinforms, explains and misleads, integrates and disintegrates the social groups to which it addresses itself (Tokarczyk, 2010, p. 28).

1.1.3. Ideology and political doctrine

Ideology is to some extent identical in meaning to political doctrine, which consists of "a scientific approach to political thought—ideas, ideologies, philosophies, and theories that can be used by political movements as their programs for action" (Tokarczyk, 2010, p. 19). Political doctrines are the reactions of people to the current political situation in a given country. They reveal the weaknesses of that situation and lead to its elimination, or camouflage it, in order to preserve the interests of the ruling or socially privileged group.

Doctrine is a narrower concept than ideology. It concerns socio-political life and refers to justifications of both theoretical and practical indications concerning

[...] implementation of the idea contained in the ideology. Most often in politics it happens that the content of the ideology shapes the content of the doctrine. Several doctrines, however, may be born based on a single ideology (Leszczyński, Snarski, 2006, p. 86).

Contemporary politics demands a method of classification of doctrines and political parties according to a schema involving right, left and center. Right-wing doctrine accepts the fact that social inequalities exist, and that these are a natural feature of societies. They pay special attention to respect for tradition, ties with the Church, and the culture of a given nation. In the field of social economy they support the free market and they do not favor state intervention in the economy. Leftist doctrines “proclaim the slogans of justice and social solidarity. They do not agree with the view of inequality as a natural phenomenon [...]. They recognize the need for mitigation of social inequality by the state” (Leszczyński, Snarski, 2006, p. 87). They emphasize the importance of the principle of the equality of all citizens, including the equality of women and national minorities. They favor state intervention in the economy and do not allow privileges for the Church. On the other hand, centrist doctrines demonstrate a balance between the interests of various social groups. “According to them, existing social inequalities should be mitigated by the society, not by the state” (Leszczyński, Snarski, 2006, p. 87). They support the existence of a free market economy controlled by society.

1.1.4. Pedagogical doctrine

Researchers organize, interpret, and describe ideologies, doctrines, and trends in education, taking into account their interdependencies. “[...] Their value is affected not only by the clear principle of presentation, but inevitably with the associated arbitrariness of choice” (Śliwerski, 2009b, p. 26).

Doctrine includes “the general views, statements, and assumptions of a particular field of knowledge of a given thinker or school. Sometimes it also describes a system, theory, science or political program.” It includes the specific world view, conviction, ordered statements, and views of a specific cultural circle. Its task is “[...] ideological, intentional direction of already familiar scientific reality. The given educational reality always transforms some kind of ideology based on a belief, i.e., Christianity, liberalism, communism, etc.” (Kunowski, 2000, p. 12).

Educational doctrines play a variety of roles:

[...] postulative, normative, and exemplary roles for the activities of professionals; the criteria for their evaluation are no longer the phenomenon of upbringing and education, the nature of pupils and teachers and their welfare, but have become effectiveness, the utility of their pedagogical interactions, internal coherence, clarity, expressiveness, simplicity, traditionalism, erudition, class status, avant-gardism, etc. (Śliwerski, 2009a, p. 40).

Political and pedagogical ideologies are “expressions of the interests of particular groups, classes, or nations, community, religious or political movements seeking to impose their particular aims and interests and to dominate other people” (Śliwerski, 2009a, p. 40). They show enduring multidimensional input into educational thought in the work of creating educational systems. They are “*a priori* vehicles of the values, views, or ideas about the world and beliefs accepted by

their followers and their convictions about the potential for their implementation, that is, they are not subject to being proved or undergoing empirical verification" (Śliwowski, 2009a, p. 40).

Ideological changes in education influence the educational policy of the state because every political party in authority wishes to stress its expectations regarding the place and role, as well as the education and upbringing, of the young generation. According to Krzysztof Konarzewski: "the practicality of pedagogy inevitably breaks it into ideological camps and subjects it to political pressure" (Konarzewski, 1995, p. 127).

1.1.5. Classifications of political thought

Political thought, alongside ideology, also forms a political doctrine and program. Political ideas contribute to the creation of public life in forms through which particular social groups wish to express their interests and aspirations.

According to Leszczyński and Snarski, political thought includes "views on social and political life, the system of values prevailing in the society, and the place and role of 'man in the state and society.'" Issues involving social, economic, and foreign policy presented in the form of slogans and demands create a political program which manifests itself during an election period and is called an election platform. The task of a political program is "[...] the direct molding of various spheres of public life."

The fusion of an ideology, doctrine, and political program influences the shape of political thought. The boundary between the program and doctrine is even less pronounced than that between the ideology and doctrine, because elements of doctrine and ideology frequently appear in the political platform.

One of the elements of division of political thought is the criterion of radicalism, which is most widely used in political science in relation to the classification of political thought. It can be emphasized as

[...] the most essential for all politics and political thought, and particularly the relationship between the state and the freedom of the individual, manifesting itself with particular clarity in the scope of its intervention in relation to forms of property, production methods, and principles of the distribution of goods (Tokarczyk, 2010, p. 32).

The criterion of radicalism enables the determination of the spectrum of contemporary political thought. Looking from the inside, on one hand, we have the thought of the political center-left, left-wing and ultra-leftist, and on the other, of the center-right, right-wing and ultra-right.

Leftist political thought refers to "the idea of freedom, equality, social justice, community and compatible forms of ownership, production, and distribution of goods, regulated by law as established by the state" (Tokarczyk, 2010, p. 33). It is sensitive to human injustice, and therefore creates a community of self-help (social services, the fight against unemployment, social security) with the goal of state care for its citizens. Center-left political thought

[...] mitigates the features of leftist political thought in the direction of centrist political thought, whereas ultra-leftist political thought gives it extreme coloration that transcends what is, for them, typical, ordinary, proper and normal (Tokarczyk, 2010, pp. 33–34).

Right-wing political thought, based on “the ideas of law and order rooted in tradition, respect for the human dignity that grows along with respect for the motherland, nation, state, and religion, and appreciates the significance of reason and emotion in politics” (Tokarczyk, 2010, p. 33). Its programmatic demands are conservative. Individual freedom is understood as freedom to compete on the market. Unfettered entrepreneurship leads people to prosperity and diversity of ownership within society. Center-right political thought possesses features of right-wing thought with elements of centrism, whereas ultra-right represents the extreme approach. Between left-wing and right-wing political thought is centrist political thought; its position accurately expresses the Latin maxim “[...] do not let your left hand know what your right hand is doing” (Tokarczyk, 2010, p. 34).

Until the collapse of the system of socialist countries in 1989, this division in political science persisted: the left-wing thought of the socialist countries, the right-wing thought of capitalist states, and the centrist thought of the Third World countries. Today the boundaries between right, left, and centrist political thought are blurred. The criteria of radicalism “also complement the criteria for classification of political thought: mass, class-based, world view, institutional, of realism, and of maturity.” In terms of class-based political thought one can distinguish “peasant, proletarian (workers), petty-bourgeois, and capitalist” (Tokarczyk, 2010, p. 35).

In cases where thought is expressed by secular assumptions and world views, we are dealing with secular political thought. If it is subordinated to the teachings of the Church, it is called religious political thought. Depending on the type of institution creating political thought, one speaks of the political thought of a government, a political party, the Prime Minister, the state, or the Church. The criterion of the political thought of realism enables further division into realistic and utopian political thought. In the case of youth organizations, the criterion of maturity and the age of the person creating the political thought enables one to speak of political maturity or immaturity (Tokarczyk, 2010, p. 34).

Particular ideologies, e.g., nationalism, liberalism, conservatism, or Marxism

[...] bring with them an ideological portrait of a person who meets certain criteria. Ideologues, in the creation of this portrait, use ‘brush strokes’ based on historical, sociological, political and economic components. They also rely on education. In the creation of this portrait, they use newspapers, radio, television, and school (Gutek, 2009, p. 162).

Since the founding of the modern nation-state, ideology has influenced the formation of policy and its implementation in every dimension of action, i.e., in economics, science, technology and education. Educational policy shapes education reform and curricula. “[...] School reproduces an ideologically correct prototype, implementing an official, clearly defined curriculum and creating a specific environment.” Ideology was intended to justify and determine the relationship

between power and society (Gutek, 2009, p. 142). Ideology did not express itself only through the formulation of theory; it encouraged activity and provided guidance in the field of political, social, economic, and educational life.

Ideology is a theoretical justification of the views and aspirations, of the program and activities of a particular community. Rather than the specific interests of individuals or groups [...] ideological justification usually refers to authorities and the examples they supply, which are more easily generalized, and hence made use of (Gutek, 2009, p. 143).

1.2. Democracy, the political system of the state and ideology education

1.2.1. Development of the concept of “democracy”

Democracy as a form of the political system of a state, in which citizens exercise power in direct and indirect form through elected representatives, has dominated since ancient times. In Athens, power belonged to the people. Only free men, native citizens of Athens (about 10% of the population), had political rights. Slaves, women, and foreigners did not have voting rights. Rallies constituted the practical form of government in the Athenian democracy, called *classical democracy* by political scientists.

Athenian democracy was direct, since the most important decisions in the country, such as selecting officials and enacting laws, were undertaken by the People's Assembly. The Council of Five Hundred, which represented the executive branch, were responsible for the preparation of the Assembly and for submitting proposals. Every day, a different Athenian received the honor of serving as the chairman of the Council of Five Hundred. He could carry out this function only once in a lifetime. This type of government does not exist in the modern world.

The continuation of Greek democracy was found in a limited version in the Roman Republic (509–527 BCE). The Romans claimed that every citizen should shape the state system. The most important role was played by aristocrats, whose representatives were members of the Senate and held high offices. The Senate, the most important body in the Republic, dealt with current state policy. The People's Assembly examined its proposals. The mixed system of the Roman republic was dominated by democratic elements and the rule of the aristocracy.

Democratic procedures existed in the early Christian communities, as deacons and bishops were elected by all members of the community in direct elections. Christian traditions of democracy grew directly out of Christian doctrine and the Ten Commandments. The biblical picture of man's creation reveals the idea of the equality of all people and argues for equality between women and men. St. Thomas Aquinas acknowledged that subjects had the right to oppose their government. Incitement to sin or the imposition of excessive taxes was contrary to the objectives of a democratic state.

Democracy of the nobility was formed in the Republic of Poland in the second half of the fifteenth century. It was characterized by full civil and political rights, maintained in the hands of the nobility, who had the exclusive right to decide on matters of war, enactment of taxes, and, partly, the internal politics of the country. The Sejm was elected by the nobility and was the supreme organ of state power. The nobility chose the king; if he violated the law, the nobility could renounce their obedience to him.

Rousseau, in *The Social Contract*, set out to answer what he took to be the fundamental question of politics, the reconciliation of the freedom of the individual with the authority of the state. "This reconciliation is necessary because human society has evolved to a point where individuals can no longer supply their needs through their own unaided efforts, but rather must depend on the co-operation of others" (Jean Jacques Rousseau, <http://plato.stanford.edu/entries/rousseau/p.2>, accessed: winter 2012). The freedom of citizens was associated with their political activity and participation in elections. Rousseau's theory has had a huge influence on the thinkers of the New Left in Britain in the late twentieth century.

A more moderate developing democracy, one with the objective of supporting the development of the individual, has its roots in the work of John Stuart Mill. His outstanding writings, including *On Liberty* (1859) and *Considerations on Representative Government* (1861), had a powerful influence on the development of liberal thought. "From this perspective, freedom does not just mean being alone, which might imply nothing more than the freedom to starve. Rather, it is linked to personal development and the flourishing of the individual: that is, the ability of the individual to gain fulfillment and achieve self-realization" (Heywood, 2002, p. 33).

Andrew Heywood "suggests perceiving democracy as a link between the government and the people. Moreover, this link can exist in different forms: as rule by the people, as rule by those who represent people, and as rule in the public interest" (*Municipal Democracy and Risk of Municipal Democratization*, p. 1, www.questia.com/library/journal/1P3-3780459381/municipal-democracy-and-risk-of-municipal-democratization, accessed: September 24, 2016). Moreover, democracy means the equal access of citizens to the exercise of power, which is closely related to the rule of the people in conducting public affairs.

Mill's views have ideologically supported the concept of parliamentary democracy. Historically, the birth of modern democracy is dated approximately to the bourgeois English Revolution in England in the seventeenth century (1640–1680) and the French Revolution in France in the eighteenth century (1789–1799). In 1787, in the United States, the world's first constitution was enacted, growing out of the Enlightenment, which was based on the principles of natural law and the independence of the people. The USA was transformed from a confederation of states into a federation based on democratic forms of government.

The philosophers of the Enlightenment Charles Louis Montesquieu and John Locke proposed the three-way separation of powers: the legislative, exercised by parliament; the executive, exercised by the head of the state government; and the judicial, exercised by courts and tribunals. The Constitution became the

most important source of law in a democratic country, guaranteeing the rights and freedom of citizens. This “goal can be attained through the fragmentation of government power, by the creation of checks and balances amongst the various institutions of government, and by the establishment of a codified or ‘written’ constitution embodying a bill of rights that defines the relationship between the state and the individual” (Heywood, 2002, p. 39).

One of the foundations of democracy is free criticism of the government by the opposition party. As a result of the collapse of the rural society, which had a feudal character, and the sudden development of capitalism, favorable conditions arose for the economic, political, and cultural development of political parties.

In the presented context, the basic democratic values are freedom, equality, and justice. The distinction of freedom in democratic countries concerns the criteria of positive and negative freedom. The former, derived from Christianity, includes the consciousness of good, whereas the latter, whose origin is of a liberal character, concerns freedom from restrictions and from any form of coercion whatsoever. Equality in democracy means natural equality regardless of sex, race, or origin. Moreover, it means equality before the law and equality of chances in life, which is virtually impossible to achieve. Justice is analyzed in the case of the distribution of economic goods and impartial treatment of all citizens before the law.

Citizens in a democracy have the right to vote according to the following principles: the principle of universality (participation in elections of all adult citizens), the principle of equality (each voter has the same number of votes), the principle of secrecy (ballots are anonymous), and the principles of directness (direct election of representatives). This idea does not always occur in pure form; e.g., in the German Third Reich a consensus existed concerning the limitation of voting rights on the basis of race, while in the United States the consensus concerned education and deprived poorly-educated African-Americans of voting rights.

In a situation where the right to vote means protection of one’s own interests, freedom should be guaranteed by the three-way separation of powers and by civil rights. These principles and the principles of life according to one’s own choice are typical of a protective democracy. Its foundations are related to the rule of the New Right in the period of Margaret Thatcher and John Major in the years 1979–1790 in the UK and Ronald Reagan in the years 1981–1989 in the United States.

A feature of the economic policy of this period was limited state interference in the market economy. A particular influence on free-market policy was exerted by the views of Milton Friedman, a Nobel laureate in the field of economics. The economic policy developed by Reagan in the United States was called Reaganomics. Its main economic trends were adopted by Thatcher’s government, which lowered the “the rate of income tax, flattened tax progression, questioned social spending, privatized nationalized sectors of the economy, and reduced the influence of trade unions” (Winiarski (ed.), 2006, p. 137). In the field of economic policy, the protective democracy of this period was marked by monetarism, i.e.,

a restrictive monetary policy, which was intended to ensure the highest interest rate possible. Moreover, it tried to minimize deficits in the state budget. Entrepreneurs found it advisable to increase production and investment. Citizens were encouraged to save money in banks. The increase in deposits drove down the price of capital and encouraged entrepreneurs to invest, which resulted in an increase in production and the creation of new jobs.

1.2.2. The political system: definition and development

A political system comprises

[...] generally, state organs, as well as political parties, social organizations and groups, formal and informal, participating in political activities within the framework of a given country, as well as their mutual relations. It is a political structure which serves for the mobilization, by the political leaders, of the resources needed to achieve the objectives of the collective (Micuń, 2005, p. 91).

David Easton developed an analysis of the model political system, which works

through the application of what is called systems analysis. In the case of the political system, a linkage exists between what Easton calls 'inputs' and 'outputs.' Inputs into the political system consist of demands and support from the general public. Demands can range from pressure for higher standards of living, improved employment prospects, and more generous welfare payments to greater protection for minority and individual rights. [...] Outputs consist of the decisions and actions of government, including the making of policy, the passing of laws, the imposition of taxes, and the allocation of public funds. Clearly, these outputs generate 'feedback' which, in turn, shapes further demands and supports (Heywood, 2002, pp. 20–21).

Various political systems have existed over the centuries. Each of them was based its own idea of the state and of representative, administrative, and judiciary bodies. Historical and economic conditions directly created the economy and influenced people's lives.

1.2.3. Fascist ideology and education

The doctrine of Fascism, born in the nineteenth century, crystallized during the First World War. Postwar militarism and nationalism contributed to the spread of Fascist ideology in Italy under Benito Mussolini (in power 1922–1943) and in Germany under Adolf Hitler (in power 1933–1945), where a lack of balance between democracy and autocratic values emerged. In Europe there was fear of the spreading wave of Communism as a result of the October Revolution and the effects of the economic crisis of 1929–1933, which affected all countries (except the USSR).

The Nazis perceived and accepted the idea of racial inequality. According to them, the Aryans were superior in every respect to Jews, Gypsies, Slavs, and

Negroes. Hitler believed that progress, culture, and human nature depended only on genius, energy, and personality. In terms of leadership, Fascism invested all power in the hands of a charismatic leader, who was identified in terms of genius, the nation, the sovereign, faith and superhuman abilities. It was believed that the leader of the country was inspired by higher power, by Providence and history. As a result he was necessarily always right. The most powerful men of those times repeated that they had no conscience; their conscience was Adolf Hitler.

In economic terms, fascism was a mixture of the contents of the economics of socialism and capitalism. From socialism, fascists exploited the principle of

state intervention in the economy, the pursuit of full employment, nationalization of certain industries, progressive taxation of very high incomes, equitable sharing of profits, and the availability of loan capital and investment. Capitalism is preserved in agriculture and in those industries where there is no conflict with national aims (Micuń, 2005, p. 359).

In order to protect the Germanic sense of law, jurists hated by Hitler were replaced by “legal men (*rechtsschaffende Männer*) selected from particular social conditions” (Micuń, 2005, p. 360). The place of law in Fascism was formulated by Carl Schmitt. The essence of politics, according to him, was not “morality and legalism, but the effectiveness derived from realistic activism. This resulted in conviction of the need for full sovereignty of the state’s decision, subject to neither morality nor law” (Micuń, 2005, p. 361). Carl Schmitt’s approach to politics became the basis of a law allowing the concentration of power in the hands of one man: the dictator. The political legal order in the country was the result of the dictator’s orders.

A free bureaucracy, political sadism, and making politics the source of law and morality facilitated the rule of the country. The dictator could reject existing values, above all the value of human life. This belief created the potential for genocide. The race laws of 1935, known as the Nuremberg Laws, were the beginning of the extermination of the Jews, since the granting of citizenship was dependent on purity of race and blood.

Nazi education, introduced in the program presented in *Mein Kampf*, consisted of three main rules. Firstly, physical education was associated with raising healthy and able-bodied citizens of the German nation. The next task was to promote

[...] strong character in the spirit of discipline and obedience to the Führer and the state and also development of a sense of national pride, racism, chauvinism. One leader, one nation, one party, one way of thinking and style of life, one community with similar physical and mental features—these were the goals of Nazi education (Draus, Terlecki, 2006, p. 122).

Fascism has an “anticharacter.” It is defined largely by what it opposes: it is a form of anticapitalism, antiliberalism, antiindividualism, anticomunism, and so on. A core theme that, nevertheless, runs throughout fascism is the image of an organically unified national community. This is reflected in a belief in “strength through unity.” The individual, in a literal sense, is nothing; individual identity must be absorbed entirely into that of the community or social group (Heywood, 2002, p. 47).

Fascist theories have their foundations in biological assumptions and the racist pedagogy of the Weimar Republic and its chiefs, "the National Socialist pedagogues Ernest Krieck, Alfred Baeumler, and Wilhelm Hartnack, who fully supported the Nazi theories of education and popularized them among German teachers" (Chmaj, 1963, p. 51). Nazi education led to the dehumanization of children and young people, their minds affected by the shaping of their racial instincts.

In 1934, the Third Reich created a Ministry of Academic Affairs, Education, and Culture in order to introduce educational changes and subordinate them to Nazi policy. The assignments of rectors and professors of universities were dependent on the decision of the government. Many prominent professors emigrated, mainly to the United States. The views of National Socialist student organizations were put to use within the framework of the stricter recruitment of candidates for higher studies. In public schools the curriculum was revised, with an emphasis on shaping world views based on the identity of the Aryan race. Obedience to the leader of the nation and the demand to sacrifice one's own life in defense of the Third Reich were taught. The canon of basic school subjects was expanded (the German language, history, geography, biology), Gothic-style writing was taught, great importance was attached to physical education and defense, and teaching of singing was expanded. Vocational education was also subject to indoctrination.

With the goal of further ideologization of young people, an organization for youth was established: *Hitlerjugend*, or Hitler Youth, with the goal of improving the character of its members through appropriate physical exercises and discipline. In 1943, members of this organization, aged approximately seventeen, took part in wartime operations. During the defense of Berlin, even twelve-year-old boys were found in the ranks of Hitler Youth. The organization expressed the most "dehumanizing variant of the theory and practice of pedagogy. The military fall of the Third Reich contributed to the abolition of this anti-humanitarian educational system" (Draus, Terlecki, 2006, p. 236).

1.2.3.1. The ideology of the Communism of Lenin and education

Vladimir Ilyich Ulyanov (Lenin) took over political power and built the basics of Communism in the first part of the twentieth century. Called the driver of the revolution, he was characterized by "a comprehensive political activity devoid of any moral scruples, as well as unprecedented firmness, and determination. The iron willpower of a true revolutionist led him firmly to the communist goals" (Tokarczyk, 2010, p. 243).

Ulyanov had the talent for suggestive speaking and writing characteristic of a combative style. Thanks to his ability to lead the proletariat masses, he became the leader of the Communist Party. Iron discipline and the principle of democratic centralism became the basic principles of the organization Lenin created. The most important task of the Communist Party on the road to revolution was the

proletariat's takeover of control. This led to the construction of a new system – socialism and communism.

As a result, the dictatorship of the proletariat led to the dictatorship of the Communist Party, which promoted the culture of a classless society, cultural revolution, social justice, the comprehensive development of humankind, and social emancipation of the masses. The cultural revolution, according to Lenin, was to rely on the elimination of illiteracy and the growth of socialist consciousness of the masses. "State functionaries were chosen by working people, and political education of the society could elevate even cooks to the level of a ruler" (Tokarczyk, 2010, p. 243).

A working-class or peasant origin was marked by social ennoblement and privileges. Being a worker afforded greater opportunities for higher education. There were infrequent cases of the intelligentsia accepting employment in factories in order to obtain worker status. This did not apply to the children of high-ranking party officials "because all party workers were officially beneficiaries of workers' posts" (Gmerek, 2011, p. 329).

In introducing social selection, the Communist authorities created a youth organization, Komsomol, with the aim of searching for and developing loyal supporters of the Communist regime, and gave its members the status of an avant-garde society. According to H. C. Rudman, "the Komsomol organization now operated at the level of a high school and had a huge influence on who would attend institutions of higher education" (Gmerek, 2011, p. 330). The Communist Party created "the sword of Damocles" and opportunities to study increased for members of the Komsomol organization. "Komsomol had its counterparts at all ranks of education management, and its agenda functioned within each level of the party hierarchy" (Gmerek, 2011, p. 330).

The education system developed in the early thirties was highly centralized, standardized, and molded. Specific details concerning the ministers of education changed depending on the period of management. The USSR was, however, more profoundly affected by Stalin's 'second revolution' in the 1930s than it had been by the 1917 Bolshevik Revolution. In reshaping Soviet society, Stalin created a model of orthodox communism that was followed in the post-1945 period by states such as China, North Korea, and Cuba, as well as throughout Eastern Europe. What might be called 'economic Stalinism' was launched in 1928 with the first Five Year Plan, which brought about the swift and total eradication of private enterprise. "During the 1930s, Stalin transformed the USSR into a personal dictatorship through a series of purges, operating through systematic intimidation, repression and terror" (Heywood, 2002, p. 41).

however, the authority of the central government remained directly responsible for all aspects of the administration, especially the selection of teachers, curricula, and procedures for recruitment of students. The Communist Party exercised authority over education policy through government bodies and by way of declarations of political objectives adopted by the Central Committee, often following party congresses (Gmerek, 2011, p. 332).

In 1932 the Communist Party established a ten-year comprehensive school "with the traditional system of lessons, classes, and textbooks. In 1944 the maturational exam was restored" (Gmerek, 2011, p. 119).

The educational system in Soviet Russia benefited from a stratified structure, oriented towards vocational training within the framework of a centrally planned economy, and served the creation of a socialist society. This reflected the “the Soviet leaders’ perception of education as an investment in human resources needed by the country to help create a socialist society” (Gmerek, 2011, p. 333).

1.2.3.2. Liberalism and education

The class struggle for national political power began with the collapse of the medieval feudal system. Liberalism, born in the era of the Enlightenment in France, developed in Europe in the nineteenth century along with the emerging capitalist society based on the free market. French philosophers were pioneers in defining the concept of ideology. They rebelled against absolute monarchy, educational institutions, and dogmas of the Church. They demanded civil rather than religious values, separation of church and state, and the removal of religion from schools. They stressed the secular nature of education, the task of which was the training of qualified workers. The student, not the teacher, was at the center of liberal ideology, resulting in a new vision of the school. The chief thesis of liberalism proclaimed that the individual was more important than the society.

The followers of the liberal conception of property and economy, particularly the principle of *laissez-faire*, believed that the government was responsible for the creation of conditions for the development of a competitive economy. “*Laissez-faire* capitalism is thus seen as guaranteeing prosperity, upholding individual liberty, and, as this allows individuals to rise and fall according to merit, ensuring social justice” (Heywood, 2002, p. 33). The context of supply and demand should enable citizens to compete in the market. Furthermore, freedom of trade must not be restricted by control of the economy. The state should regulate working times and conditions, take care of citizens’ health, and provide them with public safety.

Liberals “proclaimed the freedom of the individual and its nearly unfettered activity, guaranteeing progress in all fields of social life” (Konieczna, 2011, p. 43). Dewey and Spencer, two of the theoreticians of liberalism, expressed different views on the role of the individuals within the group. The former rejected competition in favor of cooperation within a group, whereas the latter believed that education should be linked with competition in order to better prepare young people for a better life.

The school created by the Liberals drew attention to education, utility, and procedures promoting the achievement of the values they proclaimed. In place of religious values, civil duties appeared. Liberals emphasized the importance of cognitive and emotional aspects. They instilled a sense of public responsibility, and linked careful fulfillment of obligations related to work with their emotional aspect. The fundamental pillar of the cognitive aspect was the dissemination of social awareness regarding state institutions.

In a liberal society, development of the state promoted the development of political and civil competences. This went hand in hand with the development of the economy and influenced education, which was to provide the knowledge and

skills necessary for obtaining a profession and finding work regardless of race, ethnicity, or socioeconomic conditions.

Educational policymakers made political decisions regarding educational policy; educational programs with centrist tendencies avoided radical solutions. The curriculum they introduced allowed a free choice of profession. The principles of liberalism marked the limits of freedom for teachers and students. A school's independence and apolitical character would appear dubious in a situation where the implementation of a liberal education program led to the assimilation of norms and values.

Liberal political processes emphasize the freedom of individuals to make their own choices when electing candidates for public office [...]. This freedom of choice applies to voting for candidates for public office, choosing a college or university, choosing a career, and a range of life options (Guttek, 2009, p. 237).

The limitation of state power became the basis for classic nineteenth-century economic liberalism. Social liberalism supported reform and construction of the welfare state through economic intervention. In the nineteenth century, universal education was introduced in countries governed by liberal parties, such as France, Great Britain, and the United States. The slogans of liberalism served the rulers in the development of a curriculum.

1.2.4. Conservatism and education

In the late eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries in Europe, conservative ideas appeared as a reaction to social and economic changes. Conservative thought advocated the traditional social order and was opposed to liberalism, socialism, and nationalism. This doctrine derived from three concepts: traditionalism (continuity in politics), organicism (the impossibility of human development without social bonds), and political skepticism.

Conservative doctrine was based on the principle of hierarchy and the assumption that people are not equal. Conservatives divide society into classes and categories, depending on abilities, skills, and social origin. They oppose radicalism and violent social changes. These differences affect the right of a social group to raise the young generation. Conservatives advocate the rule of law, a strong state, and a free market.

Political leaders are responsible for ensuring the integrity of traditional institutions and the preservation of existing social patterns. If they introduce social or educational changes, they implement them gradually. Such changes are usually few in number and involve elements which do not impact tradition. According to conservatives, people detached from the past and from their roots feel lost. Thus the main theme of conservatism is the role of tradition, which enables the continuity of cultural heritage, passed down from generation to generation, which stabilizes the society. Literature, history, and the national language, by drawing on the achievements of previous generations, additionally reinforced by religious

rites, enable the transmission of values. Cultural context reflects the social experience of centuries and the continuous transformation of the modern world. According to Burke,

the traditional cultural heritage was a repository of the time-tested achievements of humankind. [Burke] saw the social, political, religious, and educational institutions—the family, state, church, and school—as cultural achievements that had evolved over centuries of human experience (Gutek, 2009, p. 251).

An educational ideology, according to Burke, would “stress the need to cultivate in the young a sense of respect for cultural institutions [...] and would be suspicious of radical change, seeing it as a threat to both civilization and civility” (Gutek, 2009, p. 251).

The main role of the school is to acquaint a young man with the achievements of previous eras and instill membership in a particular social class. The student must understand cultural values, develop appropriate behavior, and respect social norms. Moreover, Burke’s main contributions to conservative ideology contribute to the transfer of heritage. In Burke’s opinion,

(1) institutions form a complex network of customary practice and historically evolved rights and duties; (2) human behavior evolves within the conditioning influence of the institutional system, and constitutes a cultural inheritance to be transmitted from one generation to the next; (3) human culture and institutions represent a continuum of tested experience [...]; and (4) tradition is the repository of a collective social intelligence (Gutek, 2009, p. 251).

The roles of church, family, and school are highly valued by conservatives. The school’s task is to teach about membership in social classes and the resulting work, wages, and vision of the past. The secondary schools in Great Britain (such as Eton, Rugby, Winchester, and Harrow) shape and educate the future leaders of the political elite, who then study at the universities of Oxford and Cambridge, which give them the opportunity to work in elite positions. The elite is characterized by high intellectual abilities and qualities of character. Conservative assumptions about school do not foresee the possibility of social change. Strong ethnocentrism and the strict formation of children’s personalities, along with competition and competitiveness, are omnipresent in conservative education. The young generation should be inculcated with respect for family, private property, and authority.

1.3. Economy and state politics

The word *politics* means the art of statecraft. It comes from the Greek word *polis* and means city-state. Ancient Greece, a country of independent cities, was characterized by a democratic system of government. Athens, the largest and most powerful city-state, was called the cradle of democracy. In this context, po-

itics applied to the *polis*. In the literature, the term is used in the common sense, when one speaks and writes about politicians.

As Adrian Leftwich proclaimed in *What is Politics? The Activity and Its Study* (2004), "politics is at the heart of all collective social activity, formal and informal, public and private, in *all* human groups, institutions and societies" (Heywood, 2002, p. 9).

Politics also refers to what occurs around the *politei*, "and therefore the system of social organization, centered around the mechanism of functioning of the government." Politics, according to Giddens, "concerns the means whereby power is used to affect the scope and content of governmental activities" (Giddens, 2006, p. 844).

In modern times, the term is also used to determine the directions of the domestic and foreign policies of the State and their impact on public affairs. Policy can be created not only by the power of the State, but also by social groups or organizations. Situations in which the dynamics and the structure of the economy and its functioning are directly affected by the state authorities or international organizations involve economic policy. These relationships between economic policy and the national authorities are reflected in the method used to solve social problems and affect the pace of social change.

The economic growth of each country in the European Union is a basic pillar of its economic policy. The road to prosperity is associated with growth in production, an increase in Gross Domestic Product, and maintenance of economic balance in terms of supply and demand. In this context, government economic policy constitutes measures by which a government attempts to influence the economy. The national budget generally reflects the economic policy of a government, and it is partly through the budget that the government exercises its three principal methods of establishing control: the allocative, stabilizing, and distributive functions (<http://www.britannica.com/topic/government-economic-policy>, accessed: April 10, 2016).

The concept of the welfare of a particular state is related to the distribution of national income and non-material elements. The welfare of the state depends on access to universal free education, which guarantees employment for those with relevant professional qualifications, ensuring professional development and adequate wages. To sum up, these factors create a secure existence, affecting the living conditions and ensuring the health of the individual.

A country with the aim of ensuring social welfare should act appropriately in the labor market, creating a dialog between employers and workers as well as ensuring a prosocial hiring policy. The country should also monitor the interdependence of employment and education policies. It should make use of EU financing and pay attention to the growth of demand in the work force. The state should create new jobs in the public sector, especially in areas threatened by unemployment; encourage entrepreneurship; and create special zones of economic activity.

According to Ulrich Beck, in the 21st century we are observing the disappearance of industrial society in favor of "the second modernity." Today, risks, according to Beck,

affect all countries and all social classes; they have global, not merely personal, consequences. [...] There is the fear of terrorism, [...] as businesses become reluctant to risk large-scale investment (Giddens, 2006, p. 120).

Moreover, risk control is the most important aspect of the contemporary global economy. We still cannot predict the effects on health of the use of genetically modified food or the development of science and technology. Beck, along with Jürgen Habermas, sees the correction of this situation in the revival of the subpolitical sphere. Moreover, Habermas sees a tendency in the capitalist economy to produce economic depressions and crises. "We need to reestablish our control over economic processes which have come to control us more than we control them" (Giddens, 2006, p. 118).

As a result, as Beck claimed, we are observing the

emergence of a new political society. On the presumption that the modern public has to a great extent lost its solid and collective character and individuals have instead emerged as the centers of social relations, we cannot expect an easy revival of the political public sphere [...] Although individuals are today pulled away from their traditional modes of social connection, such as family lineages, occupational categories and classes, it does not lead to the end of all kinds of society but new modes of social connectedness (Hacker, van Dijk, 2000, p. 101).

The expansion of the capitalist economy through telecommunications and computers was described by another postmodernist, Manuel Castells. According to him, capitalism today is based not only on the working class and the production of goods, as Marx argued, but on "the network economy," "the new economy, which depends on the connections made possible by global communications. [...] The information society results from the rise of the network and the network economy" (Giddens, 2006, p. 121). According to this sociologist, we are observing the excessive growth of bureaucracy, while CCTV cameras are in virtually all public places.

It would be a good thing if procapitalist action went hand in hand with the development of a prosocial society, as is the case in Finland, where, despite the world's greatest development of the new economy, politicians have not let go of the idea of the welfare state. Finnish schools have Internet access, and citizens are supported by computers. The success of Finland's economic policy stems from "the close cooperation of many institutions that create an innovation infrastructure, or actually a national system of innovation" (Klamut (ed.), 2007, p. 198) which combines enterprises, regional government offices, and centers of technological development.

Economic differences affecting individuals and groups within society create classes. State economic policy depends on the country's political system, which directly affects its business processes. State power "as the subject of economic policy influences the social economic process, which involves numerous and qualitatively different organizational units: enterprises, farms, banks, insurance companies, economic organizations, households" (Winiarski (ed.), 2006, p. 27).

Production and distribution of goods and services in modern society requires people to perform specialized tasks in different areas. The owners of the means of production are the most important factor in the regulation of economic relations. The criterion of ownership of these assets enables the distinction of capitalist regimes with characteristic private property and collectivist regimes characterized by the dominance of state ownership.

[The] economic system of a given country is linked with its social and political systems, resulting in governance and control of the economy. It is also essential whether a country is ruled by one political party and whether the authorities are selected on the basis of democratic elections (Winiarski (ed.), 2006, p. 27).

1.3.1. The functions of the state in a capitalist market economy in the context of economic policy

The role of the state in a capitalist economy concerns guaranteeing compliance with the

political system and principles of socio-economic development, especially the principles of economic freedom, respect for private property and freedom of enterprise. The traditional functions of the state must therefore ensure external security (by maintaining forces and facilities for national defense, especially an army), internal security (maintaining police), maintaining a measure of justice (judiciary), education, and the formation of a monetary system (Winiarski (ed.), 2006, p. 31).

Within the framework of competition, efficiency, innovation, and investment are in the hands of traders, bankers, and private companies.

The role of the state also includes combating unfair competition, setting conditions of work and protection for workers, and ensuring a system of social insurance and health services. On a macroeconomic scale, the state creates an economy by means of fiscal and monetary policy and influences the demand for goods and services produced by the state. The state budget determines the structure and amount of public expenditure.

The economic policy of the country should support “sectors which do not enjoy sufficient interest from private entrepreneurs” (Winiarski (ed.), 2006, p. 35). In addition, support should include such items as railways, schools, health care, and a postal service. In addition, policies should counteract economic stagnation and crises through modeling of the conditions needed for economic growth.

1.4. Educational change and education policy

Studies of changes in education started in the 1960s. The first half of the 1970s was marked by an educational crisis of credibility. Observers began to write and speak about the main factors involved in the introduction of educational

innovation. In the 1980s, large-scale educational changes were introduced in England and the United States. A wave of intensification of reforms went hand in hand with the implementation of a compulsory curriculum. The competences of the students and the professional liability of teachers were clarified.

As Marris claimed, "Whether change is sought or resisted and happens by chance or design, whether we look at it from the standpoint of reformers or those they manipulate, of individuals or institutions, the response is characteristically ambivalent" (Marris, 1975, p. 7). Moreover, the human factor is necessary in any reform in order for the meaning of implemented changes to be understood. In the presented context it makes sense to "consolidate skills and attachments, whose secure possession provides the assurance to master something new" (Marris, 1975, p. 22).

From Schon's point of view, change involves "passing through the zones of uncertainty [...] the situation of being at sea, of being lost, of confronting more information you can handle" (Schon, 1971, p. 12). As Hargreaves and Shirley claimed, "[o]ur current challenge is to find ways to develop innovation within our schools while continuously improving them. We need to harmonize incremental improvements and disruptive innovations [...] as teachers are, or should always be, the real dynamos of educational change" (Hargreaves, Shirley, 2012, pp. 27, 200).

Fullan claims that "the implications of the principles and ideas describe by Marris and others are profound in relation to our understanding of educational change in two senses—one concerning the meaning of change, and the other regarding the process of change" (Fullan, 1995, p. 32). The real change, whether desired or not, is always characterized by ambivalence or uncertainty and requires mastery and development on the part of teachers. This enables us to explain why change in education takes place and what should be done to increase its chances of success. In this context it is necessary to understand meaning at a high level. There are certain factors that inhibit the learning of teachers, especially professional development sessions during event-based activities. Moreover, as Fullan claimed, "restructuring occurs time and time again, whereas reculturing (the way teachers come to question and change their beliefs and habits) is what is needed" (Fullan, 1995, p. 34).

On the other hand, the current situation in education is an example of polemics involving divisions and tensions between the followers of politically centralized and decentralized reforms. The former prefer strong top-down regulation of the educational policy, along with constant control of the education system that checks the growth or decline of the knowledge and skills of the students. They seek strategies of local management in schools. They transfer more power over the schools to external institutions. Proponents of decentralized management in schools, with an increased role for directors and teachers, are in favor of developing the mission and objectives of the school created within the community of students and teachers.

According to Fullan, supporters of both of these trends are waging a fruitless struggle. Without a new approach in thinking about educational change, policy-

makers, teachers, parents and students cannot analyze the change in ideology. "No innovation can be assimilated, as long as its meaning is not shared" (Marris, 1975, p. 121) by those who implement it. Every teacher should understand the changes resulting from reform in the educational institution in which he or she works and the legitimacy of their implementation.

The process of change should occur according to model changes: initiation, implementation, follow-up, and results. At the beginning, the direction of change should be properly defined and explained its initiator. The next step is the implementation phase, which may be more or less effective. "It takes three to five years" (Potulicka, 2001, p. 19).

Initiation of educational changes in education policy is done by influential party leaders and educators. In a situation where a change is politically motivated, there is greater involvement on the part of political leaders. Moreover, there are new ideas about educational and financial expenditure, which often result in unrealistic demands for the simplification of educational and educational solutions. Either no one asks teachers about the purpose of reform, or only partial questions are asked, because teachers are not motivated to reform education.

In terms of educational motivation, educational changes are desirable in school and function efficiently. Introducing changes in the content, tasks, and structure of the school system is more likely than changes in behavior, the roles of teachers, and educational concepts. Diagnosis of the specific needs of the school influences the effectiveness of educational changes. Diffuse goals, poorly chosen measures, and a lack of clarity are difficulties in the process of implementing local reforms. Changes in educational policy will be seen as positive if they are practical, even if they are multi-stage. Teachers, headmasters, and local education authorities (LEAs) must understand their purpose and want to implement them. To sum up, a detailed study of the literature research convinces me that there are still a number of issues which require additional theoretical findings.

Educational changes in educational policy last many years and bad situations do not improve. Fortunately, we know what brings change. One of the primary problems of modern education is to reform it without a clear and coherent vision of changes, without asking the questions: How to run it? What changes? This philosophical and political approach contributes not only to a new look at education in the UK, but also asks new and open-ended questions.

1.4.1. The importance of educational change

The implementation of educational change is related to multidimensional and multilevel educational innovation at the level of the teacher, student, school, and school district. There are at least three components which create a new dimension of educational policy. The first relates to the use of new or improved (revised) materials, i.e., "instructional resources such as curriculum materials or technologies" (Fullan, 2001, p. 39). The second is based on "new teaching approaches (i.e., new teaching strategies or activities) and the third consists of the possible

alteration of beliefs (specifically, 'pedagogical assumptions and theories underlying particular new educational policies or programs')" (Fullan, 2001, p. 39).

The presented aspects or dimensions of change are ways to achieve specific educational goals. It is clear that each teacher can implement one, two, or all three of the dimensions of change described above. As a result, teachers can use a new curriculum without changing their approach to teaching. However, if they want to achieve lasting effects as a result of the change, they should understand the principles of the reform and examine their beliefs. It would be advisable for teachers to learn how to implement the change through understanding its theoretical basis, which would influence the augmentation of their teaching skills with new methods and techniques. In the wake of the implemented reforms, the change would contribute to the maintenance of new practical training in teaching.

1.4.2. Reasons for initiating educational change and the associated processes

1.4.2.1. Characteristics of change

According to M. Fullan, there are at least three types of problems (complications) related to the need for change. First, schools are overloaded with improvement agendas. As a result, the question arises of the place of change in the hierarchy of importance relative to other needs. In the case of complex changes, the need for their implementation is not clear at the outset. What is more, every need is subject to interactions with other interactive factors of change and creates different patterns. The transparency and clarity of educational change is a complex problem within the process of its implementation. The more complex the reform, the greater the problem of clarity. In short, lack of clarity, diffuse goals, and unspecified means of implementation are major problems at the implementation stage. As a result, teachers could have great difficulty in grasping the core of implementation.

Interactive factors are involved in the implementation process. "The characteristics of change include: need, clarity, complexity, and quality." Moreover, "the local characteristics involve the district, community, principal, and teacher." Furthermore, there are "external factors which include government and other agencies" (Fullan, 2001, p. 72).

The change is not clear (false clarity) if an imbalance of its transparency occurs as a result of oversimplified interpretation. Such a situation exists, e.g. if an acclaimed textbook for the teaching of English becomes the curriculum in a given class. The textbook itself does not contain the essential features of education policy or goals that should be achieved through teaching. On the other hand, limiting themselves to the textbook distracts teachers' attention from critical educational behaviors and beliefs which are helpful in achieving the desired results. If the clarity of a particular change is not presented in a clear and transparent way, opaque and incomprehensible changes can cause anxiety and frustration

for the teachers who are trying to implement them. Only simple and insignificant changes in education can be clear and transparent. Difficult but valuable changes are not easy to explain to those who will implement them. Changes can be considered in relation to difficulties, required skills, ranges, teaching strategies, and supplied materials.

Comprehensive changes involve not only an effort but also the risk of failure. From the three above-mentioned variables, need, clarity, and complexity, a fourth variable results: quality, which is involved in a reciprocal relationship with the first three. The quality and practicality of the change is the final factor directly related to the nature of educational change and may affect its various aspects, such as: restructuring of the education system, the challenges facing education policy, and the implementation of a new curriculum.

Teachers are still the greatest intellectual capital in schools, because they are the mediators of knowledge, skills, and values. Implementation of educational goals will be possible only if conditions are met involving professional career preparations on the part of teachers and if budget resources sufficient to ensure fair wages and financial support of teachers' careers are allotted. Raising the quality of education is inseparably linked with support of the professional development of teachers and hiring of the best graduates in a given specialization as well as continuous work on the attractiveness of their job conditions.

The process of the implementation of professional tasks by teachers depends on the state's education policy and the goals of this policy established by local educational authorities, along with the social and cultural conditions of the given educational institution, the influence of parents on their children's motivation to learn, the relationship between the principal and teachers, and the personal involvement of teachers.

Ambitious projects of educational changes are almost always politically driven. As a result, the time between the decision to initiate procedures of educational change and their activation is often too short to properly address the quality of the implemented changes. Reform has a chance of success if policymakers plan enough time to implement the changes. This process should be inspired by the high quality of teaching and training materials. Without a deeper understanding of the objectives of the reform it is impossible to carry out educational changes which will cover all of its factors.

1.4.2.2. The teacher and educational change

Educational changes proposed by educational policymakers will be successful if teachers' opinions are taken into account at the stage of planning and initiating any change involving the terms and conditions of their employment. Over the last twenty years in Europe and in the United States, observers have noted the deterioration of teaching conditions in schools. The teaching profession has been socially devalued. Constant stress and alienation, along with occupational illnesses, have contributed to the departure of many valuable teachers from the profession. This situation intensifies the expanded scope of professional

responsibilities relating to educational objectives, the expectations set by the school in the framework of subsequent reforms, social changes related to the roles of the family, and the sociocultural climate of acceptance of certain moral deviations.

Fullan emphasizes the role of the quality of relationships prevailing among teachers, which are strongly linked with the implementation of all of the changes taking place in education. Open communication in the workplace, trust, support and mutual assistance, learning and satisfaction at work, and prevailing morality are interrelated. Improving the work of the school as a result of the implementation of reform is possible if teachers fully understand and implement educational change. Moreover, they should be engaged in talk about teaching. Talk has the function of building a common language appropriate to the complexity of teaching. Furthermore, teachers who observe the activities of their colleagues are able to thoroughly evaluate their own work. This observation and feedback on one's own teaching can help to build a common language ensuring precision and concreteness.

Collaboration among teachers improves the quality of education in schools, improves performance, and enhances the achievement of standards. It is related to teachers' continual development and preparation of teaching materials.

The problem with the implementation of changes at an educational institution includes many psychological and pedagogical barriers, which result from a misunderstanding of the rules of educational changes and how to carry them out in school. Implementation of changes will fail without proper organizational conditions created by the principal. A coherent program of school management, innovation, common learning objectives, procedures for the monitoring of the results of work, and a climate of cooperation are the most important factors bearing witness to the effective implementation of reform in school.

1.4.2.3. Planning educational change

According to H. Mintzberg, in only a few strategies are there debates about educational change, and "one suggests no learning, the other no control" (Mintzberg, Ahlstrand, Lampei, 1988, p. 25). When educational change is introduced, often one has to deal with its unsuitability. Inability to correct all circumstances requiring educational change leads to the assertion that a given situation cannot be changed. According to M. Fullan, prior to the introduction of educational change, four main aspects of the problem of changes should be analyzed: "Why planning fails," "Success is possible," "Planning and copying," and "The scope of educational change" (Fullan, 1995, p. 95).

Educational change ends in failure due to a lack of sufficient good material to carry out the change, inadequate planning of changes, ineffective professionalism, and minimal administrative support. For implemented educational changes, the consequences of faulty assumptions and the way of thinking about their initiators are severe. The assumptions behind changes are often hyperrational (Wise, 1977). One of the main sources of this problem can be found in the erroneous assumptions of the reformers regarding the implementation of specific changes.

Sometimes changes are implemented shortly before parliamentary elections, without regard for cultural and local contexts. Too short a period of planning often results in changes being doomed to educational failure. According to S. Sarason, changes are “an understandable but unfortunate way of thinking confuses the power (in a legal or organizational chart sense) to effect change with the process of change” (Sarason, 1971, p. 29).

According to Wise, the behavior of educational decision-makers (policymakers) is like wishful thinking. “Here policy makers behave as though their desires concerning what a school system should accomplish, will in fact, be accomplished if the policymakers simply decree it” (Wise, 1977, p. 45).

Another element, mentioned earlier, of the failure of educational reform is the problem of local context and culture. John Micklethwait and Adrian Wooldridge (1996) remind us that educational policy-makers introduce their ideas without taking the local context of educational changes into account, and that they are susceptible to quick fixes.

A similar position in terms of educational change is expressed by Senge:

The fundamental flaw of most innovators' strategies is that they focus on their innovations, on what they are trying to do, rather than on understanding how the larger culture, structures, standards, and norms will react to their efforts (Senge, Kleiner, Roberts, Ross, Roth, Smith, 1999, p. 26).

On the other hand, Fullan (1995, p. 98) and Andy Hargreaves (1994, p. 3) argue that, in planning educational change, a flexible approach to planning is needed. It is worth considering their suggestions because of the presence of opponents to the implementation of educational change and the “technical and political reasons for taking resisters more seriously” (Fullan, 1995, p. 99). In this situation, opponents of the reform may be a useful source of knowledge about the context and the need to make a given change and may indicate a new aspect at the moment of its planning. In relation to alternative approaches to the problem of education, we cannot underestimate our opponents' approach to change. We may be under their influence because people are against change for important reasons which are advantageous for education. Moreover, according to the opponents of educational change, at the moment of its implementation it would be advisable to get rid of emotions and “emotional impulse” (Heifetz, 1994, p. 271) because every emerging problem is an opportunity for change.

Management, leadership, and change can contribute to creating “seductive kinds of dependency” (Fullan, 1995, p. 100). Policymakers are broadly aware of the problem of educational change. They prefer dependent subordinates to independent thinkers. To solve the problems concerning the implementation of educational change, the creation of a complex organizational theory is necessary.

All emerging organizations are a kind of reflection of the power of educational policymakers appointed in order to create stability, integration, maintenance control, and the security of the system as a whole. Success lies in the middle, between the stability and instability of the organization. Moreover, the dynamic bringing success to an organization is subject to irregular cycles

and trends, and depends on the quality patterns applying to educational policy. This dynamic creates the previously unrecognized future of education. Long-term planning and development are necessary, enabling the growth of the organization. Managers should apply the principle of reasoning by analogy to create the future of the educational organization. Long-term development is a spontaneously self-organizing process from which new strategic directions may emerge. Spontaneous self-organization is political interaction and learning in groups (Stacey, 1996, p. 349).

Before the change, it is necessary to find answers to the questions: Is the change related to an unmet and urgent need for education? Are there any other priorities of change in relation to other pressing educational needs? "Is it informed by some desirable sense of vision? Are there adequate (not to say optimal) resources committed to support implementation (such as technical assistance and leadership support)?" (Fullan, 1995, p. 106).

The analysis of approaches to educational change enabled Fullan to identify necessary assumptions.

Do not assume that our version of the change should be implemented. Let's assume that one of the main purposes of the process of implementation is to change reality, which we should achieve through teamwork with those interested in implementing the change (Fullan, 1995, p. 108).

The success of a change depends on the transformation of the change itself as well as the continuous development of its underlying initial ideas. In the educational system, every significant innovation requires an individual approach to the development of its meaning. While working on the change, ambiguities, ambivalence, and uncertainty appear. Effective implementation of changes depends, therefore, on a process of clarification. In the evaluation of needs, it is essential to limit the time required for the school staff to become acquainted with it. The smooth implementation of a change is often an indicator that it will not introduce any significant transformations in education.

The assumption that pressure is needed for commitment to implementation of change is effective if the created conditions allow employees to react and present their own point of view. It is essential for them to collaborate with other teachers and, in case of need, to receive support in capacity building and problem solving.

Fullan writes about the necessary time required to implement changes. Unrealistic and undefined time lines for the implementation of a change lead to its failure.

Significant changes need to be implemented for a minimum of two to three years. Institutional reforms can take as long as five to ten years. At each level, changes in infrastructure, educational policy, and administration take even more time. Reasons for complete rejection of a comprehensive educational change result from the values contained in it, inadequate sources of support for the change, and insufficient time for its implementation.

In the planning of changes, evolutionary planning and problem-coping models which make use of existing experience and knowledge are indispensable.

Decisions about implementation of a change are thus the result of the current knowledge about the change, political considerations, intuition, and on-the-spot decisions taken immediately in response to questions that appear. Initiations of changes in education policy are created by influential leaders of political parties and by educators. In a situation where a change is politically motivated, we have new ideas of education, greater involvement of political leaders, and financial expenditure, which result in unrealistic educational demands, expanded schedules, and simplified solutions. Success is more likely when introducing educational changes in the content, tasks, and structure of the school system than changes in behavior, the roles of teachers, and educational concepts.

The most important factors influencing an educational change include its properties, that is, needs, clarity, comprehensiveness, and practical aspect. The implementation will be more effective if the specific needs of the school are identified. Moreover, diffuse goals, poorly chosen measures, multiculturalism, and lack of clarity are local difficulties in implementing reform. Even multi-stage changes will be positive if they are seen as practical. Teachers, school principals, and education supervisors must understand their purpose and want to implement them.

Teachers are not usually asked for their opinion, or are asked half-heartedly. If the community of teachers has been properly motivated, the introduction of the desired changes will enable more efficient educational functioning.

CHAPTER 2

The evolution of educational thought and the ideology of education in the history of England from the tenth to the end of the seventeenth century

Following the fall of the Western Roman Empire in 476, the ancient forms of education ceased to exist and the feudal system was born. By the ninth and tenth centuries, the structure of states had been stabilized in nearly all of Europe, along with the formation of church education. In the following centuries the state forms relating to education flourished and became stabilized. At this time the first universities were created. There, scholastic philosophy, justifying the truth of faith, was born. Scholasticism led to a rise in the level of medieval dialectics in the arena of reasoning and discussion. Thinkers became more courageous in pronouncing judgments on matters of education. From the fourteenth century on in Europe, a political and economic transformation occurred which contributed to the emergence of the current of Renaissance thought.

The Romans successfully concluded an expedition aimed at the conquest of Britain in 43 AD. As a result, England and southern Wales were conquered. Due to its distance from Rome, the fall of Roman Britain began a long time before the fall of the Roman Empire. There were constant attacks from the Celtic tribes of Scotland and Ireland, followed, from the fourth century AD on, by attacks by "Germanic, Saxon, and Frankish privateers, coming to the English coast from the mouth of the Rhine" (Zins, 2001, p. 20), which weakened the empire. The defeat of the Romans at Adrianople (378 AD) caused the collapse of the border of the Roman Empire on the Rhine and the Danube, which increased the number of Germanic attacks on Britain. In 410 AD, Emperor Honorius refused to defend Britain against the invaders, leading to the settlement there of Germanic tribes of Angles, Saxons, and Jutes.

The invasions influenced the process of shaping the language, cultural development, and formation of the nation and state. Despite the fall of the Western Roman Empire (476 AD) in Western Europe, socioeconomic changes continued. As a result of the conquests of England, "Jutes occupied Kent, Angles northern

and central England, Saxons the regions of the middle and lower Thames" (Zins, 2001, p. 228). Until the eighth century, seven small states in England formed the Heptarchy. Fighting between tribes ended about 560 AD with the rise (according to historical sources) of Ethelbert, King of Kent. In 597 AD Pope Gregory the Great sent Augustine to the British Isles with the mission of Christianizing them. The mission was successful and the county of Kent converted, starting the process of Christianization.

In 432 AD, on the orders of Pope Celestine I, Patrick arrived in Ireland (he was later to become the country's patron saint) with the mission of the conversion of the island's inhabitants to Christianity. Putting up special resistance to his teaching were Irish druids (pagan priests), who had previously run schools for a considerable percentage of young men. The resistance broke when Patrick permitted the continuation of research and promised that the Christian faith would not stop the Druids from educating the young. St. Patrick converted many druids to the Christian faith; as a result, they began to enter monasteries, where they could continue their research. For two hundred years these monasteries had no dealings with the pope and did not recognize his authority.

In the fifth and sixth centuries in Ireland, schools at the elementary and secondary levels, as well as at the university level, had already been developed. Their students knew more about classical literature than any in Europe. Due to the virtual disappearance of Greek-language teaching in Europe, anyone who could speak Greek was thought to be an Irishman. Irish monks possessed sound knowledge and were mobile, settling in France, Germany, Switzerland, and England. Monasteries in Ireland, unlike those of the rest of the Catholic Church, professed that education was intended not only for the clergy, but for all ranks, and moreover that education meant more than just reading the Bible.

The Irish monasteries were also capable of teaching foreigners without forcing them to change their religion. Monastery schools taught Greek, Latin, rhetoric, geometry, arithmetic, astronomy, and music. In 593 AD Pope Gregory the Great sent Benedictines to Ireland, leading to conflict with the druids. Academically, the Benedictines were poorly prepared, and thus unable to influence Irish monks. To meet this challenge, the Benedictines raised their level of knowledge; moreover, they sought the support of civil authorities and, in the twelfth century, subdued the druids.

For medieval Europe, the ruler of the Franks, Charles the Great (Charlemagne; Latin: *Carolus Magnus* (742–814), <http://www.thelatinlibrary.com/imperialism/notes/charlemagne.html>, accessed: June 27, 2017), was an important figure. His intention was to unite the monarchy by raising the intellectual level of the entire clergy, followed by its subordination to secular power. He guaranteed church officials the highest possible qualifications, which contributed to the strengthening of royal power, and founded a palace school in which he gathered the intellectual elite of contemporary Europe. The English king Alfred the Great (871–899) followed and carried on Charlemagne's ideas on education.

In the territory of present-day Great Britain, there was practically no education; very few people were able to read and write, and even fewer were capable

of translating Latin texts into English. Alfred, like Charlemagne, first raised the intellectual level of the clergy, then saw to the establishment of schools for citizens wealthy enough to be able to study at least to the point of beginning to read English. Because national languages had no written forms at that time, all contemporary learning, administration, and literature was dominated by Latin. Alfred intended to incorporate teaching of the national language to the masses. He had the best Latin works translated into English. What is more, he founded a palace school for his own family, along with the sons of nobles and of the lower classes. The work of Alfred the Great was the cornerstone of the future universities in England.

2.1. The Church's monopoly on teaching

The inception of Christianity in the British Isles (597 AD) signaled the beginnings of public education. The first schools, built in the vicinity of cathedrals and monasteries, taught reading of the Bible to future priests and monks. Over time, these schools were transformed into grammar schools and song schools that prepared pupils for the priesthood and the teaching profession. These pupils were the sons of rich feudal lords, who thought in terms of political or official careers. From the grammar schools, secondary education emerged. Meanwhile, the song schools, which were later transformed into centers of elementary education, taught future craftsmen, soldiers, and priests. Students focused on reading, writing, counting, and voice training. The fact that only wealthy families made use of home schooling contributed to the acquisition of patrons, the founders of the first parish churches, around which arose orphanages, hospices, and convents maintaining themselves on donations.

As in all of medieval Europe, the Church was the main educational institution in the British Isles, since teaching was done by clergy, with a strong emphasis on religious content. The spiritual environment was characterized by academic conservatism, which was in opposition to the feelings of part of the society which wanted learning separated from religion. These trends intensified in the thirteenth century following the opening of the first universities and the entry into force of a royal decree (1385) about teaching in the national language in grammar schools. The king maintained no educational policy, which contributed to the spread of alternative forms of education. Sponsors took advantage of the situation and founded private schools free of religious canons.

The Church acted liberally, and neither forbade anyone to practice the teaching profession nor opposed the establishment of private schools. However, at the end of the twelfth century, the liberal position of the Church changed. During this period the bishops of France, wishing to run all schools in the areas of their dioceses, forced teachers to obtain permits (at no charge) for teaching from the scholastics. These permits were issued by order of Pope Alexander III, who gave the Church the power to monitor teaching in all types of schools. In the territory

of present-day France and England many financial frauds were perpetuated in order to obtain permission to teach. The custom of obtaining permits for teaching persisted until the end of the twelfth century, which contributed to the monopoly of the Church and maintained it until the seventeenth century.

Medieval methods of teaching and education involved the use of harsh penalties. In the schools, corporal punishment included lashing and beating the offender, especially about the head, with sticks. "The medieval theory proclaimed that a child not punished, even for minor offenses, would not find peace after death unless appropriate punishment was administered to its corpse. Accordingly, all students were regularly beaten on Saturdays, regardless of their guilt" (Kurdybacha (ed.), 1965, p. 193).

Students were punished at schools for not having books. Church teaching was based on the student's trust of and respect for their teachers. Teaching was done in Latin; the vernacular was used only when it was impossible to explain a given word or define its meaning. Catholic thought of this period did not recognize national languages or nationalities. As a result, Latin and the principles of the Christian world were obligatory. The curriculum of the cathedral, collegiate, and monastery schools was based on the seven liberal arts. The lower level (*trivium*) comprised grammar, rhetoric, and dialectic; the higher level (*quadrivium*) comprised arithmetic, geometry, music, and astronomy. For the contemporary Church, the teaching of practical sciences, such as architecture, engineering, medicine, law, and science, posed a threat because they could contribute to improving the health and living conditions of the faithful and, above all, to increasing public awareness. Introducing these subjects to the canon could threaten the monopoly of the Church; it was more convenient to maintain the population in contempt and oblivion. The situation changed only at the end of the twelfth and beginning of the thirteenth centuries.

2.2. Bourgeois education

Along with the increase of trade in the tenth century in France, England, and Germany, new cities began to arise. The dominant social class in these cities was formed by craftsmen; thus the cities sought independence from secular and spiritual feudal lords. Trade attracted merchants, who became rich and influenced the cities' independence and the formation of a new and vibrant social class, the bourgeoisie. This class wanted to redeem the cities from feudal dependence, even at the cost of large sums of money. Medieval kings wanted to gain allies in their consolidation of power, and therefore supported the bourgeoisie in the struggle against feudal power. They formed alliances with the cities, supporting governments and courts there.

From the twelfth century on, the English bourgeoisie was organized in guilds, creating their own schools in order to provide their children future access to work. The language of instruction was English, whereas Latin was taught in the upper grades. School afforded the indigent youth of the city not only education, but so-

cial advancement, in connection with the occupation of posts in state administration, city government, and trade. Students from the schools arising in the cities formed the nucleus of the British intelligentsia, who joined in the formulation of the demands for sociopolitical reform in the period of the Reformation. The emancipation of the English bourgeoisie led to the emergence of higher law schools organized by legal corporations independent of both Church and king. Practical learning was based on writing lawsuits, preparing complaints, and participation in hearings and trials. This undertaking of the bourgeoisie found imitators among the representatives of the English aristocracy, who began to establish schools to educate their children for the requirements of the secular authorities. As a result, at the beginning of the English Reformation, a secular intelligentsia was formed which proceeded to influence the formation of social attitudes.

2.3. Education of youth

State education was dominant in medieval Europe. Membership in a particular social class was the result of birth, was permanent, and was sanctioned by religion and the Church. Each social class was guided by its own system of values.

In Western Europe, two periods of the development of chivalry and knightly culture can be distinguished. The first lasted until the middle of the twelfth century and was named the *heroic period*. The qualities of a knight were honesty, loyalty, faithful service to the country and the fulfillment of the commands of feudal lord. The second chivalric period featured the development of court culture among the rich knights.

"Instead of simplicity and austerity in the foreground of the chivalric life, at the end of the twelfth century courtly gallantry, care for beautiful and graceful outward appearances, and a taste for romantic adventures came to the fore" (Kurdybacha (ed.), 1965, p. 232). Courtly manners were based on preparations for war and life at the royal court, and on the nurture of religious traditions. Knights were taught to participate in ceremonies and cultivate the virtue of courtesy. The church taught them, according to the principle of mercy towards the weak and defenseless, to adhere to its doctrines. The combination of the principles of war, society, and religion led to the creation of the ideal knight. A knight was required to be a soldier, a citizen of the court, and a man of action.

The Middle Ages did not create the school of chivalry; young men gained knightly virtues in the courts of the owners of feudal estates. Boys began learning at the age of seven or eight. From early childhood they were taught obedience and respect for elders. The basic education consisted of a few stages. First the boy served as a page and fulfilled the function of the lowest member of the court, as well as serving his lord and lady. In medieval England, the young knight learned proper comportment with respect to the ladies of the court, as well as how to play chess and to read and write in English. He rarely learned Latin. In the area surrounding the castle, he learned how to wield weapons, ride horses, wrestle and race. At the age of fifteen he became a squire. He took an active part

in knightly tournaments, hunting expeditions, and wars. At the age of twenty-one he was knighted.

The craftsman's education also consisted of several stages, and mastering each one required time and the proper procedures. In their own interests, craftsmen established rules for the affiliation of masters in guilds. They took care to maintain product quality and to exclude competition. The student began studying the craft as an apprentice; then he became a journeyman (companion) before the masters of the guild; subsequently he continued to work under the guidance of a master, until he himself earned the title of master in his craft.

A peasant child received a family and religious education, in which the primary role was played by the church; thus peasant religiosity was characterized by prejudices and superstitions. Another great influence on the education of peasant children was exerted by the feudal lord and his court, when the lord wanted to have faithful and conscientious workers.

2.4. The beginnings of higher education: the Universities of Cambridge, Oxford and London

In the twelfth century, Europe entered a phase characterized by the development of self-governing cities which, thanks to economic growth, acquired increasingly greater rights and political freedom. This period was characterized by the development of guilds, brotherhoods, corporations, and universities. Jacques Le Goff defined the university of the Middle Ages as a "corporation grouping all (*universitas*) professors and students in a given city" (Litak, 2005, p. 67).

The organization of the medieval university caused it to become connected with the intellectual life of the city. Universities under the care of the Catholic Church brought together professors in Bologna, Paris, and Oxford. These professors had the privilege of autonomy, a monopoly on the award of degrees, and the right to strike.

All universities in the Middle Ages were characterized by similar organization, which consisted of the functioning of four divisions. The faculty of liberal arts was recognized as the lowest faculty (atrium school faculty). The three higher divisions taught law, theology, and medicine.

Education in the faculty of arts began at the age of 14 and continued until the age of 20. After two years, a student obtained the title of *baccalaureate*; after six years, of PhD. Students graduated from the faculties of law and medicine at the age of 20–25. In the case of theology, a doctorate was obtained at the age of 35. Latin was compulsory at the universities; Thomism was the basic philosophy. The universities featured their own ceremonies and costumes (gowns), typical names, juvenalia, and elaborate customs. Lectures and debates constituted the main methods of teaching. Doctor's, master's, and bachelor's degrees were awarded at universities in Great Britain. *Licentia docendi* and *licentia ad practi-*

candum (traditional bachelor) were the degrees that enabled work as a teacher. The degree of bachelor of arts enabled students to start an academic career.

In the history of university teaching in England, the year 1167, in which the king ordered students, under threat of confiscation of their property, to return from abroad, was especially important. In 1209, the University of Oxford numbered more than three thousand students and enjoyed fame. Universities educated the political and spiritual elite of the England of that time. As a result of a disagreement between the professors, some students and professors, after leaving the university, established their own university in Cambridge, which took on special significance following the reform in the spirit of humanism conducted by Erasmus of Rotterdam. In 1546, King Henry VIII financed the establishment of Trinity College, which, by virtue of its famous graduates (Francis Bacon, Isaac Newton, John Dryden, Lord Byron), remains to this day the most famous university college in the world.

The dramatic split among the “professors and young people caused the closing of Oxford University until 1214, i.e., until it was given papal privileges” (Barnicka, Szybiak, 2001, p. 71). This involved the diminution of the control of the city government over the university and the burdening of the townspeople with the necessity of giving financial help to students from poor families. In the case of offenses committed by students, the city council was obliged to send them to the ecclesiastical court. The price for these privileges was the acceptance of the sovereignty of ecclesiastical authorities. In the period of the Reformation, the university was closed, to be reopened in 1571 with the approval of Queen Elizabeth I.

In 1571 a parliamentary act gave universities corporate rights, strengthening their autonomy; as a result they came under the guardianship of the King. The rich middle class engaged in the patronage of university colleges. Young people from the middle classes also studied at Oxford and Cambridge Universities. In the Elizabethan era, it was not birth and title but education that served as the gateway to a career as a government official, courtier, or diplomat.

For the sake of the education of the children of merchants, Thomas Gresham, adviser to Queen Elizabeth I and a prominent London merchant and financier, founded and endowed the seven faculties of a college (Gresham College): theology, law, rhetoric, music, physics, geometry, and astronomy. He demanded the introduction of lectures, as well as academic research, in English. At the end of the sixteenth century, London colleges of physicians, surgeons, and chemists engaged in academic research, which contributed to the development of the capital city as the scientific, political, and economic center of the country.

2.5. The monopoly of the Church in teaching and church schools

The beginnings of humanism in England date back to the late thirteenth century, when the English bourgeoisie was released from the feudal yoke. Siding with the cities, in which trade flourished and the guilds were formed, was King

Edward I. In order to strengthen his power, he established his own courts, weakening the rights of feudal rulers. Following the division of Parliament into lower and higher chambers, a later king, Edward III, introduced city representatives into the lower house (today's House of Commons). Under his rule the English bourgeoisie received freedom of trade, which meant that merchant capital took over the monopoly of the wool trade and, in accordance with capitalist principles, obtained permission to start its own fabric industry.

The ideological, political, and mental weapons of the bourgeoisie of Western and Central Europe during the Renaissance were based on the cult of the entire heritage of classical antiquity. The stronger and more powerful a city and the greater its trade and production of crafts, the greater its participation in Renaissance trends. Every city and state added to the enrichment of social and political ideas and developed its culture, science, and art, preferring the cult of joy and beauty of earthly life. Respect for human knowledge, which had been inhibited by the Church, was developed along with critical thinking, thus contributing to reform in major areas of life. People believed strongly in the unlimited power of the mind and in the good side of human nature. The whole current of contemporary thought was called humanism.

The most prominent representative of Renaissance culture in England was Thomas More (1478–1535). As a legally educated man, he dealt with defending townspeople in the courts. Apart from that, he was interested in economic, social, and political issues in his country. He opposed the collection of the greater part of the income of the poor and the payment of high salaries for the rich. He saw the need for fundamental reforms to prevent wrongs and social injustice. His greatest work, published in 1516 AD, was entitled *A truly golden little book, no less beneficial than entertaining, of a republic's best state and of the new island Utopia* (Wołoszyn, 1964, p. 115). The book, which presented the ideal future of the world in an ideal state on the island of Utopia, does not take the problems of early capitalism into account. On the island, there was no private property; necessary products were distributed according to need. Utopians had time to carry out their own spiritual development and broaden their aesthetic tastes and occupational skills, which insured a happy life.

Social recognition of class differences enabled the public to understand progressive humanist thought, calling its attention to the role of education. Thomas More associated education, and thus moral rules, with happiness, because they prepared young people for life in certain conditions and for the performance of life's obligations. Moral standards, inculcated at a young age, were to serve as guideposts in adult life. More believed that along with moral education, putting young people to work and ensuring their theoretical preparation for an occupation constituted a priority. He suggested that a child should learn his chosen profession by observing, and then imitating, working adults. This was supposed to help in acquiring an occupation, moral education, and development of physical strength. In *De optimo rei publicae statu deque nova insula Utopia* (Wołoszyn, 1964, p. 115) the author linked the role of the students' interests to those of the state, a link which could be realized through universal compulsory education.

Privileged groups of young people would receive higher education and therefore would become leaders of society. The state would safeguard religious tolerance and education in the vernacular. In the light of contemporary ideology, More created a state based on the ideology of communism joined with democracy. His book was considered a Latin-language masterpiece, because it initiated the idea of the Renaissance in Europe.

According to the scholar, philosopher, and writer Francis Bacon (1561–1626), progress depended on scientific and technical achievements. In his works *The Advancement of Learning* and *Novum Organum* (Zins, 2001, p. 208), he expressed his appreciation for the knowledge of nature, which enables invention aimed at the development of production, satisfaction of human needs, and facilitation of everyday life. He advocated the separation of science from religion.

Another important figure of the Renaissance period in the area of world views was Thomas Eliot, who translated the best-recognized works of Latin and Greek literature, especially Platonic thought on education, into English. He saw a need for the profound moral and intellectual education of future high officials, who should master their mother tongue and Latin in equal measure as children, and additionally learn Greek as youths. Language teaching, which was to be done in a pleasant way, without rote memorization of grammatical rules, should serve to delight the student in the future with readings of the outstanding works of the ancients. Later, the student should take up the science of logic, rhetoric, philosophy, and ethics. In his teaching, Eliot emphasized the development of national culture and a departure from the influence of Latin. On the example of the postulates of Plato, he placed great importance on physical education for boys.

A leading figure in seventeenth-century education in England was Samuel Hartlib, the son of a wealthy merchant from Poland. He pointed to the need to ensure every person a prosperous life, and demanded thorough educational reform by the revolutionary parliament (known as the Long Parliament), for without such a move it would not be possible to reconstruct social relations in the country. Hartlib saw the need, in every village, to appoint officials to organize schools connected to workhouses for the wandering children of poor parents. As a result of his activity, the Long Parliament abolished the positions of church educational officials, and the income from their goods was allotted for educational purposes. The next step of the secularization of education was the state's acquisition of control over the work of education and visits to schools.

In consultation with members of the House of Commons, Hartlib invited John Amos Comenius, an education reformer well known in Europe, to London. Having acquainted himself with the situation in England, Comenius wrote *Via lucis vestigata et vestiganda*, which included the idea of dissemination of education through the creation of an international college. This institution would undertake the development of uniform programs and textbooks as well as the transformation of London into the center of the scientific and educational world. He called for the creation of an international language that would enable the elimination of Latin and for the establishment of a national system of education in England.

The political situation in the country, aggravating the conflict between King Charles I and the Long Parliament, along with hasty armament, led to a decline in interest on the part of the government in educational matters. Unable to carry out his educational reforms, Comenius moved to Sweden.

Hartlib then decided to use the help of the revolutionary activists John Milton and William Petty. Milton, who had been raised on ancient literature, carried forward the school program of Comenius. He saw the need to move away from general education, and took new subjects and teaching methods under consideration. He also saw the need to adapt the demands of teachers to the intellectual abilities of students, and perceived that there was a significant role for physical exercise in education.

Petty, the son of a poor trade worker, represented a practical approach to teaching which was supposed to help develop the country's productive forces. He observed that little children, in the course of their studies, avoided incomprehensible words and rules. He believed that every poor child should be educated, and that school should enable earnings appropriate to the age and skills of children, because work was the best means of education. He proposed to replace the traditional school with workhouses where children would learn to read and write. Petty advocated the admission of college graduates with pedagogical skills to the teaching profession. At the insistence of Hartlib, in 1646, he developed a project for the reform of education in England.

Another reformer, Gerard Winstanley, condemned the feudal government, with the king and clergy at its head, for proclaiming against scientific views on astronomy and for forcing ordinary people to work for the Church. He demanded wider education for girls which, in addition to reading and writing, would include sewing, manual work, and housework. He supported the organization of entertainment and social life on Sundays.

However, the sociopolitical situation in the country was not conducive to educational reforms. After the beheading of King Charles I, unemployment affected the poorest inhabitants of the country. The Long Parliament took no steps in the field of education, and the initiative in this area was taken by wealthy private entrepreneurs, who cared only about their own children, opening ten academies for the sons of the rich and the nobility. The emphasis there was on preparing young people to occupy public and military offices. Physical exercise and the study of patriotism and moral virtues were supposed to contribute to the development of fully-fledged citizens.

2.6. The historical background of the development of Protestantism in England

In the fourteenth century John Wycliffe (d. 1384), a professor at Oxford University, opposed the political and financial power of the clerical state. "He rejected the need for the whole hierarchy of the clergy, which was for him 'a synagogue

of Satan' and, of course, for the property of the church, which was the source of evil" (Zientara, 2006, p. 383). He demanded the return to the original structure of the church, and questioned the cult of the saints and the presence of Jesus Christ in the Eucharist.

Czech reformer Jan Hus (1370–1415), a professor at the University of Prague, came out against abuses in the Church. Hus called for an open dialogue with lay people. He requested the secularization of church estates and a return to the roots of the priesthood with its zeal and poverty and to the Holy Bible as the sole source of faith. As a result of the views he proclaimed, the reformers were condemned and Hus was burned at the stake. His death was not in vain. In medieval Europe, the Hussite movement revived social radicalism and sparked nationalist ideas and the desire to reform the Church.

The Latin words *reformare* and *reformatio* signify a return to original form. The Protestants of this period wanted to eliminate abuse in the church "in the doctrinal purity of Christian communities. The most important figure of Protestantism was Martin Luther (1483–1546)" (Kurdybacha (ed.), 1965, p. 264), who protested against indulgences and abuse in the Church. Luther, like Hus, recognized the Bible as the most important authority in matters of faith. He wanted to reform the Church with regard to the sacraments and Christian rites. He inspired translators to work on vernacular translations of the Bible. Although Luther did not initially plan to create a separate community, his presentation of 95 theses on the door of the cathedral in Wittenberg, which subsequently were sent to the church authorities for discussion, led to the Reformation. Pope Leo X condemned 41 questions from Luther's writings and demanded their withdrawal. Meanwhile, Luther burned the book of canon law and the bull by which he was officially excommunicated. After removing his monk's habit, he married a former nun, Katherine von Bora (Kurdybacha (ed.), 1965, p. 264).

"German, Swiss and Dutch (Holland and Frisia)" cities contributed to the development of Protestantism. The autonomous city-church is characteristic of Swiss reform." Calvinism, the second largest faction of Protestantism, derived from the noble Lutheranism of the cities. Its founder was John Calvin (1509–1564), who initiated in Geneva "a republican system and a new church. His organization became the foundation of the Church of Scotland and of English and American Presbyterianism. Calvinism spread throughout Europe. In 1562 religious war broke out in France. On the night of St. Bartholomew approximately three thousand Huguenots (French Calvinists) were murdered in Paris" (Kurdybacha (ed.), 1965, p. 265).

The anti-papal movement did not omit England, where in 1531 King Henry VIII was declared the sole protector of the Church of England. Henry, in the Act of Supremacy of 1534 (a document establishing the national church), declared himself head of the Catholic Church and rejected the authority of the Pope. He also abolished celibacy for the clergy. Henry contributed to the dissolution of religious orders, schools, and institutions sponsored by the Church. He secularized ecclesiastical properties; between 1536 and 1540 the king sold

monasteries and convents, along with their land, to officials and merchants. This supported the development of Protestantism and had a strongly anti-clerical character. Educational institutions previously run by the Church were taken over by secular benefactors.

As a result of the closing of religious schools by Henry VIII, there was an increase in the number of juvenile offenders and vagabonds, who previously had received their education in such schools. To stop this, the king introduced the Poor Law (For Punishment of Sturdy Vagabonds and Beggars 1536 (27 Hen VIII c 25), <http://www.intriguing-history.com/punishment-of-vagabonds-beggars-henry-viii/>, accessed: September 16, 2016) which provided for the care of children aged 5–13. In each parish, assistance, in the form of schooling and work, was organized for young people, who were also supposed to be accepted into crafts.

In contrast, in 1552, King Edward VI founded Christ's Hospital for Children to ensure elementary education for children above the age of four. The school also helped children to obtain occupational training, and even to prepare them for university studies.

In 1559, during the reign of Elizabeth I, the Act of Supremacy, according to which the queen was acknowledged as the head of the church in England, was proclaimed. The Anglican Church again became an administrative tool of the state. The role of the Anglican clergy was increased and strengthened, which retarded the development of secular education in Great Britain. Church attendance became obligatory, along with giving alms to the poor. Over time, alms were converted into a tax for propagating Christian doctrine and providing educational activities for the poorest people. Thereafter, local churches were provided with state funds for opening educational institutions in accordance with the doctrine of Anglicanism.

The beginning of the sixteenth century was marked by long-lasting social conflicts between the feudal landowning aristocracy headed by the king and the allied rulers of the Anglican Church against the bourgeoisie, supported by the middle nobility, peasants, agricultural laborers, and urban poor. Due to the religious character of this period it is known to history as the "Puritan revolution" (Kurdybacha (ed.), 1965, p. 518). The Puritans (bourgeoisie), acknowledging Christ as the only head of the Church, opposed the sovereignty of the monarchy. They introduced biblical vocabulary into political life, justifying in this way the importance of bourgeois virtues. They saw the need to deprive the Church of England of its sovereignty over the schools; moreover, they wanted to reconstruct, through the medium of education, all aspects of life in the first capitalist state of the time, which was England. They critically evaluated the state of education, particularly the ossified scholastic methods of work and Latin teaching, which consequently served the education of boys as theologians and polemicists, rather than practical men of action in different areas of life. The need for education, according to the Puritans, stemmed from the need for independent reading of the Bible.

2.6.1. The doctrine of the Church of England

In terms of doctrine, the Church of England is similar to Calvinism and predestination as to “being destined in advance by God to salvation or damnation, without any chance of our impact on this decision” (Kurdybacha (ed.), 1965, p. 267). The head of the Church is the head of state. “In 1563 the Church of England accepted Anglican confession. It is commonly believed that this is a bridge between Catholicism and Protestantism” (Kurdybacha (ed.), 1965, p. 267).

Protestant religiosity is based on the Bible. “*Sola scriptura* is one of the basic traits of Protestantism [...]. The Christian faith, according to the basic premises of the reformers, is not at the disposal of man, but is an external reality, a reality revealed by the text of Holy Scripture. In other words, the text, in the case of Christianity a specific text, Holy Scripture, is the key to faith” (Milerski, 1996, p. 11).

Protestant religious doctrine presents the following truths regarding faith:

Sola fides: justification of man because of his faith, which is not of an exclusively formal character, but is an act of faith and trust. *Sola gratia*: justification of man by God is a gift of God's grace. *Sola scriptura*: to receive *sola fides* (the gift of faith) and *sola gratia* (the gift of grace), one must rely not on the authority and tradition of the Catholic Church but on Holy Scripture as the basis of the truths of faith. Protestantism proclaims the exclusiveness of Christ in the work of man's redemption and in the act of mediation between man and God. It is a Christ-centered doctrine (Derek, Kaute, Kaute-Porębska, Małek, Puszkow, Surzyn, Świercz, 2005, p. 266).

Faith justifies the evil deeds of man, because there are no sacraments, indulgences, pilgrimages, or paid masses in Protestantism.

2.7. British political thought and education in the Age of Enlightenment

In the wake of the collapse of the English bourgeois revolution and the proclamation of Cromwell in 1653 as Lord Protector, hope for education reform was lost. In the same year, Cromwell called a commission for the reform of education; its main goal was to prepare teachers to work and to fulfill their professional duties. The next Lord Protector after the death of Cromwell was Richard Cromwell, for whom the education of youth appeared to be a duty of the state, comparable to compulsory school today. He demanded punishment for parents who did not send children aged 9–15 years to school; moreover, he proposed the expansion of state supervision over youth in craft workshops and university studies.

Following the dissolution of the Long Parliament in April 1660, the throne was occupied by Charles II (Stuart), who restored to the Anglican Church its estates, as a result of which the state treasury was deprived of funds for education. This led to complete subordination of education to the Church; all schools were visited by priests. This dashed all hopes of organizing a national secular system of education in England. Teachers were forced to obtain permission to teach from

a bishop and then to swear an oath of allegiance to the Anglican Church. Public functions could be performed only by those faithful to Anglican doctrine. Pedagogical thought regressed; the study of the philosophy of Bacon was abandoned, and in its place appeared the philosophy of Locke.

A special role in the development of Enlightenment thought was played by the philosophy of John Locke (1632–1704). Coming from a family of lawyers, he came into contact with enlightened individuals while still young and studying at Oxford University. Locke was interested in diplomacy, politics, and education. Bourgeois liberal thought was incorporated into *Letters Concerning Toleration* (1689–1692) (<http://www.earlymoderntexts.com/assets/pdfs/locke1689b.pdf>, accessed: September 16, 2016). Locke is widely known as the father of liberalism. He claimed that faith is the private affair of citizens, not a matter for the state. His pedagogical considerations were published in 1693 in the book *Some Thoughts Concerning Education* (<http://sourcebooks.fordham.edu/mod/1692locke-education.asp>, accessed: September 16, 2016). Locke applied education to three aspects: body, mind and character. In the case of “education of the body” he was guided by the principle of tempering and hardening the body through physical education at the expense of the primacy of the spirit.

Moral education was also important, including concern for honor, the acquisition of social manners, responsibility, sensitivity regarding a good reputation, a sense of shame, and appropriate dosages of rewards and punishments. These factors were helpful in leading an honest life from an early age and in raising gentlemen to constitute the future ruling class. Education of the mind should be guided by the principle of practical utility and take into account the learning of history, geography, political systems, the French language, and knowledge of economics and the economy. Regarding the issue of “education of the mind,” Locke emphasized modern languages and practical lessons. He insisted on limiting the teaching of classical languages, and eliminated rhetoric and logic. As the goal of education, he advocated the proper use of freedom and formation of correct judgment and character. Locke was accused of excessive attachment to social reputation, which indicated a “hidden moral utilitarianism” (Orczyk, 2008, p. 118). He was also criticized for questioning the educational value of humanities and literature in favor of practical subjects which could be directly used in work and life.

CHAPTER 3

Pedagogical thought and educational ideologies in the United Kingdom from 1707 to World War II

The United Kingdom of Great Britain was established on May 1, 1707. Henceforth the country would have a constitutional monarch and a single parliament at Westminster. In 1922, Northern Ireland merged with Great Britain, which, five years later, changed its name to the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland. Since then it has been a unitary state, consisting of four historical-geographical regions: England, Wales, Scotland, and Northern Ireland.

In the analysis of contemporary educational policy of the United Kingdom, it is necessary to include the philosophical concepts existing in Europe and in the world during the period in question. In view of the subject of the research, the analysis will refer mainly to England and will present the educational ideologies present in this country and their role in universal and compulsory education.

3.1. The pedagogical views of Jean-Jacques Rousseau

In the Age of Enlightenment the ideology of naturalism, based on nature, was strongly accented; a human being, as a part of nature, belonged to this system, and explained existence and its features in its context. Rousseau's views on the subject of model education for children were included in a didactic novel entitled *Emile*, which became "a guidebook for many child-centered Progressives" (Guttek, 2009, p. 338). Emile's teacher is in complete harmony with nature. He uses his existing knowledge about human development and the innate ability of children to learn through stimulation of their curiosity and encouragement to work. The ability to make choices, with their positive and negative consequences, plays an educational role as well.

Rousseau proposed accustoming a child to freedom and independence from its earliest years. The teacher-student relationship is free and friendly. Knowledge of nature's verities teaches Emile how to cope with problems himself, asking others

for help only when necessary. In this way he develops in himself only character traits that enable him to survive in adverse physical conditions. Moreover, he learns from his mistakes, and gains the ability to be independent. Initially, he is steered discreetly by his tutor. Then he develops “a social awareness of the needs of other people [...] and a sense of social justice” (Gutek, 2009, p. 340). It is important that he come into contact with the element of social hierarchies relatively late, when he is psychically strong enough to resist the stereotypes and prejudices of society.

The issues raised in this book did not bring the author positive recognition. Rousseau met with harsh criticism and was even exiled. His opponents questioned the concept of naturalism; according to them, childhood was an important period in life and was ruled by its own plan, and the surrounding environment and civilization had little effect on it.

Nevertheless, we cannot underestimate Rousseau's influence on the reconstruction of society expressed in democratic radicalism, social equality, and the struggle for human rights. Moreover, French revolutionaries used Rousseau's ideology to create their own revolutionary ideas of education.

The foundations for future progressivism should be sought in the naturalism of Rousseau and a method of formulating concepts based on sensory experiences developed by John Henry Pestalozzi. Learning self-reliance is possible through the slow acquisition of freedom and self-education. A child who was not constrained by tight swaddling in infancy turns out to be busy and interested in the surrounding world. It is important not to satisfy his whims, but to inculcate in him the least possible dependence on others, along with the conscious limitations imposed by the outside world. As a result, the penalty for breaking windows is having to sleep with a broken window. The result of getting his shoes wet will be catching cold. Consequently, the child comes to conclusions on his own as to what is worth and what is not worth doing.

3.2. British political thought and education in the Age of Enlightenment

A special role in the development of Enlightenment was played by the philosophical thought of John Locke. His pedagogical considerations were incorporated into the book *Thoughts on Education*, published in 1693. His pedagogical thought was characterized by an excessively empirical approach to reality. Locke's deliberate moral direction (character and morality at the summit of education) was questioned by his opponents due to its lack of reference to the norms and principles of moral life. This resulted in “excessive attachment to social reputation, which indicates a hidden moral utilitarianism” (Orczyk, 2008, p. 118).

Locke was also criticized for negating the educational value of the humanities and literature in favor of practical subjects, which could be used directly in work and in life. The aim of education, according to Locke, was the proper use of

freedom. Moreover, Locke emphasized shaping the capacity for correct judgment of a given situation and the formation of character.

Education was linked with physical education, which was treated as hardening and tempering of the body at the expense of the primacy of the spirit. Moral education was important too, along with a sense of honor and the acquisition of social manners. "Mental education was based on history, geography, political systems, the French language, and acquisition of knowledge of economics and the economy" (Orczyk, 2008, p. 117).

3.3. The positivistic trend in British education

The period from the mid-nineteenth to the first decade of the twentieth century was marked by the dominance of positivism. This was observed in the development of the natural sciences and scientific discoveries. The development of mankind was manifested in the philosophical, literary, scientific, and pedagogical dimensions, accompanied by the weakening of ethical and religious ideas. In the second half of the nineteenth century, the English version of positivism was developed by John Stuart Mill, under the influence of Auguste Comte.

At the end of the eighteenth century, elementary education, including daily schools and Sunday or parish schools benefiting from the organization of the Anglican Church, was at a very low level. In the parish schools, classes were held in taverns and sacristies by people who were incapable of holding other jobs, i.e., "the elderly, war invalids, worn-out sailors, and people with questionable qualifications" (Kurdybacha (ed.), 1965, p. 13). Sunday schools, attended by children who worked during the week, were characterized by even lower levels of education than the parish schools. They included "300,000 to 900,000 children, with the goal of the moral development of their characters" (Zins, 2001, p. 262).

Sunday schools instilled in their pupils a conviction of the immutability of their social destiny and developed in them a spirit of humility, even when they were faced with the worst living conditions. These schools did not solve the problems of education among the poorest. The idea of nationalization of education was proclaimed by the economist "Adam Smith, the creator of the reactionary theory of economics, Thomas Malthus, and the publicist Thomas Paine" (Kurdybacha (ed.), 1965, p. 15). The resistance of the Anglican clergy and conservative liberals contributed to the failure of these demands. As a result, there was no nationalization of education.

However, at the end of the eighteenth century, English education came under the influence of the ideology of the French Revolution. As a result, English workers became convinced of the value of knowledge and science. They began a struggle to improve living conditions and to institute social change for the better. Workers' trade unions formed discussion clubs, educational associations, and Sunday schools to educate both adults and children. They molded class consciousness and supplied economic and political knowledge.

At the beginning of the nineteenth century there were three types of schools in England: public schools maintaining medieval traditions of teaching, “academies” with more modern programs, and grammar schools, which educated the children of the middle class. Children working in industrial districts attended factory schools.

3.4. The schools of mutual instruction of Lancaster and Bell

Faced with a real disproportion between the constantly increasing number of children, shrinking public funding for education, and an insufficient number of teachers, Joseph Lancaster and Andrew Bell founded a school operating on a monitorial system. Children were gathered in one room, then divided according to their age and ability. The teacher dealt with the oldest and most skillful students, who then taught the youngest. The learning process took place without books.

In 1797 Lancaster opened an elementary school in Southwark, a poor suburb of London. He benefited from the help of older and talented students, so-called monitors, who repeated the educational material to the weaker and younger students. The condition for passage to the next class was progress in learning, which was confirmed by the monitor based on examination of students, regardless of the time of year. Lancaster was an innovator in the field of teaching and education. He developed his own system of rewards and penalties, which did not include corporal punishment. He created didactic-educational scenarios in the areas of reading, writing, arithmetic, and moral education for monitors who taught lessons.

Lancaster's classes ranged from ten to twenty students, who were assigned numbers. The weakest student was assigned the lowest number, while the best student received the highest number. Students' places in the classroom were decided by their skills, and changing places depended on the correctness of the answers they gave. As a result, this method enabled a school for hundreds of students to be run independently. The method was disseminated as the “method of mutual instruction,” or the “Bell-Lancaster system.” Joseph Lancaster described the school in his book *Improvements in Education as it Respects the Industrious Classes of the Community*.

Clerical-conservative opposition in the House of Lords contributed to the rejection of a proposal to introduce the Lancaster system in parish schools maintained by the state. However, the growing number of supporters of the system in 1808 led to the founding of the Royal Lancasterian Institution for the Education of the Poor.

The second most important supporter of progress after Lancaster, religious activist Andrew Bell, was not as radical in his views about education. He limited the curriculum to a minimum. He was not a supporter of teaching the poor, but inclined to the views of the Anglican Church. Bell promoted a “method of sensory stimulation in teaching and active learning through educational situations” (Pac Meijer, 2012, p. 3).

The immediate reaction to the rapidly growing number of monitor schools was the growing discontent of the Anglican clergy, which contributed to the cre-

ation of the National Society for Promoting the Education of the Poor in the Principles of the Established Church. The head of the school was Bell. For financial reasons, tables or charts, hung on a wall, containing particular batches of material, were used rather than books.

Lancaster's system was introduced to all English primary schools in 1811. The system found supporters in most European countries and the United States. Children of workers were given the opportunity for cheap and easy access to education. These schools were an example of the typical romantic ideas of freedom, equality, and brotherhood. Furthermore, in 1833, the state budget included, for the first time, money for educational subsidies for poor children.

3.5. The Chartist movement and educational changes associated with the creation of the London Working Men's Association

The emergence of the Chartist movement, dated to 1836, is associated with the creation of the London Working Men's Association. At that time, William Lovett, a carpenter, developed a six-point program for wealthier workers and craftsmen, encompassing equal and universal suffrage for men, annual elections, abolition of the property qualification for candidates for MPs, and secret ballots. The petition was called The People's Charter (<http://www.bl.uk/learning/histcitizen/21cc/struggle/chartists1/historicalsources/source4/peoplescharter.html>, accessed: September 15, 2016); the movement was called Chartism and its participants Chartists.

Most of the Chartists, under the leadership of Lovett, preferred a legal struggle involving the writing of petitions and organization of propaganda activities. The Chartist movement dreamed of creating popular education based on the principle of the universal right to knowledge. In all the major workers' centers, Lovett organized special schools for young people based on a new curriculum. In addition to general education, he foresaw the establishment of vocational schools for adults, too. Thanks to their persistent self-teaching, working adults obtained excellent results at these schools.

Lovett also proposed the organization of educational facilities in the form of gardens, sports fields, bathing facilities, laboratories, workshops, museum collections, discussion clubs, and mobile libraries. He bought an old chapel in Holborn near London, which was transformed into a National Hall in which Lovett placed a center for workers' education and a space for political meetings. An elementary school which implemented a rich curriculum was founded there in 1843. There was also a Sunday school for adults and a seminary for teachers with a comprehensive curriculum created by the founder.

Thanks to Lovett's efforts, reading halls, discussion clubs, reading rooms, libraries, associations, self-education associations, and vocational schools were created in the largest workers' centers. The purpose of these institutions was to spread the socialist ideas present in the Chartist movement.

3.6. Pedagogical and educational thought of the European workers' movement in England

The rapid development of capitalism meant that not only adults but small children, too, were employed in factories. In the face of such a situation, the need for universal elementary education of the peasant masses and the urban proletariat was recognized in Europe and the United States.

In the *Communist Manifesto* (Kurdybacha (ed.), 1965, p. 437), universal education was demanded for all children. Having conducted an analysis of the work of children and women in factories in the nineteenth century, Marx stated that capitalism, driven by the desire to obtain the greatest profit, hired school-children and even preschoolers to do hard work.

In the second half of the nineteenth century and the first half of the twentieth, the assumptions of Marx and Engels became the basis for the formulation of demands for the nationalization of education, as well as for universality and secularism in education. Marx and Engels advocated the comprehensive and general education of mankind. At the Congress of the Chartists, in 1851, the same demands appeared for English workers in the field of education.

In 1848, in Edinburgh, George Combe founded a school for workers which was to prepare young people for vocational work. Political economy, natural sciences, and the laws of nature were taught there in order to help young people achieve better lives. In the same year, in Glasgow, Combe founded the Association of Sunday Schools, with a secular curriculum.

On the pattern of these schools, "in the poorer districts of the city four additional facilities and two daily elementary schools were created for the children of workers" (Kurdybacha (ed.), 1965, p. 453). Combe's initiative influenced the creation of the Institute of Mechanics in Salford, schools for the children of workers in Newcastle, King's Somborne, and Belfast, and the organization by one of the workers of schools for workers in Leith.

In the early twentieth century, the children and youth of the aristocracy and nobility had access to universities such as Oxford and Cambridge. They were dominated by the old-fashioned, traditional system of education of the young generation of gentlemen and liberal bourgeoisie, devoted to the interests of free people. The aim was to teach mores, knowledge, and patterns of thinking, as well as orientation to the political and economic situation of England.

The reform of the curriculum within the walls of public schools was connected to the introduction to teaching, based on Latin, Greek, and mathematics, subjects such as history, geography and natural science. The changes began in a school in Rugby (headmaster: Thomas Arnold) and were associated with making it possible to teach the children of professional people and industrialists. The headmaster entrusted older students with authority over their younger colleagues. Arnold's work at the school in Rugby was a model for the reform of all education in England.

3.7. The English utopian socialism of Robert Owen

The inspiration for the formation of Owen's socialist views was his assumption of the directorship of a textile conglomerate in New Lanark in Scotland and his observations of the material and moral situation of the workers. Owen judged their morals negatively: alcohol abuse, dishonesty, and poor hygiene and health—and, as a result, low productivity. To improve living conditions, without reducing his own income, he arranged the distribution of cheap products for workers. This was followed by shortening of the work day and the creation of health insurance; during a crisis, he paid the workers their normal wages. He took care of the children of workers, organizing care for them in a nursery, kindergarten, and elementary school, and did not accept children for work until they were twelve years old. Moreover, he introduced sewing and knitting classes for girls, and planned lessons in gymnastics and military exercises for boys. Owen appreciated the role of education, seeing it as a way to change human views and preferences and to shape young characters. He believed that the nature of children was plastic and susceptible to change, so “through appropriate upbringing, it is possible to make the children of one class similar to those of another class” (Kurdybacha (ed.), 1965, p. 25). Owen's activities aimed at improving the living conditions of workers had no effect on the decline of income from his factory.

Owen represented the views of utopian socialism. He argued that private property generates hatred, causes a loss of morality, and contributes to crime. The basis of the new system should be a commune of working people, and every citizen should have the right to cultivate a small piece of land. Moreover, factories, buildings, and public places should be shared.

3.8. Herbert Spencer and his pedagogical views

The British sociologist and philosopher Herbert Spencer represented the ideology of the nineteenth-century British bourgeoisie. Based on the views of Darwin, Comenius, Rousseau, and Pestalozzi, he developed an organic theory of society, recognizing the equality of the right to social development along with the laws that govern the world of plants and animals. He contributed to the development of the Realschule type of secondary school, in which, in response to developing trade, subjects like natural sciences, mathematics, and physics were dominant. He criticized the didactic system of classic schools, saying:

[...] spiritual life is just an ornament of life, whereas literary studies, moral virtues, the culture of emotions, rhetoric, and humanities, which were for centuries the basis of school programs, must be dismissed as a relic of the past culture (Możdżeń, 2000, p. 17).

Spencer opposed the inclusion of classical languages in the curriculum. He perceived a role for scientific knowledge and method in the educational process,

and proposed a one-sided curriculum, without taking account of the esthetic needs of mankind. He saw making money for living as the most important thing, and in this context he explored every field of knowledge. Spencer was a believer in the liberal theory of education. He thought that the school "should serve the society of the industrial era" (Możdżeń, 2000, p. 17). Students should know the basics of logic, arithmetic, geometry, mechanics, physics, chemistry, astronomy, biology, the social sciences, physiology, pedagogy, and psychology. Knowledge of these areas enabled attainment of success and was characterized by extreme bourgeois utilitarianism and pragmatism, helpful in the struggle for good living conditions.

Spencer appreciated physical strength, agility, and health in the struggle for existence, believing that they were indispensable for the individual and the nation. He claimed that there was no significant difference between humans and animals, and was against corporal punishment. Spencer's extreme position in regard to the teaching of science, mathematics and physics bore fruit in the direction of middle-school reform in 1864 for the England of the future. A special government commission imposed teaching of natural science as a subject in public schools.

3.9. The Elementary Education Act 1870

In the education arena at the end of the nineteenth and beginning of the twentieth centuries, secular and religious, public and social currents were intertwined. The necessity for Great Britain to occupy the highest level in the competitive world was noted as a result of manufacturing and improvements in the USA and Germany.

According to Richard T. Ely, the period from the late nineteenth century to the 1920s was marked by "Evolutionary Change and the Birth of Modern Labor Economics." This was the first phase of social change involving the participation of the labor force with "annual hours of work and full-time work" (http://scholar.harvard.edu/files/goldin/files/the_quiet_revolution_that_transformed_womens_employment_education_and_family.pdf, p. 2, accessed: September 27, 2016).

The Education Reform Act of 1870 was prepared in order to "legislate for subsidized elementary education for all children up to the age of 13" (Bartlett, Burton, 2012, p. 62). The Act had been delayed since the 1830s due to the fact that the upper and middle classes were aware of the consequences of educating the children of menial workers. The Church of England was interested in the Act. In Christianity, the education of the masses was education at a low level, with a "clear message about the place of the lower classes in society" (Bartlett, Burton, 2012, p. 62).

Under this Act, the country was divided into urban and rural districts, managed by school boards. An exception was London, regarded as a separate district. Education was characterized by the decentralization of school districts. The management of each school was obliged to furnish its facilities with equip-

ment, and could apply for grants from the Department of Education. This act did not introduce free education; parents paid tuition for their children on a weekly basis. Less wealthy parents could have part of the fee waived. The Act introduced a duality in elementary education: there were still private primary schools, but along with them, state schools were created.

To meet economic and administrative needs, taking into account the inadequacy of school facilities, schools could get money from the government in the form of grants, which enabled schools to finance up to 50% of the cost of running an educational institution. This money could be used for the expansion of the school's existing base or for teaching aids. By benefiting from the government grant system, the Church of England and the Roman Catholic Church doubled the number of their schools and students.

The education of boys from rich families took place in private schools called preparatory schools. After graduation, young people continued their studies at faculties of medicine or law. Middle-class children prepared to take up positions in the government or military service. Lower-class students were taught to work in service occupations. The lowest social groups and most of the girls completed their education at the elementary school level.

Starting in 1872, grants were made for the education of children from the age of three, which obliged educational institutions to undertake proper preparation of teaching facilities. The following year, the first free state kindergarten, inspired by William Mather, was founded in Salford under the name of The Queen Street Institute, caring for 500 children ranging in age from two to seven years. Rest rooms, playground, food, and hygiene were provided (Hadow, 1933, p. 28).

Another Free Education Act in 1891 concerned the introduction of free education and set fees for tuition, which the state was to cover "up to ten shillings per week [...]. The school leaving age was increased to 11 in 1893 and 12 in 1899" (Bartlett, Burton, 2012, p. 62). As a result, by the end of the century almost all children were attending schools. An enormous change in social order was observed in the context of school development.

By the close of the nineteenth century, Great Britain had developed a universal system of early childhood education, managed by the state. Within thirty years the number of children from 3 to 5 years of age in kindergartens increased from 24 to 43% (in 1901). The schools adopted the achievements and principles of contemporary psychology and pedagogy of John Henry Pestalozzi, Friedrich Frobel, Rudolf Steiner, and Maria Montessori.

3.10. Directions and stages of development of public education in the United Kingdom: primary and secondary schools

In 1899 a Board of Education was appointed, becoming the first state educational authority for England and Wales. Its influence affected secondary schools, teacher training, and religious and elementary schools. The 1902 Act "replaced

the school boards of the 1870 Act with local education authorities (LEAs). As a result, the government Board of Education would cooperate with [...] 318 LEAs instead of 2,500 school boards" (Bartlett, Burton, 2012, p. 64). The LEAs had authority over the curricula of church schools and provided funds for school maintenance. In the case of schools which wanted to provide denominational teaching, the school buildings had to be paid for by the church.

In 1904 the Board of Education prepared "the first of its annual Regulations for Secondary Schools" (<http://www.educationengland.org.uk/history/chapter04.html>, accessed: September 27, 2016) and defined which subjects (language and literature, geography, history, foreign language, mathematics, science, drawing, manual work, physical training, and, for girls, housewifery) would lead to a four-year certificate.

The 1902 Act ordered the LEA to create public schools called grammar and technical schools. LEA maintained class stratification in education, which prevented the most numerous class, i.e., workers, from obtaining a university education. Due to the lack of permeability of the education system, children of workers normally finished six-year elementary school. School meals were introduced.

Schools continued to stress the three Rs (or the five Rs if we include respect and religion). Desks were in rows and there was iron discipline enforced by corporal punishment (the cane) [...] The education was rudimentary because children would leave to start work at the age of 13, later 14 (Dufour, Curtis, 2011, p. 7).

Following the 1902 Act, class sizes were large, usually about 40 or even more students. The tendency in teaching described above continued until the end of the Second World War.

Chapter 25 of the Secondary Education Act (1907) stated that

[e]very pupil whose parents or guardians reside within the province but outside the limits of any town or village school district shall be admitted to a high school without being required to pay tuition or other fees. In the case of pupils whose parents or guardians are residents of any town or village school district the board may charge such fees as they deem expedient, provided that such fees shall not exceed £1 per month per family payable in advance (<http://www.qp.gov.sk.ca/documents/english/statutes/historical/1907-CH-25.pdf>, accessed: September 27, 2016).

As a result and in accordance with the Secondary Education Act of 1907, schools subsidized by the state guaranteed an appropriate number of places for graduates of elementary schools. In addition to state education, there were also private institutions which functioned as elite public schools, usually boarding schools teaching students 12 and 13 years of age. Students had to pass an entrance examination. Tuition in these schools was high; thus only wealthy youth attended them. Finishing public schools guaranteed careers in politics, the military, and the clergy. Moreover, it also enabled graduates to work in the highest state positions.

To sum up, to meet the need for education at higher levels, Local Education Authorities offered free education to the poorest. In return, the LEA paid out five

pounds for every student accepted free of charge or gave the school educational grants. Since 1917, the Roman Catholic Church introduced a canon law which forced parents, under the threat of excommunication, to send their children exclusively to Catholic schools.

3.11. The structure of higher education

In terms of chronology, higher education in the UK can be divided into several groups of universities. The first group comprises the oldest universities, Oxford and Cambridge. One of every five students studied at one of these universities. In each university, the authorities were faculty lecturers there.

The modernization of higher education began with the opening of the University of London in 1828. Based on secular principles, it was organized on the example of the best European models. No confession of faith was required from students; moreover, theology was excluded from the curriculum. Influenced by positivist trends, changes occurred at this time within the two oldest universities, in which teachers began to be hired on the basis of intellectual and professional qualifications.

In 1836, the University of London became a federation of many colleges. By the end of the nineteenth century it was issuing degrees and conducting exams, and at the beginning of the twentieth century it began to fulfill scientific and teaching functions.

A federation of three schools became the University of Wales, founded in 1893. As a result of a merger of three institutions of higher education in 1907, the Imperial College was founded. It included the College of Science, City and Guilds College, and the Royal School of Mines.

At the beginning of the twentieth century, new universities were created in the most industrialized regions: Liverpool, Leeds, Sheffield, Birmingham, Bristol, and Reading. Also founded at this time was the prestigious private university, the London School of Economics and Political Science (LSE).

The number of students in the interwar period was 13,000. Universities had their own authorities and curricula, and the criteria for obtaining degrees were regulated by the university senate.

3.12. Christian education in the nineteenth century

The most eminent representative of Christian pedagogy was the Italian priest John Bosco (1815–1888). Before becoming a priest, he worked as a tailor, a tutor, a confectioner, a carpenter, and a shoemaker. His pedagogical ideas were significantly influenced by a youthful dream in which he was instructed that “the best method of education is kindness and gentleness” (Możdżeń, 2000, p. 72).

For homeless youth, he organized the Oratorio, where he taught religion, the national language, drawing, and geography. He was a founder of elementary, boarding, and vocational schools as well as religious family schools, known as Salesian schools. The state authorities appreciated the effectiveness of educational 'oratorios' and consequently financially supported the establishment of new oratorio points.

In his school system, John Bosco worked with young people, accompanying them in public places and also visiting prisons and hospitals. His educational system was based on the idea of prevention. He cared about the holistic development of the pupil, taking into account his intellect, personality, and social education. His views were presented in an interview with the Minister of State, Rattazzi:

We are dealing with two systems. One is called the "repressive system," and the other the "preventive system." The first intends to raise a man through the use of force, exerting pressure on him and punishing him if he breaks the law or commits a crime. The second tries to raise him through gentleness, helping him through friendly encouragement in the observance of the law, thus giving him the most appropriate and effective means (Możdżeń, 2000, p. 72).

His educational work was based on three basic principles: reason, religion, and love. The principle of rationality involved clear communication between teacher and pupil in terms of respect for the truth, work on impulsiveness, and the clear expression of ideas. Religiosity, according to Father Bosco, meant daily duties, in which "[...] the joy of science, purity of morals, obedience, practicing love for God and neighbor" (Możdżeń, 2000, p. 74) appear. Life in accordance with these principles can form a man who is full of faith and who will reach the final goal, which is salvation. The third principle (love) is based on the accompanying the pupil, trusting him, and creating a familial atmosphere of optimism, reason, and discipline as well as a shared search for the truth.

Father Bosco placed high demands on educators, who were supposed to be aware of their own professional skills, and who, in their dialogue with young people, were to be guided by empathy. Father Bosco's activities were also known in England. In 1887, the priest sent three Salesians to London to open the first Salesian house in Battersea, a poor district of the city. Unfortunately, no oratorio was opened there.

By the end of the nineteenth century, 164 Salesian establishments were in operation in Europe, caring for 100,000 students, preparing them for work in the trades and enabling them to obtain secondary education. The Salesian educational method, due to its high level of efficiency, is still used around the world in the form of colleges, Sunday schools, and day and evening schools.

Another representative of Christian pedagogy of this period was the English Cardinal John Henry Newman (1801–1890). He began his spiritual work as an Anglican pastor. At the age of 44 he converted to Catholicism, and a year later was ordained in Rome, where he wrote the essay *On the Development of Christian Doctrine* (<http://www.newmanreader.org/works/development/chapter1.html>, accessed: September 27, 2016). He wanted to renew the Christian spirit,

and thus was opposed to liberalism. In his pedagogy he referred to the secular ideal of the gentleman, because he saw in it the negative side of the education of youth in the spirit of atheism. Moreover, he criticized the moral code of the gentleman because of its self-centeredness and its comprehension of civilization and culture. He complained about the equation of ethics with esthetics and virtue with beauty, as well as the limitation of morality to courtesy and refinement. He was opposed to English superficiality, self-importance and brilliance. He favored a much deeper Catholic educational ideal leading to the inner transformation of a human being, which relied on the development of the senses of justice, love, truth, honesty, sincerity, kindness, and courtesy.

Newman's views on university education were contained in his 1852 work *The Idea of the University* (<http://www.newmanreader.org/works/idea/>, accessed: September 27, 2016). He believed that universities not only educate intellectually, but are also responsible for spiritual development, raising the cultural level of the nation and preparing the ground for the performance of the highest functions in society through contacts with eminent scholars.

In 1854 Newman became rector of the Catholic University in Dublin and was able to put his ideas of Christian doctrine into practice. He believed that the rapid development of the natural sciences was a threat to theology, and feared the collapse of moral signposts maintained by the Church, which could lead to the negligence of spiritual life.

Like Father Bosco, Newman appreciated the importance of empathy, on which he based the art of education. Newman is regarded as one of the leading representatives of cultural pedagogy and religious personalism, in which the knowledge of human beings in terms of their being and activity takes first place. He explained life as a choice between the realities of the outside world and those of its interior.

3.13. Fisher Education Act

The Fisher Education Act of 1918 “made secondary education compulsory up to the age of 14 and placed responsibility for secondary schools with the state” (Bartlett, Burton, 2012, p. 65). The Act banned employers from employing children less than 12 years of age, while older children, aged 14–16, had a duty to attend school. Local authorities could set up a preschool accepting children from the age of three. The Act did not influence education changes in secondary schools. Rather,

[i]t abolished all fees in state elementary schools and widened the provision of medical inspection, nursery schools, and special needs education. The greater part of the financial burden of education – some 60 per cent – was transferred from the local authorities to central government. This was partly to foster a greater sense of professionalism among teachers by allowing them improved salaries and pensions (<http://www.parliament.uk/about/living-heritage/transforming-society/livinglearning/school/overview/1914-39/>, accessed: September 27, 2016).

Due to the cuts of the 1930s enforced by the economic depression, the changes could be implemented only partially. Overly slow transformation in the UK mobilized the ruling Labour Party to make changes in education at the secondary level.

The slogan "secondary education for all" became the motto of the committee appointed by the government under the leadership of William Henry Hadow. His report in 1926 recommended the organization of a new order for schools, introducing a two-year school for children aged 5–7 (infant school), a four-year primary school for children aged 7–11, and secondary schools. Existing grammar schools with humanities and mathematics profiles were replaced by modern schools.

The Consultative Committee on the Primary School, headed by its president, Hadow, acknowledged preschools as an integral part of the state school system and appreciated their educational role. It also contributed to improving access to education for all, regardless of wealth. The existing elementary schools were to be replaced by primary schools and to include children aged 5–11. The next, or secondary, school was to take children aged 12–15. In primary schools, the report enabled the creation of classes based on the age of the students.

Hadow's report enabled the organization of two- and three-year junior technical and trade schools. Graduates of elementary schools who wanted to work in industry began studies at the age of 13–14. Career paths could be enabled by means of evening courses. As of 1905 it was possible to attend technical classes in elementary schools. In 1913, junior technical schools were established to prepare students for industrial, artisanal, tailoring, shoemaking, and printing jobs.

Depending on the intellectual capabilities of students finishing elementary schools, they could continue their education in secondary schools; they could also attend higher-grade schools characterized by complex financing and administration, or central schools. The latter were characterized by a good curriculum and qualified staff, and thus could compete with grammar schools. In the rankings of middle schools they occupied high positions, thanks to exams and government grants which enabled free education for 25–40% of the students.

Grammar schools adapted their curriculum to the requirements of the market economy; they replaced classical languages with modern languages, and introduced social and natural sciences, which guaranteed their graduates a future at universities.

In 1931 the government introduced the classification of students into three groups according to the results of intelligence tests and knowledge-checking examinations: A – bright children, B – average, C – retarded (Hadow, 1933, pp. 77–78; <http://www.educationengland.org.uk/articles/27grouping.html#not>, accessed: September 15, 2016). Only students with A results could continue their education in grammar schools. Tests and examinations determined a child's future. In connection with the increased educational ambitions of parents from lower social classes, all-age schools subsidized by the LEA educated students aged 5 to 15 years according to curricula similar to those of grammar schools.

Teachers were given the additional obligation of identifying hearing or visual defects in children; this was followed by consultations with specialists.

In addition, educational institutions were to ensure children a well-organized working day, suitable food, and hygienic conditions for learning, fun and relaxation. A departure from the existing methods of teaching was recommended in favor of matters of concern for children and encouragement of experiments and research. Members of the Committee emphasized the role of the emotional development of children and allowed them to make mistakes in the learning process. Moreover, members of the teaching staff were to have pedagogical skills tailored to the particular age groups with which they were working. This was a challenge for education, given that the system “employed 30,000 unqualified teachers” (Kotłowski, 1960, p. 35).

Hadow's report contributed to the practical application of the ideas of Jean Piaget, i.e., a reduction in the number of students in classes. Teaching was focused on the student's interests and independence. In addition, under the influence of the report, the structure of elementary education was changed, abandoning the separate teaching of girls and boys in favor of co-education. Primary education was separated into two parts, for children aged 5–7 (infants) and for older children aged 7–11 (juniors). Secondary education, at the level of middle schools, might involve vocational and academic training.

In 1933 Will Spens became the president of the Department of Education. In 1938, under his leadership, the Committee prepared an education change in secondary schools in the Spens Report (<http://www.educationengland.org.uk/documents/spens/spens1938.html>, accessed: September 15, 2016), which recommended changing the lower technical schools associated with mechanics and building into technical secondary schools. Each student of a middle technical school had to pass a test similar to the test given to students in grammar schools. For the first two years of technical school, students learned according to a program identical to the one used in grammar schools. Thanks to this equalization of the levels of students, it was possible for a student to transfer to a grammar school and continue his education in preparation for university studies.

The work of the Norwood Committee (named after the chairman of the Department of Education in 1941) continued the work of the Spens Committee. This work concerned changes in the programs of secondary schools and in school examinations. The Committee proposed dividing the students into three groups according to their interests way of thinking and style of thinking. The Norwood Report of 1943

identified three types of curriculum. The first type is academic in orientation and pursues knowledge for its own sake [...]. The second type of curriculum is directed to the special data and skills associated with a particular kind of occupation [...]. The third type of curriculum balances training of mind and body and teaches the humanities, natural science and the arts to a degree which enables pupils to take up the work of life (Bartlett, Burton, 2012, p. 66).

The representatives of the first group, who were interested in learning for its own sake, found themselves in grammar schools. Students studying machines and their practical use found themselves in technical schools. Candidates for the modern schools were characterized by their immediate use in practice of the

knowledge they learned, by narrow horizons of thought, expectations of prizes, and activities directed towards a career.

In 1940 in England and Wales there were

[...] 20,000 elementary schools, 9,700 of which were state schools, attended by 3,500,000 pupils. The remaining schools (about 10,300) were in private hands: 9,000 belonged to the Church of England, 1,250 to the Roman Catholic Church, 100 to Methodists, and the remainder (13) were other religious schools. About 1,500,000 students attended private schools (Kottowski, 1960, p. 35).

About 80% of young people finished their education at the age of 14; the others continued their education in secondary schools.

The period of the Second World War caused a decline in the number of preschools. This was related to the fact that many women went into auxiliary services. Moreover, children were transferred from London into the country. As a result, state education authorities established so-called war nursery schools. One of the consequences of the Second World War “was a public demand for the post-war world to be better than the pre-war world” (Bartlett, Burton, 2012, p. 66).

3.14. John Dewey and progressive pedagogy

Social, scientific, and industrial revolutions changed ways of thinking about education. Rather than introducing a one-time radical educational change, they enabled permanent change in the rules of society. The favorable political and social climate of the early twentieth century in the United States gave birth to progressivism. The roots of this movement must be sought in the eighteenth century, in the Age of Enlightenment. Progressives, like the theorists of “the era of mind,” were advocates of the concept of progress leading to the improvement and enhancement of the environment of human life, with the help of intelligence and the use of scientific methods to solve social, political, and economic problems.

The integrated knowledge and efforts of educators and psychologists of the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries led to the creation of a movement in regard to education and training under the name *progressivism* in American education and *new education* in Europe. The central subject of pedocentric educational activities was the child, who constituted the basis of progressivism. The pedocentric theory presented the life of the school and the learning and teaching processes only partially, because it contained a finite “catalog of forms, rules, resources, qualities, activities, operations, and organizational procedures” (Kurdybacha (ed.), 1965, p. 763). The model is not something that can be decoded; its task is to demonstrate the feasibility of certain rules and to identify methods that make them feasible. The key to success is the selection of teaching content, which should take spontaneous activity into account and should be adapted to the interests, creativity, and personality of the student.

The first formulation of philosophical premises of progressivism was presented by Charles S. Peirce (1839–1914), who, in searching for effective learning methods to shape clarity of thought, declared that the only trustworthy knowledge of reality is that which is able to correctly predict the consequences of certain actions. “How to give birth to those vital and procreative ideas which multiply into a thousand forms and diffuse themselves everywhere, advancing civilization and making the dignity of man, is an art not yet reduced to rules, but of the secret of which the history of science affords some hints” (The Spens Report, <http://www.educationengland.org.uk/documents/spens/spens1938.html>, accessed: September 27, 2016).

3.14.1. The assumptions of pedagogy of John Dewey and his school

Dewey’s experimentalism, based on a social concept of education, influenced the views of many progressives. Dewey believed that thinking is verified by experience, and saw a close relationship between philosophy and education. Education for Dewey was a laboratory, where one applied and proved philosophical formulations of the issues involving the formation of intellectual and moral behavior in order to enable an individual to freely and actively participate in social life.

Describing the Laboratory School at the University of Chicago, Dewey wrote:

The conception underlying the school is that of a laboratory. It bears the same relation to the work in pedagogy that a laboratory bears to biology, physics, or chemistry. Like any such laboratory it has two main purposes: 1) to exhibit, test, verify, and criticize theoretical statements and principles; and 2) to add to the sum of facts and principles in its special line (Gutek, 2009, p. 77).

According to Dewey, the social life of a school or class is a microcosm of social life. He suggested allowing a child to gradually become familiar with the structure and the functioning of human society. The first task of the school is to simplify social life through a variety of basic forms appropriate to the experience and abilities of the child. The second is to consciously influence the child with the aim of passing on important social values. The third task of the school is to connect the mind of a child with the influences of various social groups, enabling him or her to live in each social group.

Dewey claimed that the school was the most effective factor in progress and in a democratic society. The school could contribute to initiatives in social change, as well as enabling students to participate in social life. This directed attention to the new role of the teacher, who prepared students to live in society and to understand the principles of a changing world. To make this possible, teachers were to promote projects, provide guidance, advise students, and avoid “feeding” methods. Appropriate diversification of lessons and the acquisition of skills in an indirect way constituted the key to success in Dewey’s view of education. It was in precisely these methods that Dewey saw the essence of the teacher’s vocation.

A progressive teacher should help the child learn and steer its research activities, rather than forcing tasks upon him or her. Progressives agreed with

Dewey about testing innovative techniques and that the assessment of a student's achievement should take into account the progress the student has made in mental, physical, moral, and social development. The progressives and Dewey spoke about the cooperation of teachers, parents, and schools in order to meet the needs emerging in the course of the development of children. Dewey, like the progressives gathered in the Progressive Education Association, represented the opinion that education should allow the child free development and provide him or her with opportunities to participate in activities that develop create self-reliance, creativity and ability to express his or her own sense of "me." The association emphasized that "all instruction should be guided by the child's own interest, stimulated by contact with the real world" (Guttek, 2009, p. 343).

Dewey's impact on the pedagogical thought of the twentieth century is undeniable. He was the first to criticize the traditional principles of education. Traditionalists did not take into account the individual needs and interests of the child; they avoided political and social issues. Dewey criticized the essence of traditional education, which involved the imposition of both content and methods from above and from without. Such education was isolated from the practical, everyday experiences of children, who were taught as if change in the world was an exception and not the rule.

Dewey looked on the psyche and upbringing of the child from a new angle. He proposed to transform the school into a living institution, making use of experience in teaching. The results obtained in the experimental school confirmed his belief that every idea is valuable to the extent "[...] that it is used by man as a tool for free and active participation in social life" and helps him adapt to the challenges faced by citizens of every society. "We learn through our experiences, or environmental interactions; each experiential episode adds to our experience" (Guttek, 2009, p. 83). Dewey also characterized the philosophy that should lie at the foundation of progressive education policies based on experience understood as a result of human interaction with the environment. Dewey based his theory of education on the concept of an experiential continuum, through successive experiences which link the past with the present and which enable the future to be shaped. True progressive education cannot be cut off from the past. It should use the past to reconstruct current experiences and to orient the student towards the future. The traditional school, Dewey claimed, was a formal institution in which education was accomplished according to a curriculum based on the content of separate subjects (language, history, mathematics, and science). The traditional teacher used the course book as the only source of knowledge, and the main method of absorbing knowledge was through its memorization.

CHAPTER 4

Ideological contexts of the educational reforms of 1944 and 1988 in Britain and their consequences over the past twenty years

The range, content, and ideological dynamics of the reforms carried out in the UK were determined by various factors prevalent in this country. A huge role was played by the needs of the labor market and socioeconomic changes in the world. The problematic contexts of the reforms involved improvements in the efficiency of the education system, the growing progress of technology and information, emerging new areas of the economy, and the rapidly changing labor market.

The economic expansion of Asian countries and cheap labor markets posed a challenge and a threat to young job-seeking Britons. Education has become a valuable commodity on the goods market. Social orientations towards education have changed. An individual's social and economic situation is increasingly dependent on acquired knowledge. A diploma, supported by acquired competences, has become a desirable commodity. Competitiveness and efficiency, and thus the level and quality of life of individuals and the wealth of regions, increasingly depends on factors such as labor, capital, and land.

This chapter will discuss the Education Act of 1944 and the ideological roots of progressivism. I will present the genesis of the educational reform of 1988 and its consequences for education in Great Britain, taking into consideration ideological globalism and neoliberalism. I will analyze the ideological background of the subsequent reforms in education up to 2010, taking into account the educational policy of the dominant political party.

4.1. The Education Act of 1944

The United Kingdom could not escape the problems and consequences of World War II. During this period, approximately one million children were evacuated from major cities around the country to protect them from bombardment.

This was made possible by the boundless devotion and discipline of the whole nation. Evacuated children and adults in the provinces were faced with numerous problems relating to accommodation, food, and difficulties in organizing learning at a uniform level. The Act of 1944 introduced the compulsory initiation of schooling for children upon reaching the age of five.

The seventh paragraph of the Education Act of 1944 divided pre-university education in England into three parts. It distinguished a basic stage (primary) (Jones, 2003, pp. 20–25), a middle stage (secondary), and a third stage involving the education of youth beyond compulsory education (further education). This was a major innovation because it replaced the former stages, elementary and middle, of which both grammar and public schools had previously been composed.

Infant school undertook the education of children from five to seven years of age. Classes were held in modern buildings with well-lighted rooms, safe stairways, luxuriously furnished bathrooms, and sliding walls in the sleeping rooms. In schools, emphasis was placed on socializing children and on their cooperation during play and group games. Lessons using small cookers for food preparation or small post offices in which it was possible to send cards were supposed to support this aim. The girls washed their dolls' clothes, while boys engaged in constructing machines, bridges, and houses using pre-fabricated parts. Lessons were taught in small groups, but also with entire classes when they involved events such as school trips.

According to the Act of 1944, nursery schools were incorporated into the national system of education. Local Education Authorities were obliged to create them and to supervise their care. These institutions were located in industrialized regions in connection with the jobs of the children's mothers, and they included the care of children until the age of five. They were not compulsory. As a result of the economic crisis, in 1931, nursery classes were established, forming part of the infant schools. This included the care of children of working mothers from 3 to 5 years old; the children stayed there for 12 hours a day, from 7 a.m. to 7 p.m.

The capricious climate of England stimulated building solutions which took movable exterior walls of buildings into account. Similarly, wide verandas enabled an expansion of children's fresh-air recreational space. Particular emphasis was placed on positive relationships between children as well as reciprocal assistance in dressing, fastening buttons, or tying shoes. The widest possible assortment of active games were used; the children listened to fairy tales, made things from modeling clay, painted pictures, and played with blocks. Free time was organized so that the children could get rid of accumulated energy. Formation of the intellect, feelings, and will was concealed within the elements of fun. The final function of preschools was to undertake the care of children from 2 to 7 years old (Two to Seven Nursery Schools). They were supposed to ensure a child's stress-free transition from the nursery to the infant levels.

Christian Schiller, Her Majesty's Inspector, presented his point of view about progressivism in education. "He claimed that teachers are 'patient and

persistently pulling pioneers, scattered far and wide, each at work in his or her school, determined to find a way in which their children shall live and learn more abundantly” (Cunningham, 1988, p. 20).

4.1.1. Primary schools

Primary school was the next stage of education after infant school, including children from 8 to 11 years of age. The amount of time allotted for play was reduced in favor of increased time for learning. Children mastered English, both in speech and in writing, and learned the basics of history, biology, geography, and mathematics. Classes also included lessons in drawing, singing and dancing, and physical education. There were sewing classes for girls and carpentry for boys.

Elementary school, in the light of the Act of 1944, “provides the first learning tool, wakes the first aesthetic experiences, and begins to develop ethical awareness by appealing to the child’s innate sense of justice and fair play” (Kotłowski, 1960, p. 49). In school, it was necessary to develop creative thinking which helped to shape the child’s discovery of the world and inventiveness, the desire to achieve results, a sense of community with the world of animals, and joy derived from active games and physical exercise. In addition, another task was to expand the mental capacities of children, meeting their social needs and providing appropriate teaching about everyday life.

After 1944, classes were held in primary school buildings from past centuries, which were gradually repaired and adapted to the needs of contemporary schools.

4.1.2. Secondary education

According to the Education Act of 1944, each student who had completed primary school at the age of 11 continued his or her education in secondary schools. The Act ensured that schools were “sufficient in number, character and equipment to afford all pupils opportunities offering such variety of instruction and training as may desirable in view of their different ages, abilities and aptitudes” (Norwood Report, 1943, <http://www.educationengland.org.uk/documents/norwood/norwood1943.html>, p. 1, accessed: September 15, 2016). However, young people with the highest economic status still attended public schools.

4.1.2.1. Public schools

The first public school was founded by William Wykeham in Winchester in 1382. The primary principle of this school included not only the teaching of subjects, but formation of character so that a young man could serve people from different social groups. The ideal was first to bring up Christians, then Christian

gentlemen. The center of the students' spiritual life was the chapel. The second principle mandated extracurricular and non-school-based education through the use of sport. The third principle introduced a system whereby older students cared for younger, as assigned by the school authorities. On the example of the Winchester school, public school institutions emerged in Eton (1440), Westminster, Charterhouse, St. Paul's, Shrewsbury, and, in the eighteenth century, in Rugby and Harrow. Wykeham's first school was supposed to be an educational institution for poor people, but later public schools emerging in the eighteenth century undertook the education of young people from rich bourgeois and noble families.

The following attitude was taken by George Tomlinson, Minister of Education, in Attlee's Government:

My party has issued a statement of policy in which it looks forward to the day when the schools in the state system will be so good that nobody will want their children to go to independent schools. [...] At present our hands are full enough coping with the increase in the birth-rate and the movement of population to new housing estates. Personally I do not see the sense in getting rid of something that is doing a useful job of work (Blackburn, 1954, p. 193).

In 1942, the Department of Education under the chairmanship of Lord Fleming established a committee to incorporate public schools into the national school system. A report prepared by the Fleming Committee took into account the fact that public schools educated in a manner similar to grammar schools, with dormitories where young people remained under the care of teachers. Schools that did not collect money in the form of grants from the state treasury would decide themselves on hiring and firing of teachers and planning education and investments. On the other hand, if a school decided on funding from the state budget, half of the places for students would be paid for, while the other half would be free and allocated to students referred by local authorities.

The English perceived public schools as elite, luxurious schools, cultivating English culture. Of 80 ministers and deputy ministers in 1954, "29 had been educated at Eton, 8 at Harrow, 6 at Winchester, 4 at Rugby, 3 at Marlborough, and 14 at other public schools. In other words, in 1954, of 80 ministers and deputy ministers, 64 were graduates of public schools, that is, 80% of ministers" (Kotłowski, 1960, p. 65).

4.1.2.2. Grammar school

The Education Act of 1944 ordered the education of the most talented young people with the highest IQs and abilities in the humanities to be carried out in grammar schools, which were free and coeducational. The curriculum was not imposed by the ministry; the headmaster and teachers could choose it independently, adjusting it to the ability of young people.

The students were divided into three groups: A, B, and C, with group A earmarked for university studies. According to the Norwood Committee,

these schools were attended by the 20% of the population of young people who passed an examination in the form of a competition in mathematics and English. Grammar schools preferred to accept students capable of a theoretical way of thinking; hence great importance was placed on intelligence tests. School education consisted of a five-year series followed by a two- or three-year series, which was called the sixth form. In this class the students chose a humanist course, expanded in the areas of English, foreign languages, Latin, and history; an economic course, with an expanded number of hours of geography, political economy, history, and learning about the Constitution; or a third option, a science course with expanded mathematics, physics, chemistry, and biology. Passing an examination at an Advanced level enabled a student to undertake university studies.

Two-thirds of grammar school students completed the five-year cycle and received, after passing the examination, a school-leaving certificate (General Certificate of Education, or GCE Ordinary level). The remaining third continued their education with the two- or three-year cycle (sixth form), ending with a full GCE exam, including nine subjects, and enabled subsequent university studies. Passing the GCE exam in three subjects entitled a student to study at a technical college or college for teachers.

4.1.2.3. Technical schools

The development of industry in the late nineteenth century, as well as the views of scientists and scholars such as Charles Darwin, Herbert Spencer, and T. H. Huxley, influenced the development of nursery schools and artisanal courses. Technical schools functioned from 1902 until 1944; these were transformed into secondary technical schools. The announcement of the Welsh Intermediate Education Act of 1889 proved essential to the development of education. The Act contributed to the creation of "a school with a program which included the teaching of selected sectors of the economy (agriculture, industry, crafts and trade)" (Kotłowski, 1960, p. 66). Lower-level technical schools taught general subjects in addition to vocational subjects, and slowly became comprehensive schools, expanded to include assorted technical subjects. The schools were characterized by their connection with the social life of towns and villages and by apprenticeships in factories. Artistically talented young people could continue their education in coeducational junior art departments, which recruited children at the age of 11.

From 1944 on, technical education became secondary education, adapted to training in industry, commerce, agriculture, home economics, and music. This resulted in the need to adapt buildings, establish laboratories, and hire qualified teachers of vocational subjects. The character of education forced the construction of boarding schools and sponsoring of scholarships. To help the graduates of these schools continue their studies at universities, sixth forms were set up in secondary technical schools, or students were directed to sixth forms in grammar schools.

4.1.2.4. Modern school

The remaining young people continued their studies in modern schools. Minister of Education Ellen Wilkinson called the creation of secondary schools an act more of faith than of wisdom, because localization, personnel, and financial difficulties would accumulate during the implementation of the slogan "secondary education for all" (Kotłowski, 1960, p. 75). Following Wilkinson's death in 1947, George Tomlinson became Minister of Education. Modern secondary schools were metaphorically compared by his Ministry to "trees with strong roots, but still-weak branches" (Kotłowski, 1960, p. 75). Most children learned more readily when dealing with things related to their everyday experiences.

The Ministry perceived the importance of general education which enabled young people to choose the subjects the most interesting to them; this was the essence of the modern school. The Ministry characterized the modern grammar school in terms of the wealth of subjects. In modern schools, students were educated in connection with the surrounding environment. The methods and programs used enabled the asking of the questions why, when, where, how, and what, as well as provision of the answers. Classes incorporated elements of the culture of the region in which the school was situated. Modern schools were not selective; they taught young people with a wide variety of talents. Emphasis was placed on the teaching of mathematics, in particular trigonometry and logarithms, which facilitated an understanding of the surrounding world. The principles of the pedagogy of John Dewey, including his "project method," were implemented. The motto of the school was *learning by doing*. The curricula and subjects were adjusted to the current social and political situation of the country.

Students completed their education in the modern school at the age of 16. Willing students could take the GCE exam in as many subjects as they wanted; however, to continue their studies in the sixth form, they had to pass an examination with nine subjects. Successful passing of these exams depended on the student's ability and special preparation, since the exam included Latin. In the existing capitalist conditions, the modern school enabled students to take examinations entitling them to study at a university; this represented a step forward in building a more just educational system.

At that time, children had a choice of five educational routes. The first and most expensive led through public schools directly to the university. The second led through grammar school and the GCE Advanced level and enabled study at a university. The third enabled the student, after completing grammar school, to take an examination at the Ordinary level, enabling studies in technical and teacher training colleges. The fourth route led through secondary technical school, followed by the GCE examination in nine subjects. The last route provided the opportunity to study at a university after completing modern school, passing the full GCE, and completing the sixth form of grammar school. The emergence of a five-route system in the educational system of that time enabled equal chances for everybody, but was dependent on the intellectual and financial resources of the family.

4.1.2.5. Further education

Section 7 of the Education Act of 1944 obliged LEAs in each region of the country to ensure appropriate education in primary and secondary schools, as well as further education (FE), to support the “spiritual, moral, intellectual, and physical development of the community to enable the needs of the population of a given region to be met” (Stock, 1978, p. 42). In addition, LEAs were obliged to prepare and organize further education in full-time and part-time versions, as well as cultural activities for those past school age. LEAs were also made responsible for the establishment and management of leisure centers, sports fields, gymnasiums, and other sports centers enabling exercise and recreation.

Management of further education institutions became complicated in connection with the reorganization and reduction of the number of LEAs and the failure of the ministry to completely define methods of financing institutions of further education, which was to be the responsibility of the LEAs. Despite the difficulties, the number of branches of further education doubled from “about 5,000 to nearly 11,000” (Stock, 1978, p. 43).

The National Foundation of Adult Education, or NFAE, an advisory body for adult education founded in 1946, contributed to the creation of a central library and influenced the Ministry of Education in the area of further education. In 1949, the National Institute of Adult Education, or NIAE, was established as a result of the merger of the British Institute of Adult Education ([http://www.worldcat.org/identities/nc-british%20institute%20of%20adult%20education\\$scottish%20branch/](http://www.worldcat.org/identities/nc-british%20institute%20of%20adult%20education$scottish%20branch/), accessed: May 12, 2014) and the NFAE (Fieldhouse (ed.), 1998, p. 47; <http://www.niace.org.uk>, accessed: May 11, 2014). The new institution dealt with the publication of the journals “Adult Education” and “Calendar of Residential Short Courses”. The first head of the NIAE was Edward Hutchinson, who believed that “adult education takes place when there are responsibly organized conditions, enabling both men and women to broaden their understanding of their own life experiences” (Stock, 1978, p. 45). Hutchinson helped to raise the prestige of adult education and exercised an influence on education policy in this area by presenting the number of people involved in further education to the public. In 1983 the NIAE changed its name to The National Institute of Adult Continuing Education, or NIACE, enabling activity in the area of formal liberal and vocational education, particularly of the unemployed, women, those over 65 years of age, the disabled, and those belonging to national minorities.

Due to the financial difficulties of the country, the Conservative Party, under the leadership of Winston Churchill, lowered grants for adult education by 10% in 1953, explaining that every adult should invest in his or her own education and professional development. The consequence of Churchill's decision was the appointment by Minister of Education Florence Horsbrugh of a committee, chaired by Eric Ashby, which slowed the development of further education. Stagnation was interrupted by the government's appointment of the Robbins Committee in 1963, which suggested making higher education available to all sufficiently gifted people. This led to the establishment of the Council for National Academic

Awards, or CNAAs, as well as the assignment of responsibility for teacher training to higher education. Teacher training colleges were renamed colleges of education, while colleges of advanced technology were transformed into institutions of higher education (Stock, 1978, p. 48).

4.2. Open University and the neo-liberal free market principles in universities

Another initiative of the government was to create the Open University in Milton Keynes in 1961; this was recognized as the most important educational and social event of the twentieth century. It offered a chance for adults to obtain an education at the university level at a time and place of their own choosing (e.g., in their own home). The university itself prepared the curriculum and offered a form of study. It was autonomous in terms of awarding degrees; in addition, it decided matters of financial policy and employment of teaching staff. The university created its own method of teaching, which consisted of supported open learning and updating available courses to enable the completion of middle school and university studies.

To acquire a professional degree, a student had to obtain 360 credit points. Under the assumption that a student could be credited with 60 points within a period of one year, which translated to 16 hours of study a week, he or she would obtain a professional degree after 6 years of study. During his or her studies, a student chose the theme of individual courses, and after earning 180 credit points, he or she received a Bachelor of Arts (BA) or Bachelor of Science (BSc) degree.

Obtaining the next 60 credit points enabled a student to earn a Postgraduate Certificate in Humanities. By earning 120 points, the student received a Postgraduate Diploma in Humanities, whereas a Master of Arts (MA in Humanities) degree could be earned with 180 points. An analogous situation applied with regard to professional qualifications in science. The final step, the degree of Doctor of Philosophy (PhD), was obtained by writing a dissertation on the applicant's contribution to the development of science and its publication in accredited journals, which indicated the applicant's academic maturity and ability to conduct independent research.

In order to better organize the government policy of continuing education, the Advisory Council for Adult and Continuing Education, or ACACE, was established in 1977. It popularized adult education (as adult continuing education) among the unemployed and ethnic minorities. This led to the publication of the document *Continuing Education: From Policies to Practice* (McNair, *A history of the development of NIACE education*, <http://www.eaea.org/en/membership/eaea-members/uk-niace-ordinary-member.html>, accessed: September 17, 2016; https://www.niace.org.uk/sites/default/files/1_History.pdf, accessed: September 17, 2016), which laid the foundations of an integrated system of continuing educa-

tion. The document demanded pedagogic advice and access to higher education for people from disadvantaged groups. In 1983, the ACACE was transformed into the Unit for Development of Adult Continuing Education, or UDACE (<http://www.stephenmcnair.uk/index.php/udace/>, p. 1, accessed: September 17, 2016).

4.3. The Plowden Report

The genesis of education reform in England and Wales in 1998 was ideologically linked with progressivism. In England the term Plowdenism was also used, after Lady Plowden, the author of a report on “progressive teaching” (Dearden, 1987, p. 77), a trend present in some private and state schools. The changes resulting from the reform of 1988 in the United Kingdom applied only to the state sector. The reform was related to the attack on the ideology of progressivism in the theory and practice of education.

Plowdenism made use of an informal curriculum and educational methods. This informality manifested itself in the method of organizing activities and evaluation as well as in interpersonal relationships within the educational process. In addition, it concerned the training of teachers, resulting in the creation of two models of the student-teacher relationship. The first, extremely liberal model emphasized the “equality and freedom of thought and expression, developing primarily in non-state schools, as well as a style more closely associated with the sociopolitical ideas of the left” (Potulicka, 2011, p. 23). Proponents of the second model emphasized the development of culture typical for working-class students. The role of the teacher was to organize a creative work environment which would stimulate the development of the child.

The Plowden Report (<http://www.educationengland.org.uk/documents/plowden/plowden1967-1.html>, accessed: September 17, 2016) suggested not to use bells to divide lessons, but to emphasize individualization of the teaching process. Progressives were aware of the fact that a teacher could work individually with a child for only 7–8 minutes; thus group work was recommended.

The aim of education described in the document is individualized child development based on research in developmental psychology and school maturity. Two basic theses of the report are as follows: that “[...] children develop at very different speeds and along different lines of development (this involves, among other things, the issue of sensitive time periods, optimal for learning specific skills)” (Thompson, 1990, p. 145). According to the ideology of progressivism, if a child is not ready for the next step in teaching, forcing him or her to perform a given activity is a waste of time. Each child is characterized by a natural need to learn, which manifests itself in his or her interests and curiosity in learning about the world.

To sum up, the positive side of the report was that teachers could develop a fully individualized process of teaching. Their salaries were not dependent on the students’ results or the amount of funding the school received. In addition, primary education was freed from the necessity of learning for examinations.

In the 1970s, the Tories (Conservative Party) began efforts to break up the progressive education movement. Critics of progressivism established one of the foundations of the development of their own educational policy, claiming that progressivism helped to lower the standard of education in the three basic skills: reading, writing, and arithmetic. Royal inspectors created reports that were cited by the Education Secretary, Kenneth Baker. The reports criticized the teaching of mathematics, and lessons were described as methodologically inadequate for the intellectual needs of students. Moreover, they criticized the amount of time devoted to the natural sciences in early school teaching. There were numerous accusations regarding the inadequate competence of teachers, as shown by the disparity between teaching and the level of students' abilities.

Despite the progressivist freedom of choice of curriculum in the 1960s, teachers were accused of not paying attention to the curriculum and disregarding essential elements requiring memorization. In addition, it was claimed that chaos and lack of discipline dominated in classes, along with improper interpersonal relationships that failed to support learning. The results of research by Neville Bennett, who claimed that achievements in reading, writing, and mathematics were greater when students were taught in the traditional way, were used to illustrate the imperfections of progressivism. Only less capable students achieved relatively better results in progressive-style classes. Social aspects of progressive thinking and the treatment of students' needs as "sacred" came in for criticism, as well as the subordination of the quality of education to its equality.

Accusations against progressivism from the left wing were presented by the Labour Party. Official criticism of "child-centered" education was begun by the Prime Minister, James Callaghan, in 1976. His lecture at Ruskin College, Oxford, initiated the Great Education Debate. The Labour Prime Minister, like the Tories, spoke of a reduction in the level of basic skills of elementary school students. In the context of these allegations it is worth establishing whether Plowdenism could be exclusively blamed for lowering standards, given that the New Right found no evidence of such lowering. The Tories, using Neville Bennett's reports, convinced the society that better educational results could be achieved with the use of the traditional style as opposed to the progressive style. They had no arguments to offer against Plowdenism, only their own prejudices.

On the other hand, Bennett showed that progressive education could be effective if the teacher was able to give a proper shape to the curriculum, and, through observing a group's work, to influence its activities during lessons and to teach the essential contents of the subject with sufficient precision. Bennett, like the New Right and the Left, thought that it was inadvisable to give teachers excessive autonomy in choosing a curriculum, because this might contribute to poorer educational results.

At the core of the thinking of the modernist teacher was a deep humanism, associated with the ideology of progressivism, which spoke of the equality of educational opportunities and of social justice. In accordance with this ideology, the main goals of education were to satisfy the needs of all children (teaching according to their individual needs) and stimulating creativity. Progressives tried

to eliminate inequalities in access to education resulting from ethnic or social origin, skin color, or level of skill. They postulated the development of the child's interests through direct experience in the classroom. On the other hand, the progressive philosophy forced teachers to set themselves requirements concerning the child's understanding.

Prime Minister Callaghan suggested limiting the autonomy of teachers in the area of the choice of curricula at each stage of education. Faced with a crisis of the whole education system in the UK, the greatest educational reform since 1944 was initiated, concerning the changes in "the educational autonomy of teachers" (Śliwerski, 2009a, p. 19), programs of general and occupational education, systems of enforcement and of assurance of educational quality, the role of local governments in reformed education, and education designed to meet the needs of the labor market.

4.4. Genesis of educational reform in England and Wales, 1998

Politically, the 1970s were a difficult period in the United Kingdom. In March 1976, following the resignation of Prime Minister Harold Wilson and in connection with numerous attacks by the Irish Republican Army, the helm of the Labour Party was assumed by James Callaghan. However, the change of prime minister did not result in an improvement in the country's economic situation. In the wake of the declining value of the pound sterling against the US dollar (to £1 = \$1.60) and lack of support from the public in the late 1970s, the Labour Party lost the elections of May 3, 1979 to the Conservatives.

The new leader was the first female prime minister in the history of England as well as of Europe: Margaret Thatcher, dubbed "the Iron Lady" by Soviet politicians. In her three terms as Prime Minister, she developed a strong and consistent policy. With an iron hand she strove to strengthen the economic potential of the UK and to create a more stable political situation in the country through reducing the scale of taxes and creating conditions for the development of private industry. She sought to strengthen the central government at the expense of local authorities, even "limiting the autonomy of universities and local school authorities in favor of the central policy" (Zins, 2001, p. 389).

4.5. The ideology of the New Right in Britain in the 1980s

For two decades in the UK there was a conservative revolution in education. Since the 1950s, the Conservative Party had worked on developing their own policies, but it was only in the years 1975–1987 that this objective was achieved. The educational policy, culminating in Kenneth Baker's Law on Education Reform of 1988, emerged under the influence of the so-called New Right, which brought

together educators, philosophers and economists. The New Right was supported by the mass media as well as by trusted advisors to the Prime Minister, for whom education reform was one of the main areas of interest.

Neoliberal ideology can be understood differently. As Olssen observes: "[...] neoliberalism reinforces many of the central axioms of classical liberalism. It reinforces those pertaining to the relations between the individual and society, the conception of freedom, the view of the self as a rational maximizer of utility, the view of the distinction between public and private spheres as separate, and the rejection of any conception of a public good over and above the aggregate sum of individuals" (Olssen, 2000, p. 482). Michael Apple described these times as a return to conservatism, with an emphasis on private property.

The election of Margaret Thatcher, the leader of the Conservative Party, in 1979 helped to strengthen conservative and neoliberal ideologies in the Anglo-Saxon countries. Another supporter of conservatism in education was Keith Joseph, Minister of Education in the government preceding the passing of the Reform Act of 1988, who claimed that

[...] education was the unreasonable ally of socialists, bureaucrats, and executives, working against the true interests and wishes of children and parents, and the nation, too, through the imposition of an ideology based on utopian fantasies of universal brotherhood and cooperation (Bouhdiba, 1987, p. 218).

It is worth noting that maintenance of minimum standards in education is an important link in state supervision as represented by conservatives. In the 1970s the party focused on a campaign for standards and values in education. In the opinion of its director, Christopher Patten, education was preparation for a good life; this could be achieved only through education, which consisted of learning virtue. In addition, Keith Joseph developed the term "effective education," meaning education that not only met the needs of academic minds, but enabled the implementation of pre-vocational preparation. New trends in education contributed to conservative educational policy in the area, as K. Jones puts it, of "unabashed selectivity between and within schools" (Jones, 2003, pp. 3–4).

Apparent competition between students was supposed to serve as a better preparation for future life. The presented educational concepts united elements of neoconservatism and neoliberalism. Analysis of the neoconservative elements showed that the best summary of the idea of the philosophy of the New Right was the slogan "a free market and a strong state" (Potulicka, 1993, p. 19). The latter was the main value alongside morality, social order, authority, tradition, and freedom. A strong state was supposed to defend the interests of the ruling elites and prevent social resistance. A market with guarantees was a good solution. In the strong state headed by Thatcher, no forms of the welfare state existed; as a result, in the course of politics the development of professional organizations and trade unions was inhibited, and inequalities in access to social benefits were maintained. According to Clyde Chitty, neoconservatives, as leaders and controllers of social change, had the greatest influence on education policy.

The primary objective of school education, as stated by the members of the Hilgate Group (Caroline Cox, Jessica Douglas-Home, Roger Scruton), was the inculcation of respect for the family, private property, and all of the authorities of the bourgeois state. They spoke of the new individuality created by the New Right as “easily adapting to and being convinced by the reward of individual enterprise” (Śpiewak, 1988, p. 126).

Thatcher’s economic policy improved the lives of citizens, as their real earnings increased by 25% in 1988. During this period, British education experienced the most comprehensive reform since 1944. The end of the 1980s, despite another Conservative Party victory in the elections, turned out to be less beneficial for the Prime Minister. The party had intended to improve the state of education and health services, but the leadership of the Conservative Party did not agree to an increase in spending on health care, which contributed to protests by the British Medical Association and the public. In November 1990 Margaret Thatcher stepped down as leader of the Conservative Party and Prime Minister. The new Prime Minister and party leader was John Major (b. 1943), a more flexible politician than the “Iron Lady.” His policies were characterized by an equilibrium between supporters of Thatcherism and moderate reformers. He showed more patience and determination on the Irish question.

4.6. The ideology of neoliberalism and corporatism in the UK in the second period of educational change

In the wake of the oil crisis of the 1970s, the neoliberal policies of the governments of Prime Minister Thatcher of the Conservative Party in the UK and President Ronald Reagan (in office 1981–1989) of the Republican Party in the US led to another educational change. To better visualize the policy of education reform since 1988, it is necessary to refer to the ideological foundations of economic neoliberalism and corporatism, known in the UK as the “Second Way” of educational changes. According to the main principle of these changes, “[...] [T]he free market is not only to teach, but also to educate” (Hayek, 2006, p. 42). Young people are brought up as well in the spirit of this philosophical thinking. A young man’s tutor is the labor market, which, “according to its followers, mercilessly punishes laziness and complacency, and awards victorious competition and enterprise” (Potulicka, Rutkowiak, 2010, p. 61). “Neo-conservatives repeat after their godfather, Irving Kristol, that their historical goal is to transform the whole person—even against his will—into a new type, suited for management in the conditions of modern democracy” (Potulicka, Rutkowiak, 2010, p. 61).

We seek increases in living standards—including improved health and education [...]. We seek sustainable development, which includes preserving natural resources and maintaining a healthy environment. We seek equitable development, which ensures that all groups in society, not

just those at the top, enjoy the fruits of development. And we seek democratic development, in which citizens participate in a variety of ways in making the decisions that affect their lives (Stiglitz, 1998, p. 30).

The “Second Way” of educational change involved, according to A. Hargreaves and D. Shirley, “the intensification of education reform of the top-down type, [which] proceeded in England, Chile, the United States, and parts of Australia and Canada” (Potulicka, Rutkowiak, 2010, p. 6). Technology took the form of laboratories centrally installed in schools, becoming a source of additional support for teachers and students by extending the scope of implementation of the curriculum with the use of multimedia. Moreover, an obsession with discipline became the educational mission of modern, free-market education in English schools. Students who failed to obey the prevailing rules of education were sent to special units, places for pupils excluded permanently from compulsory schools.

Summing up, it must be stated that an “obsession with discipline and an anti-intellectual curriculum is the hidden agenda of neoliberal education” (Potulicka, Rutkowiak, 2010, p. 61). *The Constitution of Liberty*, released in the UK for the first time in 1960, presents the views of neoliberal guru Friedrich Hayek on education. The author’s task was to formulate the basic principles of the philosophy of freedom in order to achieve the shared vision of the goals of liberals. “This belief in individual responsibility, which has always been strong when people firmly believed in individual freedom, has markedly declined, together with the esteem for freedom” (Hayek, 1960, p. 70).

Another key neoliberal concept is competition, between organized and unorganized groups and between individuals. Hence Hayek’s view that in a progressive society “the relatively wealthy people are ahead of the rest in material benefits” (Potulicka, Rutkowiak, 2010, p. 71), as a result of the effective use of their knowledge. For neoliberals, a man’s value is treated as a commodity.

As a result, the value of a man and his salary depends on his capability of providing useful service to others. The main objective of freedom is the creation of the ability and willingness to get the maximum use out of the knowledge that the individual is able to obtain (Potulicka, Rutkowiak, 2010, p. 73).

According to Hayek, even a lazy, wasteful man can learn the basics of economics and adapt his resources to achieve his own goals. In order to be free, the individual is committed to a program of caring for himself, which “elevates selfishness, enterprise, cleverness, competitiveness, and competition to the rank of positive values (virtues)” (Dziubka, Szlachta, Nijakowski, 2008, p. 79).

Hayek, after John Stuart Mill, continues the description of *homo oeconomicus* characterized by selfishness, cold calculation, and maximization of profits in his career, using the material, social, and cultural achievements of society. In his behavior, he ignores the orders of the heart which would allow him to see the needs of others. In terms of education, according to Hayek, competition is the strongest source of the dissemination of knowledge. The situation of human equality is completely unrealizable. “If we want everyone’s chances to be as high

as possible, we must, in fact, reduce the chances of the majority” (Hayek, 2006, p. 368). Therefore Hayek was in favor of compulsory education, which relies on a transfer of knowledge enabling students to function more efficiently in the future in society, and was for the elimination of illiteracy and against financing schools from the state budget. He claimed that parents themselves should equip their offspring with necessary knowledge.

Moreover, he claimed, invoking the neoliberal guru Milton Friedman, that it would be possible to pay for the maintenance of state educational institutions with public funds; however, state schools would work only in small towns due to the small number of children, which would make private education unprofitable.

Obtaining such an education would not permit individuals to work in independent positions, but in professions previously reserved for technicians, whose knowledge and skills entrepreneurs could use. Free society offers, according to E. Potulicka, only “the possibility of seeking the right place, with full risks and failures” (Potulicka, Rutkowiak, 2010, p. 81). The two basic assumptions of the author of *Constitution of Liberty* in the field of education appear in the statement:

No person or group of people has the definitive ability to identify the abilities of other people. Acquisition by a member of the community of additional abilities to do things that can be valuable is always beneficial for the community (Hayek, 2006, p. 98).

According to Hayek, the ruling political party cannot be the only entity investing in education, because it is educationally and politically desirable to be able to choose alternative methods adapted to a changing world. There will always be inequalities in access to education depending on abilities, talents, and origin. The most shocking of the libertarian views (as Hayek himself emphasizes) in *The Constitution of Liberty* are contained in the section “Contract work and independent work.” The hardest part is to convince the masses “[...] that it is in the common interest to maintain conditions enabling only a few people to achieve the positions that to the masses seem unattainable” (Potulicka, Rutkowiak, 2010, p. 75). In a civilized society, the financially independent man plays an important role. According to Hayek, some people “[...] should not waste most of their energy to earning a living, but should have the time and resources to dedicate themselves to the implementation of their freely chosen goals. Inheritance is the best way to select such people” (Hayek, 2006, p. 128).

Summing up, it must be stated that the implementation of social objectives depends on the mechanisms of the market. Neoliberalism is the dominant ideology of global capital, a political and economic paradigm. Education is becoming a valuable commodity on the goods market. Social orientations towards education are changing, and acquisition of a diploma is connected with certain qualifications. Continuing education, analyzed on the one hand in terms of its relationship to the needs and educational aspirations of individuals, and on the other in relation to the needs of the economy, takes on a special dimension in a world of dynamic changes occurring in all areas of life.

Corporatism is understood as a system whose goal is the blurring of boundaries between the business world and the most important government circles. Poverty is not as dangerous in ubiquitous corporatism as the reduction in people's ability to manage their own development in social, political, and economic contexts. Moreover, democracy itself is constrained by globalization in two dimensions: local and global. In the latter dimension, globalization shapes the lives of people on all continents, whereas in the former dimension it reveals its impact on the government of individual countries. Above all, neoliberalism is the management strategy of the globalized world, which David Harvey called the rule of neoliberalism (Harvey, 2008) as exploitation of the state apparatus to facilitate the accumulation of domestic and foreign capital. One of the elementary threats of globalization is the fear that "[...] the free market does not go hand in hand with democracy." Rather, it limits the areas where democratic decisions apply in the internal politics of each country. In the British tradition, "there is no ambition to create projects of universal moral improvement" (Lewartowska-Zychowicz, 2010, p. 25).

At the dawn of the twenty-first century, in contemporary information capitalism in the UK, one observes the development of a class of manufacturers which contributes to the gradual elimination of professional workers performing simple activities. This is leading in turn to the breakdown of social solidarity, attacks on trade unions, and a growing culture based on fear of losing one's job.

Moreover, according to H. A. Giroux, neoliberalism "has become the most dangerous ideology of modern history. It is a massive attack on equality and justice" (H. A. Giroux, *Neoliberalism and the vocationalization of higher education*, <http://www.henryagiroux.com/online-articles/vocationalization>, accessed: January 9, 2010). Once neoliberalism had been established in the Anglo-Saxon world, it was imposed on the rest of the globe. It was part of a hegemonic project involving the concentration of power and wealth in the hands of the world's elite, financially benefiting individual countries which obtained tax cuts and substantial subsidies. It led to the hegemony of identity politics based on the popularization of particular personal examples with their characteristic expression measured by consumer gadgets and resulting from a free choice of lifestyle. The interests of large corporations exerted a significant impact on social and economic policy and linked mass production with mass consumption.

Finally, neoliberal economic and social policy shaped the "joint European policy" and the common constitutional framework. The aim of the actual neoliberal changes in Europe is to contribute to the reign of neoliberalism on the continent. It gives the exchange market an ethical value in and of itself. Neoliberalism influences the ability to manage particular human activities and replaces all previously professed ethical beliefs. In the neoliberal vision of human beings, each person is an entrepreneur managing his or her life.

The neoliberal concept of education is thus a vision of the separation of education and the state which would facilitate a reduction of conflict in the school

in terms of world views. Parents could then choose a school for their children, "taking into account the moral values and the mission of educational institutions" (Potulicka, 1993, p. 58). Thus, no political problems would arise regarding school curricula.

4.7. The Reform Act of 1988 in the light of the ideological contexts

Education offered by neoliberals appears to be "adequate education"; it is minimal and comparable to training. True education is reserved for only very few children. The New Right, recognizing the necessity for education to accommodate the needs of economic life and to support the workforce, returned to the traditional elementary school and expressed opposition to the idea of universal education. Accordingly, it limited the compulsory curriculum and modified the role of teachers to the function of contractors, supervised by corporations, of the educational process. In view of the proposed changes in education in the UK, offering only the basics of education for all, neoliberalism should not be seen as the perfect ideological model.

During the economic crises of 1973, the United Kingdom sought to maintain security in accordance with the principles of conservative ideology. Reformers appealed for the preservation of what had already been tried; this was the background for the reform of 1988. This top-down reform was the most important piece of legislation concerning the school system in post-war England and Wales. Zbigniew Kwiecieński accurately describes this type of reform as the "strategy of the managed epidemic," as a result of which everyone involved in education must accept the change advocated by the education authorities. This led to an expansion of the competence of the Minister of Education in educational programs, which automatically reduced the competences of the school authorities in this matter. The Education Act of 1988 also influenced the acquisition of greater autonomy by schools and school boards.

The aim of the 1988 reform was, according to the basic principle of compulsory education, the provision of free and full education for all children aged 5 to 16 years. Students were taught in a manner appropriate to their needs, ages, and skills. Each student's individual skills and special needs were taken into account. Rapidly changing manufacturing conditions in the factories and competitive global markets forced education to ensure continuous improvement in student's achievements, professional orientation, and the ability to plan and monitor their own professional future.

The Act introduced the concept of "Key Stages," indicating educational stages which culminated in the formal assessment of all students at the ages of 7, 11, 14 and 16. Moreover, a framework for the compulsory program of education for each of the four stages of education was introduced, specifying three basic subjects, as well as seven others, with topics extending beyond the curriculum of these subjects (the cross-curricular approach). The requirement of the Act of

1944 concerning the participation of all students in religious lessons and their participation in daily group prayers was confirmed, provided parents did not apply for an exemption. Balanced spiritual, moral, mental, and physical development was included in the curriculum.

Prior to the 1988 reform, responsibility for the education system in England and Wales was divided among the central government, local education authorities, churches, and other volunteer organizations. The central government assumed overall responsibility for the provision of educational services, setting national policy, and planning the direction of overall development of the system, whereas Local Educational Authorities, the governing bodies of schools and other educational institutions, implemented educational policy and had their own statutes. As of 1984, the former Department of Education and Science changed its name to the Department for Education; in 1988 the name was changed again, to the Department for Education and Employment. The prospects for work and employment of teachers also changed. Teachers were faced with an ultimatum: "either submit to re-education or lose your job" (Jones, 2003, p. 43). For the first time, one uniform curriculum for the entire country was introduced in England and Wales. Moreover, didactic objectives for student achievement at specific ages were prepared, along with "specific criteria for implementation of the program, which in turn become an integral part of reforms" (Potulicka, Rutkowiak, 2010, p. 27) in the context of school-leaving exams at the end of secondary school.

The impact of teachers' organization on the work of the school and system of education was limited, as was the postulated acceptance by teachers of compulsory assessment of work. In terms of the work of headmasters, there was a shift in responsibility from education and upbringing to the financial functioning of the school.

The trend towards centralization of power was due to different ideologies: "neoliberalism characterized by market competition in education and neoconservatism in the case of centralization" (Potulicka, Rutkowiak, 2010, p. 95). Privatization and centralization were to be the supporting pillars of the reform. Privatization in educational policy in England and Wales concerned the promotion of private schools through scholarships for students from poor families. Only people from the middle classes could receive scholarships; they were not expected for talented children from the families of manual workers. In addition, the private funding of school meals, purchase of textbooks, and extracurricular activities was introduced. All of these factors were supposed to reduce educational differences for children and young people. The 1988 reform reinforced the ideological control of education and changed its social objectives and results, which accelerated differentiation between schools.

The year 1988 in British education was a period of tremendous activity at all stages of education, apart from the preschool and adult varieties. New curricula and new exams were introduced, which translated into appropriate working methods. In addition, conditions of compensation, evaluation of teachers' work, and the structure and funding of schools all underwent changes.

4.8. The consequences of the Education Reform Act of 1988

The new curriculum was overloaded with facts that required memorization. The understanding of concepts, accuracy, and principles were abandoned. There was no time for discussion or students' expression of doubts. Education was characterized by programmatic anti-intellectualism, which forced the whole class to be taught using feeding methods. This resulted in external control of the facts taught according to the program in an atmosphere of obedience and disturbed student-teacher relationships. Teachers, in assigning tasks, directed the class using a teaching process through which they limited the development of the personality and killed critical thinking. In cultural thought and corporate ideology, teachers, as ideological intermediaries, led to the emergence of a labor force that enabled efficient management of the production process by financial potentates. In a 1993 book by Roland Meighan and Clive Harber, *Theory and Practice of Regressive Education*, we read about the retrograde direction of educational changes resulting from the 1988 reform (Meighan, Harber, 1981). The authors emphasized the difficulties of students in mastering fluent reading skills. The measurement of performance through tests was not an index of students' knowledge. The reinforcement of authoritarian teacher-student relations perpetuated social divisions.

On the strength of the Act of 1988, the possibility of a school rejecting the dominion of the Local Educational Authority was introduced. This meant a return to selective schools and control of the process of differentiation within the school system. This differentiation was to consist of the creation of training programs for different groups of students appropriate to their future jobs. Schools accepting local authority in the conditions of a systematic reduction of educational expenditure became elements of a free-market educational policy. As Z. Kwieciński wrote, "The market works absolutely, blindly, and with a very short perspective" (Kwieciński, 1997).

In this context it may make sense to speak of the lower social strata being educated for a poor life, but also of a very general division between education for managers and education for the managed. Selection was introduced within schools: classes for students with different levels of skills and curricula (streaming); small differences in the program for students with above-average and lower levels of skills (banding); or grouping students according to ability in individual subjects (setting). Moreover, separation of general and occupational tracks of education was initially applied within the framework of compulsory schooling up to the age of 14. Differentiation of exams in the area of the General Certificate of Secondary Education (GCSE) and pre-vocational exams was also begun. For the oldest classes undergoing compulsory education, within the framework of the reform, a greater range of choice between general and vocational education was introduced. A less valuable form of education was propagated for manual workers in narrowly-defined occupations and for the unemployed. This led to a growing gap between the graduates of general and vocational schools.

The reform affected compulsory education in the state sector. For many students it was a return to elementary school as it existed at the end of the nineteenth century, which educated the future "labor force" in writing, reading, and arithmetic. As a result, the term *schooling* was used by the people controlling the school system to indicate the narrower processes through which young people were socialized to their future role in society.

The Act of 1988 introduced a system of Local Management of Schools, which was intended to raise the level of teaching and learning, in association with the assessment of educational institutions on the basis of achieved standards and the use of the School Development Plan. The Government considered that the publication of students' results in tests assessing degrees of mastery of the objectives of the National Curriculum and in state exams would enable teachers, parents, and education authorities to answer questions about students' progress in learning. Thus, the annual publication of reports showing the progress of each child was initiated. Government funds financed a pilot study and notebooks to keep nationwide records of students' achievements.

School Boards were obliged to publish information about the aims and objectives of the school as well as solutions regarding the National Curriculum and the results of state exams. A Board had to produce annual reports on the topic of the school and the results of formal inspection of the school, as well as to organize annual meetings for parents to discuss the report.

The ideology of the New Right contributed to the departure from progressive ideology in favor of neoliberal ideology governed by the influence of the free market. This marked the beginning of the ideology of the postmodernist teacher, who stood at the ideological crossroads between an ideology based on the ideals of modernism and one based on the ideas of the New Right. New curricula were developed and implemented in accordance with market needs, the requirements of the global economy, and the explosion of information technology and modern techniques.

As a result of the reform, and in the wake of changing educational ideology, the work of teachers also underwent modification. Criteria and requirements were defined for candidates who wanted to work as teachers. English school boards began to decide on the employment, promotion, and dismissal of teachers. Teachers were treated as technicians managing the process of learning.

During Thatcher's term, the professional situation of teachers became complicated. Kenneth Baker, the minister responsible for education reform, questioned the claim that teaching was a professional specialty and accused teachers of a lack of qualifications. Teachers in England complained about their shrinking opportunities for development and motivation for professional behavior, as manifested through the intensification of their working life, increasing bureaucratization, diminishing resources (including the most valuable resources, time and energy), and the growing importance of education management. Furthermore, there were many classes aimed at helping the teacher in his or her formal and professional development, due to the necessity of understanding the new curriculum. Various forms of external control standards as well as the publication of students' written test results at key moments of their lives bore witness to the fact

that both teachers and schools were, to an increasingly greater degree, subject to assessment, formal or informal, based on the results of tests. This leads to the conclusion that the temptation among teachers to teach only with test results in mind was irresistible.

At the end of the nineteenth century there was a debate in Great Britain over the introduction of compulsory elementary education. The government wanted to satisfy the social and educational interests of the future work force in terms of reading, writing, and arithmetic, as well as child care, in connection with the labor market. In that century, education was carried out according to the principle of superior, effective education intended for the rich, and inferior, lower-quality education for the poor children of workers and peasants.

The reform of 1988, in contrast to the previous partial progressive educational activities, introduced radical changes in education resulting from a change in educational ideology. Politicians pushed through a broad reform of the entire education system in order to achieve qualitative changes in education aimed at serving the neoliberal and conservative ideologies.

To sum up, the “Second Way” of global educational change (the global education reform movement, or GERM), introduced standardization of teaching and learning and emphasized achievements in mathematics as well as reading and writing skills. Other important indications involved teaching for predetermined results and test-based accountability. The growing role of increasing bureaucratic control and merit-based pay for teachers was observed. There were frequent cases of the use of the implemented model of reform in other countries which did not create their own models. This led to the duplication of the British mistakes in countries in which top-down reforms were implemented by educational policy makers.

4.9. Post-Thatcher education reform in the UK

In November 1990 Margaret Thatcher vacated the positions of Prime Minister and leader of the Conservative Party; the new prime minister and party leader was John Major. His policy was characterized by a balance between supporters of Thatcherism and moderate reformers. Major's excessive willingness to compromise resulted in the election of May 1997, won by the Labour Party under the leadership of Tony Blair.

Following Blair's resignation on May 10, 2007, the Prime Minister and the new leader of the Labour Party was Gordon Brown (as of June 27, 2007). The Labour Party created its political conceptions under the name “Third Way” and not only influenced the policy of the UK, but also shaped the ideology of social-democratic parties in other countries. The ideology known as Thatcherism was characterized by unfettered individualism in politics and the economy, which was aimed at social solidarity. The “Third Way” was old-style socialism, complete with the intervention of the state bureaucracy in the economy and a strong role for trade unions.

The British Prime Minister, T. Blair wrote:

[...] my vision of the popular politics of the twenty-first century concerns the reconciliation of topics which in the past were wrongly opposed as antagonistic: patriotism and internationalism, rights and obligations, promotion of entrepreneurship and the fight against poverty and discrimination (Zins, 2001, p. 394).

Tony Blair presented four values defining a fair society: the equal value of each individual, opportunity for all, responsibility, and community. Equal value means equal opportunity for everyone, involving the manifestation of his or her talents and aspirations, but also similar chances to disseminate wealth, power and opportunity. A 1995 European Commission White Paper, *Teaching and Learning: Towards the Learning Society*, discusses changes which widen access to information and knowledge and at the same time result in the need for significant changes in the skills required by workers and their work system. "Young people therefore tend to go for general education at the risk of feeling over-qualified in their jobs" (<http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=COM:1995:0590:FIN:EN:PDF>, p. 19, accessed: September 13, 2016). The year 1996 was chosen by the European Parliament to be the European Year of Lifelong Learning.

4.10. Teachers' careers

As of 2001 in England and 2002 in Wales, all teachers starting work in the further education sector were required to have professional teaching qualifications. Aspiring teachers could start after their 18th birthday with a minimum assessment of 'C' in the GSCE English, mathematics and science examinations. In 2007 in England, the Training and Developing Agency for Schools (TDA) introduced occupational standards for teachers employed in schools, describing the features which teachers should have at all career stages, including "knowledge and professional skills, proper professional attitude," methods of presenting knowledge, and efficiency in the performance of the teaching profession.

As of September 2007, a system of teachers' qualifications was introduced. After specialist training, an aspiring teacher became a Qualified Teacher of Learning and Skills, or QTLS. The next step was a promotion to a Teacher on the Main Pay Scale, meaning one who had completed a successful internship in the profession, worked on his or her own professional development, and maintained compliance with the main standards. The next career stage was Teacher on the Upper Pay Scale: after meeting certain standards, these teachers were promoted to a higher salary scale.

As of 2006, the status of Excellent Teacher (ET) was introduced for teachers with the highest professional achievements meeting all standards and compensated on principles that went beyond the so-called Upper Pay Scale. In the case of teachers with outstanding professional skills, so-called Advanced Skills

Teachers (ASTs), there was an alternative career path; such teachers could work in managerial and leadership positions or as consultants, supporting other teachers in their work. In order to encourage the best teachers to undertake work in schools with the greatest challenges (low level of education, discipline problems), they were guaranteed an attractive benefits package, including a bonus of £10,000 after three years of work (*New opportunities: Fair chances for the future*, https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/228532/7533.pdf, p. 7, accessed: September 13, 2016).

A promotion to the post of manager in education depended on the structure of employment in the given educational institution, which was different in different schools. Additional tasks in assignments such as head of year in middle school, curriculum coordinator in elementary school, head of key stage, SEN coordinator, or the management of specific operations, e.g., specialist school or extended school, were paid on the basis of Teaching and Learning Responsibility payments, which replaced the system of bonuses for teachers.

4.11. Local Education Authorities

Local education authorities (LEAs) were established in 1902; their task was to open and maintain educational facilities offering free education. Each LEA was managed by the chief education officer of the authority, who was responsible for reports on the state of education in his or her region. His or her superior was the Secretary of State for Education, who appointed and dismissed the heads of Local Education Authorities. Appointed by the Prime Minister, the Secretary of State for Education was responsible to the Parliament of the United Kingdom for the management of the education system and the creation of educational policy.

Under the Act of 1988, the Secretary of State for Education is responsible for implementing the provisions of current reforms and for issuing “regulations requiring particular state schools, LEAs, school authorities, and directors of institutions to deliver, in the prescribed form and at the prescribed time, information and documents relating to their activities, in particular regarding the planned changes” (Pac Meijer, 2012, p. 94). This may involve aspects such as the curriculum of state institutions, availability and quality of education, textbooks for religious education, and the level of students’ achievement.

According to the Education Act of 1996, the Secretary of State oversees the professional development of teachers and controls expenses. He or she announces the start and end of the school year. Moreover, he or she can financially support schools which are independent of the state budget as well as private special schools. He or she also awards grants for educational research. His or her competencies include resolving difficult issues in the area of religious education and considering complaints concerning failure to implement the curriculum.

The Secretary of State also creates regulations regarding the employment of teaching staff, use of school equipment, and collection and storage of school documentation. School visits are conducted by Ofsted (The Office for Standards in Education, Children's Services and Skills), which is a separate government institution. Ofsted's range of operations includes all educational institutions in England apart from higher education. The Education Reform Act of 1988 increased the competencies of LEAs with reference to the award and management of scholarships, grants, and student loans as well as financial support for educational initiatives in state institutions accepting school-age children. The Act of 1988 deprived LEAs of competencies related to higher education; however, they remained responsible for the condition of the buildings of state primary and secondary schools.

4.12. Headmasters and school governing bodies

The head of each school is responsible for its internal organization, management, direction of school work, and compliance with education law, as well as for the organization of school work, management of the staff, and organization of the teaching process. He or she promotes the school in the local community, maintains good relations with the school's social partners, manages the school building and the area around it, and disciplines students.

In 1980, governing bodies were established as legislative bodies in educational institutions funded by the state. The Act of 1988 assigned them tasks and established rules for their functioning. The act gave the governing bodies responsibility for the implementation of the National Curriculum. The governing bodies had the right to apply for a school's temporary exemption from implementation of this Act. Since 1988, governing bodies have managed school budgets and have exerted an influence on the selection of teaching staff. Furthermore, they have determined the number of hours of work of the educational institution and have monitored school sessions.

The governing bodies of the educational institution include persons representing the LEA, parents, teachers, and the headmaster. Members of a governing body are called governors. The number of governors depends on the number of students and the type of educational institution.

The evaluation and reporting system was oriented towards the individual needs and progress of the student. The strategy includes the program known as Assessing Pupils' Progress, or APP, introduced to schools in 2011. Within the framework of the reforms applicable to improving the quality of education, in June 2008, at the initiative of the government, the National Challenge was established. This was a program supporting the assurance of high standards of education in all secondary schools, so that by 2011 at least 30% of pupils in each school would receive a GCSE certificate in a minimum of five subjects.

4.13. The system of compulsory education for children between the ages of 5 to 16 years in England, Wales, and Northern Ireland

In England and Wales, many children start school at age 4. The British education system is characterized by a two-stage division, distinguishing first-degree and second-degree education. Most students make the transition from primary to secondary school at age 11, although in some areas of England, students attend middle school from 8 or 9 to 12 or 13 years of age. Many first-degree secondary schools also conduct education on the level of second-degree secondary education for pupils aged 16 to 18 and above.

In the program of compulsory education in England, four key stages are distinguished. The Early Years Foundation Stage is a basic stage in beginning education for children up to 5 years of age. KS1 is the first key stage of education, for children from 5 to 7. KS2 is the second key stage of education, for children from 7 to 11. KS3 includes children from 11 to 14 years, while the last stage, KS4, is for young people from 14 to 16. In Wales, instead of KS1 there is a Preparatory Phase involving children from 3 to 7. In Northern Ireland, the Preparatory Phase, KS1, and KS2 include children from 4 to 11 years and educate them in their English in terms of reading and writing skills, mathematics, "the world around us," personal development, and mutual understanding and physical education.

The structure of the national curriculum covers English, mathematics, science, and foundation subjects: art and design, citizenship, computing, design and technology, languages, IT, geography, history, music, and physical education. Foundation subjects are taught at KS1, KS2 and KS3. Citizenship, computing, and physical education are taught only at KS4 (https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/381754/SECONDARY_national_curriculum.pdf, accessed: September 13, 2016).

In England and Wales, schools must be open for 190 days a year. Classes are conducted from Monday to Friday. Classes for children aged 5 to 7 years are limited to 30 students. In Wales, this limit also applies to the 7–11 age group. The school itself decides how to organize students in each group. In primary school classes, students usually have different skill levels, but within these classes many teachers divide the students into groups according to ability. In secondary schools, some subjects are usually taught in groups or classes divided according to the ability of students to learn the subject (so-called *setting*). All teachers have to provide suitable conditions for individual work with students, regardless of their level of ability.

At the primary level, the state does not decide on the choice of school textbooks. No reading material is prescribed from the top down. Textbooks are produced by commercial publishers, and the teacher alone decides on the use of appropriate teaching methods and materials. However, at the secondary level there is required reading (e.g. in the field of literature) including items which students must study in order to meet the examination requirements set by the authorities responsible for awarding qualifications.

The Act of 1988 created functioning modern Community Schools, which, prior to the Act, were called County Schools. The LEA authorities are the owners of both the land and school buildings. In addition, they are responsible for the administrative and financial management of the school; they also recruit staff and students.

The second type of schools is Foundation Schools, in which the governing bodies (or a foundation) are the owners of the land and buildings. They manage the school and decide on the employment of teachers and recruitment of students. Some Foundation Schools were grant-maintained schools, with grants awarded by the Secretary of State for Education, or operated under special conditions, according to individual agreements with the LEA under the tutelage of the Secretary of State for Education (special agreement schools).

The third type are voluntary schools run by the Church. These schools include two types: voluntary controlled schools in which the sponsor of the facility is the owner of the buildings and land, while the costs of operation are paid by the LEA. The second type is voluntary aided schools, in which the founder of the institution plays the role of decision-maker and, along with the state, finances school activities and owns the land and buildings. School officials recruit teachers and students.

4.14. Pre-school education

In England and Wales, the Act of 1988 (School Standards and Framework Act), in accordance with changes introduced by the Education Act of 2002, defined pre-school education as full- or part-time education. Classes were conducted in schools or other educational facilities for children who had not yet reached the compulsory school age (the semester after the child's fifth birthday). In 2007/2008 in the United Kingdom (including Scotland), 1.2 million children aged 2 to 4 attended preschools. Care for children from younger than 3 months to 3 years was provided mainly in private and voluntary institutions; the parents of the children were charged. Care of children aged 3 to 5 years is offered in public preschools and preschool divisions of primary schools, as well as in community and private institutions.

In terms of the reform of early childhood education and care for children, the British government published a ten-year strategy for childcare in 2004 (<http://webarchive.nationalarchives.gov.uk/20130401151715/http://www.education.gov.uk/publications/eOrderingDownload/HMT-991151.pdf>, accessed: August 17, 2016). Then it adopted the Childcare Act of 2006 (http://www.legislation.gov.uk/ukpga/2006/21/pdfs/ukpga_20060021_en.pdf, accessed: August 17, 2016), which provided the basis for the creation of the Early Years Foundation Stage (EYFS), introduced in September 2008. In the beginning of 2009, Next Steps for Early Learning and Childcare (<http://dera.ioe.ac.uk/8763/1/00173-2009DOM-EN.pdf>, accessed: August 17, 2016) was published, containing information on progress in relation to the ten-year strategy and proposals for further action. It ensured that by 2015 every employee in early childhood education and childcare would be suitably

qualified, which would expand access to institutions offering free education and care of young children. Moreover, the White Paper *New Opportunities: Fair chances for the future*, dedicated to the topic of social migration, guaranteed an increase in the number of free nursery places for two-year-olds from disadvantaged groups.

In 2007–2010, three revisions of early learning programs were carried out. A report, prepared by pedagogues from Cambridge University, expressed disappointment at the politicization of the curriculum as well as at the excessive emphasis placed “on reading, writing, and arithmetic [...] done at the expense of creative thinking” (Alexander, Fluter, 2009, p. 21).

The curriculum in British schools would change, as Minister Gove said, since it should include only “significant knowledge and understanding thereof, which must be mastered by all children. The remaining part of the decision is left to the teachers to decide, so as to maximize the learning of children” (Potulicka, 2011, p. 34).

Reform of the curriculum for primary school children aged from 5 to 11 was the aim of the Children’s Plan (<http://webarchive.nationalarchives.gov.uk/20130401151715>, accessed: September 30, 2016; http://www.education.gov.uk/publications/eOrderingDownload/Childrens_Plan-1Year.pdf, accessed: August 19, 2016), published in April 2009. It contained recommendations concerning the relationship of the six areas of learning in the Early Years Foundation Stage Framework, a new curriculum for secondary schools, the opportunity to apply knowledge and skills across the curriculum, and wider use of games as methods and techniques of learning and development.

In 2009, a White Paper was published which presented a vision of the government regarding the school of the twenty-first century. In December 2008, with the publication of *Children’s Plan: One Year On* (<http://webarchive.nationalarchives.gov.uk/20130401151715>, accessed: September 30, 2016; <https://www.education.gov.uk/publications/standard/publicationdetail/page1/DCSF-01049-2008>, accessed: May 12, 2014), the government determined additional steps to be taken to support the implementation of the program. Among them were improved recruitment and training of individuals working with children, the cooperation of education with business in order to extend and improve literacy and numeracy, and education for the development of entrepreneurship in terms of targeted support for schools posing the greatest challenges. As a result, greater orientation towards individual learning needs was observed. Moreover, attention was paid to the development of a national system of early intervention to help children with special needs and to support schools in the process of creating a strong and coherent local community.

4.15. Education of students from 16 to 19 years

The document *Parents’ Charter for England and Wales*, published in 1991 and updated in 1994, “designated the rights and duties of parents regarding co-operation in the education of children” (Průcha, 2006, p. 256). The document

directed the school to send all parents written information, at least once a year, about the progress of their child's learning, and introduced the requirement to inform parents about the results of inspections of educational institutions by supervisory authorities. The document also provided information comparing particular schools, in order to inform parents about the range of subjects taught to 16-year-old children, and about the school's responsibilities and attainment targets. The scope of cooperation between schools, parents, and the local community took on the character of "schools without borders" or "schools reaching out."

In 1991, to promote the efficient and flexible education of young people 16–19 years of age as well as adults, the government introduced the Further and Higher Education Act. This Act linked UDACE with the Further Education Unit, or FEU. This ended a period of adult education as general education, and initiated the teaching of necessary skills related to social life, with a special emphasis on retraining and obtaining the professional qualifications desired by the labor market.

No government initiatives in the years 1981–1987 in the field of adult education produced the intended results. The White Paper of 1988 marked the return to training employees depending on market demands and the opinions of the employers themselves, because the government wanted the cost of this training to be paid by the employers. The underfinancing of education meant that the opinions of androgogues were not taken into consideration in this matter. Only large companies, fearing the competitiveness of the major world markets, were interested in further training of employees. They offered a new culture in the workplace by raising the skill levels of their employees in literacy and numeracy along with levels of morality and motivation. This influenced better relations among employees. Among the first companies creating a program to support its workers was the Ford Motor Company in 1987.

In 1982, the University of the Third Age, the first such university in England, was created. Schools of this type, which benefited indirectly from public and partly private funds, offered various levels of teaching. The idea of Universities of the Third Age found its place in Poland at almost all universities.

4.16. Neoliberalism and universities

In 1979, when Margaret Thatcher assumed power, the cult of neoliberal ideology began, supporting competition, entrepreneurship, and individualization in the field of adult education. This was the result of the deep-rooted ideology of liberalism in the Anglo-Saxon world. The undeniable legacy of neoliberalism influenced the direction of countries and restricted the political decisions of the successors of Thatcher and Reagan. Tony Blair and Bill Clinton, having no political alternative, continued the policy of neoliberalism in government. Thus, the social democracy of this period "sold its soul to the neoliberal devil and became a soft version of neoliberalism" (Bihr, 2008, p. 19).

A clash of two ideologies—the ideology of equality and neoliberal ideology—took place in the highly-developed countries of the world, including the Scandinavian countries, as famously portrayed by Thomas Gmerek, who said that “the ideology of equality works only at the level of compulsory school, whereas in higher education it gives way to neoliberal ideology” (Gmerek, 2005, pp. 136–141). In England, the neoliberal ideology is omnipresent at every stage of education, providing students with a better education (law or medicine) and a future of well-paid jobs for wealthy individuals who have attended public schools. Children from low-status working-class families follow a difficult career path in grammar or modern schools. The ideology of neoliberalism “masks the pursuit of global liberalism by using flowery words describing freedom of choice, freedom of action, and human rights” (Potulicka, Rutkowiak, 2010, p. 283).

The market subordinates social relationships, creates a culture of entrepreneurship, and penetrates individuals’ time and space of life along with intimate areas of their souls. In tandem with corporate greed, it contributes to fraud on a massive scale. We observe a tendency towards “privatizing profits and socializing costs” (Artus, Virard, 2008, p. 111). A contagious, corporate culture of greed emerged on such a large scale that “no representative of the world of finance could imagine breaking his bad habits” (Potulicka, Rutkowiak, 2010, p. 285). The form of ethics known as the culture of money was born, putting the free market on a pedestal, permitting economic and social inequalities, and glorifying neo-Darwinism with its social consequences, enabling the success of those best prepared for life in post-modernity. Competitive business trends are gradually migrating to universities and turning them into competitive businesses. In terms of the free market, we treat knowledge as a commodity. The university implements the theses of capitalism, pursuing a policy of educating the work force. Corporations, through influencing governments, indirectly shape their education policies in the area of the education of future employees, controlling objectives, methods, and ways of learning. In a situation where education is subordinated to neoliberal ideology, an academic teacher becomes a “transmitter of knowledge and skills desired by employers” (Melosik, 2002, p. 86). As a result, corporations receive an educated pragmatist with a university degree, and want him to understand the principles of the free market and demonstrate his flexibility and elasticity of mind in achieving the objectives set by his employers.

The basis of university education is becoming subordinated to the law of the neoliberal market, which permits the incorporation of the values of corporate culture into academic culture. This leads to a semblance of scientificity and to a struggle for money, which is reflected in the quality of teaching and which influences a decline in the level of knowledge of graduates. On the other hand, in the UK, graduates of elite universities paying tribute to conservative ideology still have no problem finding employment. As the Christian educator John Henry Newman wrote, the most useful institution is one which cares for the “general intellectual culture” (Newman, 1990, p. 186). Newman draws attention to education in the spirit of humanism and humanity, along with the development of courage in the implementation of previous plans, resoluteness in overcoming difficulties, and precision in writing and speaking.

As a result of the above-mentioned ideological educational project, the marketing of universities has contributed to limiting their autonomy. This has led to excessive bureaucracy, leading to a commitment to quantity rather than quality. Globalization forces universities to fight for tuition-paying students and to see this as a correction of their financial situation. Noam Chomsky observed the dishonesty in the politics of neoliberal governments and communities and spoke of the necessity for the educated citizens of the world to unmask it. University professors, whom “we call intellectuals, are just those who happen to have substantial opportunity. They have privilege, they have resources, they have training” (Chomsky, http://www.artsandopinion.com/2007_v6_n6/chomsky-4.htm, p. 1, accessed: September 3, 2016). Their social role thus appears to consist of the ability to analyze the public sphere and to make critical judgments about social reality.

4.17. Summary

The Education Act of 1944 introduced compulsory education at the primary and secondary stages to British education. It created the three-way education system, which enabled all students to learn, taking into account the principle of equality of opportunity in obtaining the GCE certificate. However, the system was not entirely fair, as it depended on the financial resources of the family and the child’s intellectual capacity.

It is worth mentioning, then—evoking the end of the 1960s and beginning of the 1970s with nostalgia—what Hargreaves and Shirley call

[...] the “first way” of educational change. This was an age of significant investment in public education, a high degree of professional autonomy and discretion in selecting and designing curriculum, and passive trust from parents who left teachers alone to get on with the job (Hargreaves, Shirley, 2012, p. 6).

The period was characterized by the flourishing of progressive education with wide autonomy for the professional teacher and a high level of innovation in his or her choice of teaching methods. The child and its development and education were at the center of attention. The Conservative Party claimed that

[...] socialist policies had ignored traditional values and stifled the important characteristics of individual achievement and entrepreneurship. The stress on equality had been at the expense of competitiveness and the developing welfare state had created a culture of dependency and conformity (Bartlett, Burton, 2012, p. 201).

The “second way” of educational change was observed in the UK and in the USA in the era of Thatcher and Reagan. The reform of 1988 was a return to elementary education and was linked with the social stratification that had prevailed in British society for centuries. In the 1960s, Robert Lowe, director of the Department of Education, stated that “[...] [t]he primary school is designed for people

who are unable to pay for their education. We have no intention of giving children an education which would raise them above the status and occupation of their parents" (Hessen, 1959, p. 11). Education would thus seem to serve corporations as commercial organizations and to develop the work force.

The changes planned in the UK in the period 1988–2010 concerning the work of teachers did not bring the intended results, because the reformers did not take into account the active participation of teachers in planning educational changes. The conservative-neoliberal Conservative Party governments introduced minimum standards and the principles of free market economy to education, resulting in uncertainty about employment in schools. The changes meant that teachers found themselves on the way to becoming "technicians," whose task was to achieve precisely defined goals. The freedom to make their own decisions, a characteristic feature of autonomous professionals, was limited.

In England, the National Curriculum was described as "a serial killer" in regard to the demands it made upon teachers (Day, 1999, p. 156). Teachers who did not attend extra conferences could not be professionals because they could not cope with challenges or threats. This was especially significant in the British schools of that time as a result of immigration, the phenomenon of multiculturalism, and deepening social, ethnic, cultural, and religious inequalities. Moreover, the problems of drugs and violence grew steadily in the schools.

The situation became aggravated during a period of economic competition and increasingly competitive global markets, leading to the emergence of market-oriented educational services, in which educational goals were treated as a production target. These goals and learning outcomes would have had to be defined at the outset and included in the standards. The quality of teaching was defined and then checked on the basis of learning outcomes, which indicated the efficiency and effectiveness of teaching and thus the effectiveness of the teacher's work. In this situation, parents and students were considered consumers of educational services, whereas schools were seen as production units whose results regulated the choices of the consumer. Parents' choices of schools were related to "the results obtained by the school" (Elliott, 1993, p. 54).

Consequently, neoliberal policies in British schools have contributed to competition and the imposition of free-market values in schools. At the same time, in the face of economic crises, funds allotted for education have declined, which has contributed in turn to the deterioration of teaching and learning conditions. Financial self-sufficiency and ideological subordination have become realities for schools and teachers. Professor Eugenia Potulicka has called the reforms applied to early childhood education in England a harmful change, due to "the political aspect which dominated the pedagogical aspect [while] academic achievements in education were ignored by its creators" (Potulicka, 2011, p. 35). The statement of this researcher should be applied to almost all stages of British education, given that in neoliberal education, the unceasing creative work of teachers, subordinated to teaching for tests, cannot be implemented on the level of an appropriate teacher-student relationship.

CHAPTER 5

The educational policy of the governments of Tony Blair, Gordon Brown, and David Cameron in the light of sociopolitical changes

5.1. The political leadership of the Labour Party in the years 1997–2007

Political leadership in Britain is linked with the principles of the political system, one significant element of which is the function of the Prime Minister. Following elections, the Prime Minister becomes the head of government and advisor to the queen. The Prime Minister also retains the position of leader of the ruling party, giving him or her unlimited power over the choice of posts in the party. The Prime Minister takes over the “actual prerogatives of the monarch in the resolution of Parliament, and also takes part in the execution of the monarch’s prerogatives relating to the granting of titles (appointment of peers)” (Gołembski, Biskup, Kaczorowska, Lewandowski (eds), 2011, p. 95). The principle of the supremacy of Parliament determines the role of party leaders in the UK. As a result, a parliamentary majority “forms the government and the cabinet led by the prime minister. This bears a particular importance in a situation where the monarch is devoid of real power, serving only ceremonial and representative functions” (Gołembski, Biskup, Kaczorowska, Lewandowski (eds), 2011, p. 96). Parliament “is considered the most important decision-making state forum, which is developed through a political mechanism [...] the division of power between the ruling party and the opposition” (Zięba, 1994, p. 38).

The Prime Minister plays one of the most important roles in the country: he or she determines and is responsible for state policy. The twenty-first century began under the influence of the conservative ideology of two charismatic prime ministers of the twentieth: Winston Churchill and Margaret Thatcher. Both were initiators of

major changes in the domestic and foreign policy of the country. One of the most prominent political figures in Britain at the turn of the last century was Tony Blair. This left-wing politician represented the new generation, characterized by a new system of values corresponding to the conditions of post-industrial society.

In the elections of May 1, 1997, the Labour Party defeated the Conservative Party and gained 197 seats in the House of Commons. Blair, who took over the reins of power from the Conservatives led by John Major, was one of those Labour Party representatives who sought new forms of political action in relation to the contemporary requirements of social life and better solutions for the new situation of the UK in Europe and the world. Blair, then the 43-year-old leader of his party, was one of the youngest prime ministers in the history of Great Britain. The Labour Party won the next two elections in 2001 and 2005, enabling Blair to become the longest-ruling Labour Party prime minister in British history. He did not intend to make big changes. He wanted to adapt "social expectations to the real possibilities of fulfilling them within the Labour tradition" (Gołembski, Biskup, Kaczorowska, Lewandowski (eds), 2011, p. 21). He led the nation to the fusion of market mechanisms occurring during the rule of Prime Minister Margaret Thatcher with state social protection. Under the Labour Party banner, he directed developments in accordance with the slogans of social justice. In these political and social conditions, traditional socialism was combined with liberal ideas, leading to the creation of a special "amalgam, which is called social liberalism" (Gołembski, Biskup, Kaczorowska, Lewandowski (eds), 2011, p. 35).

At the turn of the century, significant changes were seen in British society and in the relationship between the country's domestic and foreign policy. There were still two dominant political parties in the British system: the Conservative Party and the Labour Party. Significant changes took place in the structure of society, with a decrease in the number of blue-collar workers and a corresponding increase in the number of white-collar workers.

5.2. The cultural revolution during the Tony Blair era

Many cultural changes that have occurred in the UK are identical in significance to the transformations taking place in the societies of other Western countries. The disappearance of values comprising tradition and identity was observed in Europe in the second half of the twentieth century. This period was strongly influenced by the global economy, the sexual revolution, and democratization of tastes. Culture, pop music, and satellite TV helped "to erase the sense of spiritual identity in every place in which piety was supported by the old forms of knowledge and local customs reinforced a feeling of moral sense (Scruton, 2006a, p. 246).

An ideological "mixture of ideas, opinions, moods and emotions from 1968" (Gołembski, Biskup, Kaczorowska (eds), 2010, p. 51) resulted in a "generation of '68" paying tribute to ideas of equality, feminism, freedom, and drugs. The

common denominator of the youth of those times was hostility to the existing society. The young generation strove to liberate individuals from the rule of custom, morality, economics, the state, and everything that imposed restrictions on the public. The efforts of the generation of '68 were visible in free behavior and in rock music, which cultivated the praise of instinct.

Over the past fifty years British people have seen how everything typically English has fallen victim to destruction and mockery. They have seen how all of the fumes coming from the gutters of America—disgusting entertainment, degenerate pop music, feminism and “political correctness”—pollute their country. They have seen how rottenness devours their decent manners and customs. They have seen how migrants colonize parts of their country, and how under the current law they are unable to freely express themselves on the consequences of this fact (Paxman, 2009, p. 19).

The changes in society were best illustrated by the UK's occupation of “first place in terms of the number of divorces in the EU” (Paxman, 2009, p. 52). The scale of changes and moral decline in British society could be seen at the funeral of Princess Diana, where people “brought up in the older traditions were amazed, perplexed, even hurt hearing pop songs at the funeral and seeing the mourners, who at one time were drenched in tears, yet after a while took pictures of the funeral procession” (Hitchens, 2000, p. 296). Thus Peter Hitchens, comparing the funeral of Princess Diana to the funeral of Winston Churchill in 1965, highlighted the visible social changes. A society previously bound to patterns of behavior which were restrained in the show of emotion, reacted during this funeral like “a crowd prone to hysterical elation, empty gestures and shallow sentimentality” (Gołembski, Biskup, Kaczorowska (eds), 2010, p. 48). Hitchens claimed that “the media and television has created an image of endless entertainment, an increase in access to drugs and the expansion of the area of sexual freedom” (Hitchens, 2000, p. 296). The described cultural context influenced changes in education policy and the family model and created the dominant cultural code in the electronic media. These trends and ideologies favored the political activities of the Labour Party.

5.3. Detraditionalization in conservative terms

It is impossible to discuss education policy without paying attention to the problems facing the modern world. “The state of British society can be described as detraditionalization” (Gołembski, Biskup, Kaczorowska (eds), 2010, p. 310). The term refers to links with the past and to the preservation and transmission of something, as well as to the content of what is preserved and transmitted. To enable continuity between the generations, the older generation should “feel a duty to preserve and transfer heritage, and the younger generation should show its willingness to inherit it” (Gołembski, Biskup, Kaczorowska (eds), 2010, p. 310). This continuity of tradition is needed to preserve the identity of each individual and to preserve the cohesion of society.

Tradition “builds a picture of the individual in his or her own eyes as a part of a larger social organism” (Gołembski, Biskup, Kaczorowska (eds), 2010, p. 310). Detraditionalization applies to various aspects of social life: family, school, religion, mass culture, and the degeneration of democracy. The above-mentioned transmission of traditional values takes place within the family. One of the hallmarks of modern conservatism is the recognition of the family as a value in and of itself. It is no longer seen as a by-product of faith, but as an intrinsic goal, the source and not the fruit of common values. The creators of conservative thought placed the family on a pedestal, and family values were considered priorities. A good example of this approach is “the transformation of European monarchy into the ‘royal family’” (Scruton, 2003, p. 70). However, in most Western European countries, including Britain, a threat to the institution of the family has been observed. The disappearance of loyalty and piety is a feature of late-twentieth-century society. The attitude of rejection—the so-called avoidance of commitment in relationships—manifests itself in the increasing number of divorces and pervasive promiscuity. In the era of feminism, the family is condemned due to an increasing reluctance to subordinate women to men. The ubiquitous cultural climate is unfavorable to the family.

The battle waged in the name of the emancipation of the individual intensified at the end of the twentieth century with the dissemination of the idea of a great cultural transformation, consisting of “a transition from affirmation to rejection of inherited values” (Scruton, 2003, p. 71). In recent years, the climate of the family has been categorized in terms of power, i.e., identified with the power of parents over children and men over women. The media coverage which comes from “the environment of academics and opinion-makers is feminist, anti-patriarchal and against the tradition of sexual prohibitions with respect to abortion, homosexuality and extramarital sex” (Scruton, 2003, p. 72).

Accordingly, men and women in the UK can live independently, without exposing themselves to social aversion. Unmarried cohabiting couples are not socially excluded; moreover, gay couples can create shared homes and raise children (<https://www.bu.edu/today/2013/gay-parents-as-good-as-straight-ones/>, accessed: September 17, 2016). In all types of families, emotional communication and the ability to actively create and maintain relationships have become the fundamental skills determining the quality of personal and family life. Legal freedom renders subjects concerning the traditional family obsolete in contemporary schools, thus requiring different educational solutions.

Ulrich Beck and Elisabeth Beck-Gernsheim present the nature of troubled personal relationships, marriages, and patterns of family life against the background of worldwide changes. Globalization and competition in the labor market cause conflicts of interest in family, love, and work, as well as in the free pursuit of individual goals. Not only men, as in the past, but women as well are looking for ways to further their professional interests. The result is a huge number of divorces, and a consequent increase in the number of mothers and fathers raising children alone. As the result of the disintegration of relationships there is stress. Related to the breakup of relationships, lack of emotional support from a parent,

and the typical problems of adolescence, this stress creates conflicts in schools attended by young Britons, leading to truancy and misbehavior. Children are becoming more sensitive, demanding, selfish, and aggressive, while parents fail to see the connection between lack of discipline and children's behavior.

Religious, ethnic, and cultural diversity requires the state to support distinct cultures and to understand behavior and religions, as well as the fusion of the multicultural aspirations of students into one whole within the school. This is a major challenge for educational policy. The detraditionalization of the school and the family is linked with British multiculturalism. This idea refers to the wave of immigrants and their characteristic high birth rate. Over the past twenty years the social system of England, characterized by the division of class, has been transformed into a multicultural society which has increasingly less in common.

5.4. The most important achievements of David Blunkett, Secretary of State for Education and Employment, 1997–2001

Following eighteen years of Conservative Party rule, in 1997 the government was taken over by the Labour Party. The political initiatives of this party could be found in the center of educational changes, which included raising educational standards with the intention of promoting a better-educated workforce. This, as a result, enabled the UK to compete economically with other regions of the world. Well-educated workers and employers were supposed to contribute to British prosperity and competitiveness in the international arena.

Blair's party continued the neoliberal policy in the field of education. Taking into consideration the globalization of the economy and of social life, British politicians noted the need to consider the essential links between the labor market and education in the field of investment in human capital. "Much emphasis was placed on creating an educational system fit for the twenty-first century" (Abbott, Rathbone, Whitehead, 2013, p. 132).

From the Conservative Party, the New Labour Party inherited poverty and social inequality at the highest level in the postwar history of the country, which had led to a decrease in benefits of the welfare state, as well as in the level of educational investment, during the term of Prime Minister Margaret Thatcher. Moreover, there were more single parents raising children, which resulted in an increase in the percentage of children at risk for poverty. In 1997 the New Labour Party stressed the importance of education in this regard.

5.4.1. Social solutions and pro-family policy of the Labour Party

The Labour Party, wishing to emphasize its authority and its expectations regarding the role and the method of education of the young generation, introduced in 1997 the New Deal for Lone Parents (<http://www.ijull.co.uk/vol7/2/mccullock.pdf>,

p. 1, accessed: September 30, 2016), which was supposed to help single parents return to work. Jobcentre Plus, an employment office, was established for parents (of children under sixteen) who worked less than 16 hours a week or were unemployed. The position of personal adviser was established, in order to help such people to find employment and prepare relevant documents. This adviser calculated funding for training, travel expenses, and childcare. Those who had received Income Support or a Jobseeker's Allowance were granted various amenities: a Child Maintenance Bonus, Mortgage Interest Run-on, or Housing Benefit Run-on (Pac Meijer, 2012, p. 236).

In the face of obvious educational inequality, the Labour Party introduced financial solutions designed to support education. In 1999 it introduced the universal Child Benefit (http://www.revenuebenefits.org.uk/pdf/Research_paper_98_79_Child_Benefit_House_of_Commons_Library_July_1998.pdf, accessed: September 16, 2016), paid, with supplements, to low-income parents for each child under the age of sixteen. If the child continued its education after the age of sixteen, benefits could potentially be extended. All foreigners coming from European Union countries and working legally in the UK were able to use the Child Benefit granted to the child's legal guardian. In justified cases the benefit could be sent electronically. For cohabiting couples, the benefit was paid into their bank account every month, while in the case of single parents it could be paid every week.

In 1998, Family Credit was introduced to support the care and education of children from high-risk groups and children in need of the support of specialists. To facilitate the use of the benefit, the Working Families Tax Credit was introduced the following year. Its essential element was "relief for child care (Childcare Tax Credit), which was subject to the National Strategy for Child Welfare" (Pac Meijer, 2012, p. 235). This relief covered individuals who worked at least 16 hours a week and had children under the age of 14, or up to 16 in the case of children with special educational needs. Also in 1998, the Home Secretary published the document *Supporting Families*, which included guidance on the available forms of grants for families receiving budget money and how to obtain them, as well as information concerning the areas of literacy and numeracy for working parents with children at home. The authors presented contemporary problems of British families, showing as well how grandparents could help parents support their children in terms of learning and education. The document took into account many problems such as truancy, school exclusions, and implementation and enforcement of discipline in the home, as well as tackling teenage parenthood and domestic violence.

With the objective of supporting parents involved in *Supporting Families*, another initiative, Parent Network (<http://naturalparentsnetwork.com/>, accessed: September 16, 2016), was created, as well as courses in which parents learned to negotiate within the family, to develop assertiveness, and to build their parental competence. The premise of the program was to equip parents with skills in directing the upbringing and teaching of children and in supporting them at every stage of life in achieving their educational goals and in the pursuit of their own interests.

The consequences of the *Supporting Families* document (<https://ore.exeter.ac.uk/repository/bitstream/handle/10036/22233/jswflart.pdf?sequence=1>, accessed: September 16, 2016) were additional pro-family initiatives on the part of the government: Early Excellence Centers, Early Years Development, Childcare Partnership (<http://www.nfer.ac.uk/publications/91071/91071.pdf>, accessed: September 16, 2016) (1998), Health Action Zones (1997), and Education Action Zones (1998). These initiatives were essential components of the pro-family policy and served as examples of the successful policy of Blair's government.

Within the framework of the pro-family policy, "Helping Families Balance Work and Home Work" (*Supporting Families: A Consultation Document*, <http://www.nationalarchives.gov.uk/ERORecords/HO/421/2/P2/ACU/sfpages.pdf>, accessed: September 30, 2016), the Blair government established the Work-Life Balance Challenge Fund (https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/220239/health-work-wellbeing-challenge-fund.pdf, accessed: September 17, 2016), which enabled a free consultation for employers concerning the creation within firms of environments supporting employees with small children. This was justified by the argument that there is a close relationship between extended working hours and the symptoms of physical and mental illness in workers. Individuals working according to the hours most suitable for themselves are more motivated and involved at their jobs. Moreover, employees are healthier if they have flexibility and choice in their patterns of work.

Through the "Fair framework of family-friendly employee rights/Fairness at work" program, the government enabled parents to obtain amenities in regard to working hours, including obtaining leave in connection with family difficulties. Employers were encouraged to create an environment facilitating parents' care of their children as well as "the introduction of forms of employment tailored to the needs of employees, taking into account their availability, and preferences regarding time, place, and professional duties" (Pac Meijer, 2012, p. 227).

In 2000, Lloyds Bank introduced the first program ensuring all its employees of a personalized Work Options Scheme. All employees participating in the program were guaranteed the right to individual principles of employment, and were given a choice of one of the following: job sharing, working from home, flexible work hours, reduced working hours, or seasonal employment.

5.4.2. Organizational solutions favorable to changes in British education

The New Labour Party did not anticipate increasing state spending on education and expansion of school infrastructure. The key factors of the reform were organizational changes, encompassing the functioning of the school, the role of headmasters, and the system of motivating teachers. One of the most important innovations was related to selection of methods of work in the classroom and the creation of a leadership role for headmasters. Moreover, the government took truancy into account. "Truancy and exclusion were to be reduced by one-third

by 2002 and from 2002 all pupils excluded for more than 15 days would receive full-time education" (Walraven, Parsons, van Veen, Day (eds), 2000, p. 90).

The introduction of the "European Strategy to Prevent and Tackle School Bullying" was suggested. "[T]hree main approaches to anti-bullying in UK schools—proactive, peer support, and reactive strategies—were involved" (http://iamnot-scared.pixel-online.org/files/strategy_european/EuropeanStrategy_EN_doc.pdf, p. 6, accessed: September 15, 2016).

Wishing to reduce violence, the Ministry of Education offered materials and advice for schools via the website Teachernet (<http://www.teachernet.gov.pl>, accessed: September 16, 2016), and made available publications for improving student behavior at school (*School Behaviour and Attendance*, Department for Education, www.dfes.gov.uk, accessed: September 16, 2016).

5.4.3. Education Management

In the area of education management, the pressure and support of the central and local education authorities are necessary to improve the development of individual schools. This requires broad-based cooperation between the Local Education Authorities (LEAs), Office for Standard in Education (Ofsted), the Department for Education and Employment (DfEE), and schools (<http://www.educationengland.org.uk/documents/wp1997/excellence-in-schools.html>, pp. 1–2, accessed: September 16, 2016).

The Education Reform Act of 1988 (http://www.legislation.gov.uk/ukpga/1988/40/pdfs/ukpga_19880040_en.pdf, accessed: September 17, 2016), introduced the obligation to promote, through the Local Education Authorities (LEAs), the highest educational standards in primary and secondary schools. Two external methods of checking students' progress in learning were planned. Schools responsible for the intellectual development of students were subjected to Ofsted inspection at least once every six months. Between inspections, supervision of schools were monitored by LEAs, which were to check objective information about student results (analysis of the latest tests and comparison of the results of the audited school with other schools). When the goals set by the school proved to be sufficiently ambitious and were supported by the success of students, the LEA was to take no steps. LEAs were to appear in schools achieving the lowest rates in the region and to analyze the various types of shortcomings, then conduct an interview with the headmaster to offer assistance in the form of advisory and support services. A school which received a warning would be obliged to write a plan of action. The lack of a positive response from the school would result in an invitation to the Office for Standard in Education (Ofsted) to conduct an inspection in compliance with the national standards set by the DfEE (Department for Education and Employment). Flaws of all kinds were to be eliminated by additional governors directed to educational institutions by Ofsted. The commitment of human and financial resources from the LEAs was intended to contribute to the attainment of the planned objectives and to raise educational standards.

The second major change was the establishment of the Standards and Effectiveness Unit within the DfEE as an integral part of the Department's Schools Directorate.

[...] the Unit will challenge LEAs and schools about their endeavors to raise standards, learn from their experience, question their assumptions, and inform them about examples of best practice. It will be staffed by a combination of civil servants and successful practitioners from schools, local authorities and other educational organizations (*Excellence in Schools*, <http://www.educationengland.org.uk/documents/wp1997/excellence-in-schools.html>, p. 32, accessed: September 15, 2016).

LEAs were to prepare an Education Development Plan for their area, to be approved by the Secretary of State for Education and Employment. The plan included proposals for raising the quality of teaching in educational institutions, thereby elevating educational standards. Each school was required to prepare a plan of its policies (behavior policy) on dealing with harassment of students at school. LEAs also required schools to draw up financial reports for external audit.

The Education Reform Act of 1988 introduced new categories of schools, such as grant-maintained schools, enabling the transformation of these institutions into community schools, foundation schools, community special schools, voluntary controlled schools, and voluntary aided schools. To make the process of conversion run smoothly, the government made the procedures for opening, modifying, and closing schools much easier. It also allowed some students to continue at the secondary level in further education schools.

A feature of the educational policy of Blair's predecessors, i.e., Thatcher and Major, was the creation of various secondary schools tailored to the requirements of the labor market. Blair's educational policy was a continuation of neoliberal policies, responding to the challenges of globalization in the areas of employment and the economy and adapting education to the needs of the labor market. In 1999, David Blunkett and Tony Blair announced the plan, scheduled for 2002, of opening "800 specialist schools" (Abbott, Rathbone, Whitehead, 2013, p. 142). These schools recruited 10% of their students based on their abilities in the field in question.

In 2001, under the influence of Andrew Adonis, known as the architect of the educational reforms of this period, the government considered the creation of local academies, to be run by private individuals or businessmen, with partial financing of expenses by the taxpayers. This transformation of secondary education clearly demonstrates the politicization of the education system. The knowledge-based economy is a determining factor in the choices by pupils and their parents of educational paths and secondary schools. The strategy of improving the situation in schools through the use of choices and competition between educational institutions derives from the neoliberal educational ideology of the Blair government. In the era of omnipresent globalization, the linking of this strategy with the country's increasing competitiveness in the international arena can be seen in the raising of educational standards which, at all stages of education, are then identical to the categories of the market. The fierce competition between

students and between schools has become the most powerful force affecting the behavior of students, teachers, and parents.

As Blair expressed it in a speech:

Today we compete in the era of global markets, and I say this to our Conservative opponents. There is no future for Britain as a low-wage, low-skill, low-technology economy. We will compete on the basis of quality or not at all. This means a stable economy, long-term investment, the enterprise of our people set free (Blair, <http://www.britishpoliticalspeech.org/speech-archive.htm?speech=202>, accessed: August 25, 2016).

If we are given a second term to serve this country, our mission will be the renewal of our public services. There is nothing more important to making Britain a fairer and stronger country. Our top priority was, is and always will be education, education, education. To overcome decades of neglect and make Britain a learning society, developing the talents and raising the ambitions of all our young people. At a good school children gain the basic tools for life and work (Blair, <http://www.theguardian.com/politics/2001/may/23/labour.tonyblair>, accessed: August 25, 2016).

By mimicking the ethos, discipline and unwavering concentration on standards seen in the best state and private schools, not for the middle class, but for pupils in failing schools, Labour was trying to show the poorest also deserve the best educational opportunities (Diamond, Kenny (eds), 2011, p. 181).

5.4.4. The changing competencies of headmasters

On the strength of the Act of 1988, the Conservative Party introduced the option for a school to reject the educational sovereignty of local authorities through a return to selective schools and control of the differentiation process within the school system. As a result of systematic reductions in spending on education, locally managed schools became an element of the free-market educational policy. Z. Kwieciński summed it up: "The market acts absolutely, blindly, and with very short perspective" (Bogaj (ed.), 1997, p. 35).

In terms of the work of school headmasters, there was a shift in the responsibility of running the school from educational to financial-economic-managerial responsibility. The increased power of the headmaster in management brought him closer to the role of manager and limited the time spent playing the role of "best professional." The headmasters' activities were seen by teachers as a direct threat to their competencies; moreover, they resulted in lesser involvement on the part of their superiors in their careers. Belief in professionalism was often diminished by top-down changes and visits, and the growing role of management, concurrent with intensification of professional life and reduction of financial resources, created barriers to finding time for reflection and planning of work. Changes in the rights of headmasters and in promotions for British teachers, which will be discussed later, met with resistance from teachers, because they introduced divisions and undermined their professional mission.

The Council for Education was established on the strength of the Teaching and Higher Education Act of 1998 (<http://www.legislation.gov.uk/ukpga/1998/30/>

pdfs/ukpga_19980030_en.pdf, accessed: September 17, 2016). Schools for teacher training underwent inspection by Her Majesty's Inspectors. To improve the position of teachers as a professional group, a General Teaching Council was appointed for England and Wales. It was intended to play an advisory role in relation to the Secretary for Education and Employment in the course of work on educational standards and rules for the recruitment of teachers to work in the profession. The Council was also responsible for planning the professional development of teachers and the principles for their punishment and expulsion from the profession.

5.4.5. Changes in the field of early childhood education

In the field of early childhood education, the government saw a correlation between education and its foundation, obtained through integration of the learning process, starting with the childcare policy. The quality of preschool and primary education influences a child's achievement at the age of 16, as well as a wide range of social skills. In May 1997, in order to attain real progress vis-à-vis the challenges of the twenty-first century, the government announced national targets for the desired performance of eleven-year-olds in the two most important subjects. The plan called for students of this age to reach, by 2002, "80% in English and 75% in mathematics according to the standards expected for their age" (White Paper: *Excellence in Schools* (1997), <http://www.educationengland.org.uk/documents/wp1997/excellence-in-schools.html>, p. 20, accessed: September 17, 2016).

The National Literacy Strategy was introduced in 1997 (*National Literacy Strategy*, http://www.pgce.soton.ac.uk/ict/NewPGCE/IWB/PNS/content/downloads/publications/literacy/h_o/nls_reviewresearch_nlsrr.pdf, accessed: September 16, 2016). A literacy coordinator and a school governor responsible for teaching reading and writing were chosen in every primary school. Because there were problems not only with children and adolescents, but adults as well, adult literacy clinics were introduced. In addition, plans for education for the next century were developed, dependent on the needs of children and the different stages of their development, as well as the needs, character, and ethos of the given school.

With a view to improving education in the field of numeracy, the National Numeracy Strategy (https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/175408/DFE-00032-2011.pdf, accessed: September 17, 2016) was introduced in 1998. It encouraged schools to develop their own approach in mathematics education, with an emphasis on all students in classes which "emphasize[d] daily class teaching and regular homework" (Abbott, Rathbone, Whitehead, 2013, p. 140). The goal of this strategy was to achieve with a group of eleven-year-olds, prior to 2002, 75% of the points in a national mathematics test where the 1996 result had been 54%. In 1999 "the government set targets for levels of achievement in maths for each local authority in England" (Abbott, Rathbone, Whitehead, 2013, p. 140).

The school year 1998/99 was named the National Year of Reading. Parents, employers, schools, and local libraries contributed to an increase in the level of basic skills in reading and writing (literacy) (White Paper: *Excellence in Schools* (1997), <http://www.educationengland.org.uk/documents/wp1997/excellence-in-schools.html>, p. 23, accessed: September 17, 2016).

The changing standards in the acquisition of these skills was to depend not only on effective teaching methods, but also on the involvement of parents and other community members. In order to develop and enhance reading and writing (literacy) and counting (numeracy) skills for pupils aged between 7 and 11, tests were prepared to check the degree of mastery of these three basic skills.

5.4.6. Education Action Zones

David Blunkett brought about the creation of Education Action Zones (http://www2.cytanet.com.cy/fanerom-dim/zep/EAZ_and_ZEP_a_comparison.pdf, accessed: September 17, 2016) to support the educational goals of schools. Zones were usually created in areas characterized by high levels of social deprivation and the greatest educational challenges. Their task was to find effective ways to help schools to achieve educational goals. The initiative was carried out with the support of parents and the local community. It also took into consideration the characteristics of the areas included in the zone. Zones could be supported by entrepreneurs, local authorities, and church organizations, which were combined to form an Action Forum.

A typical zone had a limited territorial scope. It could support two or three secondary schools, primary schools, and special education institutions, and could accept a maximum of twenty schools. For a zone to function, the Action Forum was supposed to apply to the Secretary for Education for designation of the zone. Educational Action was supposed to operate for three years; however, it was possible to apply for an extension of the work period for two more years. At the time, it operated according to the specific objectives prepared by the Action Forum. All schools participating in Educational Action achieved their particular goals. The Action Forum assembled an annual report on its activities. Grants were given to educational institutions ensuring an extended work day and involving parents in the teaching of individual subjects and help for children in doing homework, as well as providing training for teachers. Each zone could receive up to £1 million, of which the Government committed £750,000; the remaining money came from sponsors. By the end of 2000, 73 Education Action Zones had been created (OECD, <http://www.oecd.org/unitedkingdom/>, accessed: September 17, 2016).

5.4.7. Collecting data about students

The Act of 1996 introduced the obligation to collect data about students in the National Public Database. In 1999, every young person received a Unique Pupil Number (UPN), an individual identification number which

[...] identifies each pupil attending a maintained school in England [...]. [T]he UPN is generated using a nationally specified formula and is expected to remain with a pupil "throughout their school career regardless of any change in school/academy or local authority (LA)" (Unique Pupil Numbers [UPN], a guide for schools and local authorities, September 2013, https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/270560/Unique_Pupil_Numbers_-_guidance.pdf, p. 4, accessed: September 26, 2016).

Prior to issuance of the Act, aggregated rather than individual data was used in schools. The student database is used by the Ministry of Education (Department for Education, or DfE) to shape educational policy, monitor the performance of the educational system, and to provide statistics and information. It also enables monitoring of the educational career of each student and transmission of feedback to the local authorities and educational institutions (http://www.eurydice.org.pl/sites/eurydice.org.pl/files/systemy_gromadzenia.pdf, accessed: September 26, 2016). The base is used to calculate contextualized value added, or CVA, which is needed to compare the results of individual schools depending on ethnic group or special educational needs.

The first data on students were collected in 2002. Since 2005, the provisions of the Education Pupil Information Regulations require that public schools must store information about subjects and classes in which the student participated. In addition, the Unique Learner Number enables the student to obtain documentation of his or her qualifications after leaving school and permits the transition to further or higher education.

5.4.8. Adult education and the Learning Age

In 1997 three of the most important consultation documents of the mid- and late nineties were published: *Learning Works: Widening Participation in Further Education*, FEFC, Coventry, 1997 (<https://core.ac.uk/download/pdf/9063796.pdf>, accessed: September 17, 2016, or [http://dera.ioe.ac.uk/15073/2/Learning%20works%20-%20widening%20participation%20in%20further%20education%20\(Kennedy%20report\).pdf](http://dera.ioe.ac.uk/15073/2/Learning%20works%20-%20widening%20participation%20in%20further%20education%20(Kennedy%20report).pdf), accessed: September 24, 2016) and *Learning for the Twenty-First Century* http://www.p21.org/storage/documents/P21_Report.pdf, accessed: September 17, 2016). The latter report focused on the development of a culture of learning throughout life. These documents were crucial for adult education, because they outlined the educational policy of early twenty-first century. The keynote of the document *The Learning Age: a renaissance for a new Britain* (<http://www.leeds.ac.uk/educol/documents/summary.pdf>, accessed: September 24, 2016) was the provision of education to homes and workplaces.

Education is a key to creating a society which is dynamic and productive, offering opportunities and fairness to all. It is the Government's top priority. We will work in partnership with all those who share our passion and sense of urgency for higher standards (Bartlett, Diana, 2016, p. 167).

Investing in human capital was to be the basis for success in the knowledge-based global economy of the twenty-first century. In order to achieve stable and adequate growth, the government would need a well-educated, well-equipped, and easily adaptable work force. In response to the situation of rapid change and the challenges of the age of information and communication, there was a need to provide people with the opportunity to return to learning throughout their lives. It was true that the government could not “rely only on the elite, even the well-educated and -paid. In this place we need the creativity, entrepreneurship and knowledge of all our people” (Matlakiewicz, 2003, p. 86).

The document *The Learning Age* (<http://www.leeds.ac.uk/educol/documents/summary.pdf>, accessed: September 24, 2016) was intended to launch the initiative of the Blair government for the creation of new adult learning opportunities within the existing socioprofessional barriers. The government increased “amounts for higher education (about £160 million) and further education (£100 million) for the school year 1998/1999,” launched a free telephone line, and created the University for Industry (<https://www.theguardian.com/education/2004/dec/10/furthereducation.uk>, accessed: September 24, 2016; Matlakiewicz, 2003, p. 86). The decision to create a “virtual university” as a source of information and access to training offers, an education center, and intermediary training was taken by the government following talks with major companies such as Ford, Unipart, and Anglian Water for further training of their employees. “This is not a physical but a virtual university, a network providing access to training” (Armitage, Bryant, Dunnill, Hammersley, Hayes, Hudson, Laves, 1999, p. 288).

These documents repeatedly emphasized cooperation between the government, public authorities, institutions, and educational organizations, as well as the students themselves. The Fryer Report (*Learning for the 21st Century*) “mainly focuses on enhancing the capacities of learners, breaking down barriers to learning, and analyzing the potential for learning within a range of contexts” (Aspin, Chapman, Hatton, Sawano (eds), 2001, p. 141). The report developed the main principles characterizing further education: it should include both compulsory and optional education in all their forms, adherence to the principles of consistency and justice for all, a variety of educational experiences throughout life, quality and flexibility of further education, and shared responsibility for education and effective partnership.

The principles of further education constituted a priority in the above-mentioned document. They resulted from reasons of an economic nature, the need to respond quickly to the changing labor market, the acquisition of decision-making skills by employees, the development of imagination, and the ability to protect oneself against unemployment. These principles were to serve the shaping of the culture of British society through lifelong education; moreover, they encouraged citizens to educate themselves, to improve their technical skills and, essentially, to cope with the changes taking place in the modern world.

5.4.9. Further education

From the point of view of terminology, lifelong learning, or further education, is the sector of education of adults characterized by a lower educational level than that of academic education. In the twentieth century this terminology referred to the training of 16–19-year-olds; nowadays, it also involves the education of older people. On the strength of the Further and Higher Education Act of 1992, The Further Education Funding Council (FEFC) for England and Wales was called into existence, with the task of managing the institutions dealing with this question. According to this Act, further education could be either full-time or part-time, depending on the age and capabilities of learners. The Act takes into account not only occupational, social, and recreational training, but physical education as well. In English literature the term “work-related studies” is most often used (Legge, 1982, p. 37).

Today, further education is the largest sector of adult education. In 1998 it encompassed 446 colleges and further education institutions. There are four main types: Designated, Tertiary, Sixth Form, and Further Education Colleges. These are institutions specializing in adult education in a full thematic area or occupational group. In London, these include Cordwainers College, Morley College, The City Literary Institute, The Marine Society College of the Sea, and the Working Men's College (for men and women).

The further education colleges offer full-time and part-time educational services. They annually train about “1,700,000 adults, of whom 60% are over 19 years old. The colleges also organize courses at the academic level and then work with higher education institutions” (Matlakiewicz, 2003, p. 156). Sixth Form Colleges train mainly young people aged 16–18. The Further and Higher Education Act of 1992 enabled young people to continue their education in this type of college located outside the home and to prepare for academic subjects. Obtaining good grades in the A-level exam enables graduates of Sixth Form Colleges to begin higher education. Graduates can also choose vocational education within further education. Tertiary colleges function on the principle of combining further education colleges and Sixth Form Colleges. They offer “academic subjects, vocational courses, and recreational activities” (Matlakiewicz, 2003, p. 156).

Institutions financed through further education also included Long-Term Residential Colleges and the Workers' Educational Association (WEA). The main purpose of these forms of education was to create the opportunity to start education outside the living environment. This education included teaching truly useful skills within the framework of social, political, and economic themes and were aimed at encouraging students to actively participate in a democratic society.

The 1990s was a period in which the government decided to standardize the system of qualifications and create the National Qualifications Framework, designed to simplify and clarify the achievement and granting of diplomas, certificates and degrees, and, moreover, to create a national structure of other mutually comparable qualifications awarded by various educational institutions. The conditions for entering a university included positive results on two types

of examinations: GCE A-levels and GCE AS. Institutions of further education conducted preparation courses for these examinations. A General Certificate of Education, Advanced Levels (GCE A-levels) was traditionally obtained after two years of full-time study; a student passed it at the age of 18. At the end of compulsory school, 16-year-old students obtained a General Certificate of Secondary Education. They were encouraged to select the same or similar subjects on the GCE A-levels exam. To expand the training program, the General Certificate of Education Advanced Supplementary (GCE AS) examination was introduced in 1989. This examination covered half of the content required for A-levels. Two exams at this level were equivalent to one A-level.

General National Vocational Qualifications (GNVQs) were introduced in 1992 in order to increase the number of students being educated after their sixteenth birthdays. GNVQs enabled young people to continue learning in higher education and at the same time to prepare for occupational work. In the area of vocational qualifications, the National Vocational Qualifications program (NVQ) was developed with the aim of determining the level of competence achieved in the workplace by those who had completed their school education. Five levels of national vocational qualifications were introduced. According to Matlakiewicz, level 1 was equivalent to passing the GCSE in four subjects; level 2, in five or more subjects. The next level, 3, was the equivalent of A-levels. Level 4 was equivalent to a completed higher education course at a university, whereas the final level, 5, was equivalent to postgraduate studies. This system reduced the learning curve and enabled the reconciliation of education with occupational work.

5.4.10. Higher education

The consequence of the implementation of the Dearing Report, *Higher Education in the Learning Society*, was the 1997 introduction by the government of tuition fees for studies as well as the discontinuation of the previously granted scholarships in favor of access to educational loans. The report indicated the co-operation of higher education and the implementation of principles of patency between different sectors of adult education to ensure the standards of higher education and an adequate level of employed staff. The report's recommendations led to the creation of a system of qualifications for higher education. Therefore, the Quality Assurance Agency for Higher Education (QAA), along with institutions of higher education, developed terminology in the field of academic education which was to be taken into account by both students and employers (<http://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ558362.pdf>, p. 3, accessed: August 24, 2016).

British universities are autonomous in terms of conditions for candidates for university study. Generally they require a General Certificate of Secondary Education (GCSE), if the graduate has passed exams in at least three subjects with a grade of C or higher. Faculties of medical universities require A-level exams to be passed in three subjects. In terms of teacher education, universities do not

accept graduates “who have not achieved a grade of C on the GCSE in three subjects: English, mathematics and science” (Matlakiewicz, 2003, p. 126).

As of the beginning of the 1998/1999 academic year, full-time study was made payable, at the rate of about £1,000 a year. This decision was dictated by the maintenance of the elite status of elite studies. The fee was made dependent on the parents' income. The Blair government anticipated providing exemptions from tuition fees to about 1/3 of students, those from the poorest families. Another 1/3 of students had to pay only a portion of tuition fees; only students in good financial situations had to pay the entire amount. In the academic year 1996/1997 the sources of financing for higher education institutions were as follows: 12% was derived from payments by students from the UK and the European Union; 39% was paid by state sponsors of higher education; 5% was given by research councils; and the remaining 44% consisted of research income, donations, fees for accommodation and food, payments from international students, and other sources of income.

In the document *Higher education in the United Kingdom* (January 1999) we read:

Higher education in the UK makes a substantial contribution to the economy of the nation. The turnover of UK higher education institutions is over £11 billion. If the direct effect on related economic activity is taken into account, the final impact is more than £40 billion. This brings benefits at a local and regional level through the provision of goods and services. It also represents a significant contribution to the UK's international earnings (http://webarchive.nationalarchives.gov.uk/20100202100434/http://www.hefce.ac.uk/Pubs/HEFCE/1999/99_02.pdf, p. 17, accessed: September 24, 2016).

Universities in the UK have the right to award master's and doctor's degrees as well as honorary academic degrees (usually doctorates) to those distinguishing themselves with outstanding achievements in public or academic life. PhDs are classified as postgraduate studies in the UK. Writing a work called a doctoral dissertation (thesis), based on original research and concepts, is a formal requirement. It should include a “clearly presented objective, uncovering a heretofore unexplored area of science” (Matlakiewicz, 2003, p. 127).

The nature of higher education in the UK has changed significantly over the past 30 years. The number of students studying at universities and colleges has increased dramatically. In the 1960s there were around 200,000 full-time students. This has risen to over 1 million students today (<http://webarchive.nationalarchives.gov.uk/20100202100434>, http://www.hefce.ac.uk/Pubs/HEFCE/1999/99_02.pdf, p. 4, accessed: September 24, 2016).

Higher education during Blair's term of office was characterized, moreover, by an increase in the percentage of older students beginning their studies. Nearly 30% of people undertaking full-time education were more than 21 years old. Older students (aged 22–25) constituted about 18%. Among older people aged 25+ were many students of law, social sciences, and economics, as well as medicine. It was noted that students aged 25–59 did better in terms of earning degrees than younger people. In terms of postgraduate studies, adults over 25 years constituted more than 50% of students.

The stable economic progress enjoyed by Great Britain, due to some extent to Blair's successor, the finance minister Gordon Brown, contributed to economic growth higher than that of the United States or any other European country. The unemployment rate for young workers and long-term unemployment rates were very limited. All of this was achieved along with the introduction of a minimum wage, which was increased gradually.

5.4.11. Summary

David Blunkett, Secretary of Education and Employment in the Labour government from 1997 to 2001, in initiating education reform, was convinced of the need to invest in education – a neglected field characterized by underinvestment during the reign of the Conservative Party. Blunkett intervened directly in classroom pedagogy, emphasizing what kind of work was expected of teachers and indicating how they were to teach in order to raise educational standards. Education was at the center of the government's interests, in terms of appreciation for the role of education and the competitiveness of the UK in the international arena. Blair permitted Blunkett to make numerous changes in education policy. At that time, the government introduced a transparent justification of its policy decisions and initiated significant reforms of the education system tailored to the needs of the global economy. This was especially visible in the times of omnipresent mass culture and detraditionalization of schools and families.

Blunkett understood that the knowledge-based economy determines students' need to make optimal decisions about educational careers and secondary schools. The strategy of choice and competition of educational institutions represented the neoliberal educational ideology of Blair's government. The country's competitiveness in the era of globalization necessitated the raising of educational standards, which remained identical to market categories in all stages of education.

5.5. Educational policy of Estelle Morris, 2001–2002

The elections to the House of Commons on June 7, 2001 showed a decided advantage for the Labour over the Conservative Party, enabling Labour to win 412 seats, only 6 less than in the 1997 elections. Labour received 2.5 percent fewer votes than in 2007. The new Secretary of State for Education and Skills was Estelle Morris, who had worked as a teacher at a school in Coventry. She replaced David Blunkett, who was transferred to the Home Office.

Morris felt that the educational situation in the UK was extremely favorable, because it employed the best-educated generation of teachers. Moreover, education was highly supported by business, and public understanding of the specifics of teachers' work prevailed. The government financed education through

various investment and education strategies. It gave teachers the freedom to organize their working time devoted to planning and preparation of activities, as well as further education. As a result, teachers were able to effectively use their knowledge and skills in the teaching process. The document *Meeting the Challenge of Change* (https://royalsociety.org/~media/Royal_Society_Content/policy/publications/1999/10106.pdf, accessed: August 23, 2016) proposed an innovative approach to teaching, involving group work for teachers based on collaboration, joint planning, and the use of trained assistants. Teachers had online access to a prepared curriculum.

In order to raise the qualifications of teachers in all subjects, the government ensured support for them, enabling the use of feedback about the ability of the students. The objective was to support the teacher in his or her individual work with the student and training in the use of logical and creative teaching.

Education, it was believed, should provide the joy of learning and equip students with the professional qualifications needed for future employment; however, it turned out that the chance of unskilled workers finding work diminished from day to day, which was associated with the obsolescence of the old statement "work for a whole lifetime." In relation to the competitiveness of the global economy, Morris spoke about the modification of education in terms of the transfer of knowledge and skills; meanwhile, neoliberal educational ideology led to the corporate rat race. Good education built self-esteem, supported the development of pragmatism, and shaped students morally, which enabled students to find a place for themselves in the global labor market.

The first educational document introduced by Morris was *The White Paper for Schools: Achieving Success* (2001), which gave students a wider choice of secondary schools. Morris was determined to develop the specialist schools (city academies), introduced by David Blunkett, as well as facilities sponsored partially by the state and partially by religious organizations (faith-based schools).

The document presented the objectives set for secondary schools with the intention that at least 20 percent of students would achieve five or more grades from A to C on the GCSE examination by 2004, and 25 percent by 2006. Schools were given greater freedom in management; the school budget could be controlled 85 percent by the school and the remaining 15 percent by the LEAs.

In connection with the globalization of markets, Morris saw the need for a transformation of knowledge and skills, and thus continued the 1997 program "National Literacy Strategy" as well as the 1988 "National Numeracy Strategy." She believed that the quality of teaching and learning in the classroom was the key to raising educational standards. Flexibility in teaching, needed for all children, was reflected in the third key stage strategy, raising standards for 11–14 year-olds. Through investment in teacher training, the strategy improved the teaching of all subjects. Acceptable educational standards were attained in the core subjects: English, mathematics, science, and communication technology. The British education system works similarly to the Polish system, based on "a psycho-historical and socio-cultural-bureaucratic fabric in which schools work

anachronistically, regardless of who governs or who is the minister or prime minister" (<http://sliwerski-pedagog.blogspot.com/2013/12/edukacja-wyzwania-przyszosci.html>, accessed: June 1, 2014).

Another goal was to teach children logical and creative thinking as well as how to develop responsibility for their own learning. The ambitious objective of this strategy was for "85% of students to achieve Level 5 or above at the end of Key Stage 3 in English, mathematics and ICT, and 80% in science by 2007. There was expected to achieve before 2004 level 5 in English, mathematics, ICT among 75 percent of students" (<http://www.educationengland.org.uk/documents/pdfs/2001-schools-achieving-success.pdf>, p. 21, accessed August 23, 2016).

On the strength of the document *Schools Achieving Success*, Public-Private Partnership was introduced and its mandatory use ordered in the case of schools with poor results. Successful schools were encouraged to use PPP. Another objective to be achieved through the first three years of secondary school was improvement in the quality of teaching and the elevation of educational standards. Reduction of the differences in school achievement between ethnic groups, geographical areas, and boys and girls was proposed, as well as the development of educational opportunities for children from the Caribbean, Pakistan, Bangladesh, and other ethnic minorities.

In the seventh chapter of the document *Valuing and supporting teachers in schools*, the government, wishing to raise educational standards, planned additional steps as part of the strategy "Meeting the Challenge of Change," introduced in 1998, through professional teacher education. To meet these requirements, the government hired 10,000 teachers and 20,000 supporting teachers. A salary increase for teachers was still planned, and begun with a wage increase of 25 percent in 1997.

The free market economy, seeking markets for typical globalization gadgets, found an undeveloped niche in education. Because the curriculum was implemented through access to multimedia sources with the help of iPods, laptops and mobile phones, the changes were known as the "Third Way" of educational change. This trend benefited from the support of new online strategies. The government financially supported the professional development of teachers, investing in new technologies for raising educational standards and developing Teachernet in the form of online help for teachers. The site was continuously updated with lesson plans and lesson planning tools.

The so-called "Third Way Plus," given this name due to omnipresent information gadgets such as smartphones, iPhones, tablets, and iPads, as well as the incredible speed of data processing technology, offered improved integration of technology with the educational program. On the other hand, this led to overinvestment in communications technology, since it turned out that an overly optimistic belief in the use of technology in schools changed the relationship between teacher and student for the worse as well as weakening the effectiveness of the teaching process.

According to A. Hargreaves, education should not be reduced to exercises based on clicking and depersonalization of the student. Its task is the develop-

ment of a young person's personality and his involvement in establishing life goals and in finding ways to achieve them. True teaching should take the subjective nature of the student into account and requires the perception of each student as a human being, not as an object or as the client of the school.

5.6. Policy of Charles Clarke, Secretary of State for Education and Skills (October 2002–December 2004)

Following the resignation of Estelle Morris, Charles Clarke became the new Secretary for Education and Skills. The “National Strategy for Child Care” of 2004 opened up opportunities of obtaining an education at any age. According to the government, “no society can afford to waste the talents of children and citizens. So major challenges at each key phase of life remain” (Bartlett, Burton, 2012, p. 216).

Despite many previous reforms which had aimed at improving educational standards and examination results, children and young people from disadvantaged and poor families still achieved lower scores than their peers. Factors such as poor health, a working-class origin, and low scores remained unchanged in these cases.

5.6.1. The National Strategy for Child Care (2004)

As part of the Five-Year Strategy for Children and Learners, the government set new educational goals. First, it proposed continuous improvement in education and child care. Second, it assumed the transformation of Centers for Children into centers to support parents with health, family, educational, and employment guidance. Moreover, it advocated the expansion of nurseries and childcare. Third, it suggested the development of institutions providing care for children before and after school hours in connection with their parents' jobs as well as the establishment of Children's Trusts (<http://www.educationengland.org.uk/documents/pdfs/2004-five-year-strategy.pdf>, accessed: September 23, 2016) to support families in providing care and education for children from high-risk groups.

The government also suggested constant work on the education system, associated with an increase in spending on education in England from £35 billion in the years 1997–1998 to £51 billion in 2004–2005. Work on making use of the intellectual potential of every child and the adaptation of schools for work with frustrated, bored children with unsatisfactory learning results constituted an essential challenge. These procedures were designed to increase the prospects of young people.

To strengthen students' faith in their own abilities, an educational program was adapted such that classes were held in attractive places, during trips and in

school clubs (*Five Year Strategy for Children and Learners*, <http://www.educationengland.org.uk/documents/pdfs/2004-five-year-strategy.pdf>, p. 62, accessed: October 22, 2013). The priority of the cooperation of the schools with parents was to support the weakest students. The government strategies were implemented through a system of information on the results of the students, shared between primary and secondary schools.

In 2004, for the first time, tests for the completion of particular educational stages were electronically transferred directly to schools. This meant that schools could develop a work plan for a new group of children at an earlier point in time. To increase the effectiveness of work on the individual educational needs of students, the third and the fourth stages of education introduced by the Education Act 1988 were combined.

"The New National Academy for Gifted and Talented Youth" was an advisory center for teachers, offering suggestions on how to teach talented young people and to encourage them to study and participate in summer schools and online education (*Five Year Strategy for Children and Learners*, <http://www.educationengland.org.uk/documents/pdfs/2004-five-year-strategy.pdf>, p. 62, accessed: October 23, 2013).

The objectives of the presented strategy were developed further in the 2005 White Paper *Higher Standards, Better Schools for All* (<http://www.publications.parliament.uk/pa/cm200506/cmselect/cmmeduski/633/633.pdf>, accessed: September 24, 2016), in which the Secretary for Education emphasized matching education to the individual needs of each child. He stated that giving parents greater freedom of choice of a school, as well as enabling their active involvement in its management, would help to constructively achieve the mission of the school.

Another pro-family and pro-educational initiative of government was the introduction of the "Day Care and Childminding Regulations Act" of 2005 (Full day care, National standards for under 8s day care and childminding, <http://www3.imperial.ac.uk/pls/portallive/docs/1/46973696.pdf>, accessed: September 24, 2016). The document ensured free education for 12.5 hours per week over a period of 38 weeks to all children between 3 and 4 years old.

5.6.2. Faith-based schools in Britain in the twenty-first century

British multiculturalism, the detraditionalization of schools and families, and the high birth rate in immigrant families had given British society a diversified character in terms of religion, culture, and ethnicity. In school classes, it was difficult to standardize the aspirations of young people from different cultural, religious, and linguistic environments. In such a situation, the main challenge for Blair's policy consisted of propositions regarding religious schools.

The government allocated £12 million for the creation of new religious schools. In 2002, there were approximately 7,000 religious schools (compared to 25,000 schools run by the government in the entire country), of which 589 were

secondary schools and 6,384 primary schools (Education in England, chapter 10, <http://www.educationengland.org.uk/history/chapter10.html>, accessed: November 27, 2013). Meanwhile, an Islamic secondary school for girls in Birmingham, an Evangelical Christian school in Leeds, and a New Jewish School in London, among others, emerged.

5.6.3. *Every Child Matters*

Education became the main priority of the government immediately after Blair took office in 1997. Education reform was based on strategy documents and introduced or planned regulations. In 2003, the government published the Green Paper *Every Child Matters* (<http://webarchive.nationalarchives.gov.uk/20130401151715/https://www.education.gov.uk/publications/eOrderingDownload/ECM-Summary.pdf>, pp. 1–7, accessed: November 28, 2013), in which it proposed a series of measures involving reform of education and care of children based on five priorities: health, safety, satisfaction and achievement, positive contributions to social life, and quality of life of children and adolescents.

In *Every Child Matters*, the government's large-scale project for reform of the system of childcare was presented. The catalyst for these changes was the death of 8-year-old Victoria Climbié in 2000, caused by her relatives. This case showed the complete failure and negligence of the childcare system, which had ultimately led to the tragedy. Lack of communication between the organizations which by definition were supposed to deal with children led to a change in policy and became a priority for the government. One person was designated to be responsible for children's issues at each local level and one at the central level. The need to integrate the development of the life of children under a single organization that helped to care for one educational stage was recognized (*Every Child Matters*, (<http://webarchive.nationalarchives.gov.uk/20130401151715/https://www.education.gov.uk/publications/eOrderingDownload/ECM-Summary.pdf>, pp. 1–7, accessed: November 28, 2013).

In the Children Act of 2004, the government instituted integration of children's service departments in LEAs into a single office, that of the Director of Children's Services and Lead Member, which was made responsible for jointly conducting child and family social care along with education. This initiative enabled the creation of multi-agency teams, which combined school staff, nurses, school psychologists, social workers, and police officers.

The publication of the document *Every Child Matters: Change for Children* in 2004 had a significant impact on services working with children. Since that time, the child has always been the center of interest.

In 2002, the Green Paper *Extending Opportunities, Raising Standards* was published, including the Blair government's first proposals for an educational program involving students aged 14–19 (https://www.education.gov.uk/consultations/downloadableDocs/SOR_208_4.pdf, accessed: August 22, 2016). This

document showed that Blair's government wanted to ensure the economic prosperity of the country and create a competitive workforce in a globalized world. To raise standards in secondary education "was to ensure an increase in the participation rate of young people going into higher education to 50 percent of the cohort" (Abbott, Rathbone, Whitehead, 2013, p. 153).

The following year, Charles Clarke published another consultational document, incorporating the amendments proposed by Morris, entitled *Opportunity and excellence* (<http://www.educationengland.org.uk/documents/pdfs/2003-green-paper-14to19.pdf>, accessed: August 22, 2016). In May 2004, Clarke announced the reconstruction of a program of apprenticeships for students aged 14 to 16 years, who were to spend two days a week at work learning a profession. Clarke claimed that the new scheme would help motivate students to work and learn. It also contained proposals to "simplify the vocational qualifications system and introduce specialized diplomas" (Abbott, Rathbone, Whitehead, 2013, p. 161).

In October 2004, the Tomlinson report (<https://www.theguardian.com/education/2004/oct/18/1419education.furthereducation1>, accessed: September 23, 2016) was published, identifying specific problems and ways to change education in the fourth educational stage. The report took into account the low level of achievement in reading, writing, mathematics, and communication technology. It presented the very weak status of occupational courses and qualifications; moreover, it criticized the lack of educational challenges for very talented students and the difficulty in distinguishing the levels of thousands of students receiving a grade of A on the A-Levels exam.

Tomlinson and his colleagues recommended the replacement of the GCSE, A-Levels, and vocational qualification exams with one diploma at four different levels. The first level of the exam was called the "pre-GCSE"; the second, basic level the "foundation GCSE at grade D–G," the intermediate level "GCSE A–C" and the fourth the "advanced A-Level." The team proposed replacing courses with extensive projects. Furthermore, it assumed a reduction in the number of examinations in a young person's educational career. It enabled children to make progress in learning at their own pace and enabled universities and employers to check the results of examinations of graduates with diplomas on the Internet.

The team working under Tomlinson wanted to introduce compulsory packages of subjects, called a *compulsory core*, consisting of functional subjects such as mathematics, communications technology, and communication skills. Wider educational activities could be realized through experience obtained through volunteer or paid work or involvement in fulfilling family responsibilities. The recommendations contained in the document were not implemented because they failed to receive a positive evaluation from the chief inspector of schools and the head of the Qualifications and Curriculum Authority. Moreover, "the White Paper did not contain any proposals for the replacement of GCSEs and A-levels with an overarching Diploma or incorporate the main findings of the Tomlinson Report" (Abbott, Rathbone, Whitehead, 2013, p. 161).

5.7. Educational policy of Ruth Kelly, Secretary of State for Education and Skills (December 2004–May 2006)

The rejection of the main provisions of the Tomlinson Report was a purely political act, resulting from the government's interest in winning the elections; matters of educational policy were treated as marginal. In the pre-election struggle, the opposition (the Conservative Party) sought to abolish GCSE exams and A-levels. As a result, the start of Ruth Kelly's work in the position of State Secretary of Education and Skills was conducted in a feverish pre-election atmosphere. Thus it was no surprise that the expediency of political action played the leading role in the decisions taken by the government during this period. Secretary Kelly, who did not agree with Tomlinson's views, made the introduction of a new examination system dependent on educational needs. The A-levels certificate and examination remained a matter of choice for any given person.

The Education and Inspection Act of 2006 (http://www.legislation.gov.uk/ukpga/2006/40/pdfs/ukpga_20060040_en.pdf, accessed: September 23, 2016) changed the law to enable, for the first time, teachers and other school staff to discipline pupils at the moment they broke school rules, failed to follow instructions, or otherwise behaved unacceptably in school. All teachers and other staff responsible for the students had the right to enforce discipline. The school headmaster could restrict the rights of employees concerning the use of sanctions or extend it to other adults, including adult volunteers (e.g., parents acting as volunteers could supervise a football match, or assist a teacher on school trips).

5.8. Educational policy of Alan Johnson as Secretary of State for Education and Skills (May 2006–June 2007)

During Alan Johnson's term, no major changes in education were made. It was proposed to extend the period of compulsory education to 18 years of age by 2013. Johnson's term was typical of the decline of the Blair government.

Johnson's approach to educational change resulted from his life experiences. He had completed his education at the age of 15 and at the beginning of his career performed hard physical labor. He also worked on behalf of social mobility, knowing the importance of correspondence courses from the days when he was "a postman" (Abbott, Rathbone, Whitehead, 2013, p. 162). Following the introduction of professional standards for teachers by the Training and Development Agency for Schools (TDA) in 2007 (<http://www.tda.gov.uk/>, accessed: September 23, 2016), requirements for their knowledge and skills were developed and a five-degree promotion system created for teachers.

The framework of professional standards for teachers was set up to encompass related aspects, such as professional attributes, professional knowledge and understanding, and professional skills. The standards took into account and clarified the principles of a professional career. They supported teachers in the identification of their needs within their careers and at particular stages of their realization. Attributes, professional knowledge, transmission of content, and professional skills constitute the determinants of a teacher's professional status.

5.8.1. Summary

In 1997, the New Labour Party stressed the importance of education. From the Conservative Party, it had inherited the highest levels of poverty and social inequality in the post-war history of the country. The ideas of democratic socialism were derived from "the liberal belief, understood in the spirit of John Stuart Mill, that the principal aim of the state should be the development of the human personality and the assurance of all opportunities to make use of civil and personal liberties" (Śpiewak, 1991, p. 103).

The Labour Party under the leadership of Blair in the years 1997–2007 believed that the free-market economy could be combined with social justice, through "the decisive direction of the country in accordance with the constitutional order and the trust of citizens" (Śpiewak, 1991, p. 41).

The ideology of social democracy of this time provided educational opportunities and vocational training for all citizens, regardless of the influence of social class and occupation. Education, lifelong learning, and creating a culture of learning were seen by Labour as the keys to the overall planning of future careers and social integration. These priorities were important on two levels: first, on the individual level, because people would have to learn constantly or be excluded from society; second, on the national level, in order to compete as a nation in the global market and develop a flexible work force. Working people would have to constantly improve their professional skills to maintain their jobs in modern society. In this context, continuous learning was viewed as a foundation in the context of the transformation and globalization of the economy.

The Labour Party expressed belief in social justice and opportunity for all, based on individual responsibility. The ideology of the "Third Way" combined the traditional policy of the welfare state with the benefits of individualism and the labor market. The most important achievement of the educational policy of this period was its integrated approach to services concerning children, facilitating agreement between agencies. Remodeling of the teaching profession relied on cooperation with representatives of other professions in which work with children was essential; this involved the hiring of school mentors and teachers' assistants. In secondary schools, attention was paid to the third key stage of education, with special emphasis on the teaching of mathematics, literacy, and communication technology. In primary schools, the number of children in classes was reduced. The main priority was the development of a strategy for teaching literacy and numeracy.

Educational reform of the Blair era included the introduction of an essential transformation in schools. Frequent changes of Secretaries of State for Education and Skills contributed to the slowdown of the process. According to political scientists from the Britannia group, British policy in the Labour Party's term of office was "subject to strong ideological pressure, while the state was treated as an instrument for reforming society" (Gołembski, Biskup, Kaczorowska, Lewandowski (eds), 2011, p. 319). In some education-related activities the government manifested excessive activity, while in others it remained passive and ineffective. Many initiatives were introduced in order to develop education and opportunities for the professional development of teachers.

The balance sheet for Tony Blair's government seems ambiguous. Its greatest success was the ideological reorganization of the Labour Party. Along with "the Prime Minister of Ireland Bertie Ahern the peace process in Northern Ireland was concluded. Constitutional reforms were introduced, i.e. devolution in Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland" (Gołembski, Biskup, Kaczorowska (eds), 2010, p. 130). The downside of his foreign policy was the alliance with the US, which resulted in the decision to send British soldiers to Iraq. This was received negatively by the public. The prime minister never recovered his authority after the bomb attack in 2005. Moreover, he did not make use of "the option to interfere with civil liberties in order to increase the security of citizens" (Gołembski, Biskup, Kaczorowska (eds), 2010, p. 131).

The contemporary left has created a policy which best regulates the capitalist economy. Included in this political activity was the vision of education promoting entrepreneurship, raising the level of education, and fighting poverty and discrimination. The intellectual formulation of Blair resulted from an understanding of the era in which he conducted his political life. The Prime Minister was an ambitious politician who sought new forms of political action. He created a program of action based on adapting the demands of the life of British society, including education (as broadly understood), to the challenges of post-industrial society. In his policies he adapted the real possibilities of the welfare state to contemporary aspects of globalization. It should be noted, however, that during Blair's term of office, the impact of social class on the life of the individual was still observable. Membership in a particular class still correlated with general state of health, life expectancy, and access to education and well-paid jobs. Not everything in social and individual life could be corrected as a result of regulating the educational process.

5.9. Educational policy of Prime Minister Gordon Brown and the end of the Labour government

Gordon Brown entered Parliament in 1983 from the Dunfermline East district as a representative of the Labour Party. Subsequently, he was "party spokesman on matters of industry and trade. In 1987–1989 he became [...] the first Secretary

of State in the Ministry of Finance in the shadow cabinet, then Minister of Trade and Industry, also in the shadow cabinet. As of 1992, he was appointed [...] Chancellor of the Treasury in the shadow cabinet" (Gołembski, Biskup, Kaczorowska (eds), 2010, p. 132). After the Labour victory in the 1997 elections, he served the same function in the Blair government. He brought about the operational independence of the Bank of England regarding monetary policy, which, according to the conservatives, brought the UK closer to the eurozone.

His financial policy contributed to growth in state revenue due to tax revenues from 39.9% of GDP in 1997 to 42.4% in 2006 (Gołembski, Biskup, Kaczorowska (eds), 2010, p. 133). Maintenance of stable economic growth and a decline in unemployment are regarded as Brown's most important achievements. Following Blair's resignation on May 10, 2007, and the Labour Party's risky decision to call new elections, the process of selecting Blair's successor began. Only Brown exceeded the threshold of 12.5% of party members, and on May 17, 2007, he was nominated as party leader and future prime minister.

As the leader of the ruling party from 2007 to 2010, Brown saw no need to change the direction of educational policy. The three years of his term coincided with a period of global economic crisis, which spread throughout the world. The years 1997–2007 had been characterized by economic stability. During this period, economic growth linked to reliance on the banking sector was observed. The positive market situation had an impact on the increase in funds allocated for education from 4.7 percent in 1997 to 5.6 percent in 2007 and 2008 (DfES, *The Five-Year Strategy for Children and Learners: Maintaining the Excellent Progress*, London: DfES:11, <http://www.educationengland.org.uk/documents/pdfs/2004-five-year-strategy.pdf>, accessed: September 23, 2016). The average actual expenditure per secondary school pupil in England increased from £3,300 to £4,530 in 2005–2006 (Abbott, Rathbone, Whitehead, 2013, p. 165). In addition, an increase was noted in the number of teachers, from 362,000 working full-time teachers in 1997 to 435,400 in 2007, and from 152,800 supporting teachers in 1997 to 162,800 in 2007 (DfES, *Five-Year Strategy for Children and Learners: Maintaining the Excellent Progress*, London: DfES:11, <http://www.educationengland.org.uk/documents/pdfs/2004-five-year-strategy.pdf>, accessed: September 23, 2016). Despite the worsening economic situation, Brown's government decided not to introduce cuts in education. The first significant change in the financing of education appeared only after the election of a coalition government in 2010.

5.9.1. Educational policy of Ed Balls (2007–2010)

Ed Balls, occupying the position of Secretary of State for Children, Schools and Families, emphasized cooperation between schools rather than continuous rivalry. In 2007 Balls pursued a policy of education based on the Children's Plan of 2004, with the priority of making Britain the best place in the world for children and adolescents. It represented an attempt at cultural change within education and an attempt to assure that each school and each child would succeed

regardless of origin and the social status of parents (<http://www.educationengland.org.uk/documents/pdfs/2007-childrens-plan.pdf>, accessed: September 23, 2016).

The big change in the Children's Plan was that it focused on the child rather than on the school as an institution. Thus, it represented a fundamental change in the thinking of Labour Party educational policymakers. According to *The Children's Plan: Building brighter futures* (http://www.leics.gov.uk/nch_briefing_on_childrens_plan.pdf, accessed: September 23, 2016) five principles were to be taken into account. The first identified parents as the first and most important educators of their children; the government was to support them in this activity. The second stressed the importance of the intellectual potential of children, which was indispensable in education and which enabled them to achieve their potential. Next, the government emphasized the importance of a happy childhood in preparation for the performance of social roles in the future. The next principle concerned methods of shaping educational services so as enable appropriate development for children, youth, and their families. The final principle mandated the earliest possible diagnosis and prevention of school failure, so as to prevent crises in the student's subsequent school career.

The plan set up ambitious goals for 2020, chiefly regarding the nurture of children's health and reinforcement of their success in school. "By age 11, at least 90% of children are achieving at or above the expected level in both English and Mathematics" (http://www.leics.gov.uk/nch_briefing_on_childrens_plan.pdf, p. 4, accessed: September 23, 2016). This would translate into future school achievements and good results on external examinations (five higher-level GCSEs). In addition, it was planned to reduce poverty among children by one-half by 2020. In addition, financial investment in the program "Continuing Professional Development for Teachers" (CPD) was anticipated, aimed at contributing to making the teaching profession a Masters level Profession (http://www.leics.gov.uk/nch_briefing_on_childrens_plan.pdf, p. 6, accessed: September 23, 2016).

The Apprenticeships, Skills, Children and Learning Act 2009 (http://www.legislation.gov.uk/ukpga/2009/22/pdfs/ukpga_20090022_en.pdf, accessed: September 23, 2016) introduced The Young People's Learning Agency (YIPA), which took over control of funds designated for 16–19-year-olds in England. The Skills Funding Agency, established by the same act, was to use about £4 billion (<https://data.gov.uk/data-request>, accessed: September 23, 2016) of funding each year to support over 1,000 colleges and private training organizations in England. In 2010 the responsibility for financing the education of young people 19 years of age passed from the LSC to the newly-established Skills Funding Agency (SFA), whose task was to consider a new demand-based approach to adult education.

According to the Apprenticeships, Skills, Children and Learning Act 2009, the SFA was to be assisted by the newly-created Adult Advancement and Careers Service and the National Employer Service, which was to offer counseling in the sphere of the skills most important for employers in the country. As of 2009, the National Office for Vocation (<http://www.ukvocation.org/>, accessed: September 23, 2016) operates within the framework of the SFA. Its task is to manage, support, and promote programs with the objective of achieving an effective learning

process, oriented to the individual needs and progress of the student. The strategy includes the so-called Assessing Pupils' Progress program (APP) (http://webarchive.nationalarchives.gov.uk/20130401151715/http://www.education.gov.uk/publications/eOrderingDownload/Assessing_pupils_progress.pdf, accessed: September 23, 2016) which was introduced to schools in 2011. By 2015, all young people not required to attend school were to undertake vocational training by participating in training sessions conducted in parallel with work or in an apprenticeship.

5.10. The world of the early twenty-first century from the perspective of postmodernism

The rapid development of digital technology, fiber optics, satellite systems, cell phones and media has had a significant influence on contemporary societies. The Internet, television, and, to a lesser degree, newspapers and magazines provide us with information and shape our world view. On the other hand, they deprive us of our connection with the past. They create images and signs by means of which they shape social life and relationships between words. As a result, they create a world of media-generated images. This occurs because the places where we live are changing due to mass production and consumption, which influence the diversity of products, mobility, and new methods of communication between people. At the same time they change people's identities, sense of self, and subjectivity. This is a process of transition into a new era.

The economy of the network based on the Internet and computers constitutes the foundation of the expansion of modern capitalism. In these circumstances the identity of the individual is not connected with the past, but created every day in interactions with others. The runaway world is full of uncertainty and the risk of losing one's job, which leads to the depletion of concepts such as trust and local communities. The role of the nation-state is diminishing in favor of global economic politics. As a result, the government of the UK has to overcome the problem of contrasting views, demands, and issues related to finance, health and education.

It is difficult to control globalization, which is entangled in internal contradictions. The resulting threats are visible, and create risks posed by humans. With the help of science and technology, human beings are influencing the natural environment, leading to climate change. The changing technology of agriculture and food production has created genetically modified foods whose side effects cannot be predicted. Every consumer of the postmodernist era thus has to choose food products to buy, based on opinions about their advantages and disadvantages. Analogous situations appear in the areas of planning directions of study, choosing a professional career, and deciding on marriage. According to Ulrich Beck, globalization has created a "global risk society" (Giddens, 2006, p. 694).

Along with globalization, the birth of individualism has been observed. For the individual, this means the opportunity to shape his or her own professional status and social identity. People are becoming more open due to changes in the surrounding world; their social environment is evolving as well. Globalization also involves popular culture, which penetrates national and cultural borders. One example of global culture is the film *Titanic*, a romance set against the background of the 1912 disaster. This represents a kind of cultural imperialism, in which the values, style, and world views of the West are distributed so aggressively that they stifle "national cultures" (Giddens, 2006, p. 87). As a result of the globalization of popular culture, local traditions and Western cultural accents mix together to create new lifestyles which are gradually incorporated into local cultures, resulting in the formation of "hybrid identity" (Giddens, 2006, p. 87).

Contemporary postmodernism is characterized by the liberalization of the financial market "which, unaccompanied by the appropriate regulatory structure, is almost certainly a recipe for economic instability. It is characterized by the liberalization of trade accompanied by high interest rates. Certainly, it is a recipe for the liquidation of jobs and a rise in unemployment" (Stiglitz, 2004, p. 87).

A third factor is privatization, contributing to higher rather than lower prices for consumers to pay, ensuring material benefits for economic monopolies. According to J. S. Stiglitz, budget savings in a free-market economy lead only to an increase in the unemployment rate and to rejection of the earlier social contracts. In the era of post-modernity, a kind of global identity has been created. "Through the centuries the values that society possessed changed only slightly from generation to generation. They were durable and gave a feeling of continuity and the unity of history and tradition" (Melosik, Szkudlarek, 2010, p. 44). The twentieth century led to changes in identity. The generation of the early 1980s saw change as a form of socialization. This led to acceptance and rejection of life values as if they were sale items in a supermarket. The media created the meaning of the space of our identity by embedding them in changing dimensions.

The sudden clash of British culture and identity with the culture of immigrants created a multicultural identity for the citizens of that country. The growth of transnational corporations and continuous international cooperation led to the creation of the individual as a "transparent global identity" (Melosik, Szkudlarek, 2010, p. 50). Such a person is a hybrid of knowledge, language, and qualifications, traveling at supersonic speed from continent to continent. Each country sees him from the perspective of airports, hotels, restaurants, or shopping centers. Such a person is able to communicate with everyone, regardless of religious, cultural, and social differences. No differences concerning the identity of individuals are a barrier for such a person. Global identity is the identity of a constant wanderer, who, after switching on a given culture, immediately identifies with the language and the culture in which he finds himself. This person can change culture, traditions, customs, and countries from day to day, and find himself the next day in a culturally completely different country.

"Disguised identity" refers to a person living in a world of appearances, in which meaning virtually does not exist, because no one sees any differences.

Identity formation is thus a part of the phenomenon known as NYT postmodernism, a lifestyle created by the *New York Times* and based on consumerism, in which the most important thing seems to be lifestyle and a nihilistic attitude towards the world.

The clearest idea of consumerism is expressed by the identity of the “super-market” type. To individuals, it seems as if they have freedom of cultural choice, since they can create themselves individually by opening the wardrobe and creating an individual style from the epoch of their choice (ethnic identity, avant-garde, existential and the identity of a “charming intellectual”) (Melosik, Szkudlarek, 2010, p. 50). This world of many postmodern identities is under the constant influence of American cultural standards, which comprise the fulfillment of youthful dreams and an unlimited market of human identities.

The answer to omnipresent globalization, with its moral relativism, full of selfish indulgence of its own needs and secularism, was religious revival. Moreover, religious groups met social needs neglected by the state bureaucracy. Such a revival reordered human values, disciplined life, gave meaning to work, and created mutual solidarity between people. It was a kind of self-defense of one's own civilization against omnipresent globalization. Through strengthening local cultures, it gave fundamentalists the power to survive a clash with civilization and the “cultural-civilizational” hegemony of the “Euro-Atlantic zone, and especially the US” (Wnuk-Lipiński, 2004, p. 291).

The risks, challenges, and inequalities of the age of postmodernism result from omnipresent globalization, which transcends borders and influences national governments. Thus, there arises a need for creation of a new global system of governance that will be able to face global problems in a global manner. The greatest challenge of the twenty-first century will be to organize the social world and subordinate it to the needs of billions of people. The sovereign decisions of national states involving the economic, political, and military spheres are constrained by the numerous interdependencies of the modern world. In the twenty-first century the role of nation-states will diminish; they will be subject to fundamental change. Many countries will be forced to delegate part of their legitimate authority to the supranational level. This will be a factor ensuring the enduring existence of the nation-state in the twenty-first century. Changes in national states in relation to globalization are, on one hand, leading to the creation of guarded enclaves of prosperity, and on the other are forming the basis for the rise of global organized crime and a humanitarian catastrophe. This is why changes in the thinking of politicians and economists are so important, along with changes in state institutions. A more balanced view of the role of the state results from understanding of the unreliability not only of the market, but of the state as well.

The development and spread of international comparative indicators (OECD Education Indicators Programme) is the result of the globalization of education, enabling access to national educational systems and creating educational policy in individual countries. An example of such a policy is the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA), based on results assessing the knowledge and skills of students from member countries of the OECD.

The comparative study of the educational achievements of students influences the unification of different educational systems in the sphere of defining competences and standards of education as well as of the forced internationalization of education. Knowledge, next to work and capital, is becoming a factor in production. As a result, reinforcement of knowledge and information in the context of global development of a country and of companies "is reflected in the concept of the knowledge-based economy promoted by the OECD, in which information and knowledge add to the economic value of manufactured goods" (Goban-Klas, Sienkiewicz, 1999, p. 47).

The neoliberal global market of the twenty-first century is implementing "productivity, efficiency, effectiveness, quality control, and the right to choose educational changes" (Goban-Klas, Sienkiewicz, 1999, p. 47). Privatization, a system for testing students, internationally teaching comparable standards, and the abandonment of equality and social justice as part of an effective and efficient system of education have become transnational norms in education. Global trends force schools to use the business rules prevailing in private companies. This translates into the need to compete for students, which determines their functioning in the market.

5.10.1. Foreign and domestic policy of David Cameron

The most important issue for the coalition government was public finances, which had been depleted by the economic crisis. A month after the elections, in June 2010, Prime Minister Cameron announced budget cuts, which were supposed to eliminate a "structural deficit estimated at £109 billion" (Gołembski, Biskup, Kaczorowska, Lewandowski (eds), 2011, p. 64). George Osborne, the new Chancellor of the Exchequer, for whom achievement of financial balance was a priority, wanted to eliminate fiscal barriers inhibiting the economic activity of entrepreneurs, along with a gradual lowering of taxes. Osborne's program included "withdrawal of allowances for children of wealthier families and freezing wages in the public sector, with the exception of those earning the least" (Gołembski, Biskup, Kaczorowska, Lewandowski (eds), 2011, p. 64). Additionally, he wanted to raise the retirement age to 66 years by 2018.

In February 2011, the coalition government proposed the additional reform of social benefits. This time the savings were made to encourage Britons to work so that a life on benefits and allowances would cease to pay. The benefits and allowances "could not in one household add up to more than an average wage" (Gołembski, Biskup, Kaczorowska, Lewandowski (eds), 2011, p. 65). If a citizen refused to take a job offered to him or her, then benefits would be "taken away for a period of three years" (Gołembski, Biskup, Kaczorowska, Lewandowski (eds), 2011, p. 65).

Individuals receiving Incapacity Benefits (<https://www.gov.uk/incapacity-benefit>, accessed: July 2, 2016) would have to make regular medical appointments. Health care reform relied on the obligatory commercialization of hospitals. Their

new owners were to be specially created foundations. Doctors were given permission to create competing GP consortia. HealthWatch (<http://www.healthwatch.co.uk/about-us>, accessed: September 24, 2016) was established in 2013 (<https://www.harrow.gov.uk/www2/documents/s109267/Healthwatch%20Harrow%20News%20-%20Issue%201%20April%20-%20May%202013%202%20-%20appendix%20C.pdf>, accessed: September 24, 2016) to monitor the health of citizens and to accept the complaints and requests of patients. These changes were aimed at helping to reduce bureaucracy in the UK and to cut spending on healthcare by about 40 percent.

The reforms of Prime Minister Cameron proved to be very radical for the citizens of the UK. The coalition government was perceived abroad as “stable and ambitious.” Only a few years have passed since the parliamentary elections and it is difficult to summarize the domestic policies of the Cameron government.

In foreign policy the Cameron government expressed reluctance and “skepticism about the idea of a supranational state, identified with the centralism of Brussels” (Gołembski, Biskup, Kaczorowska, Lewandowski (eds), 2011, p. 191), whereas the government of German Chancellor Angela Merkel desired the strictest European integration. The protection of the UK’s national interests on the EU level was strongly pragmatic. The EU was perceived by Euroskeptical British politicians as a way to strengthen the political and economic position of Britain in the world. The country remains outside the eurozone, engages in limited co-operation with courts in civil and commercial matters, and has not signed the Schengen Agreement. As regards the financial framework of the EU in the years 2014–2020, the United Kingdom, like Germany, is in favor of significant cost savings and allowing Brussels to take on some of the burden of individual countries. The British Prime Minister requested support from the EU budget mainly in terms of innovation and competitiveness, while limiting support for the Common Agricultural Policy. In 2016, following the UK’s exit referendum, we cannot predict the consequences of the country’s departure from the EU.

In connection with the change of the economic map of the world, the new challenge for the government of Cameron and Clegg was obtaining access to new markets, i.e., the so-called emerging economies (China, India, Brazil) which have recently become economic powers. In terms of the relationship between the British Prime Minister and the President of the United States, in the years 2010–2013, greater autonomy was observed on the part of both partners.

5.10.2. Education policy of David Cameron

Secretary of State for Education Michael Gove (Abbott, Rathbone, Whitehead, 2013, p. 189), along with leading politicians of the British Democratic Party, spoke about the need to reform the school system in order to combat inequalities in education, which have increased in recent years. The years 2010–2013 were characterized by economic recession, which dominated education policy. Financial deficits in Greece and Ireland also contributed to the unfavorable financial si-

tuation of the United Kingdom. In order to reduce the deficit, cuts in public spending initiated under the leadership of George Osborne were continued.

The beginnings of the coalition government were characterized by slow and invisible economic growth with rising unemployment, especially among young people. According to the Institute of Fiscal Studies, in 2010–2011 and 2015 there would be 13 percent cuts in real spending on education. It was estimated that these would represent the biggest cuts in education since the 1950s.

5.10.3. Hidden curriculum, social inequalities and cultural reproduction in British education

Ivan Illich emphasized the role of the dependence on educational development and the needs of the economic system in the disciplining of children and young people and maintenance of social stratification. Discipline and the creation of order in schools perpetuate passive consumerism, which equates to uncritical acceptance of functioning social rules. According to Illich, through a “hidden curriculum schools influence the learning of values, attitudes and habits. Schools reinforce variations in cultural values and outlooks picked up early in life: when children leave school, these have the effect of limiting the opportunities of some, while facilitating those of others” (Giddens, 2006, p. 710).

The “hidden curriculum” corresponds to Bourdieu’s concept of cultural reproduction, since it “refers to the ways in which schools, in conjunction with other social institutions, help perpetuate social and economic inequalities across the generations” (Giddens, 2006, p. 710). Cultural reproduction goes hand in hand with an individual’s choice of lifestyle and socioeconomic capital. Differences in incomes, occupations, and attitudes to culture, diet, and dress contribute to the social growth of the number of people who implement goods and services in the world of capitalist consumption. This promotes life choices, shapes the flavor of the culture, employs fashion and interior designers, therapists, specialists in marketing and advertising, and perpetuates the existing class divisions in the UK. This division still exists: the upper class, capable of passing on their own wealth and social status to their offspring; the middle class, represented by teachers, doctors, educated employees of companies and government offices; the working class, becoming like the middle class in terms of lifestyle and earning more than the majority of lower-level white-collar workers; and the socially excluded under-class, dependent on social assistance and remaining in a state of poverty.

Belonging to a social class in the United Kingdom directly affects social status and income, and shapes the life of the average citizen. There is a relationship between the poverty of parents and the joblessness or poverty of their children. Social and technological developments related to the knowledge economy and services have forced the creation of another division of society with respect to occupation. Representing between one and two percent of British society is the cosmopolitan elite centered around government circles, the business community, and other prominent groups. Approximately 66 percent of jobs in the new

economic conditions require not only qualifications, but knowledge of IT and other skills as well. In the EU, the number of individuals hired in occupations of the Apple Mac type (i.e., specialists in the field of information technology and other modern technologies) is growing. Approximately 22 percent work in Big Mac-type occupations, in service cafes, shops, supermarkets, and petrol stations. Another 10 percent are specialists and managers, small business owners, the industrial working class, and farmers.

Basil Bernstein has observed differences in the use of language depending on the social class. He spoke about this in his theory of code, understood as varieties of speech (limited and developed). The limited code is characteristic of the language of workers, who, acknowledging the same norms and social values, limit speech to practical information and do not discuss abstract topics. The developed code, full of generalizations and abstract concepts, is usually used by the children of the middle class. As a result, they become comfortable in the classroom more quickly and to a greater extent. Middle-class children distinguish the school concepts associated with generalization and abstract thinking more easily than children of workers, which may influence their decisions about future jobs and careers.

Previous school failures, low learning outcomes, general reluctance towards school and teachers, problems with discipline, and being convinced of the hermeticity of the labor environment often contribute to social reproduction (the profession of a worker), which proceeds in accordance with the results of the research work of Paul Willis. "During the process of schooling, children from lower-class or minority backgrounds simply come to see that they 'are not clever enough' to expect to get highly paid or high-status jobs" (Giddens, 2006, p. 711).

Technical progress, the development of the new economy, and globalization are changing our understanding of modern education. Opportunities to learn throughout life and participate in training have become significant; accordingly, the "Bank of acquiring knowledge" (<https://chargebacks911.com/knowledge-base/difference-between-acquiring-bank-and-issuing-bank/>, accessed: September 24, 2016) was established in the UK, to encourage citizens to deposit money into an "individual academic account." The collected money enables one to pay for courses which provide an opportunity to obtain additional qualifications or to be retrained.

The contemporary British economy, based on the new economy, is looking for qualified employees strongly motivated to acquire knowledge that will enable them to guide their own self-development and ensure success in life. The demand for unskilled workers is expected to decline, as employers are looking for people who can meet the demands of globalization and modern technology and who want to learn new skills for working creatively.

Comparison of PISA results achieved by British students in mathematics, reading, and science in the years 2006, 2010, and 2013 confirms the need for educational change. School cannot be a place for perpetuating socio-economic differences. To meet the challenges of the global labor market, efforts should be made to reduce cultural reproduction among low-income social classes.

PISA results	Results in mathematics UK	Ranked first in mathematics (country, number of points)	UK's place in the ranking of countries	Results in reading UK	Ranked first in reading (country, number of points)	UK's place in the ranking of countries	Results in science UK	Ranked first in science (country, number of points)	UK's place in the ranking of countries
2013	494	613 – China	26	499	570 – China	22	514	580 – China	13
2010	492	546 – South Korea	22	494	539 – South Korea	20	514	554 – Finland	11
2006	495	549 – China	14	495	556 – South Korea	17	515	563 – Finland	14

Author's presentation of results according to: "World education rankings: which country does best at reading, maths and science?", <http://www.theguardian.com/news/datablog/2010/dec/07/world-education-rankings-maths-science-reading#>, accessed: September 23, 2016; The Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA), <http://www.oei.es/evaluacioneducativa/ResumenEjecutivoFinalingles.pdf>, accessed: September 23, 2016.

The necessity for educational change also results from the decline in the results of English students in the PISA tests. There was a significant decline in mathematics, from 14th place in 2006 to 22nd in 2010 and to 26th in 2013. The reading results fell from 17th place in 2006 to 20th in 2010 and 22nd in 2013. Only in the case of science were results comparable; students occupied 14th place in the PISA ranking in 2006, 11th in 2010, and 13th in 2013.

As early as 2004, the Blair government, in the National Strategy for Child Care, was encouraging Britons to acquire education at every age, because no society should waste the talents of its children and citizens. Since for the last ten years government policies have favored adult education, the United Kingdom occupied a high sixth place in two studies (2012 and 2014) on 39 countries surveyed in this area (<http://thelearningcurve.pearson.com/index/index-comparison>, accessed: September 23, 2016), according to the research of the Pearson educational concern, *Global Index of Cognitive Skills and Educational Attainment*, which analyzed several sources of interdisciplinary research on educational achievement.

The study took PISA (the educational attainment of 15-year-olds) and PIAAC (adult studies) into account, and made use of data on the structure of education in the society and economic productivity. The result for the UK indicates an active approach to teaching adults who had not completed their education at compulsory schools. The authors of the report appreciated the need for educational change responding to the needs of people being educated, including such factors as the role of emotional intelligence, creativity, problem-solving, communication skills, and digital literacy. In addition to

well-learned hard skills (specific skills and knowledge needed to do a given job) the development of soft skills (for efficient management of oneself and one's work, communication with people, and creative management of one's own life) should also be nurtured.

5.10.4. Schools and Colleges

The first legislative act concerning academies (*The Academies Act*) was introduced by Parliament in 2010. It gave all schools the opportunity to transform themselves into academies, which are not subject to LEAs. The idea of introducing academies was presented in *The Importance of Teaching*:

We want every school to be able to shape its own character, frame its own ethos and develop its own specialism, free of either central or local bureaucratic constraint. It is our ambition, therefore, to help every school which wishes to enjoy greater freedom to achieve Academy status. Some schools will not want to acquire Academy status just yet, others do not yet have the capacity to enjoy full Academy freedoms without external support or sponsorship. But our direction of travel is towards schools as autonomous institutions collaborating with each other on terms set by teachers, not bureaucrats (A White Paper of November 2010, *The Importance of Teaching*, https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/175429/CM-7980.pdf, p. 12, accessed: June 29, 2017).

A White Paper of November 2010, *The Importance of Teaching*, expressed the suggestion that the profession of teaching is “perceived as central” in relation to the government's goal, which is development of the education system. It is not only important to attract well-educated people to teaching, but to suggest appropriate teaching training throughout their teaching careers.

[...] create a new national network of Teaching Schools, on the model of teaching hospitals, giving outstanding schools the role of leading the training and professional development of teachers and head teachers. Give schools more freedom to reward good performance and make it easier for them to tackle poor performance by extending pay flexibilities and simplifying performance management and capability procedures (A White Paper of November 2010, *The Importance of Teaching*, https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/175429/CM-7980.pdf, p. 20, accessed: June 29, 2017).

The coalition government (David Cameron and Nick Clegg) identified three key aspects especially significant for education:

The first, and most important, lesson is that no education system can be better than the quality of its teachers [...]. The second lesson of world-class education systems is that they devolve as much power as possible to the front line, while retaining high levels of accountability. The OECD has shown that countries which give the most autonomy to head teachers and teachers are the ones that do best [...]. The third lesson of the best education systems is that no country that wishes to be considered world-class can afford to allow children from poorer families to fail as a matter of course (Cameron, Clegg, 2010, p. 3–4).

An expert panel was set up in the area of the National Curriculum.

The actions we set out in this White Paper learn systematically from the most effective and fastest improving school systems in the world. They are designed to tackle the weaknesses of our system, strengthening the status of teachers and teaching, reinforcing the standards set by the curriculum and qualifications, giving schools back the freedom to determine their own destiny, making them more accountable to parents, and helping them to learn more quickly and systematically from good practice elsewhere. Through taking these steps, we believe that we will create a system in which schools are better able to raise standards, narrow the gap in attainment between rich and poor and enable all young people to stay in education or training until at least the age of 18 (Cameron, Clegg, 2010, p. 15).

The Cameron-Clegg government enabled use of a broader curriculum in schools through the preservation of the principles of freedom, equality, and responsibility. The program should be consistent and live up to the highest standards. Reduction of bureaucracy and centralized control was recommended. PISA rankings were to be the most important criterion for students' skills.

According to Gove, the new curriculum supported the process of extending students' educational paths and supported achievement of the highest educational standards. Despite numerous changes in British education, the role of the public schools was unchanged. These schools formed the cultural and social capital of their graduates, indispensable in preparing them to study at the universities of Oxford and Cambridge as well as to take up well-paid professions and occupy prominent state posts. These schools taught self-confidence and non-submission in the face of challenges, obstacles, and hardships.

On the other hand, public schools carried out early selection based on educational results as well as charging high tuition fees; thus they remained schools for the rich and enjoyed great interest from parents and guardians. Public schools thus fit into a mechanism of social and cultural reproduction concerning the financially privileged class. They confirmed hierarchy and social stratification with its social consequences associated with the labor market and socio-economic status.

Massification, a variety of learning pathways (from very simple to highly prestigious), the hierarchy of institutes of higher education, individual educational choices, and the socio-economic status of parents shape modern secondary and higher education in the UK. British society is facing the problem of low achievement of students from disadvantaged backgrounds. This problem cannot be solved within a short period of time. The hierarchization of British society and deeply-rooted conservative values make it difficult to equalize educational opportunities for young people despite the increasing number of universities. Belief in the class diversity of British society and the gap in income and career opportunity in this country is still operative. Graduation from the Universities of Oxford or Cambridge provide the greatest opportunities in the labor market, mainly for the middle and higher social classes.

In recent times, the number of middle-class students has been increasing in comparison to the small percentage of students coming from the lowest social class. The constantly improving educational standards, social needs, and

the need to catch up to other countries in PISA studies all increase pressure on educational authorities in terms of the influence on schools exerted by issues regarding improvement of educational results as well as the adaptation of methods and techniques of work suited to the ability and intellectual potential of students. In terms of policy regarding the disciplining of students, the government proposed an expansion in the package of disciplining students through equipping headmasters, teachers, and Ofsted workers with greater authority in terms of the option of using force in cases where it is indispensable (e.g. in the case of suspicion of possession of drugs or weapons), as well as the development of a system which enables the exclusion of students from schools, given that exclusion limits career chances for young people. This was aimed at rebuilding the social authority of the teacher and the creation of schools with an atmosphere of mutual respect and safety. On the other hand, discipline is perceived by some as an “[...] institutional system of violence; the National Curriculum is implemented by force through the increasingly favors pedagogy of violence, based on formal teaching, dominated by the teacher and reinforced by a system of compulsory assessment” (Meighan, 2010, p. 90).

An essential part of the development of autonomy in schools is the need to ensure that they are responsible for the learning process. More information, in the form of tables containing data on the achievements of the children, was to be transmitted to parents. This solution was designed to stimulate students’ educational aspirations. The process was to be assisted by reforms in the system of Ofsted inspections as well as in the curriculum, establishing high expectations for education through monitoring of pupils’ progress.

The government also recognized the importance of the development of the individual vision of schools by moving away from central facility management (the centralized approach). Headmasters, teachers, and boards of education were to play key roles in this process. It was expected that the headmasters of the best schools would support other educational institutions through the development of so-called National and Local Leaders of Education, understood in this context as the spread of good practice among teachers through acceptance of responsibility for introductory training for beginning teachers, as well as their continuous professional development.

5.10.5. The perception of the teacher in education under the government of David Cameron

The coalition government pointed out that the most important factor in determining the effectiveness of the school system was the quality of teachers, which determined the resilience of the system of education and the success of students. The essence of the reform plan was “the vision of the teacher as the highest value of the nation” (Gove, 2010, p. 7).

The countries with the highest level of school achievements acquire the most talented young people with the greatest perseverance and the most

suitable personality and talents for the practice of this profession. In Japan candidates are selected from the top 20 percent of talented young people; in Finland they are chosen from the top 10 percent, and in the case of South Korea, from the top 5 percent. All candidates are characterized by “high levels of communicative, mathematical, and social competence, motivation for learning and teaching, and very good preparation in terms of the subject to be taught” (Potulicka, 2013, p. 105).

Teachers in these countries are characterized by high socioeconomic status, whereas British teachers evaluate their earnings and social status as low. In the light of the educational policy of the European Union, the Cameron government planned to accept for studies teaching candidates with higher assessments than those that have been accepted to date. In addition, the government worked on “material incentives for the best university graduates to teach subjects for which there is a shortage of teachers” (A White Paper of November 2010, *The Importance of Teaching*, https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/175429/CM-7980.pdf, p. 19, accessed: June 29, 2017). Accordingly, the British government instituted additional financial gratification independent of monthly salary. These kinds of moves aimed at increasing the number of university graduates in the Russell Group (top 20 British universities) undertaking teaching work. Those interested in obtaining postgraduate teacher diploma training could, after serving a six-week course, work as beginning teachers in schools.

In the opinion of the British government, preparation for the teaching profession should involve many hours of practice at school. It was planned to “increase the number of trainees working during training and expansion of the best current paths to the profession, the paths through school. Also planned was [...] a national Training and Teaching network, modeled on teaching hospitals” (Potulicka, 2013, p. 106). These institutions were to be managed by educational leaders appointed from a group of outstanding headmasters. School Teaching and Training was already operating in London and Manchester. Their task was to control the introductory training of teachers in their regions. The quality of the work of these schools was to be supervised by the National College for Leadership of Schools and Children’s Services in Nottingham, which was not to accept the accreditation of establishments which failed to meet the standards. Since 2012, the University has appointed about 100 national management leaders.

5.10.6. Global “Fourth Way” of educational change

In the postmodernist era, full of the challenges and threats of the twenty-first century, the professionalism of the teacher is characterized by its unclear meaning, ambiguity, and unpredictable future, resulting from broad and comprehensive social changes as well as from the fast pace of the postmodern world. New patterns of consumption, the development of the Internet, and innovations in services, technology, and organization, along with the changing structure of employment, influence the necessary creation of market-oriented educational

services. In addition, the modern economy, based on knowledge and economic competition, forces teachers to take the initiative in the choice of teaching methods and techniques. This inclines them to vocational training in order to effectively expand the knowledge and practical skills of students.

To function in the postmodern school, teachers are required to understand their own emotions and to recognize the emotions of students and colleagues. This attitude testifies to empathy, which is a fundamental ability to cooperate with people. "As an emotional practice, teaching activates, colors, and expresses the feelings and actions of teachers and those they influence. Teachers can enthuse their students or bore them" (Hargreaves, *Emotional Geography of Teaching*, <https://ww2.faulkner.edu/admin/websites/jfarrell/emotional%20geographies%20of%20teaching.pdf>, accessed: September 1, 2016, p. 2).

The "Fourth Way" of educational change is associated with giving up the social perception of the modern role of the teacher as a technician, directed by the Local Education Authority, who follows the curriculum without any initiative of his or her own. The economy of the twenty-first century forces teachers to take innovation and creativity into account, thus transforming teaching. A contributing factor here is the international studies conducted by the OECD, for example, PISA, which create panic and negatively affect the work of teachers.

According to the authors of *The Global Fourth Way*, it is worth considering support for the work of students and teachers in the form of innovations to help them take advantage of the direction of change. Its points thus concern pillars related to educational objectives: education as a common public good, including dreams—the more impossible they are to implement, the more inspiring they become in school work. Another suggestion concerns the moral principles used in the economics of education, which uphold equality and quality in education. In the UK, LEAs are responsible for adherence to the curriculum and the school timetable. Another pillar integrates the learning process and innovation, supported by disciplining students at all stages of education. The final point applies to platforms for educational change that enable teachers to understand the principles of the implemented changes and to develop the capacities necessary for implementing them at schools. This solution will be more efficient and less stressful for teachers than merely passive acceptance of educational reforms imposed by the government (Hargreaves, Shirley, 2012, p. 6).

In connection with the implementation of the "Fourth Way" of educational change, certain principles characterizing the professionalism of the teacher emerge. One recommends sensible use of information technology; another agitates for positive changes in the school for the benefit of students. The essence of the new professionalism, aimed at the development of schools, is, according to A. Hargreaves, preparation for investing in the professional development of teachers and placing this investment in a specific institutional dimension. This is intended to help expand the involvement of teachers in order to improve the quality of teaching and learning and to create an environment for further vocational improvement.

For some, professionalism of the teacher is "a destructive attack on the autonomy of a teacher and his professionalism, for others it is changing the nature

of the profession" (Day, 2004, p. 28). The discrepancy between the presented positions reveals different understandings of the concept of professionalism in the teaching profession. Teachers are professionals when they stop planning and controlling a large part of their own work, whereas the ability to perform these tasks well and reflectively is disappearing and becoming forgotten.

The Education Act of 1988 changed the situation of teachers, introducing the National Curriculum, called a "serial killer." The omnipresent ideology of neoliberalism linked with free-market ideology has created the ideology of professionalism of the teaching profession, thanks to which teachers were treated like technicians as a result of the requirements imposed on them. In the light of this ideology, educational objectives were treated as the final level of production, whereas the process of education was designed to produce previously planned results. The recipients of the services offered by the school were students and their parents. This contributed to the treatment of school as a factory, in which teaching results ensured its survival, depending on the educational choices of students.

The years 2010–2014 in British education marked the return of the ideology of neoliberalism, with all its consequences. Liberal socialism was the dominant ideology in education for only thirteen years and created a pro-social policy of regulation of the capitalist economy. This contributed to the elimination of poverty and discrimination in schools through simultaneous promotion of entrepreneurship and adaptation of the requirements of social life to the demands of the post-industrial world.

Cameron, recognizing the essential features of the changing world in the twenty-first century and the platforms of the opposition party, created its own policy, labeled Blair-Thatcher-Cameronism. His political program, a combination of neoliberal, conservative, and liberal socialist ideologies, was influenced by the challenges and threats of post-modernism. Its characteristic feature is Euroskepticism with reference to European integration.

In accordance with conservative and neoliberal ideologies, Cameron upholds the principle of the hierarchy of the British society. Massification and diversity of learning paths in contemporary British education do not compensate for the gap between the elite private and state schools.

The PISA survey increases the pressure exerted by the LEAs on educational institutions influencing them to improve learning results. Modern schools, in which the learners come from the lowest social classes, with limited intellectual capabilities and the weakest grades in PISA and GCEs, are still in existence. Schools perpetuate socioeconomic inequalities from generation to generation; the hidden training program is a part of the concept of cultural reproduction described by Bourdieu, for the curriculum promotes the learning of values, attitudes, and habits, thus reducing the chances for individuals to obtain well-paid jobs and a better quality of life.

The best chances in life still belong to students from the upper classes, whose parents can supply them with a fortune and pay for their education in the best public schools, then pay their tuition at Oxbridge or Russell Group universities.

In terms of educational policy, the coalition government of Cameron and Clegg supports the British economy based on the new economy, which is looking

for qualified employees who can independently acquire new skills. We are observing education adapted to the requirements and standards of life of social classes. The graduates of public schools, Oxford, and Cambridge still occupy the highest positions in politics and economics.

5.10.7. Summary

The aim of the research presented here was to analyze the educational policy of England in terms of the educational ideology present in state policy, along with political, historical, economic, and social conditions. The author has pointed out the political roots of educational changes from the tenth century to 2013, with particular emphasis on the last quarter-century. She has discussed the role of ideology in general, compulsory, and private education, during the governments of Thatcher, Blair, Brown, and Cameron. The author has pointed out the continuity of neoliberal ideology in the policy of successive prime ministers and the impact of globalization on the change of the dominant ideology in the years 1988–2013. The dissertation identifies priorities in education (remedies) used to minimize the negative impact of changing ideology on British schools. Four “ways” of educational change in England which constituted responses to the changes caused by globalization were analyzed.

The late 1960s and early 1970s was a period of increased investment in public education, an increase in the autonomy of teachers, and a relinquishing of responsibility by parents for their children’s behavior in school. This period was called the “First Way” of educational change. To this day, the older generation retains nostalgic memories of the generation of teachers and trade unions which created the individual autonomy of the profession and fought with politicians about the ideology of progressivism in education.

The “Second Way” of educational change, associated with the neoliberal policies of M. Thatcher, was characterized by centralization and top-down control of the curriculum. In state schools, teachers experienced unprecedented attacks on their competences and privileges. The principles of the free market were applied to education. The publication of results in particular educational institutions was initiated.

The ideology of social liberalism, the so-called “Third Way,” emerged at the moment of the collapse of socialism and erosion of the faith of neoliberal conservatives in the free-market economy. There was an attempt to use globalization through harnessing the driving energy to revitalize the work of the government and the democratic system.

The realization of the “Third Way” ideology proposed by A. Giddens found fertile ground in the Labour Party of British Prime Minister Tony Blair (in office 1997–2007) and US President Clinton (in office 1993–2001) of the Democratic Party. The Left in the time of Blair and Brown built new, pro-social principles for the regulation of the economy of capitalism. The aim of the leftist educational policy was to fight poverty and inequality along with promotion of entrepreneurship and the free market. Leftist prime ministers adapted life in the UK to the challenges of the contemporary aspects of globalization.

Functioning in contemporary society demands that an individual must realistically plan his or her career and professional development, decision-making skills, and knowledge about the education and labor markets. Education with its mission, objectives, and methods of implementation fits in with the current of global challenges and serves as an indicator of the quality of life of individuals and the entire society as well. Education, broadly understood, implemented in various forms, equips individuals with the ability to adapt to new situations and enables them to take up work after finishing the final stage of education.

The socioeconomic changes taking place in England are related to the trend of global, transnational, and transcultural changes as well as to the policy of the European Union, which also affects the determination of the role of the government in the education system in terms of such social problems as the phenomenon of unemployment, social and religious tolerance, and social acceptance of stimulants and drugs. The Council of Europe recognized that these emerging educational challenges can be solved only in close international cooperation, through conducting empirical studies and making their results available, as well as developing common standards for testing the effect of learning within institutionalized educational systems.

The effects of each type of educational policy manifested themselves in a particular educational state and in the level of democratization of the life of societies. Dissatisfied students, parents, and teachers drew attention to growing phenomena such as aversion to school, school absenteeism, school failure, repeating grades, and ineffectiveness of examinations. They began to demand a public discussion on education and recognized the problems that arose in the school. These factors became the reasons for educational change.

In the twenty-first century, education is still under the pressure of the unimaginable accumulation of new information and information technology which influences the shape of our world. New technologies contribute to an enormous transformation in the field of teaching and learning, involving many students who, in the past, had limited access to the extended curriculum. To sum up, during the "First Way," education benefited from films and television. In the "Second" and "Third Ways," uncoordinated innovation and new technologies, used in excess, distracted and damaged the essence and content of the curriculum. In the "Fourth Way" the coalition government of Cameron and Clegg (ideology of neoliberalism and neo-conservatism) paid special attention to the quality of teachers' work, which shaped the resilience of the education system and ensured the success of the student.

Observation of changes in the ideology of education, taking into account the interpretation of classical philosophers and analysis of the laws and political debates of various ruling parties, opens up new opportunities in education. Analysis of the educational policy of successive prime ministers and their secretaries for education translates into an understanding of educational changes. This contributes not only to a new look at the education of European countries, including Britain, but also raises questions about the future of British education in the context of the new challenges and threats of postmodern society.

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