



DEVELOPMENT OF EDUCATION IN BRITAIN AND IRELAND

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ABSTRACT

In this research paper, the development of the education system in both countries, Britain and Ireland has historically been overlooked, since 2nd World War till 20th century, and the role of the Labour Party in achieving the ground breaking progress of the education system in various sectors, primary, comprehensive, secondary, higher education, universities and vocational educational institutions. Interestingly, the politics of the Labour Party has been highly involved in bringing about outstanding changes; whereas, the Catholic Church was involved in reforming the education sector in Ireland.

Keywords: Britain; Education System; Catholic Church; Ireland; Labour Party

INTRODUCTION

This research paper examines the British education system of both Britain and Wales from the Second World War until the twentieth century, and various sectors of education, primary, secondary and higher education of universities were studied. The study also examined the development of education in Britain during the ruling of the Labour Party which had a significant role in achieving educational developments and transforming secondary schools into comprehensive schools.

The study also looked at the education system in Ireland, which covers the nineteenth-century period and forward, and the role of the Catholic Church in the nineteenth century that ruled Ireland's education system was prominent. The study also examined education policies, the National Ireland Teachers' Organization, post-primary teachers, the Association of Secondary Teachers of Ireland and the Irish language.

The Condition of Education during the Second World War in Britain:

Simon (1991) states that educational institutions established in Britain during the twentieth century served to meet the needs of various classes of society. Public schools emerged to offer education to the middle class: upper-middle, middle-middle, and lower middle class. The Education Act of 1870 opened the way for the provision of 'elementary' education for the mass of the working class. The demands of different social classes required a variety of educational arrangements.

Significantly, the Education Act of 1879 played an important role in providing education to working-class children aged five, twelve and thirteen. New schools were built especially in

urban regions. Compulsory legislation was another important factor in registering children in schools.

The Education Act of 1902 funded secondary education. Old grammar schools became modernized in the late nineteenth century. This schooling arrangement was allotted to a social class of a higher level at the time 'public' schools were widely constructed in society. The elementary and secondary school system was under the control of local authority, 'grant-aided' in England and Wales. These two schools allotted to about 93 percent of British children in 1937-38; whereas the rest of 7 percent enrolled in other schools and private schools. These two kinds of schools were founded before World War I. Elementary schools met the needs of working-class children, and secondary schools allotted for the middle class of lower standard of living. These two types of schools paved the way for qualified professions and a higher level of education (Simon, 1991; Barry, 2009).

During this period, grammar schools developed rapidly. These schools were consolidated as secondary education. These schools registered 96,000 pupils in 1920 and 99,000 in 1938 and increased to 3,000 at the end of 1930. Thus, secondary schools in England and Wales witnessed a rapid increase in the number of pupils to 160,000; from 308,000 in 1920 to 470,000 in 1938. Lower middle-class pupils paid fees in secondary schools to get proper education, at the time; working-class pupils were not included because of expenditures. The two types of maintained schooling and the public system remained unchanged. Maintained schools receive funding directly from the Education Board to offer a certain rate of their seats free of cost to children from primary schools, but these schools were independent of government control. Similarly, 'public' schools kept their position and remained autonomous from the control of authorities as the period before a war.

Elementary schools received a large number of local children through the maintained system of education of about 88 percent in 1938. These pupils left school when they continued their work for fourteen years. A small proportion of pupils who continued in schools of commerce and technology remained as full-time students to fifteen and sixteen years of age. The 'Hadow reorganization' took a great task to reorganize elementary education to supply three phases: the infant stage from five to seven years of age, the junior stage from seven to eleven years and the senior stage from eleven to fourteen.

In 1938 a large number of pupils from secondary school left school to work as clerks and got jobs of banking, business, insurance, nursing and police, the civil service as well. A small proportion accessed to universities. Oxford and Cambridge's universities enrolled students from 'public' schools as well as some students who received private education. The number of university students expanded during the time of war from 30,000 students before the First World War to fewer than 50,000 in 1937-38. The increasing number happened after the war; however, these schools were in serious financial crisis during the outbreak of war. In the 1920s and 30s, efforts were made to eliminate the difference between elementary and secondary education and to arrange education for pupils over the age of eleven under one code of rule which was a secondary system. As a result, three types of secondary schooling were recommended by the committee, allotting for ages over eleven years: grammar school, 'modern secondary' school, and technology high school. The committee proposed to abolish the fees in the maintained system of schooling to provide secondary schooling, free of cost for all students (Simon, 1991; Barry, 2009).



In short, the whole education system remained unchanged despite divisions during the "interwar" time. When Britain entered the war, most students were poorly educated because they left school at fourteen years of age (Simon, 1991; Barry, 2009).

The Second World War showed scientific and technological weaknesses. The Barlow Committee, which was a Scientific Manpower, planned to increase the number of science and technology graduates. Gradually more engineers were recommended by various committees to systematize teacher education, develop agricultural education, and expand medical education. Then, the status of the leading schools, public schools was not prosperous due to the financial problems which the headmasters raised for finding solutions. The crisis of these schools created hostility because those who had money could attend such schools. Thus, the reorganization of the education system was the concern of national educators to provide elementary schools for all to achieve democracy in British society. In its reform program the Association of Directors and Secretaries of Education emphasized on the issue of the public school. Their efforts were to achieve a national system of education free of costs, compulsory and international (Simon, 1991; Letters on the Present State of Legal Education in England and Ireland, 2020).

In 1992 and 1943, the National Union of Teachers and grammar school committees emphasized the combination of public schools with the national system.

The efforts of the Association of Education committees, the Association of Municipal corporations, and other government associations have contributed to the aim of a 'unified system' in all schools. They suggested that free education for the secondary level, to be financed by local authorities (Simon, 1991)

The National Association of Labour Teachers tried hard to gain support for achieving a "multilateral" secondary school system to facilitate education for all the pupils of thirteen years of age during the period of war. The Communist Party stated that the Labour Party, the Co-operative Union, and the WEA, all fought to abolish the fees of obtaining equality for children over 11 years of age. "One of the most important, perhaps the important, function of education... is to train different people, rich and poor, dull and bright, male and female to live together helpfully and happily", (Simon, 1991).

Secondary education became an important area of study for future planning. The arguments suggested reconstructing secondary education to "grammar, technical and modern schools- in the nature of the child," (Simon, 1991; Letters on the Present State of Legal Education in England and Ireland, 2020).

Most committees were interested in "practical activities and immediate environment" that require modern secondary schools. The Norwood Committee was built this suggestion on "child-centred" thoughts. It was reasonable to provide three types of schools to meet the demands of each child.

In 1942, a serious decision was made at a Labour Party conference to issue an education bill. These activities led to the elimination of the "double statuses" in the school and the concept of two nations from the system of education. Thus, CEA efforts have been made to design legislations to supply equal rights to receive education for all children, regardless of their social or economic status. Churchill himself participated in social improvement.

The 1944 Education Act legalized secondary education to meet the needs of the ages, capabilities, and abilities of the pupils. A leaving age of fifteen years was written down in the



Act, however, sixteen years were not considered for leaving school. The dual educational system has not been removed. In the middle of the nineteenth century, the country's education system consisted of five or six levels; the system of public schools; schools that receive direct aid continue to take fees; grammar schools; technical schools and other sorts of commerce schools; elementary schools or 'secondary modern'. Finally, the 'Board of Education' received a ministerial post to raise the standard of education of English and Welsh people. In 1943, Butler published 'his' Education Bill. The Education Act was approved by Royalty in August 1944 and its application gained great significance for improving the educational system in Britain and Wales.

The Labour Government developed comprehensive schools in 1945-51 and planned for the working class. Higher education planned to expand universities. Old elementary schools enrolled children. Indeed, great achievements did not occur in education during this period (Simon, 1991; Letters on the Present State of Legal Education in England and Ireland, 2020).

When the Tories government gained victory in 1951, Eccles continued as Minister of Education and Butler as chancellor. Butler discussed the increasing expenditures of the social needs and services in the cabinet. The Number of children in secondary schools increased and demanded more provisions and facilities of technical and higher education, for more hospitals and accommodation. The Cabinet assumed that the Treasury should study the situation and prepare a report. Eccles wrote a letter clarifying that the number of children were increasing and as a result, funds needed for additional education. Eccles argued with Butler a rearrangement of rural areas and educational technology, which he considered them central issues to his plans of 1954 accepted by the government. Therefore, the training program was approved and the responsibility of the authorities for achieving training projects for 1955-56 and 1956-57. The Prime Minister was in favour of developing educational technology (Simon, 1991)



Higher Education Development:

Higher education advanced in Britain after twenty years of the plan of development. The 1960s are regarded as a unique period of a British education. 'Third industrial revolution' provided the solid for the consolidation of education by governments. The growth of scientific and technological education was necessary for economic prosperity. Indeed, education spending grew by about 50 percent in the period between 1960 and 1970. The higher, secondary and primary sectors of education witnessed progress, changes, and transformation.

During the Robbins Committee nomination, special achievements were brought about by getting grants for the university education between 1957 and 1960, and remarkable growth in salaries for university staff. Furthermore, the plan was approved for seven new universities, raising financial funds from £12,000,000 to £15,000,000 yearly in 1960, extra funds raised for 8,000 increasing students, for example, by mid-1960s the number from 135,000 students increased to 175,000 by the late 1960s or at the beginning of 1970s, and money programs increased to £25,000,000. Higher education received great support during the period of the Robbins Committee. The Communist Party reviewed the growth of higher education to increase to 350,000 or 400,000 students in all types of higher education in the middle of 1962. In 1980 alone, the Association of University Teachers demanded 200,000 students (Simon, 1991; Letters on the Present State of Legal Education in England and Ireland, 2020).

An important issue was the relationship between universities, colleges of technology and colleges of training. These institutions were separate and tightly limited. The Communist Party suggested equality of status for these institutions for achieving integration to have university status. Crosland 'invented' polytechnics as an important "makeweight" for universities. White Paper, *A Plan for Polytechnics and Other Colleges* published in May 1966, outlined a reasonable plan for the growth of further education. In the middle of the 1960s, three sectors of education expanded rapidly. Crosland put into action his urgent program, containing fourteen points to find solutions for the lack of teachers to increase the training of teachers. Limiting the number of classes was an important issue, "30 in secondary schools and 40 in primary schools," (Simon, 1991; Loughheed, 2018).

Due to the growing birth rate, it was anticipated that an increasing number of children would attend schools, for example, 1,000,000 children would come into schools in the period between 1970 and 1975. 60,000 places for training teachers needed in 1965 and 110,000 places needed in England and Wales in 1973.

26 percent of Robbin's aim had been advanced in 1967-69 as a result of the Crosland planning, taken from the National Advisory Council's report about the Training and Supply of Teachers. In 1967-68, 94,800 students attended colleges of education in England and Wales.

Then, full-time students in universities increased from 140,000 in 1963-64 to 200,000 after five years. 25,000 students were admitted to the old English universities of Civic as Manchester, Leeds. New universities could enrol in 12,000. The CATs made an account for 10,000, London for 6,000, Wales for 3,500 and Oxford and Cambridge for 2,500. And the number of students at the University of Scotland increased to 10,000 (Simon, 1991).

In the 1960s, the number of female students increased from 24 percent in 1958-59 to about 28 percent after ten years. But the proportion of young men was higher than in young women. Indeed, five years from 1963 to 1967 saw a witnessed great expansion in higher education in the history of Britain. There was also an Open University system that became successful in obtaining an international prestige "of the first order". In 1971, the Open University admitted 19,581 students out of 40,000 applicants (Simon, 1991; Loughheed, 2018).

Development in Secondary Education:

Comprehensive School

Secondary schools have expanded enormously since 1960. There was the rearrangement based on the Eccles formula. Comprehensive schools got perceivable aid. A major change occurred in 1963. During this year, the cities of Manchester and Liverpool decided on the change. The education committee proposed to the council to transform all secondary schools of counties into comprehensive schools. In addition, Liverpool experienced the same developments. The majority of the Labour Party established a comprehensive school and planned for another four. When the Labour returned to power after conservatives, they decided to convert the whole system. The same pattern was carried on in Sheffield, where the Labour group was in control of the city council. In 1962, Sheffield decided to change secondary to comprehensive education. So, Bradford city council decided to put the "at 11-plus". Yorkshire also shared these educational changes.

Significantly, the accession of Boyle as a new minister in 1962 advanced changing of secondary into comprehensive. Boyle stated at a conference of the Association of Education



Committees that it was time to stop the concept of a “bi-partite’ system”. Edward Boyle could persuade the Prime Minister Douglas Home to make a Bill for Parliament to legalize comprehensive school system. Boyle wrote in the Newsome Report concerning the schooling of the pupils between thirteen and sixteen years of age:

“is that all children should have an equal opportunity of acquiring intelligence, and of developing their talents and abilities to the full” (Simon, 1991; Lougheed, 2018)

In November 1964, the new parliament met. Then, the new secretary of state Michael Stewart made his obvious speech announcing that: “It is the government’s policy” [...] to recognize secondary education on comprehensive lines. The method and timing of reorganization” [...] “must vary from one area to another.” Boyle also emphasized that rearrangement of secondary schools into comprehensive “should be national policy” (Simon, 1991; Lougheed, 2018)

Primary Education in the 1960s:

Primary education was considered a major sector of the national system of education. Edward Boyle instructed the Central Advisory Councils for both Wales and England to revise primary education and the change to secondary education in August 1963. More than 100 organizations presented written proof to the Plowden committee. More than 200 persons, among them teachers presented written and oral proof. Labour and Conservative made rearrangement of primary section and at last, became complete in 1972. This reorganization concerned the ages from five to eleven (Simon, 1991; Lougheed, 2018)

In 1961, 4,132,542 children attended primary school in England and Wales. 141,160 teachers worked full-time. The number of pupils grew to 4,919,382 in 1970 and teachers of the primary level to 172,434. The whole decade witnessed widespread expansion.

Children were streamed in primary school at the age of seven years. Teachers were sometimes passed a judgment subjectively. School certificates, exams, objective reading, arithmetic and dictation combined with ‘intelligence’ tests were taken from the child for streaming. Jackson analysed the relation between enrolment and the social class. Children of middle-class families were put in A-class, whereas working-class children put in C or D classes. This is plain discrimination against the children of low-income parents. There had been curriculum improvement. The “New Maths” was introduced. The book of *Mathematics in Primary Schools* was circulated throughout the country in a large number. Edith Biggs, an enthusiastic teacher travelled to hold workshops, instructing young teachers about new approaches and methods. She worked under the guides of Z.P. Dienes, a specialist in mathematics at Leicester University who introduced new methods to learn mathematics (Simon, 1991; Lougheed, 2018).

Most importantly, the major concentration was on ‘new Maths’ in reforming the primary school curriculum since the middle 1960s. The Nuffield Foundation has funded the project of the primary curriculum since September 1964. Many local authorities, established teacher centres to work on the project. Missionaries, advisers, and teachers travelled the country to spread information about new methods. The Nuffield foundation funds a project for primary education science and teaching of French. Creative methods were adapted to the writing of children, as writing poetry, drama, art, and craft. Alec Clegg, the Chief Education Officer from the West Riding has published an important collection about creative writing of achievements



of primary education. The tradition to encourage the creative art of children in primary schools was taken from the work of Marion Richardson before the time of war.

The revolutionary changes in the primary schools established numerous schools in the country, 20,000 schools were established in England and Wales. These schools received national and local aid. Areas, where primary education progressed, has advanced include Oxford shire, West Riding of Yorkshire, Leicestershire, London and nursery schools in Bristol.

Mason and Clegg were interested in education. They were expert in education. Both of them were interested in art, music, sculpture, and literature. Both had clear policies on primary education. Mason and Clegg showed great attention to developments in primary education in their area (Simon, 1991).

Then, the active learning method was adopted for primary schools for teaching music, dance, art and craft, environmental studies, history, geography, learning language and numeracy. Marion Richardson pioneered children's art to mobilize the imagination of children, supplying large sheets of paper and with various materials. Significantly, During the Thatcher Government, the second Education Bill was considered as a major Legislation issue in the autumn 25 October. By this Bill, Assisted Places Scheme and choice of parents were introduced (Simon, 1991).

Nineteenth-Century Development of Education in Ireland:

Buachalla (1988) argued that developments of education in Ireland in the nineteenth-century formed an important achievement affected by political instability and social and economic shortages. The Church and state had a great impact on education. The increase of the national schools after 1831 reduced the proportions of illiteracy. This event followed by a language change from Irish to English.

Three levels of education: secondary, technical and university education expanded during this century. But the controversial issues about primary 'national' schools prevailed in the field of education. Stanley introduced the national school system representing the Whig government in 1831, motivated by "political idealism" (Buachalla, 1988; Schools in Ireland, 2020).

Before the introduction of the National School system in 1831, there were only the Kildare Place Society schools and the Catholic teaching system. A large number of agencies that had a relation with churches supplied schools without the help of the government. Catholic leaders were committed to equality in the educational system. This equality of teaching provided by nuns and brothers, for example, the Presentation Sisters in Cork, Sisters of Mercy, and Christian Brothers in Irish. These teaching provisions were arranged in Ireland and abroad.

In 1831, seven commissioners were appointed and Duke Leinster became president, including clerical and lay members. Stanley instructed the Board to cater to financial expenditures to build schools, supplying school texts, paying money to teachers for teacher training.

The educational system became a religious structure for twenty years. And the 'manager' became similar to "local clergyman". The national school education witnessed rapid increasing. 3,500 schools were built to supply 370,000 seats for students in 1833-1849 and the parliament voted for the funds for these schools.

The Roman Catholic supported national schools. Irish Catholic bishops accepted the national system and the commissioners. The authorities of the Vatican refused Catholics to enjoy the national system. The Irish Christian Brothers founded nearly thirty schools in Ireland and



England and did not attach the system of their school to the Board. Anglican and Roman Catholic churches benefited from the national system to expand their education prevalence. The Catholic teaching system saw the difficulty of compromising the religious targets and educational values of their leaders within the regulations of the commissioners “relating to combined literary and moral but separate religious education,” (Buachalla, 1988; Schools in Ireland, 2020).

Teacher training and the domain of training colleges were the issues of debate for the establishment of the system of the national school. Stanley had planned to establish a centre for training in Dublin in 1834 and continue until 1922. The commissioners planned to establish a model school for thirty-two school areas to provide training and two years teaching for those going to the Central Model School in Dublin, (Buachalla, 1988). These model schools funded and managed by commissioners and supplied a higher standard of education than the ordinary national school. Each one had an infant, a male, and a female division, with the admission of 300 people and provided housing for teachers. Still, some of these model schools are in action as national schools managed by the churches and the Department of Education. Roman Catholic bishops did not accept model schools because they were run by public administration and because they supply “interdenominational education”. In 1863, priests informed religious men to take out all Catholic children, not to attend model schools and instructed that teachers trained in the model schools were not allowed for employment in national schools under their supervision. The Powis Commission supported “denominationalism” and raised the number of small schools in rural areas.

The Irish Education Act of 1892 submitted demands for free and compulsory education and asked them for financial aid to supplement for pupils’ fees if they were lost. Fees were removed in schools under the act. Teachers were being reimbursed by increasing salaries. At the end of the century, only 6% of the 8,684 national schools were charging fees (Buachalla, 1988; Schools in Ireland, 2020).

The 1892 act issued obligatory attendance for pupils between the ages of six and fourteen and its application was the responsibility of local authorities and this regulation practiced only in towns and cities where local authorities present. This practice was rejected by the Roman Catholic priests in 1892. The Local Government Act of 1898 established councils in the country and in rural areas to monitor the responsibility of attending schools (Buachalla, 1988). Most importantly, the variety of Powis suggestions and plans during the three decades to 1900 was the principal basis for determining the national school system (Buachalla, 1988).

Then, the Intermediate Education Bill was announced in parliament in June 1878 and reorganized as a law in August, forming a Board of Commissioners, consisting of seven members of Intermediate Education for Ireland (Buachalla, 1988).

The Secondary education system, which was built under the Intermediate Education Act of 1878, did not redeem quality or expand secondary implementation in Ireland. Teachers and students are concerned about examinations and results relying on school income according to the “payment-by-results” regulation (Buachalla, 1988).

Secondary education has provided chances to many thousands of children from the urban and middle class to reach higher education during a difficult phase in the political and economic progress of the society (Buachalla, 1988; Schools in Ireland, 2020).



At the end of the century, the education scheme was settled permanently to represent a variety of schools. The two central boards of the commissioners to represent primary and secondary education are “representative of political, ecclesiastical and educational interests”. Secondary education was decided by certain factors regarding the size of the town, “ecclesiastical geography, the interest, presence or availability of a teaching order and the quality of the relationship between that order and the bishop of the diocese” (Buachalla, 1988).

Then it was not obvious in Ireland the technical training that appeared in the last decades of the century in Britain and Germany was. This was due to the unchanged influence of industry and the prevalence of agriculture in the economy. However, technical and vocational education was supplied in various forms under a variety of agencies in urban regions. The Commissioners of National education founded institutions for agricultural education, and later on, in 1900, the Department of Agriculture and Technical Institution were established. The Powis commission encouraged the national schools of agriculture but tried to stop the model of agricultural schools (Buachalla, 1988; The School Run, 2020).

Education policy in Ireland in the nineteenth century divided the churches from the state and each other. However, still, a system from a national school made a provision of primary education to millions of children at the end of the century and a secondary system provided additional education to an increasing minority. Queen's Colleges in Cork, Belfast, and Galway, and the older Dublin University had founded the central cell of a higher education whose continuity and credibility secured by the establishment of the National University in 1908. During the last decade of the century, teachers received their education in the colleges of training and the rate of teachers receiving training and getting qualifications was growing rapidly. And educational technology was offered in large urban regions, institutionalized, financed and run by local authorities (Buachalla, 1988; The School Run, 2020).

Church Power and Patronage in Irish Education:

Significantly, the church of Ireland had a great effect on the culture, politics and education life of Ireland. When the Catholic Emancipation Act of 1829 and the Irish Church Act of 1869 achieved “legal changes”, the Roman Catholic Church expanded its power and impact in the nineteenth century.

Cardinal Cullen greatly influenced Irish education. He converted national schools into “*defacto* denominational parish schools”, had protected a religious education represented by the National Board to maintain a strong Catholics voice, and established educational colleges for religious education. He had also distanced the state interference in the Intermediate Act of 1878. Cullen clarified the Catholic’s demand for equality in higher education in a religious institution (Buachalla, 1988; The School Run, 2020).

Finally, by the end of the nineteenth century, the education system had embodied a religious structure at all standards. Then, in the twentieth century, political and educational debates caused a reduction of the dominant power structure in the Irish education system to involve the state and its boards of education to meet with the churches and their bodies of management. Teachers, political parties and parents participated in the power structure of the education system in Ireland (Buachalla, 1988).



Policy and Provision 1900-22:

Towards the end of the nineteenth century, two commissions, the Belmore Commission (1898) on the preliminary school and the Intermediate Education commission (1899) submitted important changes in national and intermediate schools. In 1900, new plans and rules were suggested concerning these schools until the administration changed in 1922 and the Department of Education established in 1924 (Buachalla, 1988).

Primary education changed. 'Child-centred' education is emphasized. The Intermediate Education Commission made recommendations on arranging inspectors, a variety of courses to meet students' different abilities and continuing external examinations (Buachalla, 1988).

The university issue and the status and conditions of employing teachers of secondary schools were two important issues that prevailed in the first two decades. University institutes, Trinity College, Queen's Colleges in Cork, Belfast, and Galway and Newman's University had a small number of students in 1908, approximately 1,000 (Buachalla, 1988).

The National Teachers' Organization of Ireland:

The National Teachers' Organization of Ireland represents a great number of teachers in the national or primary schools. It was established in Dublin in August 1868. There have been other local associations such as Redress Committees or Teacher Improvement Societies to improve salaries and provide job opportunities for teachers (Buachalla, 1988).

Many intelligent persons are involved with the development of the organization. Vere Foster (1819-1900) donated his wealth and his merits to many charitable actions. He was the first president of the organization. He played a leading role in carrying out the activities of the organization. He worked in issuing *The Irish Teacher's Journal*. A Dublin-based association representing teachers in counties: Kildare, Wicklow, Meath, and Dublin played a big role in the first congress (Buachalla, 1988; The School Run, 2020).

The organization has published extensive documents and reports on important issues, such as the *Report on Irish* (1941), *the plan of education* (1947) and *Eighty years of progress* (1948) about the organization. From 1900-1980 five important main titles submitted in the presidential election:

- I. General education Policy
- II. School Organization
- III. Employment Conditions
- IV. Curriculum Policy
- V. Other sectors of the system

In addition, salary, pensions, promotion affecting the state of working were topics of debate in presidential addresses during the yearly congress (Buachalla, 1988).

Post Primary Teachers:

Secondary and vocational were two kinds of schools after post-primary. Three additional types of schools were established in the sixties: comprehensive schools, community schools, and community colleges. Boards consisted of a church, local authority, department, parental and teacher representatives ran these schools. The Department of Education pays the salaries of teachers working in the administration of secondary schools (Buachalla, 1988).



Secondary Teachers Association, Ireland:

The Association of Secondary Teachers, Ireland stands for the interests of “lay” teachers in secondary schools of Ireland and “some teachers in comprehensive and community schools”. It was established in 1909. The Cork meeting of the teacher’s association tried to create consciousness among the teachers to fight against ‘ignoble slavery’ and ‘lonely subordination’ of work conditions. The association “absorbed” the Association of Intermediate and University Teachers in Ireland which was established in 1897. The Association of Secondary Teachers published a pamphlet in 1904, *Secondary education in Ireland, a plea for reform*, studied the basic protests and referred them to the policy of education in general.

At the beginning of 1910, ASTI clarified its targets to establish a system for the register teachers of secondary school; to “secure” sufficient salary by regular increasing payments and receiving “pension rights”. Towards late 1911, branches of women had been organized in Dublin and Belfast and teachers from Catholic and Protestant schools in the two cities had joined them for membership (Buachalla, 1988).

Augustine Birrell:

In 1907, Augustine Birrell came to the post of Chief Secretary with a lot of experience about politics of education at Westminster and with a personal contribution to guarantee education improvement in Ireland. Birrell proclaimed the catering of financial aids “to raise the status of secondary schools which can only be done by raising the present status of the teachers in these schools”. Birrell introduced his draft in 1912, providing an education act to establish “a professional register of teachers” and to secure sufficient salaries and job opportunities for them. By Birrell’s efforts in his scheme published in 1912, £40,000 was given as a grant to develop the status of lay teachers of secondary school in Ireland (Buachalla, 1988).

Irish Language:

The formal education system did not recognize the identity of the Irish language. A demand refused to use the Irish language to teach in Irish-speaking areas and instead was encouraged to teach English in schools. National and Secondary schools did not facilitate the usage of the Irish language for the part of the population whose original language was Irish. The national schools used English instead of Irish (Buachalla, 1988; The School Run, 2020).

The Gaelic League agreed to reform education. Douglas Hyde, its founder aimed “to reform all education in Ireland from the national schools to the university upon native lines” The League tried to guarantee “the intellectual independence of Ireland”. Davis means in his speech that the independence of Ireland can be maintained by teaching and valuing Ireland's history, culture, tradition, and the Irish language. Compared to the structure of English education with the Irish education system, there are many differences in state and church control. The British education system was mainly provided by the government. However, the Irish education system was supported by churches and religious orders (Buachalla, 1988).

CONCLUSION

To conclude, British education developed and reorganized itself into a more systematic structure. And conversion secondary schools into comprehensive schools were a long and



challenging process of efforts by teachers, professionals, and politicians. The role of the Labour Party in achieving remarkable achievements in providing equal opportunities for working-class children as well. Compared to the structure of English education with the Irish education system, there are many differences in state and church control. The British education system was mainly funded by the state; whereas, the Irish education system was patronized by churches and religious orders.

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