1 EDUCATION

1.1 THE ROLE OF EDUCATION IN SOCIETY

p.4 getting you thinking

Students’ own answers.

****p.10 Focus on Research: The British Cohort Study and the Millennium Cohort StudY****

**1.** The British Cohort Study and Millennium Cohort Study are both examples of longitudinal surveys because a) they track the same people over an extended time period, and b) they periodically ask members of their sample further questions.

**2.** **Advantage:** a large sample is likely to include enough members of minority groups in society (such as ethnic minority groups) to be able to generalise from the results. (Note that sample size alone is no guarantor of representativeness.) Also, with a large initial sample, the effect of losing some members over time should not be too detrimental to the research.

**Disadvantage:** the funds needed to study it will be greater and there will be more people to try to keep track of.

**3. a)** the very fact that the research is carried out over an extended time period obviously makes it possible to observe changes taking place in the participants

**b)** if two cross-sectional surveys were carried out, say, ten years apart, the researcher could not be sure whether any changes observed were the result of social change or the particular characteristics of the two samples. As a longitudinal survey keeps the same sample as time goes by (as far as possible), the latter possibility is controlled for.

**4.** It could do if, for example, it encouraged the respondent to reflect on their life in a way they would not otherwise have done, or if they took an interest in the findings of the research and read about these findings (assuming the researchers provided interim reports). A famous series of experiments carried out at the Hawthorne Works of the Western Electric Company in the USA in the 1920s/30s gave rise to a phenomenon known as the ‘Hawthorne effect’. The research was designed to examine the effect of variations in working conditions on worker productivity, but the findings suggested that the workers responded to the fact that someone – the researchers – was taking an interest in them by increasing their productivity in a way unrelated to the experimental changes in working conditions. Hence, whilst a longitudinal survey is not the same as an experiment, it is possible that participation in such a study could have unforeseen consequences.

**5.** The research suggests that, at the very least, this is an over-simplification. The findings indicate that children’s performance at school is influenced by their class background and that when opportunities to access education are increased through, for example, raising the school leaving age, or increasing the number of places in HE, higher social classes benefit disproportionately. How far education can compensate for inequalities external to the education system is a matter of considerable debate amongst educationalists and sociologists.

p.13 Focus on Skills: Competition, Exams and the purpose of education

**1.** The central difference between Little and Gove relates to their different views of the role of assessment and exams in schools. Gove was concerned about Britain’s low international standing in the Pisa rankings in terms of essential skills such as numeracy and literacy. Little, by contrast, was concerned about the extent to which schooling was dominated by assessment and exams and complained that an undue focus on test scores meant too little attention was paid to the content of education.

**2.** The two are not directly comparable because Little’s views as described here focus on the content of schooling, whilst the neoliberal perspective focuses on the structure of schooling. However, one can assume that Little would endorse independent schools, and that neoliberals would also be in favour of more alternatives to state provision of education.

**3.** Marxists see education essentially as a mechanism for reproducing the class structure of society from one generation to another. They would argue that, despite what Little says, it would be naïve to think that ‘public’ schools such as Eton don’t place a great deal of importance on achieving impressive exam results. However, they would probably also point out that such schools do see the production of well-rounded pupils with high levels of cultural capital as important. They might also see the humane letter written by the head of a Barrowford primary (state) school as evidence of state schools not pushing their pupils to aim for elite positions.

**4.** A range of possible answers could be acceptable here. The key thing would be how opinions are supported by evidence. Little is correct that collaborative work is usually required in the workplace, but it is also the case that individuals are encouraged to compete against each other to gain promotion, so the focus of exams on individual competition corresponds with this requirement, as Bowles and Gintis argue.

p.14 check your understanding 1.1

**1.** The Fisher Education Act of 1918.

**2.** Fear that Britain was falling behind its competitors in terms of the skill level of its workforce; the idea that education would have a ‘civilising’ influence on the masses; the belief that equity required that all should have access to education whatever their parents’ circumstances.

**3.** (Secondary) socialisation; skills provision and role allocation.

**4.** For Althusser, the main purpose of education is the reproduction and legitimation of class inequalities. It does this by transmitting ruling class values disguised as common values.

**5.** For Bowles and Gintis, it is social class background that is the main determinant of educational success and failure.

**6.** Willis’s work appears to support the views of Bowles and Gintis because they claim that the schooling received by the working class prepares them to accept dead-end jobs.

**7. a)** Bowles and Gintis suggest that schools *intentionally* prepare working class pupils for dead-end jobs, but Willis’s research suggests that it is only because (some) pupils *reject* the efforts of their teachers that schooling ‘prepares’ them for factory work.

**b)** The fact that some pupils form anti-school subcultures does not fit with Bowles and Gintis’s theory.

**c)** The fact that schools sometimes encourage critical thinking by their pupils does not fit either.

**8.** **Similarities**: both see education as performing an important function in terms of economic growth and both – implicitly in the case of functionalism, explicitly in the case of neoliberalism – endorse the capitalist system.

**Differences**: implicitly, functionalists accept that the state should provide education, whilst neoliberals see state education as inefficient and would prefer it to be provided by private companies which would be more responsive to their ‘customers’ (pupils and their parents).

**9.** For functionalists, education supports the economy by producing human capital in terms of specific and general skills needed by an advanced industrial society. Marxists accept that schools do teach skills, but argue that schooling produces workers who will accept the exploitative relationships inherent in a capitalist economy.

**10. Functionalist strengths:** recognises that education performs important functions beyond those that are generally recognised (the ‘3 Rs’), such as role allocation, and that education is part of a wider set of social institutions.

**Functionalist weaknesses:** underplays the existence of conflicting interests in society; tends to ignore dysfunctional consequences of actually existing education systems.

**Marxist strengths:** recognises the existence of conflicting interests in society and recognises ways in which education falls short of being meritocratic.

**Marxist weaknesses:** have tended to focus on class and education, largely ignoring gender and ethnicity, for example; ignore the fact that education can encourage critical reflection on the nature of capitalist societies.

1.2 CLASS AND EDUCATIONAL ACHIEVEMENT

p.26 Focus on Research: Chavs, Charvers and Townies

**1.** N/A

**2.** N/A

**3. Advantages:** allow in depth exploration of the issues (depending on type of interviews used); to some extent allow researchers to judge whether interviewees are being honest (by observing non-verbal communication, for example); increases reliability if the same questions are asked of all interviewees.

**Disadvantages:** rely on the honesty of the interviewees; danger of social acceptability response bias; if different interviewers are used there is the danger that responses will differ according to the characteristics of the interviewer; if structured interviews are used it will not be possible to ask supplementary questions.

**4. Self-completed questionnaires:** cheaper and avoid the possibility of social acceptability response bias and interviewer effect.

**Participant observation:** does not depend on questions being answered honestly; researcher may gain insight into issues that they would have been unaware of, in terms of designing a questionnaire or interview schedule.

**5.** The research suggests that labelling was carried out by middle class pupils labelling working class pupils.

**6.** Labelling theorists suggest that labelling can give rise to a self-fulfilling prophecy where the person labelled internalises the label and lives up (or down) to it. However, it depends crucially on who is doing the labelling. If it is other pupils, they are unlikely to have sufficient social power for their labels to have this effect. On the other hand, if it is teachers, they may have this effect, particularly on younger pupils.

p.29 Focus on Skills: Educational Choice and Markets

**1.** They were generally unable to afford to send their children to independent schools or to move into the catchment areas of ‘successful’ state schools and they lacked knowledge of admissions procedures.

**2.** They tended to assume that their children would be happier attending the local school alongside their friends and were generally less concerned about, or aware of, the school’s academic reputation.

**3.** Where schools have to compete with each other to attract pupils, those that are ‘successful’ are likely to be over-subscribed whilst others are likely to be under-subscribed. The more successful are likely to attract more able pupils, the less successful fewer. This may result in some schools finding that they are trapped in a vicious circle where decline becomes self-perpetuating.

**4.** If the processes described in Q3 take place, it is likely that the schools which are more successful will be attractive to ambitious middle class parents, ‘crowding out’ the children of working class parents who are less active in pursuing educational advantage for their children.

**5.** Supporters of marketisation believe that by placing more power in the hands of ‘customers’ (children and their parents) it will lead to a general rise in standards as schools compete to attract pupils. This belief assumes that education is a commodity, like washing powder, say, the quality of which can be easily measured. Exam results are generally taken as a valid indicator of the quality of a school, but if educational achievement is mainly determined by class background, exam results will reflect the social class composition of the pupil intake rather than the quality of the schooling. Also, a market model assumes that consumers share the same wishes, knowledge and resources in relation to the ‘product’ offered. This is not, or not necessarily, the case in relation to education. For the reasons outlined in relation to Qs 3 and 4, marketisation then may well disadvantage working class pupils.

p.30 Check your understanding 1.2

**1.** Material deprivation refers to a lack of economic resources.

**2.** Material deprivation may mean that pre-school children have inadequate diets or live in sub-standard accommodation, which could mean that they are less robust when they start school, more prone to getting ill or being unable to concentrate within the classroom.

**3. a)** less extensive vocabulary: limits knowledge of the world;

**b)** fewer books in the home: less developed reading skills;

**c)** values that militate against educational success: e.g. present-time orientation and immediate gratification

**4. Restricted code:** short, often unfinished sentences, reliant on shared understandings, in which meaning is implicit;

**Elaborated code:** full sentences, often with subordinate clauses, in which meaning is made explicit and is not context dependent.

**5.** Critics have questioned whether distinct social class subcultures still exist; whether the notion of ‘cultural deprivation’ represents a middle class value judgement about working class culture; whether some of the alleged sub-cultural differences actually exist e.g. whether working class parents are really less interested in their children’s education.

**6.** Cultural deprivation theory sees the knowledge taught in schools as neutral and universal and suggests that working class children are less able to acquire this knowledge because of various cultural deficits. Bourdieu, on the other hand, sees the knowledge taught in schools as reflecting middle class mores and interests and suggests that, because middle class children are socialised into these interests, attitudes, precepts and understandings at home, they will possess cultural capital which gives them an advantage at school.

**7.** Teachers may give some pupils more attention than others; teachers may label pupils and pupils may internalise these labels, altering their self-concept and producing a self-fulfilling prophecy; interactions within pupil subcultures may lead to conformity to sub-cultural norms.

**8.** Compensatory education e.g. the Labour government’s Sure Start programme launched in 1998; marketisation of the school system, supposed to drive up the standards of the poorer performing schools and thereby tackle working class under-achievement.

**9. Differences:** material explanations focus on economic inequalities between social classes, cultural explanations focus on differences in attitudes, values, language, activities and so on.

**Similarities:** they both assume that objective differences exist between social classes.

**10.** **Two arguments in favour:** schools with similar social class intakes nevertheless differ in the progress made by pupils from different social class backgrounds. Also, schools differ in the proportion of their pupils achieving educational qualifications, e.g. 5 GCSEs at A\* - C.

**Two arguments against:** the overall exam results of schools are largely predictable on the basis of the social class composition of the pupil intake. Also, despite the expansion of HE, social class differences in degree profiles continue.

1.3 Ethnicity and Educational Achievement

p.37 Focus on Skills: Institutional Racism and History Teaching

**1.** The research points to the underrepresentation of BAME applicants to and acceptances for PGCEs and their underrepresentation in the teaching profession in general.

**2.** Pupils from the ethnic majority are likely to be taught by teachers from their own ethnic group, BAME pupils are less likely to have this experience. To the extent that ethnicity impacts on what is taught this could lead to BAME pupils missing out on alternative perspectives.

**3.** This could affect the content of the curriculum, although this would depend on how much influence teachers had on the curriculum as opposed to say, exam boards.

**4.** The research appears to provide strong a priori evidence for discrimination in recruitment to PGCE courses, but there are other possible explanations. For example, it could be that ethnic minority applicants had a lower class of degree overall. Although this is unlikely, without more information about the applications it remains a possibility. There is also evidence of discrimination operating in schools according to a survey on ‘Leadership aspirations and careers of black and minority teachers’ in which more than half of the sample reported experiencing some sort of discrimination. One issue here is that this is a subjective measure of discrimination reliant on the perception of the respondents.

p.39 Focus on Research: Aiming High

**1. Quantitative:** postal questionnaires;

**Qualitative:** semi-structured interviews.

**2. Advantages:** cost effective way of covering geographically dispersed populations; avoid the risk of interviewer bias, as the information sought was factual, the fact that questionnaires don’t allow for the exploration of meanings was unimportant; results can be fairly easily tabulated; since the same questions are asked to all respondents, reliability is increased.

**Disadvantages:** respondents may not be honest (the issue of validity); questionnaires may not be returned which could impact on the representativeness of the results; questions cannot be added later.

**3.** Whether the results can be generalised in the case of the questionnaire research depends on whether the original sample of 30 schools was representative of all schools (eg selective/non-selective, state/independent, single sex/coeducational, religious/secular) and whether the low response rates led to the final sample being less representative than the original sample. Whether the results of the interview research can be generalised depends on whether the 10 schools chosen from the original 30 were a cross- section of the 30, and whether the original 30 were representative of all secondary schools.

**4.** Those schools which valued the ethnic diversity of their intake apparently had fewer behavioural problems and lower exclusion rates.

**5.** Extra resources would allow the schools to employ more specialists to support the teachers (e.g. in terms of home-school liaison) and allow the teachers more time to focus on pastoral issues and supporting pupils individually or in small groups. It would also have enabled the schools to improve their facilities or provide their pupils with more educational resources (e.g. laptops).

p.40 Check your Understanding 1.3

**1.** Chinese and Indian pupils tend to do better than average, Pakistani and Bangladeshi pupils worse.

**2.** Least likely to be entitled: Indian; most likely: Bangladeshi.

**3.** Ethnicity refers to the existence of a shared cultural heritage which links certain people to each other.

**4.** Institutional racism relates to a situation where the routine practices of an organisation discriminate against members of particular ethnic groups, whether this is intended or not.

**5.** Archer and Francis found that the parents of Chinese pupils ‘placed an exceptionally high value on education’.

**6.** Sewell suggests that their performance is depressed by being raised in lone-parent matri-focal families lacking male role-models and discipline.

**7.** Streaming and/or setting that misallocates on the basis of ethnicity rather than ability. Teacher expectations based on ethnic stereotypes that may result in labelling. A white ethnocentric curriculum. Differential rates of school exclusion by ethnicity.

**8.** African Caribbean pupils may be disadvantaged through negative labelling, high rates of school exclusion and not being entered for higher-tier GCSE exams.

**9.** The effects of ethnicity are cross-cut by the influence of other factors such as social class and gender.

**10.** Research indicates that schools can and do make a difference to the progress made by BAME pupils and students (see above), but so too do factors outside the school including cultural factors such as the value placed on education and parental ambition, material factors such as income, employment, occupation, housing, family structure and levels of prejudice and discrimination in society at large.

1.4 Gender, educational achievement and Subject Choice

P.47–8 Focus on Research: Girls and their Ambitions

**1.** Participant observation would have allowed the researcher to get a feel for the school’s ongoing daily life and social practices, its ethos, culture, patterns of social interaction and informal structure.

The focus groups helped her devise questions for her semi-structured interviews and explore issues she had noticed through her participant observation.

The structured interviews probably allowed her to gain mainly factual information, whilst the semi-structured interviews allowed her to explore pupils’ self-conceptions, expectations and ambitions as well as the value they placed on education.

**2.** All research techniques have their uses and limitations. By using a variety of methods the weaknesses of one can be compensated for by the strengths of another. They also provide a means of cross-checking the results of any one technique. For example, in focus groups people may be reluctant to voice unfashionable opinions, but they may feel able to do so when talking to an interviewer in a face-to-face situation.

**3.** The research found that the majority of the girls intended to continue in education beyond the school leaving age and the middle and high aspirers saw educational qualifications as important in terms of their futures. If this reflects a change in traditional attitudes of girls towards schooling it may help to explain the longer term trend of improved female performance.

**4.** The research suggests that girls’ aspirations remain gendered, but reflect the influence of other factors as well. Specifically, the influence of class, the influence of self-concepts and self-esteem, the influence of levels of emotional capital provided by families and, finally, the influence of changes in the labour market.

**5.** Clearly, this is the case in terms of what this research found, but this research was focused on a particular group of girls: ones attending a single-sex, state school in the south-east of England with a high BAME intake from largely working class backgrounds, so one would need to be careful about generalising to other settings.

P.53–4 Focus on Skills: Girls and Physics

**1.** The article provides strong evidence that the choice of Physics as an A Level subject is highly gendered, with boys significantly overrepresented in the subject.

**2.** Take-up of the subject is related to whether a school is co-educational or single-sex: girls at single-sex schools are nearly two-and-a-half times more likely to study Physics at A Level.

**3.** Two factors within the education system which appear to influence the chances of girls choosing to study Physics are whether they study in single-sex or co-educational settings and whether the school they attend has a sixth form.

**4.** Two factors outside the educational system are the representation of physicists on TV and the influence of peer groups (which, of course, can operate both inside and outside school).

**5.** The Institute of Physics recommends that Ofsted inspections should include the degree of gender equity in subject choice. This might well encourage schools to put more effort into encouraging their pupils to challenge the gendering of subjects, but what effect it would have depends on how much it counted in grading the school overall. Also, independent schools are not subject to Ofsted inspections.

**6.** This is a chicken-and-egg issue: which comes first, changes in schools or changes in the world outside school? It also raises interesting questions around structure and agency: how far can social action alter social structures? To the extent that subject choices in school are dependent on future career goals, gender segregation in employment is likely to limit the diversity of subject choice, but the research reported here indicates that there are many other factors besides the distribution of men and women in jobs, that shape pupils’ choices.

p.55 Check your Understanding 1.4

**1.** 1877.

**2.** Females.

**3.** Recent statistics suggest that the gender gap in achievement is narrowing.

**4.** Girls may be better prepared than boys for primary school because they may have developed better language skills through talking more frequently with their mothers; they may be more prepared to behave in class because parents encourage them not to break rules at home and they may have developed more self- discipline than boys.

**5.** Peer pressure may hinder the educational progress of boys if the peer group sees academic achievement as ‘unmanly’ and sanctions members who display an interest in school work.

**6.** Individualisation involves a process where people see themselves in terms of their own unique characteristics rather than as part of a group. If girls in the past saw their future lives essentially in terms of being part of first, a couple and then, a family they may have felt that it was less important to be educationally successful than to be successful in ‘catching’ a man!

**7.** Fuller identified 3 different groups of girls: low, middle and high aspirers. In all three, a range of factors both inside and outside school shaped their aspirations: family experiences, relationships with teachers, friendship patterns, work placements, teachers’ expectations, and so on.

**8.** Research suggests that girls do better than boys in coursework and boys do better in end-of-course exams, so when the balance in GCSEs and A Levels shifted towards coursework assessment this was advantageous for girls.

**9.** All children have to study English up to GCSE, but post-GCSE there are far more girls than boys studying it. Girls may be more attracted to it because of their greater verbal skills and because they are more prepared to discuss emotionally-charged issues explored in both prose and poetry.

**10.** **For the view that education is no longer significantly gendered:** the fact that pupils are now taught alongside each other in co-educational schools; the fact that pupils in co-educational settings cannot legally be offered a different curriculum; the fact that curriculum materials are designed to avoid reinforcing gender stereotypes; the fact that trainee teachers are encouraged to challenge gender stereotyping in schools.

**Against the view:** the fact that, where pupils are able to choose which subjects to pursue, gender differences in subject choice are still apparent; the fact that primary school teachers are mainly female; the fact that girls tend to outperform boys.

1.5 Relationships and Processes in Schools

p.64 Focus on Research: Black Masculinities and Schooling

**1.** It is likely that researchers would only be granted access to schools in the first place on condition that they guaranteed anonymity, since the schools could be seen as taking a risk in terms of their reputation if negative findings emerged. Also, the identity of teachers and pupils needs to be concealed for ethical reasons.

**2.** Sewell needed to form good relationships with the boys in order that they would trust him not to pass on potentially damaging information to those in authority and therefore be prepared to be open with him. ‘Chilling’ with the boys enabled him to both achieve rapport with them and observe them outside the classroom.

**3.** The fact that Sewell was himself Black and not a great deal older than the boys he was studying is likely to have facilitated his acceptance by the BAME pupils, particularly those of African and Caribbean heritage who were the focus of his research.

**4.** The extent to which the boys would have been completely honest would have depended on how far they trusted him. This in turn would have depended on the length of time over which the research took place: the longer the research continued without any comebacks for the boys as a result of talking to Sewell, the more they would have been likely to trust him. It would also have depended on Sewell’s ability to establish a rapport with the boys.

**5.** The main danger of over-identification with the group being studied is the possible loss of objectivity. The danger of the researcher ‘going native’ (i.e. ending his/her research and joining the group being studied) – which has been observed in some participant observation studies – is extremely unlikely in this case.

p.66 Focus on Skills: Racism, Gender Identities and Young Children

**1.** The research implies that the identity of the Black boys was influenced both by the ideas about masculinity in the Black community and by the way teachers treated them in school.

**2.** South Asian girls were seen to be different from both South Asian boys (even more obedient and hard working) and from other ethnic groups (because of their distinctive culture).

**3.** Pupils’ self-concepts (e.g. in terms of levels of self-confidence and self-esteem) are likely to have a significant impact on their academic progress. How they are seen by others is likely to affect how these others treat them and is also likely to impact on how they see themselves. For example, if Black boys are seen as disruptive they are more likely to be pulled up by teachers for minor infringements.

**4.** Labelling theories as applied to schooling suggest that if a powerful figure – a teacher, say – imputes a particular identity to a pupil or pupils, that identity can act as a master status, alter the pupil’s or pupils’ self- identity and set in train a self-fulfilling prophecy. The study of pupil identities could observe the effects of such a process or, indeed, suggest reasons why the process does not occur in some or many cases. However, the relationship between these two approaches is, at present, under-theorised.

p.67 Check your Understanding 1.5

**1.** Efficiency and value for money.

**2.** Giroux characterises schools as sites of ideological struggle. The implication of this is that the hidden curriculum can transmit contradictory messages to pupils.

**3.** Subcultures are groups whose attitudes, values and lifestyles differ in socially significant ways from those of the mainstream.

**4.** **Ritualism:** outwardly conforming to the expectations of teachers but without any great enthusiasm or expectation of achieving academic success.

**Ingratiation:** seeking teacher approval by going beyond the minimum required to be seen as a good pupil.

**Intransigence:** refusing to abide by school rules.

**5.** Anti-school subcultures tend to be associated with working class backgrounds and pro-school subcultures with the middle class, but this is not always the case, particularly in schools dominated by one social class background.

**6.** Subcultures within schools will normally reflect what’s happening outside the school as well as within school. For example, groups of goths will be influenced by cultural influences associated with music, films, blogs, etc. and gay students by wider heterosexist or homophobic views.

**7.** Hargreaves’s (1967) early study of sub-cultural formation in a boys secondary modern school, which he called ‘Lumley School’, provides evidence of how the system of streaming employed by the school led to the formation of two distinct subcultures by the fourth year (Yr 10): one pro-school, the other anti-school. Conformity to sub-cultural norms, encouraged by peer pressure, would have promoted academic progress in the pro-school group and undermined it in the anti-school group.

**8.** ‘Identity’ is a complex concept that embraces both how people see themselves (self-identity) and how they are seen by others (social identity).

**9.** South Asian girls were seen to be different from both South Asian boys (even more obedient and hard working) and from other ethnic groups (because of their distinctive culture).

**10.** A common experience for teachers is to bump into pupils somewhere away from their school – in the town centre, say – and be greeted by a look of disbelief on the faces of their pupils. Clearly, the idea that teachers exist outside the environs of the school is a big surprise to them!

Pupils, of course, also have lives outside the school. Indeed, school takes up only a relatively modest proportion of their lives, once one factors in weekends and holidays. Out-of-school influences connected with the family, the neighbourhood, the mass media and so on shape their attitudes, values, beliefs and behaviour and are not simply shed as they pass through the school gate. Consequently, it is unlikely that processes within school will remain unaffected by these external factors.

1.6 Social Policy and Education

p.78 Focus on Skills: Free Schools are Failing to Serve Neediest

**1.** The statistical evidence highlights two findings:

**a)** That the free school programme, as intended, has involved new schools being set up in more disadvantaged areas, as measured by the proportion of children entitled to free school meals. The overall neighbourhood average of the proportion of children in schools in England who are entitled to free school meals is 16% at primary level and 17% at secondary level, but the proportions of children in the neighbourhoods where free schools have been established are slightly **higher**, at 18% and 22% respectively.

**b)** However, when one looks at the children actually attending free schools, it turns out that the percentages on free school meals are slightly **below** the average for these neighbourhoods: 13.5% (compared to 18%) at primary level and 17.5% (compared to 22%) at secondary level.

**2.** ‘Selection by the back door’ means selection policies that are hidden or covert, since free schools are not legally permitted to engage in academic selection.

**3.** Supporters of free schools tend to be critical of state education and believe that by competing with state schools they will drive up standards. Critics believe that they will be divisive, will exacerbate religious segregation, make it more difficult for local authorities to plan and control educational provision in the areas for which they are responsible (since they have no say in their establishment) and that they risk lowering standards since free school teachers do not have to be qualified teachers.

**4.** The free school programme only operates in England so will have no effect on education in the other nations of the UK. Within England, the schools that have been set up (as of March, 2015) are overwhelmingly concentrated in London and the south east – 75% – so the programme is unlikely to have a significant impact outside these areas. Nevertheless, there is evidence that they are attracting the children of more affluent than average parents, which means that existing state schools will become less representative of the local population. However, since the programme only began in 2010 it is difficult to know what its overall effect will be.

p.81 Focus on Research: The Effects of Undergraduate Fee Rises

**1.** The survey endeavoured to gain a representative sample of the adult population in England aged 16-75 by stratifying the sample so that the proportions in the sample (of various demographic criteria) matched those in the population at large.

**2.** The research reported in this article covers applications by age, gender and economic status. These are certainly important variables, but there may be other groups for whom fee rises could have had an impact, for example, BAME groups and disabled students.

**3.** The sample is likely to have been representative of people covered by the identified criteria used for weighting purposes, but these did not include ethnicity or disability so may not have been representative of these groups.

**4.** This would appear to be a valid summary of the results outlined in the article. One might have expected the fee rises to have had the effect of widening the gap in numbers between the least and most disadvantaged entering HE, but in fact the gap narrowed in all three categories covered, albeit not by a great amount. However, the fee rise does seem to have discouraged mature students from entering HE: there was an 18% decline between 2010 and 2013 in the proportion of 25+ taking up places in HE and a 43% reduction in 25+ starting part-time HE courses.

p.85 Check your Understanding 1.6

**1.** Secondary grammar schools for the academically able; secondary technical for the slightly less academic pupils and secondary modern for the rest.

**2.** Children’s futures were essentially determined at 11 years old; girls had to do better than boys to secure a grammar school place because there were fewer girls’ grammar schools than boys’; the availability of grammar schools varied significantly from one LEA to another; many LEAs had no secondary technical schools; the system reinforced social class divisions.

**3.** Social democrats thought that comprehensivisation would promote greater equality of opportunity by avoiding the need for selection at 11 and avoiding other features of the tripartite system that militated against equal opportunity (such as regional variations in grammar school places and the bias against female pupils in grammar school provision). They also hoped that it would be less socially divisive in social class terms.

**4.** Open enrolment and formula funding, school league tables and SATs. All three were designed to produce competition between schools for pupils by providing parents with information about how well schools were doing and allowing them to choose which schools their children applied for. Competition and choice are hallmarks of neoliberal thinking.

**5.** Privatisation involves moving the provision of goods or services from the state to a commercial provider. Commercial companies have become increasingly involved in educational provision (e.g. some academy chains are commercial enterprises, although they are not currently allowed to be profit-making).

**6.** The New Deal for Young People encouraged unemployed 18-24 year-olds to pursue vocational education (among other options). New Labour also expanded the Apprenticeship scheme.

**7. Critics** argue that choice and competition in education through quasi-markets advantage the already advantaged who have the time and expertise to consult school league tables, and divert time, energy and resources within schools into marketing efforts, resources that would be better spent on improving their facilities.

**Supporters** argue that it puts more power in the hands of ‘consumers’ (parents and children) and forces schools to up their game as they have to compete with each other for pupils.

**8.** Globalisation has meant that debates about education are increasingly informed by reference to educational policies in other countries, for example, Michael Gove’s free school programme was influenced by Charter Schools in the USA and the Swedish policy of privatisation of educational provision. Globalisation is also evident in HE, with many universities recruiting students globally and/or setting up outposts in other countries e.g. UCLAN opened a campus in Cyprus in 2012.

**9.** Free schools are schools set up by groups of parents, teachers, charities, businesses, universities, trusts, religious or voluntary groups, but funded directly by central government. They are often run by an "education provider" – an organisation or company brought in by the group setting up the school – but are not allowed to make a profit. The schools are established as academies, independent of local authorities. Unlike local- authority-run schools, they are exempt from teaching the national curriculum and have increased control over teachers' pay and conditions and the length of school terms and days.

Supporters of free schools tend to be critical of state education and believe that by competing with state schools they will drive up standards. Critics believe that they will be divisive, will exacerbate religious segregation, make it more difficult for local authorities to plan and control educational provision in the areas for which they are responsible (since they have no say in their establishment) and that they risk lowering standards since free school teachers do not have to be qualified teachers.

**10.** One policy that may have promoted equality of opportunity was the ‘pupil premium’ which provided additional funding to schools based on the numbers eligible for free school meals. One policy which may have reduced equality of opportunity was the withdrawal of Education Maintenance Allowances.