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Abstract of a Thesis presented in candidature
for the degree of Master of Education, by
Clifton Stockdale.

National and British Schools in Teesdale and
Teesside from 1833 to 1870.

The aim of this thesis is to show how National and British Schools were established in the Teesdale - Teesside region during the period 1833 to 1870. Within the region at this time three different kinds of community were evident due to the incidence of lead mining in the dale, agriculture in the villages of the lower Tees valley and industry in the towns of Darlington, Stockton and Middlesbrough.

National and British Schools which served the children of the labouring poor were erected partly from public funds which were available through the National and British and Foreign School Societies and partly from financial help collected from local sources. The survival of the educational Societies and the schools which they helped to establish were matters for concern throughout the period. Both depended upon the support of individuals who were willing to subscribe personally or organise the collection of funds. Examples of educational zeal within the region were most evident among Anglican incumbents and Quakers; certain members of the Pease and Backhouse families were prominent educationists of the latter persuasion.

Throughout the Voluntary period, national and local circumstances played their part in shaping the pattern of elementary education which was provided for the children of the poorer classes. Religious rivalry between Anglicans and Nonconformists, for example, had its effect here as it had in other parts of the country. Locally, other factors included the dominance of Teesdale by the London Lead Company, the influence of the Church of England in the villages and the changing phases of industry which were peculiar to Teesside.

The decision to set up Voluntary Schools however, was essentially only one aspect of the role of schools' promoters, they also became involved in others. These included the administration of building grants and building standards, schools' curricula, child employment and attendance and the selection of candidates for the teaching profession.

NATIONAL AND BRITISH SCHOOLS IN TEESDALE
AND TEESSIDE FROM 1833 TO 1870.

by

Clifton Stockdale.

IN CANDIDATURE FOR THE DEGREE OF
MASTER OF EDUCATION.

1972.

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Abbreviations used in the Footnotes.

- App.F. - Application Form: used by the Promoters of National Schools in application to the National Society for aid.
- B. & F. - British and Foreign School Society.
- B. & F. Rept. - British and Foreign School Society, Annual Report.
- D.D.Tr.S. - Durham Diocesan Training School.
- D.F.Tr.S. - Durham Female Training School.
- Min.Committee of Council. - Minutes of the Committee of Council on Education.
- N.S. - National Society.
- N.S. Rept. - National Society, Annual Report.

Preface.

Much of the research material used in this thesis was made available with the help and co-operation received from the following organisations and persons: in London they included the National Society, the British and Foreign School Society, the Public Record Office and the British Museum.

Local organisations and persons that allowed me to search their records were the Durham County Record Office; the Department of Palaeography, Durham University; the Education Departments of the Darlington and Teesside County Boroughs; the Reference Libraries of Darlington, Stockton and Middlesbrough; the proprietors of the Teesdale Mercury, Barnard Castle and the North of England Newspaper Co., Darlington: Anglican incumbents of the Teesdale and Teesside parishes; Mrs. A. Wallis, Historian and Custodian of the Society of Friends, Darlington and Head-teachers of local primary schools of National Society origin.

My thanks are also due to my Supervisor, Dr. J. Kitching of Durham University for his continued encouragement and valuable criticism.

C. Stockdale. 1972.

PART I

Introduction

During the early years of the nineteenth century some attempts were made to introduce into England a State educational system designed to provide elementary instruction for the children of the poorer classes. But until 1870 such efforts proved abortive. In spite of this, however, the promoters of Voluntary Schools did receive assistance from the State and with the allocation of the first Government Grant for educational purposes in 1833 came the inevitable concern over its administration and the introduction of other measures for improving the efficiency of the increasing numbers of schools. It is possible that these more immediate features of the Voluntary Period, diverted for almost forty years, any pressure which might have been applied towards the establishment of a State system fully controlled by the Government.

Nevertheless, under the Voluntary System a great deal was achieved by the time of the 1870 Education Act. Many substantial schools were erected and teachers were provided with the opportunity of gaining professional qualifications. Meanwhile, it became evident that the Voluntary Societies through which schools' promoters normally operated were unable

to cope with the growing demand for schools, hence, there were certain areas wherein little or no educational facility was available. Industrial centres were badly affected and many towns, especially where new heavy industries were being rapidly developed were among the worst. In addition the effects of the nation's increasing population were most acutely felt in such communities. If the schools which already existed could not, by reason of their limitations influence the minds and manners of all the poorer class of children then they were frequently destined to grow up in ignorance among their squalid living conditions. It was with some knowledge of such problems that Mr. W.E. Forster, Vice-President of the Education Department in 1868, sent experienced inspectors to report on the state of education in certain of the country's largest cities. Birmingham, Leeds, Liverpool and Manchester were visited by the Inspectorate and it was found that less than one tenth of the population was in school. Moreover, it was clear that despite the educational guidance provided by the Voluntary Societies there had resulted an uneven distribution of schools. This was very often due to either the poverty of local communities in which cases there might be no schools, or to

sectarian rivalry which sometimes motivated promoters to concentrate their efforts within certain areas.

The closing years of the 1860's not only saw the inspection initiated by Forster, but also a re-presentation of schemes similar to those of earlier educational reformers such as Whitbread, Brougham and Roebuck. To the cry of those early years were added the influence of the Utilitarian Philosophy and the effects of challenging scientific thought which was stimulated by Darwin. Eventually, of course, other sources of social pressure were created. For instance, the Representation of the People Act of 1867 enfranchised a whole new section of the population i.e. the lower middle classes and the working men of the towns. By this time few people now considered it dangerous to educate the poor in the basic elements of reading and writing. Also the Great Exhibition of 1851 and the Paris Exhibition of 1867 had made it very clear that foreign craftsmen were rivalling those of Britain. Their excellence was understood to be the result of the superior technical education which was obtainable in Europe's industrial countries such as Germany. However, in England, technical education could be of little value to the labouring classes

until a reasonable degree of literate and numerate proficiency had been inculcated.

Acknowledgement of the deficiencies in the facilities providing education for the poor, precipitated the emergence of three important educational movements in the years more or less immediately before 1870. The Manchester Education Bill Committee in 1864, for instance, aimed at improving the educational machinery of the country. To this end they urged the Government to provide a system of free, compulsory elementary education, which was to be supported by local rates. Under this system school management was to be at local level and existing schools were to have a 'Conscience Clause' in order to override once and for all the religious problem of the Voluntary Period. Next, the Birmingham Education League, formed from the Birmingham Educational Aid Society which had been established in 1867, showed that many parents could not afford to pay school fees. This group therefore advocated free elementary education. Lastly, the National Education Union founded in 1869, supported the continuation and development of schools on existing lines. Two of these movements attracted the patronage of both Churchmen and

Nonconformists, whilst the very presence of the third, indicated that there was still some feeling for a conservative approach towards educational matters.

The divergent attitudes exhibited by the three movements were, of course, representative of the nation as a whole. Thus, the Education Act passed in 1870, was in many ways necessarily a compromise, especially on religious grounds. But its immediate aim was to fill the gaps yet unattended to by the promoters of Voluntary Schools. To those places where no school existed, a short period of grace was extended, by the end of which, the Voluntary Bodies were to have made good local deficiencies. The establishment of the dual-system was hereby confirmed. Denominational schools were to continue along side the State's Board Schools in which the religious problem was solved by the 'Cowper-Temple Clause'. This measure enabled parents to withdraw their children from religious instruction which in any case was undenominational in character. The Board Schools provided the distinctive pattern for future public education. Furthermore, from the introduction of State controlled elementary schools, subsequent Education Acts seemed to favour a system which was undeniably similar at least with respect to religious matters, to that

promoted during the early years of the nineteenth century by those involved in founding schools on the principles of the British and Foreign School Society.

Probably because English elementary education developed rapidly after 1833, many of the historical accounts only give a very general picture of the national situation. Particular aspects are repeatedly emphasised. For instance, much credit for establishing schools seems to be attributed to the activities of the National and British and Foreign School Societies, whilst the usual brief mention of instruction in the three R's might leave the impression that educational innovation was unknown. On closer examination however, the development of the Voluntary Schools' System was very much the result of the personal commitment of religious and industrial leaders which in turn gave rise to considerable scholastic variety in some schools especially in the North-East.

This thesis is the result of an expectation that from the study in depth of a relatively small region, the specific might in some ways contrast with the general. In anticipation it is presently enough to suggest that vitally important parts were played by both local personalities and social

conditions. Whatever the achievements or failures of the System were, they contributed to the passing of the 1870 Act and subsequently to the State's control of education. But it must be remembered that from 1833 the Voluntarists worked within the framework of national policy, striving to do that which seemed expedient among the ignorant masses of the labouring poor.

Educational promoters working in the Teesdale-Teesside region collected funds, became engaged in correspondence, completed obligatory forms and met and spoke in Committee. Occasionally records of their activities were kept and therefore currently form part of various collections. Such available documentary material has been used in compiling this account of the introduction and development of National and British Schools throughout the defined region. It remains true unfortunately, that the period between 1833 and 1863 was neither entirely, nor carefully documented so far as elementary educational institutions were concerned. This was because it was not essential for schoolmasters or managers to keep any form of record book. The daily writing up of log-books was however, instituted in 1863.¹ But, public education drew "its life from many different sources"²

1. Sturt, M. The Education of the People, p.265.
2. Adamson, J.W. English Education, 1789-1902, p.1.

in addition to those of local origin. Chiefly, the National Society, the British and Foreign School Society and the Education Department of the Government were involved. Documents in the possession of the two major Societies, together with the Minutes of the Committee of Council on Education have provided much detailed information despite their incompleteness. Undoubtedly much material has been lost or destroyed¹ over the years, yet in spite of this it has been possible to build up a picture of the kind of educational provision which was available for the children of the labouring poor between the years 1833 and 1870.

1. See Appendix N.

Chapter 1.Social and Economic Characteristics of the
Teesdale - Teesside Region.

The following discourse was conceived with the idea of focussing attention on the development of National and British Schools, and the kind of educational provision they diffused within the prescribed region from the time of the first Government Grant for educational purposes to the introduction of State schools. Educational provision in the Teesdale - Teesside region between 1833 and 1870 was, as in other parts of the country partially dependent on what had been achieved in the earlier years of the century and also on progressive local and Governmental involvement which brought into being many new schools. Throughout the nineteenth century the benevolence of contemporary philanthropists formed a necessary ingredient of the entire business. Indeed, the contribution of local benefactors was crucial to the growth of the Voluntary Schools' system. In addition, social conditions and attitudes displayed by the labouring classes and their employees were important factors

which influenced the progress of the system.

The Teesdale - Teesside region is interesting in that it presents the research student not only with contrasts of life and educational development between village and town, but also with the unique situation apparent in the dale. Apart from Middlesbrough, which formed as it does today that sector of Teesside on the Yorkshire bank of the river, this investigation concerns villages and towns which have grown up along the north bank. It is important also to note that these communities were within the extensive diocese of Durham throughout which Bishop Barrington had fostered an interest in elementary education during the years previous to the period under examination.

Clearly, the region comprised three quite different labouring categories during the greater part of the last century. These were naturally determined by the occurrence of local resources; the hills of the upper dale were rich in mineral deposits, especially lead, the lower lying villages were surrounded by useful agricultural lands, whilst the towns of Darlington, Stockton and Middlesbrough became the focal points of trade and engineering for the whole of South Durham. Thus, lead-miners, farm-workers and industrial

labourers formed the region's working classes, upon whose harnessed energies, economic progress to a large extent depended.

The nineteenth century represented an era of change which involved the re-deployment of many of the nation's former agricultural employees during its early decades. But most of the changes which became apparent in the North-East affected the towns much more than the villages. The urban areas were becoming highly industrialised and undoubtedly contributed to the improving economy of the country. However, very little of the profits of industry benefited the working classes because in nineteenth century England, labour lacked organisation and consequently the wages paid to labourers were kept low whilst the hours of work were long.¹ Many people found themselves inescapably caught up in the gathering momentum of the re-distribution of the country's population which followed the Industrial Revolution.

To the towns especially, came those who were attracted by the prospects of a new way of life. In the North-East, capitalists quickly expanded their business interests which resulted in bringing large numbers of working men and their

1. Rich, E.E. The Education Act 1870, p.4.

families to the area. The process of industrialisation therefore, was contributory to stimulating a movement of the population which tended to cause "the centre of gravity to shift from the south towards the North of England, and from the country to the town".¹ Middlesbrough, for example, seems to have been largely populated by migrants coming from the scattered villages of Durham and North Yorkshire and to a lesser extent by others from towns such as Liverpool and Nottingham; but immigrants also arrived from countries abroad, especially from Germany and Ireland.²

Many of the new town-dwellers, perhaps for the first time in their lives were released from their former subordinate role in agricultural communities. Without the pressure of conformity which they had previously endured as part of village life, their newly acquired freedom was a fertile medium for encouraging various forms of debasement which constituted the source of certain educational problems of the coming age.³ The North-East was perhaps exceptional in this respect since a contemporary newspaper report suggested that Durham County was reputed to be the most drunken county in England until the mid 1850's.⁴ Yet, Voluntary education was frequently pioneered under such

1. Dobbs, A.E. Education and Social Movements, 1700-1850, p.127.
2. Census Returns 1851. Middlesbrough, Micro-film version.
3. Dobbs, A.E. op.cit., p.131.
4. Pease File. A collection of miscellaneous papers and cuttings held at the Northern Echo Office, Darlington. Darlington & Stockton Times, newspaper cutting, undated.

conditions.

Before embarking on the detailed examination of the development and organisation of the region's National and British Schools it will be helpful to understand something of local conditions and typical social characteristics of the people, since it is against these that the work and achievements of educational pioneers shall be considered.

Already it has been established that the social and industrial changes which took place led to the formation of the important Teesdale-Teesside regional unit. But in spite of the many specialised industries which were gradually developed, the retention of much of the region's former agricultural foundation was important in forming village communities. Some of the new industries however, did partially displace farming as the general way of life; thus coalmining, lead mining, shipbuilding, railway engineering and iron making became the basis of the region's economy. Necessarily, the products of most of these industries had to be transported to Teesside to the trading ports of Stockton and Middlesbrough which in turn established communication between Harwood in upper Teesdale and the coast. The period from 1825 to 1870, was one of remarkable industrial activity, bringing prosperity

to the whole Teesside area, but this prosperity invited the need for educating the rapidly increasing masses, whilst schools were frequently looked upon as the panacea for the ills of evolving communities. In order to appreciate some of the problems which faced those who chose to promote educational facilities, the three social areas which made up the region shall now be reviewed.

Teesdale.

This remote district was described as a "wild country"¹ by a practising nineteenth century schoolmaster. He referred of course to its geographical nature. The upper limits of the dale being confined by hills of the order of 2000 feet were isolated from the rest of South Durham because of difficulties in communication. Therefore there was a tendency for the dale's people to exist as a particularly well defined social unit. Their common bond was further strengthened by the fact that the lives of most people in Teesdale were dominated by the leadmining industry.

The extraction of lead ore probably originated in Roman times,² but it was in the nineteenth century that the industry flourished at its greatest height, uniting those involved

1. Log Book, Forest of Teesdale Boys' School, 1861-
incomplete book; - - - remark from Preface.
2. F. Whellan & Co.; History etc. of Durham, p.125.

under the terms of a comprehensive social welfare scheme introduced by the London Lead Company. Strict regulations ordered the lives of all concerned with the Company, but the required pattern of behaviour, normally brought complementary benefits unknown in most other parts of the country. Medical staff for example, were provided to care for the miners and their families, and schools, libraries and recreational facilities of diverse types were considered to be of value.¹ These welfare provisions however, depended on the acceptance of certain obligatory regulations. For instance, the miners' children not only had to attend school regularly but also a "place of worship each week".² The effectiveness of such impositions was "strikingly apparent in the general decorum and good behaviour"³ of the employees and their dependants. Besides, the evangelistic appeal of Methodism and the "puritan spirit"⁴ it encouraged here, probably determined within the dale's people, an amicable nature which was useful in helping to develop the Lead Company's economic efficiency.

The hamlets of Teesdale by 1833 had been extended into villages, but from that time, population changes were

1. Raistrick, A. Two Centuries of Industrial Welfare, p.22.
2. Ibid., p.59.
3. Ibid., p.31.
4. Hunt, C.J. The Lead Mines of the Northern Pennines etc., p.215.

relatively slight, since the peak for the entire district had been reached in 1815.¹ For example, the population of Egglestone decreased from 623 to 617 persons between the years 1831² and 1841,³ whilst in 1851⁴ a slight increase was recorded showing it to be 636. The only exception was at Middleton-in-Teesdale where the population increased very slowly from 1824 persons in 1831⁵ to 2,266 in 1871⁶ because it was here that the Lead Company made its most outstanding contribution to both society and the lead mining industry. Ultimately the village became the Company's office centre when in 1833 assay offices and laboratories were built where ores could be analysed.⁷

Besides being the hub of the Company's administration, the provision of good living quarters at Middleton also formed part of the Company's social policy. It is probable that these were compensatory for the bad working conditions endured by miners whilst confined to the weekly lodgings at the mines' 'shops' which were again provided by the Company. The system of 'shops' enabled them to remain at the remote mines in the surrounding hills, thus eliminating daily travelling which was especially difficult during the winter months.

Meanwhile, Barnard Castle, by virtue of its position

1. Ibid., p.21.
2. Census Returns 1831.
3. Ibid., 1841.
4. Ibid., 1851.
5. Ibid., 1831.
6. Ibid., 1871.
7. Raistrick, A. op.cit., p.68.

at the lower end of the dale and having the convenience of railway transport became the important market town of Teesdale despite the presence of the weekly market at Middleton. Furthermore, Barnard Castle was not subject to the dominance of the London Lead Company, and therefore, reflected a different social spirit.

Industries of this nineteenth century community were diverse and included dyeing, flax spinning, carpet manufacturing and the manufacture of shoe thread.¹ The population in 1831² was 4,430 persons, the majority of whom were employed in agriculture and the above named small manufacturing trades of the town. Many of the houses were occupied by the "working classes",³ whilst much of the property belonged to the local farmers. The period between 1831 and 1871 was one of stability since population changes were slight, for example, in 1841, 4,452 people were included in the Census Return and even by 1861 there were only 4,477.⁴ Up to about 1850 however, and in spite of the relatively stable community, it seems that not only were the inhabitants "hostile and indifferent to the teaching of the Church,"⁵ but they were also of "low moral standard" which was apparently due to widespread "ignorance and want of education."⁶ But by the

1. Fordyce, W. The History etc. of Durham, Vol. 11. pp.34-35.
2. Census Returns 1831.
3. Fordyce, W. op.cit., p.18.
4. Census Returns 1841 and 1861.
5. N.S. Barnard Castle File, letter from incumbent, dated 21st June 1848.
6. Teesdale Mercury, dated 27th Mar. 1867.

1860's the desire to have their children educated had gained acceptance among the parents of the town's working class society.

The fact that this small market town seems to have remained largely uninfluenced by the ordered ethos of the neighbouring dale throughout the nineteenth century, was probably because the working members of the community were occupied in diversified labouring situations. Since only part of the local population was employed in farming, a wedge was introduced into what otherwise might have been a traditional agricultural community. Thus, the local allegiance of the labourers was never totally assigned to the landowners, and hence, the Establishment could not enjoy a position of complete authority. Again, the overt antagonism towards the Establishment was possibly a bid for some degree of tolerance especially with regard to religion. Such tolerance was, of course, being accepted in the comparatively larger towns of Darlington, Stockton and Middlesbrough where the various Nonconformist denominations were gaining ground.¹ The fact that a British School was established here shows that a bid was made to provide alternative educational facilities for Nonconformist children.

1. See Chapter 4. pp.80 - 81.

The Villages

A further contrasting situation prevailed in the agricultural communities which existed between Barnard Castle and Middlesbrough. Generally, the villages were the residential centres of relatively small parishes, which had grown around an existing Established Church. The inhabitants of these villages did not owe allegiance to a common employer as was the case in the dale, but rather to a select few who were generally the local landowners. Yet, a high degree of individuality was preserved within the communities, due perhaps to the demands made by an agricultural way of life, and also to the fact that village societies were centred around the parish churches.

In most of the villages standing on the north bank of the Tees between the market town of Barnard Castle and the port of Middlesbrough, population changes between 1831 and 1871 were again relatively small. For example, the Census Returns for each decade from 1831 to 1871 for Winston were, 327, 293, 301, 342 and 336 persons.¹ Piercebridge, illustrating similar stability returned 278, 224, 235, 211 and 253,² persons over the same period. There were however, fluctuations of population in certain villages, but these were

1. Census Returns. 1831 - 1871.
2. Ibid.

not without explanation. Hurworth for instance, in 1831¹ had 1,017 persons but in 1841² the number had increased to 1,235. This expansion was temporary, since by 1851³ the number had fallen to 1,154 when labourers who had been working on the North of England Railway⁴ line moved away. Thus, in common with Teesdale the lower lying villages had population stability for most of the century. Also it seems that these small communities had their own joiners, bricklayers, tailors and so on which enabled them to be more or less self-supporting. For example, the village of Norton included in its population in 1831,⁵ tannery workers, bricklayers and joiners etc.

Probably by the middle of the century much of the agricultural produce of the villages was consumed by the people of the growing towns of Darlington, Stockton and Middlesbrough, but some was sent further afield as local communications developed. This was shown to be true in 1843 when the "butter wives"⁶ of the Barnard Castle area were able to export their produce to London, due to the facilities offered by the railways. Perhaps this indicates that the production of agricultural commodities was of importance as an 'industry' in South Durham, but

1. Ibid., 1831.
2. Ibid., 1841.
3. Ibid., 1851.
4. Fordyce, W. Vol.1. op.cit., p.499.
5. Ibid., Vol.11. p.204.
6. Durham County Local History Society, Bulletin No.11; Nov. 1969, article by D. Wilcock, p.41.

undoubtedly its importance was progressively overshadowed by the development of the iron-age industries which ultimately dominated the Darlington-Teesside area. Nevertheless, in the villages where communities remained tightly knit, the Church of England dominated the educational scene and the traditional way of life was hardly affected throughout the period. On the other hand the way of life typical of towns was more or less contained within the region's centres of industry. And it has been shown that population increases on a large scale, which might have introduced new thought into the village situation did not generally occur. Only in those rural districts surrounding Teesside which were affected by industrial development were there any signs of the changes brought about by industrialisation. The village of Norton was one example which like Hurworth not only became a temporary home for the men constructing the North-Eastern Railway¹ but also the site for the development of iron foundries in 1855.² During the same period there was a steady, if not at times, rapid increase in population in the towns as labourers and their families arrived to seek employment.

The Towns

The Durham coalfield was the chief factor in stimulating

1. Fordyce; W. Vol.11. op.cit., p.204.
2. Whellan & Co., op.cit., p.705.

the incidence of those industries which were to become new 'ways of life' for the growing numbers of inhabitants in Darlington, Stockton and Middlesbrough. Rapid industrial progress involved the development of railway systems which afforded a revolutionary, economic and time saving means of transporting goods and minerals. Thus, by the early 1830's South Durham became "the great theatre of practical operations on railways"¹ which demonstrated the importance of good communications for trade and prosperity. By 1831, and in consequence of the exportation of coals from the Durham coalfield the port of Stockton had become a growth area. At that time the town's population was 7,763.² By 1851³ it was 10,172 and by 1871⁴ it had more than doubled again to 28,021 persons. Of course, the port had, in the early years of the century been ideally situated to carry on trade with the continental countries having become a bonding port in 1815, and a warehousing centre in 1832.⁵ Until 1831 this was the only port on the river, and it was here that the Darlington and Stockton Railway Company erected five coal staithes to deal with the export of that particular mineral.⁶ But exports outstripped facilities⁷ at the port so that the promoters of the Stockton and Darlington Railway Company were

1. Tomlinson, W.W. The North Eastern Railway - Its Rise and Development, p.116.
2. Census Returns 1831.
3. Ibid., 1851.
4. Ibid., 1871.
5. Fordyce, W. Vol.11 op.cit., p.196.
6. Ibid., p.194.
7. Ibid.

faced with the increasing problem of providing more adequate docks. Such limitations could easily have presented a serious setback to the economy of both the coal industry and the Railway Company, therefore in 1829, the railway promoters, among whom were Edward and Joseph Pease, purchased and developed the Middlesbrough Estate. As a result of their action the railway line was extended to the deep water facilities at Middlesbrough in 1831.¹

The possibility of obtaining employment in Middlesbrough during this period was good, and the labouring poor were attracted to the town from the outset. Workmen seeking prospects arrived, and without any hope of finding a billet, they constructed "sod huts of the mud and wattle variety"² in which they lived before the first permanent house was built in West Street in 1830.³ At this time Middlesbrough was of insignificant proportions compared to Stockton, indeed the latter held the position of being the 'nerve centre' of Teesside. Darlington was not yet involved in the heavy manufacturing industries related to railway operations. However, it was obviously a potential railway terminus because branch lines from Middlesbrough, Weardale and Barnard Castle converged on the town.

1. The Diaries of Edward Pease, p.377.

2. F. Lillie, W. The History of Middlesbrough, p.5.

3. Ibid.

Up to 1850 neither Stockton nor Middlesbrough were engineering centres and throughout the first half of the century Stockton held its traditional position as the main port of the Tees. Indeed, the chief trade of the town was that of wooden shipbuilding,¹ whilst the weekly market dealt largely with the agricultural produce of the villages. Shipping Trade increased during this period, its rate being reflected by the fact that in 1836, the port owned one hundred and twenty six vessels, and two hundred and seventy two by 1840.² But despite the apparent health of business and commerce in Stockton, the developing port facilities of Middlesbrough introduced a considerable threat to its supremacy even during the pre-industrial years.

From 1831 to 1861 Stockton experienced a steady increase in population, but it never exceeded the growth rate which was taking place at Darlington and which ultimately took place at Middlesbrough. Certain similarities however, existed between nineteenth century Stockton, Darlington and Middlesbrough. For example, in the early years of the century, Stockton comprised only one parish, which was that of St. Thomas a Beckett.³ This was also the case in the other two towns, where formerly only one parish existed. In Stockton additional

1. F. Whellan & Co., op.cit., p.717.
2. Richmond, T. The Local Records of Stockton etc., pp.186-7.
3. F. Whellan & Co., op.cit., p.719.

parishes were created as the town became more populous, resulting in a total of three ecclesiastical districts by 1870. Similarly Darlington and Middlesbrough developed ecclesiastically over the years. But apparently there was not the extent of squalor existing in Stockton as there was in Darlington at the same time. Perhaps this was due to the majority of the labouring classes being employed in stable trades. It seems that many were occupied in the wholesale grocery establishments, wines and spirits establishments, or as joiners, painters, weavers and sailors.¹ These trades moreover, probably made a good number of apprenticeships available, which in turn, perhaps determined to a large extent the course of the development of elementary education. Throughout most of the century educational promotion here was never of the order of that taking place in Darlington. In fact, as has already been mentioned, Stockton was destined to become the least important of the three towns linked by rail and river. Meanwhile, the development of Middlesbrough presented the greatest challenge to the supremacy of Teesside's first port.

Here small industries gradually developed, the first being the Middlesbrough Pottery in 1834² when the population was only

1. Richmond, T. op.cit., p.164.
2. Lillie, W. op.cit., p.65.

of the order of 154 persons.¹ The majority of these were of the labouring poor class, many of whom had succumbed to the prevailing debasing influences of the day, therefore by 1837 the new town was "noted not for its religious worship and temperance, but for its drunkenness."² Probably the main cause of debasement was the poverty which existed among the "busy multitude"³ of the labouring poor who continually arrived to find employment. In this new community of people who came from differing backgrounds there was little tradition which might have been an influence towards social orderliness: Middlesbrough had to wait for the gradual introduction of stabilising factors.

Irrespective however, of social problems, the Middlesbrough Owners had invested for the future in the bleak marsh land at the mouth of the Tees estuary. Progressively, other trades were introduced into the town when breadmakers, shopkeepers, sailmakers, bricklayers, a solicitor's clerk, accountant, druggist, pilot and master mariner⁴ were represented among the people. It was noted earlier too, that the population was to increase rapidly and this happened especially after the introduction of the iron industry.

In some ways it was perhaps fortunate that the concept

1. Census Returns 1831.
2. Lillie, W. op.cit., p.65.
3. Ibid., p.68.
4. Ibid.;

of the Middlesbrough project was largely in the hands of the Quaker businessmen who directed affairs from Darlington. These men were at least aware of the educational needs of the labouring poor as indeed shall be demonstrated by their generosity towards the establishment of schools. In this new town they introduced what was to become a most successful example of British School education.

Also during the early 1830's the manners of many members of the working classes were often reformed as a result of Nonconformists preaching the Christian Gospel. For instance, the Methodists brought their simple message at the first sign of industrial development and engaged in evangelical preaching under the coal-staithes as early as 1828.¹ Methodism with its preaching of temperance and puritan ideals made its impact just as it had done in Teesdale, and by 1838² this denomination had erected the town's first permanent church building. Following the Methodists, came the Congregationalists who established their place of worship in 1839. And by the end of the 1840's the Baptists, the Established Church, the Roman Catholics and the Society of Friends,³ had their own places of worship which showed that common meeting places were being established for the people.

1. Ibid., p.84.

2. Ibid.

3. Ibid., pp. 85-87.

Besides these religious institutions, however, secular organisations were beginning to appear too, and a Mechanics' Institute was founded in 1840.¹ But in spite of such corporate activities, there was seemingly some reluctance on the part of the Anglicans to introduce schools for the education of poor children. This attitude was prevalent until 1860.

The importance of Middlesbrough as an engineering port dates from the time when the engineering trade was pioneered in 1841 by the Bolckow and Vaughan partnership.² From that year Middlesbrough became the centre for producing the mechanical apparatus for use on the railways. The fact that industrial expansion was taking place was illustrated by the subsequent population increase; the Census Return for 1841³ was 5,463 persons - an increase of more than five thousand over the previous decade. Stockton, on the other hand, attracted just slightly more than two thousand of the seven thousand persons who migrated to the area. Its decline over the next decade was demonstrated by a population increase of only little in excess of one thousand, while Middlesbrough increased by more than two thousand. From this contrasting situation it is clear that Stockton was beginning to be of

1. Ibid., p.265.

2. Ibid., p.70.

3. Census Returns 1841.

secondary importance as a potential industrial centre and port.

The fact that Middlesbrough did become of industrial importance, was probably wholly due to the activities of Bolckow and Vaughan who had erected iron smelting furnaces in 1846 at Witton Park¹ because they believed that iron-ore could be obtained as a by-product from the Durham collieries. However, it was found that the ore for those furnaces had to be imported until iron stone was discovered in 1850 at Eston² in the Cleveland Hills. The availability of this local iron stone and coke ensured the progress of the industry and marked the beginning of a new era for the town and port. Consequently, iron works were built at Eston in 1852,³ and the consolidation of the iron industry on Teesside was begun. Initially, six furnaces employed three hundred men but four more furnaces were set up in 1855 at Middlesbrough in order to keep pace with the demand for iron. Later, other firms were invited to build furnaces for Bolckow and Vaughan, for instance, in 1856, Gilks, Wilson and Leatham⁴ erected three more blast furnaces in Middlesbrough so that by 1859 there were thirty two in the district producing iron for export to France, Holland, Germany and Russia.⁵ Significantly, when the 1861 Census Figures were returned the town had now grown to 18,962⁶

1. Lillie, W. op.cit., p.96.

2. Ibid., p.97.

3. Ibid., p.97.

4. Ibid., p.98.

5. Ibid., p.100.

6. Census Returns 1861.

persons, many of whom were employed in the production of iron. Numerically Middlesbrough now exceeded Stockton by some 5,000 persons. The latter was clearly displaced as the industrial port of the Tees, but legally Middlesbrough was yet a sub-port, boasting only a branch of the Stockton Customs House. In spite of this however, exports from Middlesbrough in 1860 were valued at £284,030, whilst from Stockton, shipping business for the same year was valued at only £14,218.¹ In 1861 therefore, the town was "constituted as a port,"² thus gaining official acknowledgement.

During this period of industrial development in Middlesbrough, Stockton had modernised its shipbuilding industry by introducing the utilisation of iron in place of wood. It was of course, inevitable that iron ships would replace wooden vessels, hence, the first iron ship to be built on the Tees was launched here in 1854.³ But not to be outdone, Middlesbrough entered the competitive shipbuilding industry when Rake, Kimber & Co. built the first iron vessel there in 1858,⁴ Between 1860 and 1870 this industry became as highly developed and successful as that of iron making. In the meantime the population still continued to rise owing to "great industrial activity"⁵ and more than doubled itself

1. Lillie, W. op.cit., p.130.
2. Ibid., p.31.
3. Richmond, T. op.cit., p.222.
4. Lillie, W. op.cit., p.104.
5. Ibid., p.104.

between 1860 and 1870, indeed, by 1871 the total number of inhabitants was 40,000. It was during this decade that much had to be done for the education of poor children since hitherto their schooling had been largely neglected.

Finally, Darlington expanded rapidly from 1831, due initially to increased trading and later to the development of railway and engineering industries.¹ As in Stockton and Middlesbrough, the growth areas of the town were gradually formed into new parishes, where certain members of society became responsible for educational provision as well as for other aspects of parochial welfare.

Originally the town evolved around the markets of Tubwell Row, High Row and Bondgate.² Families inhabited the many yards and courts which opened on to the main street. The names given to the yards, for example, Weaver's Yard, Salt Yard and Pipe Yard,³ were usually indicative of the occupations of the dwellers. Throughout most of the nineteenth century these yards were squalid places because people, pigs, middens and wells were to be found in the confined areas of habitation. Diseases such as typhus and smallpox were prevalent, whilst the death rate was of the order of 29 per 1,000.⁴ Such were the living conditions endured by the working classes of the ancient

1. See later in Chapter p.34. and also Chapter 5. p.110.
2. Nicholson, C.P. *Those Boys O' Bondgate*, p.73.
3. *Ibid.*, p.74.
4. *Ibid.*

parish of St. Cuthbert which had been founded for more than six hundred years by 1836, when the next ecclesiastical district was formed.

Before Darlington became an engineering centre i.e. not until the 1850's, it was generally noted for the manufacture of woollen goods.¹ Hence, textile manufacturing in its various branches formed the largest group of related trades, Pease and Company being the largest employers of labour. Cattle dealing was also well established in the markets of Tubwell Row, High Row and Bondgate and other markets and fairs traded in the produce of the existing thirty butcheries and twenty four slaughter houses.² Initially, the expansion of the town was due to the success of the textile manufacturing mills. The first growth point resulted in the development of dwelling houses on the road which led towards the village of Cockerton. In 1836 a new parish was created here to serve a community of "manufacturing employees."³ In 1846, and complementary to the development of the railway terminus, the town expanded on the east side of the Skerne becoming a "most populous colony."⁴ Its inhabitants were described by the local incumbent as being mainly employed in the manufacturing trades or as railway employees.⁵ The Forge, the first of the

1. Fordyce, W. Vol.1. op.cit., p.479.

2. Ibid., p.488.

3. App.F.Holy Trinity National School, Darlington, Dated 5th February, 1845.

4. Longstaffe, W.H.D. The History etc., of Darlington, p.247.

5. App.F.St. John's National School, Darlington, dated 7th Sept. 1846.

heavy industries was established in 1854 but it was only on a very small scale.¹ But coincidental with the establishment of the Locomotive Shop in the North Road in 1863,² was the greatest expansion of the population. Thus, during the decade 1861³ to 1871⁴ the number of inhabitants in the town increased from 16,762 to 30,298 persons, many of whom were children belonging to the labouring poor and who required educational facilities.

Darlington was now principally a 'railway town', having effectively claimed the business of railway engineering from Middlesbrough. The consolidation of all things concerned with this form of conveyance at Darlington, was probably due to it being the operational centre of the North-Eastern Railway System, which in 1863,⁵ incorporated into the Company, the small, but original, Stockton and Darlington Railway Company.

This introductory survey of Darlington, Stockton and Middlesbrough, has illustrated what was happening industrially and socially in the towns of the region. Without sufficient parochial oversight plus the arrival of immigrants into the new industrial societies, it was clear that the old traditional system and ideas were destined to crumble. Also, as was discussed earlier in the Chapter, there was little attempt to

1. Nicholson, C.P. op.cit., p.54.
2. Ibid.
3. Census Returns 1861.
4. Ibid., 1871.
5. F. Whellan & Co. op.cit., p.454.

control attendant debasing influences in the early years of the century.

It has been shown however, that most of the contemporary denominations of the dissenting church were represented among the people. For example, the Catholic population of Stockton in 1852 was between 800-900 and in the same year there were between 900-1,000 Catholics in Darlington.¹ And evangelical Methodists, seeing the 'fields - white already to harvest', had arrived early to such areas of growth as Middlesbrough. They were not unsuccessful evangelists of Nonconformity because as a result of their work more educational provision was made available either in Sunday-School or day school. Yet in the main, the most effective means of elementary education were to be established through the auspices of the National and British Societies.

Throughout the nineteenth century there was a growing need for a vocational education, especially when men were beginning to control machines in the industrial centres. The advent of the Mechanics' Institutes and the fact that in Darlington, pupils of the Skinnergate British School were actively encouraged to attend the one in the town demonstrated an urge for more than just a basic education.² But first of

1. Heyes, J.F. Roman Catholic Education in County Durham, 1580-1870, p.234.
2. See Chapter 8, p. 170.

all the facilities for providing the basic essentials of knowledge had to be extended to the majority of the people in the villages as well as in the towns. Since such educational privileges were controlled largely by the National and British and Foreign School Societies, the part played by these organisations shall be discussed in the following Chapter.

Chapter 2.

The Role of the National and British and Foreign
School Societies in the Voluntary School System.

From the time of the foundation of the Christian Church in England, education and religious teaching have been held in close association.¹ This relationship persisted until the State system of schools was introduced in 1870 despite the religious conflicts which from time to time existed between the Established Church and dissenters, and which moreover, entered into the educational arrangements of the Voluntary Period. But any differences that there were between supporters of the Establishment and those of Nonconformity had to be resolved in the long run, because in 1833 the Voluntary Schools' System was given the Government's confirmation when public funds were allocated to the Church of England National Society and the Nonconformist British and Foreign School Society for distribution.

In the previous Chapter it was shown that during the nineteenth century new communities were rapidly being born especially in the towns of Teesside. But because debasing social conditions affected many of the working classes some

1. Rich, E.E. op.cit., p.36.

means of bringing discipline to the masses had to be conceived. Of course, the situation in the North-East was not unique, indeed, throughout the country similar conditions were prevalent due to the effects of industrialisation.

Above all it was realised that something must be done for the labouring poor, but generally there were only the voluntary organisations which had concern for their welfare. Accordingly, there was much scope for the Voluntaryists because of a need for relief on many fronts. This gave rise to the formation of numerous societies which tried to deal with the problems of the period. For example, an Education and Clothing Society gave clothes to wretched children and sent them to school,¹ and the Society for Bettering the Conditions and Increasing the Comforts of the Poor, together with other groups, were aware of some of the causes of social distress. The incidence of such societies showed that the labouring poor classes had little hope of organising themselves to fight for improved conditions whilst for elementary education, they could only await the aid of voluntary effort.

Some attempts had been made to educate the children of the poor in the eighteenth century; the Charity School and the Sunday School Movements had both contributed; but

1. Jarman, T.L. Landmarks in the History of Education, p.247.

Bell and Lancaster in the early nineteenth century introduced systems which provided the means whereby most poor children were eventually given the opportunity of elementary instruction. But because they were of differing religious persuasion their efforts became confined to their representative Societies. Hence, the National Society representing Churchmen and the British and Foreign School Society representing Nonconformists respectively were formed. Their foundation in 1811 and 1808 resulted from a feeling that more should be done to provide schools for the children of the labouring poor. But it must be emphasised that these Societies were essentially voluntary organisations, and therefore, any aid they gave depended on collective financial subscriptions from Christians who had compassion for the poor. Even the introduction of Government funds in 1833 for elementary school purposes did not radically alter the voluntary basis on which they functioned. Despite the vigour of these two Societies in the building of schools, their ultimate role was largely dependent on finance available at local level. Besides, the National Society could not initiate a school building project without the backing of a parish Church, whilst in the case of setting up Nonconformist educational institutions under the British Schools' scheme,

dedicated groups of Christian promoters were essential. Therefore, in providing schools for the poor it is evident that the channels through which help was initiated were the churches and wealthy industrialists who were often church leaders. Sometimes however, in the growing towns of the nineteenth century the formation of new Anglican parishes lagged far behind population increases thus causing prolonged ignorance among the poor.¹ The reason for this was because normally a parish had to be properly established before a National School could be proposed, since educational provision in the first instance was the prerogative of the incumbent. The promoters of Nonconformist Schools of course, were not restricted by the parish system.

Local incumbents of the Anglican Church were in positions of importance concerning the promotion of Voluntary Schools because they acted as liaison officers with the National Society and as organisers at local level. They were, for instance, responsible for completing the forms necessary for the various transactions. One such form was the rather lengthy initial Application Form which was a request to the National Society for financial aid towards establishing a school. The Form illustrated in Appendix F² shows that on it

1. See Chapter 5, pp.113-115.
2. See Appendix F.

had to be stated the numbers of pupils for which the school was intended, the number of rooms, the estimated cost, the nature of existing schools, the population of the parish and other local detail. It should also be noted that the Diocesan Bishop was required to countersign the proposal, thus showing his approval. Provided acceptance was granted by the National Society, an agreement known as the 'Terms of Union' was then entered into between the Society and a school's managers. The 'Terms of Union' were laid down precisely in 1839 in order to safeguard doctrinal matters peculiar to the Church of England.¹ Even before that date certain rules existed whereby schools were bound to the Church.² From 1839 however, it was required that,

"a school shall provide an Education for the Poor in the principles of the Established Church."

"the school shall be under the Superintendence of the parochial Clergy."

"the Children shall be regularly assembled for Divine Service."

"that Masters and Mistresses shall be members of the Church of England."

"that inspection shall be by the Bishop, the National Society or the Diocesan Board of Education."³

Finally to ensure a binding contract between the managers of a school and the National Society the Form of Certificate⁴

1. Gregory, R. Elementary Education, p.50.
2. See Appendix G.
3. Gregory, R. op.cit., p.50.
4. See Appendix H.

was completed which confirmed the satisfactory erection of the building, and this together with the Trust Deed was then submitted to the Society. A request for the Society's Grant was also included in the Form of Certificate which would then be paid according to a previously made offer. The only legal modification during the period 1833-1870 was the insertion of a 'Conscience Clause' into the Trust Deeds after 1860.¹ This made the Society grant conditional on grounds of religious tolerance, thus confirming the movement towards freedom in religious matters.

The various denominations of the dissenting church which eventually became involved in extending educational facilities, were initially concerned with evangelism. This again caused delay in making educational provision for many Nonconformist children. Also Roman Catholic children of the region needed the opportunity of basically the same type of elementary education which gradually became available for the children of Protestants. However, it is probable that the provision of schools for Roman Catholic children was for many years of comparatively less importance because recent research has shown that "the strength of Catholic education in the latter part of the eighteenth century was undoubtedly in the private sector,"²

1. N.S. Parish Files, Trust Deeds after 1860.
2. Heyes, J.F. op.cit., p.195.

and there is no reason to suggest that it was not similarly confined during the early years of the nineteenth. But despite such factors the period from 1833 to 1870 was one of great activity so far as many of the various churches were concerned. There was generally an atmosphere of reform, born of the effects of religious zeal, whilst not least to be influenced was in fact the Established Church. Indeed, in the previous Chapter it was shown that the new communities especially in the towns, were progressively served by the Church of England and the evangelistic efforts of other denominations.¹

As educational Societies, the National and the British and Foreign School Societies were important because they represented systems which could provide cheap schooling for the poor. The former claimed to promote education in the principles of the Established Church "but with very little of a novel education,"² whilst in contrast, the latter promoted schools in which secular education was given together with religious teaching based on Bible reading but without expressing any particular form of doctrine. Both systems relied on the services of monitors who were set to the task of teaching after they themselves had been instructed by the

1. See Chapter 1, pp. 26 and 28.
2. N.S. Rept. 1832. p.9.

master. More however, shall be said about monitors and teachers in a later Chapter.¹ After 1833 the Societies became involved more and more in all matters concerning elementary education, whilst at the same time it was imperative that their continued existence was guaranteed.

The National Society existed then as it does today, on funds contributed voluntarily by the parishes.² Every English parish was required to send its collection annually to the Diocesan Annual Subscriber, who was then responsible for forwarding the sum raised to the Society's London Office. Annual Reports of the National Society from 1833 to 1870, show that parishes normally contributed sums ranging from £2 to £5. In 1839 the Annual Collections from the parishes of the Durham Diocese for example, amounted to £236. 12s. 9d.³ From the help of such financial aid the National Society was always financially better endowed than the Nonconformist British Society. Since the Church of England was in receipt of income gained from tithes and rates it always had more money at its disposal. This enabled it to enjoy a comparatively strong position. The tithe⁴ system was generally disliked, particularly by Roman Catholics and dissenters, who naturally could see no reason why they should support the Established

1. See Chapter 10.

2. Pamphlet, What is the National Society.

3. N.S. Rept. 1839, p. XVI.

4. Moorman, J.R.H. A History of the Church in England, p.348.

Church in any way. By being in receipt of a guaranteed income, the resources of the National Society outstripped those of the British and Foreign Society, enabling the former to qualify for a larger part of the Government Educational Grant.¹ Even when the Government increased the Grant, more was still distributed by the National Society, one reason being that the British Society had few persons capable of advancing their cause in the villages. Largely because of this, schools organised on the principles of the British Society were only established in the large towns, of which Darlington, Stockton and Middlesbrough are good examples.² Of course in these urban areas sound financial backing was available since it was here that wealthy dissenting industrialists resided. Darlington for example, became a model of the British School system; infants' schools and girls' and boys' schools were developed here and were largely supervised under the keen guidance of the Quaker Pease and Backhouse families who were prominent industrialists.³

The fact that the National Society survived in the days of voluntary education, was perhaps indicative of the concern which Anglicans had for the provision of a system of schools connected with the Church. But whilst the Society was

1. Chadwick, O. *The Victorian Church*, Part I, p.338.
2. See Chapter, 6. pp. 127 - 139.
3. *Ibid.*

fortunate in that it had a more or less reliable income from the parishes throughout the land, the same could not be said for the British Society. Nonconformist denominations in any case were usually poorer and probably were not persuaded to contribute as organisations to the educational Society which represented their sentiments.

The survival of the British Society was therefore achieved by encouraging the support of a large membership roll. Members of this institution subscribed £1. 1s. Od. per annum, and life members £10. 10s. Od.¹ Statements of the amounts collected show that the Society benefited from legacies, dividends and investments. Reports of the British Society reveal that local Quakers of the Pease and Backhouse families were life members of that institution. But since the particular denominations of individual members were not recorded, it might be reasonable to assume that others were of diverse religious persuasion, though men of no mean fortune.

Throughout the century both Societies apart from nurturing education among the poor, were involved in religious and political controversy as they represented in fact, those for, and those against the Establishment. Indeed, in the very early years before the actual Societies had been

1. B. & F. Repts. 1833-1870. Balance Sheets.

formed, the Bell-Lancaster conflict was probably responsible in part for the failure of Whitbread's Bill in 1807 towards establishing parochial schools.¹ The contemporary Established Church was in opposition to any form of undenominational religious teaching which was what the Bill had suggested. Later in 1820 Brougham's Bill suffered a similar fate, again over the religious problem, while this time both Anglicans and Nonconformists were opposed to it. Significantly, however, these attempts to provide for the education of the poor showed that educational thought was being stimulated. Eventually success was achieved in 1833 when £20,000 was granted by the Government for the purpose of education. The sum was accepted whilst its distribution was to be channelled through the National and British and Foreign School Societies. Both Societies continued to survive throughout the century and were responsible over the years for allocating to school use increasing sums of money from the Treasury.²

From the year 1833 the satisfactory distribution of the Government Grant for education assumed major importance. Since the idea of education for the poor originally sprang from a "religious impulse"³ the National and British and

1. Rich, E.E. op.cit., p.10.
2. See later in Chapter, p.51.
3. Gregory, R. op.cit., p.20.

Foreign School Societies were eager to have equal responsibility for the nation's education. This was reasonable because both organisations were representative of religious opinion generally. Clearly, the Government's decision placed the two Societies in a very strong position, and most schools established after 1833 were therefore either National or British. Opportunity was now presented for both Societies to exercise control over more schools, which resulted in the gradual introduction of centralised educational administration. Other bodies engaged in educational promotion could hardly compete favourably because applications for school grants had to be made through one or other of the Societies throughout almost the first half of the century. It was not until 1847 that the Committee of Council's Management Clauses allowed a share of the State aid to go towards the denominational schools which were outside the control of the two major organisations. By this measure Roman Catholics, Jews and Wesleyans especially benefited.¹

By 1834 the British and Foreign School Society had four hundred schools in the country excluding London, whilst the National Society had three thousand in Union.² This trend

1. Jarman, T.L. op.cit., p.261.

2. Holman, H. English National Education, p.44.

See page 49 which shows National and British Schools in the Teesdale-Teesside region from 1833 to 1870. The divergent form of the graph illustrates the lead maintained by the National Society.

National and British Schools existing in 1833 and in each decade until 1870.

Schools existing in 1833.

National Schools
 Harwood-in-Teesdale
 Forest-in-Teesdale
 Newbiggin-in-Teesdale
 Middleton-in-Teesdale
 Barnard Castle
 Darlington, St. Cuthbert's
 Hurworth
 Stockton, (Blue Coat)
 Norton
 Billingham
 Greatham

British Schools
 Darlington, Skinnergate
 Darlington, West Terrace

1833-1842.

Newbiggin-in-Teesdale (new school)
 Gainford
 Eaglescliffe

Barnard Castle
 Darlington, Bridge Street
 Middlesbrough

1843-1852.

Whorlton
 Winston
 Coniscliffe
 Darlington, Holy Trinity
 Eaglescliffe (new school)
 Stockton, Holy Trinity
 Billingham (new school)

Darlington, Feetham's
 Darlington, Kendrew St.
 Stockton

1853-1862.

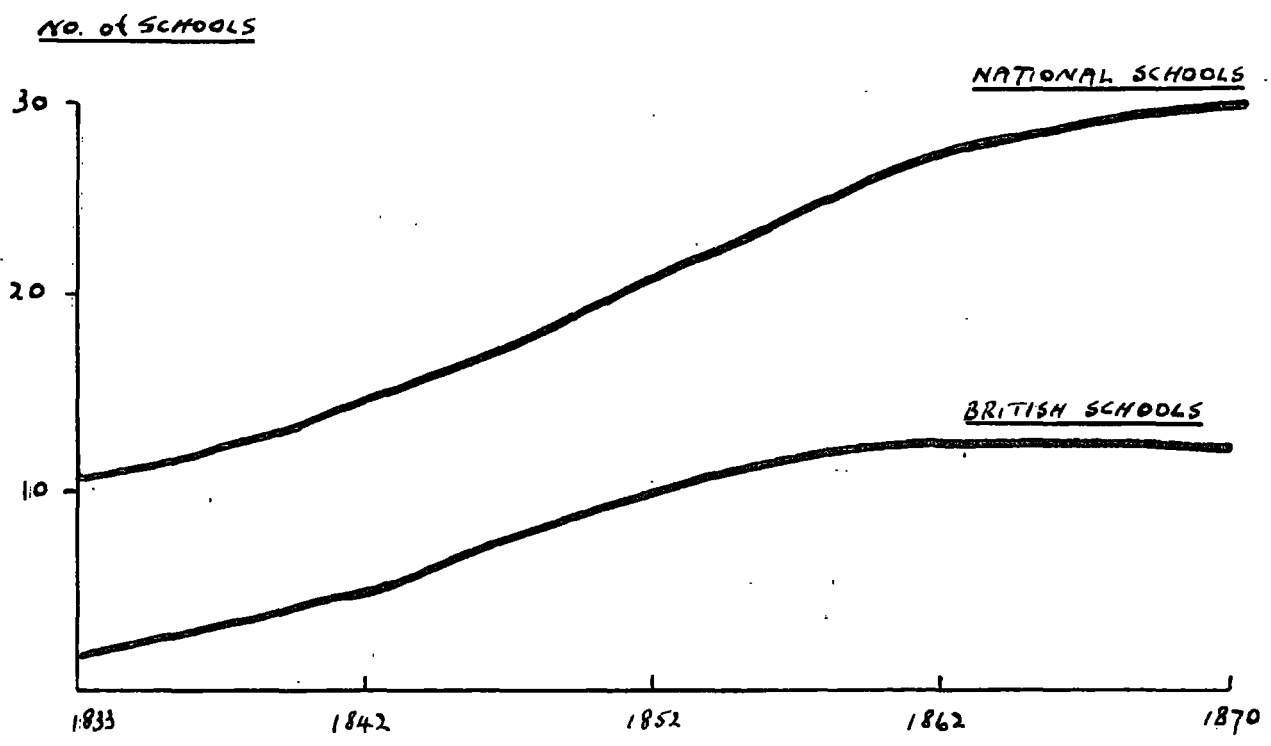
Egglestone
 Gainford (new school)
 Piercebridge
 Darlington, St. John's
 Middlesbrough, St. John's
 Port Clarence

Darlington, Bank Top
 Darlington, Albert Road
 Darlington, Rise Carr

1863-1870.

Darlington, St. Paul's
 Middlesbrough, St. Paul's
 Middlesbrough, St. Hilda's

Graphical representation of the above establishments.



was confirmed in the Teesdale-Teesside region because out of thirty seven schools developed up to 1870, only eleven were sponsored by the British and Foreign School Society. The British Society was far from content with the situation, and tried to acquire a greater share in the Government Grant by sending out at least 1,000 letters¹ with the object of encouraging the establishment of British Schools. This campaign engendered a competitive spirit which was often the stimulus towards establishing more schools. The jealousy which existed between the Societies is illustrated by a typical case in Darlington when in 1846, an application was made to the National Society for the erection of St. John's School. Supporting correspondence asked for immediate help towards establishing a 'Church School', as the "Dissenters are making active exertion to build a British and Foreign School."² But from the outset it was evident that the Established Church was in an advantageous position. Not only were the local clergy usually men of some scholarship, as was illustrated by their correspondence with the National Society,³ but they also had the support of the squire and the allegiance of the labouring poor especially in the rural areas.

By 1870 however, many changes had taken place which

1. Binns, H.B. A Century of Education, p.123.
2. App.F. and letter, St. John's National School, Darlington. dated 12th Mar. 1859.
3. See Appendix E, a typical example of a letter from a local incumbent to National Society.

affected the Voluntary System. For instance, the Committee of Council was formed in 1839 to administer the annual Education Grant which by then had risen to £30,000.¹ Up to 1847 it never exceeded £50,000, but by 1858 it was more than £500,000.² In the circumstances it seemed inevitable that the Government should desire to issue certain educational directives, the first measure towards this end of course had been the introduction of the Inspectorate in 1839. Later the Pupil-teacher system was instituted in order to provide better teachers, but better schoolrooms were required for the growing profession. When necessary, schools had to be enlarged and new buildings had to replace those deemed unsuitable by the inspectors. Applications for such purposes were again made to the Societies.

The Annual Reports of both Societies from 1833 onwards show that the conquest of ignorance was becoming a more serious business than perhaps at any other time. Applications for school buildings were continually received at their London offices, but many were destined for refusal or postponement due to an inadequacy of funds. Other aspects of education also received attention. The Annual Reports of the

1. Gregory, R. *op.cit.*, p.41.
2. Rich, E.E. *op.cit.*, p.63.

Societies dealt increasingly with questions concerning school organisation, curriculum and methods of instruction. Progress in these matters was slow, due perhaps to the deep roots of voluntaryism which proved to be a barrier when early nineteenth century reformers tried to change the established order.¹ After all, charity even with its limitations seemed to work well enough in the eyes of many Government members. But the work which had been done previous to 1833 was not in vain and could not pass unnoticed. The meagre benefits of National or British School education were desirable, therefore the demand was great. The pressure for elementary education had built up after years of deprivation as was indicated from the findings of the Select Committee of 1816. It stated then, "that in all parts of the country, in villages as well as in towns, the poor were increasingly anxious to secure education for their children."²

The fact that the Government Grant made progress possible, is confirmed beyond doubt in the region under consideration. Between 1833 and 1870 an additional thirty three schools were built or rebuilt by both the National and British Societies in the villages and towns on the Tees.³ The recommendations of a "circular letter"⁴ which had been sent to all Anglican Clergy in England, Scotland and Wales,

1. Jones, M.G. The Charity School Movement, p.342.
2. Adamson, J.W. op.cit., p.28.
3. See Appendices A,B,C and D, for maps showing establishment of schools.
4. Gregory, R. op.cit., p.28.

encouraging the setting up of schools were being realised and the desire to promote education was apparent. Indeed, if a school did not exist in a village, then in certain instances parents might send their children to the school in a neighbouring village, this in fact was the practice at Eaglescliffe.¹ But in order to assess the full contribution of the National and British and Foreign School Societies throughout the region, it will be necessary to examine the development of Voluntary Schools in the light of the changing social and political climate of the nineteenth century.

1. F. Whellan & Co., *op.cit.*, p. 697. See also Chapter 5, p.99.

Chapter 3.Educational Provision within the Teesdale-
Teesside Region Before 1833.

Generally it is accepted that the provision of elementary education during the nineteenth century was largely achieved by promoters who were associated with either the National or the British and Foreign School Society. However, it is evident that both Societies made their greatest contribution to the establishment of schools between 1833 and 1870. The Teesside-Teesdale region was still largely deficient in educational provision for the poor during the years before 1833 since only fourteen National and British Schools had been established between Harwood, the most remote hamlet in Teesdale, and Teemouth.¹ Six of them were erected between 1828 and 1832, whilst originally the foundation of some of these resulted from various forms of local philanthropism. The school at Harwood, for example, was provided by a charitable act on the part of the Marquis of Cleveland,² and another at Middleton was financed by an endowment.³ But apart from absorbing former Charity Schools into the Voluntary System, the National and British and Foreign School Societies also had been gradually promoting schools throughout the

1. See map in Appendix A. showing distribution of National and British Schools.
2. N.S. Harwood File, letter from incumbent dated July 23 1865.
3. N.S. Middleton in Teesdale File, letter from incumbent dated August 4th 1873.

region. The National Society for instance, had aided the provision of school rooms at Barnard Castle¹ and the British Society had established schools at Darlington.² Altogether the incidence of such cases provides evidence of an educational system which had depended on the availability of local support. They also illustrate the haphazard distribution of schools which was typical of the Voluntary Era. Furthermore, whilst such means of setting up schools were nationally accepted there was probably very little conformity to any educational procedure or standards. Such measures were, however, to be introduced by the Government in the following decades. Meanwhile, the unorganised basis on which many schools functioned led to an acute shortage of educational facilities in and around Durham so that by the year 1834, only 1 in 30 were reported to be under schooling.³ Of course, this was a very general assessment of the situation, since it must have excluded the Teesdale district where adequate provision was undoubtedly available under the compulsory system enforced by the London Lead Company.⁴

In addition to schools functioning on similar lines to those mentioned above, some Dame Schools about which little is known still formed part of the region's total educational system, indeed, as late as 1852 three such establishments

1. N.S. Rept. 1832. p.33.

2. Fordyce, W. Vol.I. op.cit., p.472.

3. B. & F. Rept. 1834. p.14.

4. See pp. 59 - 60.

existed in the parish of Billingham. It was noted then by the Anglican incumbent that they were kept by private individuals in their own houses and had between sixteen and seventeen pupils attending.¹ The standard of education provided under such conditions is difficult to evaluate, but an insight was given in the Rev. John Allen's Report on Schools in Durham and Northumberland for 1840. He had found that "some dame schools could not altogether fail of attaining some of the highest ends of education, so far as regards the formation of character was concerned" but others "presented a most melancholy aspect, because the rooms commonly used were living rooms which were "filled with a very unwholesome atmosphere."² It appears that Dame Schools were frequently the sole means of elementary education in many villages. They offered a rudimentary education which was concerned with learning the beginnings of reading and spelling, - occasionally a little writing and counting were taught, though apparently not often.³ The early National Schools were perhaps more advanced in that they gave instruction in the three R's, and overall, provided education for the poor in the principles of the Established Church, but with "very little of a novel education."⁴ On the other

1. App.F. Billingham National School, dated 23rd April 1852.
2. Min. Committee of Council. 1840/1. p.p.126-162., reiterated by Mary Sturt in the Education of the People, pp. 38-39.
3. Cubberley, E.P. The History of Education, p.447.
4. N.S. Rept. 1832. p.9.

hand most British Schools probably adhered to the rules of their parent Society which stated explicitly that, "reading writing, arithmetic and needlework shall be taught."¹ Thus, the aims and content of early education provided under the auspices of the two major Societies were cautiously modest, but despite this, their combined effort over the years gradually consolidated educational initiation and laid the foundation for improving the scope and quality of their respective schools.

The schools founded in the Teesdale-Teesside region between 1800 and 1833 were largely of Church of England origin, whilst promoters working on behalf of the British and Foreign School Society had confined their activities to Darlington during that period.² This situation was hardly surprising when it is realised that the wealthy industrialists of the area on which British Schools depended were more or less limited to the Pease and Backhouse families. Initially their businesses were centred around Darlington and were only later successfully extended to other parts of the North-East.³ Moreover, if the dale is considered as a separate geographical unit, it is clear that even the National Society had made little progress in the region as a whole up to 1833. Reference to the map in Appendix A shows that in 1833 most

1. F. & F. Rept. 1833. p. VIII.

2. See map in Appendix A which shows only two British Schools in Darlington.

3. See Chapter 6, p.124.

villages outside of Teesdale were yet without schools whilst the towns were barely served, indeed, Middlesbrough had no schools belonging to either of the two Voluntary Societies.

The situation in Teesdale on the other hand, was perhaps unique because it was here that the London Lead Company exercised control over almost every aspect of life. Educational provision was essentially required for the children of their employees, and in the isolated villages where the Company was unable to set up schools, it made financial contributions to the existing schools so that such facilities might be continued.¹ The body which held the responsibility for the provision of schools in the large Middleton-in-Teesdale parish was the Church of England, and in the dale every village except Egglestone had its own National School by 1833.² Hence, the pattern of elementary education in Teesdale was established early in the century. In the circumstances some consideration of this area is justified, since what happened here from a social and educational point of view was not repeated elsewhere in the whole region, nor perhaps in any other part of the country. As an example of educational administration and development it stands alone, largely because of the utilitarian value placed upon scholarship by the Lead Company

1. See later in Chapter, p.60.

2. See map in Appendix A. Egglestone National School was founded in the year 1856.

and miners alike.

The villages of Harwood, Forest, Newbiggin, Middleton and Egglestone were communities which became established due to the development of the lead industry. By 1833, the lead smelt centres had functioned for some considerable time, for instance, "Henry, first Earl of Darlington, erected the first smelting furnace in Teesdale at Langdon Beck;"¹ the mill apparently dated from "about 1768."² The lead industry involved perhaps most of the population of the dale, which in 1831 included nearly four thousand persons. Over its employees, the London Lead Company enforced a form of discipline which was little short of complete personal commitment to a strict code of regulations. The enforcement of the regulations extended into educational provision, especially where the children of the Company's employees were concerned. The stimulating nature of the Company's welfare work involved, as has been shown, the Church of England and the National Society, both of which were actively engaged in promoting educational facilities in the dale from early in the nineteenth century. Accordingly, the Company had reason to be grateful that schools associated with the Church existed, and expressed "its warm approbation of the Bishop of

1. Durham County Local History Society; op.cit., article by H.L. Beadle, p.4.
2. Ibid.

Durham's very benevolent design of establishing a certain number of schools, --- and that this Court is deeply impressed with the importance of instructing the children of the poor."¹ Only because every village, with the exception of Egglestone, in the extensive parish of Middleton had its own school, was the Company able to enforce its scheme of compulsory education which required "that every boy be sent to school from the age of 6-12 years and every girl from 6-14 years."² Yet the Company did not exploit the convenient system of schools which was under Church control, in fact generous financial support was occasionally afforded towards maintenance. In 1849 for instance, it was suggested by the Company Court, that "a donation of £25 be presented to the Fund for rebuilding the Chapel and repairing the Schoolroom in Harwood Forest."³ The Voluntary Body concerned, i.e. the Established Church was seemingly happy with the arrangements under which schooling was made available, and recognised that it was due in no small measure to the interest shown by the Lead Company.

For many years there was nothing to suggest incompatibility between the Church and the Company, despite the fact that in 1819, Mr. Stagg, the Company's superintendent, had been

1. Minutes of the London Lead Company, dated 19th Jan. 1819.
2. Report of the Newcastle Commission, Vol.I. pp.217-218.
3. Minutes of the London Lead Company, dated 30th Aug. 1849. It is assumed that similar aid was provided in the earlier years of the century.

instructed "to prepare a building at Middleton in Teesdale capable of accommodating 200 children to be opened as schools."¹ Any hint of possible variance with the Church was further dispelled when the Company Court ruled that, "the masters of the said schools should be members of the Church of England and that the children be required to attend Public Worship twice every Sunday leaving the option of the Place to their parents."² But, to appreciate the subsequent development of elementary education at Middleton in Teesdale it is necessary to consider certain events which took place during the early years of the Lead Company's school.

This school became the subject of a controversy which resulted in local resentment for Church Schools lasting for most of the century. Mr. Foster, the Newcastle Commissioner for the area, learned of this antagonism when "an aged woman eulogised the Company Schools as preparing the young people for any vocation in life and alluded with contempt to those who 'fash awa' their time at the Church Schools."³ However, he found that the dale's people were "unanimous in approving the strictness of the regulations about schooling"⁴ despite the necessary attendance of some children at Church Schools. It seems that anti-Church feeling was confined to Middleton.

1. Minutes of the London Lead Company, dated 19th Jan. 1819.
2. Ibid.
3. Report of Newcastle Commission, op.cit., p.220.
4. Ibid.

The reason for this was because a certain Mr. F.J. James, the first master of the Company School had committed a petty offence early in his teaching vocation.

Mr. James began his career as a teacher at the Lead Company's School at Middleton in 1819, where he was in receipt of a salary of "an Hundred Pounds per Annum."¹ He was in an excellent position, because generally, schoolmasters were relatively poorly paid² during the early decades of the century. For some reason Mr. James was found guilty of "mutilating certain Register Books belonging to the Company School at Middleton"³ and refused "to deliver up the Registers he had cut from the said books."⁴ It remains unknown why he did this, but the incident terminated his short career as a schoolmaster in 1824. He then embarked on a training course for the ministry and was later ordained as a clergyman of the Church of England where he worked to found Church Schools.⁵ While still serving in the area Mr. James kept a watchful eye on the Lead Company's School, perhaps waiting for reprisal. In due course this opportunity presented itself. He seized it, and in doing so caused antagonistic attitudes concerning Church education to build up amongst the local people, the effect of which shall be

1. Minutes of London Lead Company, dated 6th May 1819.
2. See Chapter 10, p. 205.
3. Minutes of London Lead Company, dated 1st Ap. 1824.
4. Ibid.
5. Raistrick, A. op.cit., p.65.

dealt with fully in the next Chapter. In the meantime, however, the Lead Company's School continued to serve the community of Middleton-in-Teesdale by being responsible for the education of most of the children.

When considering the establishment of educational facilities in Teesdale during the early nineteenth century, it must be realised that a basic education was essential for the lead miner. It was as necessary as were the pick and shovel. In fact a miner needed to be able to estimate quite accurately the potentialities of a piece of ground and also make simple calculations which would enable him to participate in the bargaining system.¹ This practice was in effect the method used to reach mutual agreement between the Company and a miner when fixing a price for the job. The miners' dependence on their own judgment and skill, was therefore an important factor in creating a general determination to learn within the mining population. And in passing, Victorian visitors to Teesdale assessed the effects of education when they apparently "eulogised the miners' intellectual leanings"² acquired through the Lead Company's insistence on elementary schooling.

1. Hunt, C.J. op.cit., p.231.

2. Ibid., p.245.

Meanwhile, in the villages and towns of the lower reaches of the Tees the stagnation of educational development before 1833 was probably due to the lack of any marked transition from the eighteenth century agrarian way of life to that of industrialisation. As has been shown earlier, industry did not really affect any of the towns until after the middle of the century, whilst the villages were destined to remain more or less as they always had been.

By 1833 only five out of eleven Teesside villages could boast the existence of schools established on an organised basis and in league with a Voluntary Society. They were, Winston, Hurworth, Billingham, Norton and Greatham.¹ The reason for so few such schools might have been due to the presence of Dame Schools in the other villages which apparently did attract some patronage as was previously shown to be true at Billingham in spite of the existence of a National School. But in three out of the five instances where National Schools were provided prior to 1833, their foundation resulted from specially endowed Charities. At Winston, for instance, educational provision for the children was made at some time after 1748. The Crewe and Bridgewater Charities had provided financial aid for the establishment of a school but the Church

1. See map in Appendix A.

was entrusted with the project from the outset.¹ The association with the Church probably began when Lord Crewe's executors directed the Rev. T. Eden, the rector of Winston, to invest £70 "in land for the use of a school."² It was later, probably sometime between 1748 and 1851, that the school became designated as Winston National School. Possibly this was in 1851, when a new building was erected.³

Also, in the village of Hurworth, a National School was established before 1833,⁴ but again it had the advantage of a guaranteed income in addition to the usual sources. The managers were in receipt of the rent collected from four fields in the parish of Melsonby, Yorkshire, plus that from one field in Hurworth. Altogether the total endowment amounted to £24 per annum which had to be used for the education and benefit of the poor.⁵ This school established in 1824, and designed to accommodate one hundred and fifty one boys and one hundred and forty seven girls, shows some provision for the expected potential intake of pupils. Indeed, by 1831, an infants' department was added in order to cater for the needs of sixty eight younger pupils.⁶ Hurworth was one of the few village communities which by 1832, had three schools in union with the National Society. It would seem that by 1833 these

1. F. Whellan & Co., op.cit., p.586. - "The Countess of Bridgewater invested £304. 11s. 4d. in the Three per cent Consols, for the interest of which, with that of the £70 Crewe investment is paid to the school."
2. Copy of the Will of Lord Crewe.
3. Preliminary Statement, Winston National School, dated 18 --. (defaced)
4. A National School was erected in 1824. - App. F. Hurworth National School, dated 19th July 1824.
5. F. Whellan & Co., op.cit., p.523.
6. App. F. Hurworth National School, op.cit.

schools were providing educational facilities for all children who voluntarily required instruction. Furthermore, the original establishment must have been exceptionally adequate because the buildings were not enlarged during the nineteenth century period up to 1870.

Lastly, an example of one of the National Schools founded from provisions made by Bishop Barrington in 1831¹ at Greatham, a village some two and a half miles north-east of the Tees estuary, further illustrates the advantage of material support, this time in the form of a gift of land.

Initially, this school was established for the education of boys only, being specifically designated as Greatham Boys' National School. By 1833 it had functioned for two years under the supervision of a master trained at St. Marks, Chelsea.² Here the early establishment of a Voluntary School was largely due to the interest which Bishop Barrington had in the Greatham Hospital, since as its patron,³ he made gifts of land from hospital waste ground for sites on which additional schools were eventually built.

The original school however, was probably unique among the National Schools of the region, as it was perhaps the only one which employed a certificated master from the National Society's

1. Preliminary Statement, Greatham National School, dated 1831.
2. Ibid.
3. F. Whellan & Co., op.cit., p.595.

first Training School at Chelsea. The Settlement Rules also made provision for supplementary instruction to be given which enabled the school to provide more than "a little of a novel education."¹ There seems to be little doubt that the coastal environment consciously determined the content of education at this National School. Accordingly, under the master's terms of employment, instruction in navigation was an obligatory duty, whilst other subjects included in the curriculum were, common arithmetic and mensuration.² In the years before 1833 moreover, this seems to have been the only village school in the region which attempted to offer a vocationally orientated curriculum apart from those schools under the influence of the London Lead Company in Teesdale.

The two remaining schools of the five established before 1833 were National Schools in the villages of Norton and Billingham. These were distinctive because it is unlikely that they were former Charity Schools and being without any form of endowment survival was difficult.

Norton National School was established in 1830 and at the date of erection, it was responsible for the education of forty boys and twenty seven girls and infants.³ However, in later years the gradually increasing population of the village seems

1. See Chapter 2, p.43.
2. Document - Settlement of School at Greatham.
3. Preliminary Statement, Norton National School, dated 1830.

to have made demands on the school's original accommodation because by 1850 there were insufficient places for those who desired education. The only hope of making enlargements to the building depended on whether or not the National Society might be persuaded to help with funds. Apart from the fact that such aid was not to be forthcoming with any sense of urgency, it is almost certain that the school had remained unchanged from its date of erection.

The problem of acquiring financial aid for the building of more suitable accommodation later developed into a conflict between the Church and State, when the local School Board decided to resolve the situation in 1870 by providing the funds that the Church agencies could not.¹ One further case which perhaps illustrated the effect of financial difficulties was the National School at Billingham. The National Society's Report for 1832 stated that there was one school at Billingham in union with the Society which provided instruction for thirteen boys and twelve girls. For some reason, however, it seems that the school had ceased to function sometime before 1852. Educational provision was then available at three Dame Schools, which were conducted in the homes of "private individuals."³

1. See Chapter 4, p. 87.

2. N.S. Rept. 1832, p. 34.

3. App. F. Billingham National School, dated 23rd Ap. 1852.

In 1852 however, the incumbent applied to the National Society for aid towards the erection of a school to accommodate one hundred and twenty six boys and girls.¹ This suggests that any Church School of previous years, had even lost its building - perhaps it had fallen into ruins because of the lack of proper maintenance. This sometimes happened in the case of schools which were built in the early years of the century and especially when funds did not allow for routine repairs.²

By contrast with the three endowed National Schools at Winston, Hurworth and Greatham, these schools at Norton and Billingham, through not being in receipt of guaranteed financial aid, had problems which possibly resulted from a lack of money. The ultimate failure of the Norton School emphasised the need of school managers to be in a position to maintain a good building in the face of the Government Inspectors,³ whilst at Billingham it seems that there was probably not enough money to even pay for the day to day running costs of the building.

During the same period, schools' promoters in the large towns of Darlington, Stockton and Middlesbrough, found that there were even greater obstacles to be overcome in order to introduce elementary education to the children of the labouring

1. Ibid.

2. See Chapter 7, p.145.

3. See Chapter 4, p.87.

poor. Essentially it was a matter of providing enough schools in the face of population expansion.

In Darlington, for instance, St. Cuthbert's was the only parish established before the year 1836, by which time it included between eight and eleven thousand people¹ among whom there would be naturally many children eligible for school. A young solicitor however, had founded a school in the west end of the parish Church in 1812 where it was held for twelve years.² By 1832 two schools had developed from this early foundation and were in union with the National Society.³ They were St. Cuthbert's National Boys' and Girls' Schools which were built in the Lead Yard off Tubwell Row in the year 1824.⁴ Despite their eventual success it is possible that had it not been for the efforts of the young solicitor in 1812 the education of many children might never have taken place. Besides, there were few other institutions to which they might have gone, indeed, the first British School in the town was apparently at capacity early in the century.⁵

This was established in Skinnergate in 1819 and was the first purpose-built school in the town.⁶ Members of the Pease and Backhouse families were included in the local committee governing the school, and judging from the annual reports

1. Census Returns for 1831 and 1841 recorded 8574 and 11,877 persons respectively.
2. Nicholson, C.P. op.cit., p.44.
3. N.S. Rept. 1832. p.46.
4. Fordyce, W. Vol.I. op.cit., p.471.
5. See Below.
6. Fordyce, W. Vol.I. op.cit., p.472.

sent to the British and Foreign School Society in London, they were clearly attentive to detail. By 1833 the Boys' School was crowded when one hundred and seventy eight were on the books.¹ To relieve the situation another British School was opened, probably in 1823² in West Terrace, but unfortunately it is not known whether its life was temporary or permanent because the Society's records contain no consecutive information concerning its progress. But it is clear from the records of the Skinnergate School that up to 1833 educational provision in Darlington was grossly inadequate.

At the same date Stockton was also poorly served with elementary schools. The National Society's Annual Report for the year 1832 informs readers of the existence of only two. It is assumed that these were the Blue Coat Schools which had been established in the original parish of St. Thomas in the eighteenth century.³ Financial support for these schools was secured by local Anglicans among whom was Bishop Barrington, also, the 'National System' of education was adopted.⁴ Additional schools were not considered until nine years after the formation of the town's second parish i.e. Holy Trinity in 1837. Therefore, until 1846 the Blue Coat Schools were perhaps the only ones offering elementary instruction for the children of a population of at least 9,825

1. B. & F. Rept., 1833. p.58.
2. Preliminary Statement, West Terrace British School, Darlington, dated 1823.
3. F. Whellan & Co., op.cit., pp. 722-3.
4. Ibid.

persons.¹ Thus the majority of children were seemingly uneducated.

Typically, the situation was again repeated at Middlesbrough, where it can be assumed that before 1833 practically none of the children of the working classes were being taught. As yet, no Anglican parish had been formed, in fact this was delayed until 1840. Therefore, the only hope of providing schools was perhaps from the British and Foreign School Society, or indeed, from anybody with an interest in education. In the early years of the town's existence attempts had been made to provide some form of elementary instruction from a date earlier than 1833. A sailor, prior to that year had set up a school, but a critic deemed him incapable.² Irrespective of such efforts, educational facilities were inadequate, therefore a committee of Quaker gentlemen was formed in order to consider educational promotion. Of the original subscribers who contributed towards the cost of the resultant British School, at least eight out of the total of forty one were members of the Darlington Pease family.³ But the formal correspondence and application regarding the proposed school was not begun with the British and Foreign School Society until 1834. Even then the application for two rooms in which to educate one

1. Census Returns 1841.

2. Lillie, W. *op.cit.*, p.110.

3. Minute Book of British School, Middlesbrough, 1840-1847, p.17.

hundred and fifty pupils was "not approved."¹ The reasons for the rejection of the proposal were undoubtedly due to insufficient financial assurance. Actually the committee stated that there was "difficulty in getting half the total sum required by contribution,"² which showed that there was presumably little interest in education either before or immediately after 1833. When this school was eventually erected in 1836, it marked the beginning of systematic education in Middlesbrough when the population must have been approaching 3,000.³ Clearly, the number of uneducated children was probably great by this time. Moreover, as was mentioned earlier, no ecclesiastical status had been assigned to any part of the rapidly developing town. Therefore, the responsibility for elementary education rested for some time to come with the promoters of the British School.

Up to the time of the first Government Grant for education, it is clear that most of the schools which managed to survive were founded only in those villages and urban areas where financial backing was available. Since this had to be provided by interested subscribers or guaranteed aid it is evident that the schools with most chance of survival were those in receipt of endowments or aid from industrial organisations like the

1. B. & F. Rept., 1834, p.14.
2. Ibid.
3. Postgate, C. History of Middlesbrough, p.38. The Census Returns for 1841 recorded 5463 persons.

London Lead Company, or from funds given by wealthy industrialists such as members of the Pease and Backhouse families who sponsored the British Schools in Darlington and Middlesbrough. After 1833 as might well be expected, the rate of school development throughout the region did improve due to the much needed financial aid which was injected by the Treasury. However, school managers still had to rely on local philanthropism and school fees paid by the children, indeed, the withdrawal of subscriptions might have constituted the downfall of a school. In fact, this was most likely to have been one of the prevalent troubles at the Barnard Castle National School as late as 1840, which was the year in which it closed down for a time when local financial aid began to dwindle from £116-16s-1d. in 1839 to £79-12s-1d. in 1845.¹ But generally the schools which were established before 1833 in the Teesdale-Teesside region continued to provide useful educational facilities throughout the century.

1. Jones, R.J. MS. (Assistant Curate. 1849-1856. Barnard Castle National School.)

PART II

Chapter 4.

The Religious Problem in Elementary Education
and its effects in the Region between 1833
and 1870.

A regional history of nineteenth century elementary education must necessarily include some commentary on the impact of the religious conflict which developed owing to the obstinate attitude frequently adopted by those who supported the Establishment. Both in the early days and more or less throughout the century, the influential position of the Church of England in society was important. Even in educational matters it was evident that the same was true, since Whitbread's Education Bill of 1807 gave acknowledgement only to the Established Church.¹ Nonconformists of course, had enjoyed some measure of tolerance dating from the Act of ~~Uniformity~~ ^{Toleration} of 1689, although Roman Catholics were treated as a race apart in educational matters until 1847 when they were for the first time allowed a share of the Government Grant.² But with the spread of Nonconformity and State interference in education, the erosion of the Church's authority began. Religious conflict naturally affected the education of the children of the labouring poor and was certainly as real in the North-East

1. Rich, E.E. op.cit., p.10.

2. See Chapter 2, p.48.

as elsewhere in England. It was not manifested in open warfare, but rather took the form of rivalry between the two major Voluntary Societies which worked to promote schools. Towards the end of the Voluntary Period however, the promoters of National Schools in particular, also found themselves in competition with the State due to the proposed widespread introduction of secular schools.

During the years 1800 to 1833 there was no significant evidence of any conflict between the two Societies in the Teesdale-Teesside region, due no doubt to the fact that only two British Schools existed.¹ It would appear that reaction to the availability of Government Grants for the use of both Societies after 1833 might well have precipitated latent jealousy on the part of the Church of England. Of course, it is also true that the establishment of Voluntary Schools after 1833 was in many ways a reflection of the improved health of the Anglican Church and of the steady progress of the various Nonconformist denominations.² But in spite of the Government Grant there was never enough money available to finance all of the urgently needed schools. Instances of such financial difficulty were particularly evident in the villages and towns of Teesside.

1. See Chapter 3, p. 55.

2. See maps in Appendices B.C. and D. which show the schools promoted by the National and British Societies.

Whilst the early nineteenth century Church had been somnolent,¹ it was very much alive by about 1840, because many of the reforms suggested by the Oxford Movement were practically applied from 1833 onwards. Clearly, the exhortations printed in its tracts were responsible for the infusion of new life which resulted in the establishment of new parishes and schools. Individual members of the clergy responded to what seemed to be a new vision concerning their duties. In Darlington, for example, three new parishes were formed between 1836 and 1862.² Similar activity was repeated in the other towns of Teesside because the greatest need for parochial welfare was most obvious in these urban areas which were growing into industrial centres. These were the places where former agricultural labourers entered into a new way of life by becoming town labourers. Moreover, the educational need was greatest here too, as shall be shown later when the development of the region's post 1833 National Schools is discussed.

Other factors also challenged the Church's traditional position because as the century advanced, scientific thought made considerable progress, which caused, as did the Oxford Movement, some re-appraisal of established beliefs. In

1. Moorman, J.R.H. op.cit., p.351.
2. Nicholson, C.P. op.cit., p.59.

particular, the earlier spread of the Utilitarian Philosophy, and the publication of Darwin's controversial work in his book the 'Origin of the Species' in 1859 both contained suggestions which were regarded as inimical to the Church. Also, the repeal of the Test and Corporation Acts in 1828 had more or less confirmed that people might be perfectly good citizens without necessarily belonging to the Church of England. This was observed to be essentially true since no one could criticise or condemn the spirit which, for example, motivated the Quakers who worked for the relief of the poor in providing many schools especially in the Teesside area.¹

Meanwhile, the church as a whole had to discover some means of meeting the challenge of the opposing forces. The Church of England attempted to do this in some measure at least, by regarding the school as its "nursery"² and therefore embarked on a programme of schools promotion. The results of part of this nation-wide programme are clearly seen in the text of the following pages which illustrates the establishment of schools in the region resulting particularly from the competitive spirit which often motivated promoters who worked on behalf of the Voluntary Societies, especially those of the National Society. Anglicans and Nonconformists as recipients of the

1. See Chapter 6, p. 122.

2. Gregory, R. op.cit., p.20.

Government Grant were destined to share the burden of providing elementary schools, and thus, were on common ground in the conquest of the spreading anti-Christian teachings. But with regard to the conduct of National and British Schools, however, there was variance over the religious problem because the Church of England was keen to safeguard its own doctrines as was shown earlier by the requisite observance of the Terms of Union.¹ The Evangelicals on the other hand, were essentially practical in their interpretation of the aims of elementary education, and by contrast with Churchmen they were sympathetic towards Acts of Parliament if they were seen to be the means of bringing aid to the deprived. The effects of these divergent attitudes were clearly in evidence in many schools as shall be shown later.² Briefly, however, those representative of the Established Church were always very much "concerned about theology,"³ with the result that there was always great importance attached to the Catechism and Liturgy in National School Education.⁴ British Schools were dissimilar in this respect. Nevertheless, the Nonconformists were a growing section of society who clearly needed to be catered for educationally, whilst converts to Methodism were perhaps predominant within the expanding

1. See Chapter 2, p.41.
2. See Chapter 8, p.170.
3. Moorman, J.R.F. op.cit., p.355.
4. See Chapter 2, p.43.

communities in this North-Eastern region.¹

Methodism was gradually introduced into the villages and towns by appealing to the labouring poor classes. At the same time it was true that many members of the new industrial middle class were of the Quaker persuasion, and together, Methodists and Quakers as a Nonconformist pressure group were important in the industrialisation and social development of the Teesside area. The success of Methodist evangelism was certainly evident between the years 1840-1850 when for example, the Stockton-on-Tees Primitive Methodist Circuit made considerable advancement. This was reflected by the fact that their numbers increased during that decade from 300 to 530 members.² Likewise, the Middlesbrough Circuit also expanded due to a great influx of inhabitants among which were some members of the Primitive Methodists.³ Because these people were conscious of the need to evangelise, they conducted Sunday Schools as part of their programme, which incidentally, provided rudimentary Scripture Knowledge together with a little basic instruction in reading. But in spite of such places of learning, the educational needs of dissenters' children in the towns were largely to be met through the British Schools.

1. See below.

2. Petty, J. History of the Primitive Methodist Connexion etc., p.428.

3. Ibid.

Throughout the period 1833-1870 everyone with responsibility normally agreed that the education of the poor must be Christian,¹ therefore it is hardly surprising that the development of schools in the Teesdale-Teesside region generally involved the interaction of local clergy, dissenters, and the two major educational Societies. Significantly, however, in Teesdale the chief reaction to the Church of England as the medium through which popular education might be diffused came from the London Lead Company. Firstly, attention will be directed to the scene of this conflict which was centred at Middleton-in-Teesdale.

Already it has been shown how the seeds of bitterness were sown here² but it was not until after 1833 that they bore fruit. This was brought about in the following way.

At the Lead Company's School a new master was appointed in 1835 who was by faith a Presbyterian, and Mr. James the displaced master, obviously aware of the conditions governing employment, decided to revenge himself against the Company's former action.³ He informed the Bishop of Durham immediately concerning the nature of the appointment, but reaction from the Church was delayed until 1849, when the Bishop of Durham formally complained to the Company in the following terms. He

1. Chadwick, O. op.cit., p.346.
2. See Chapter 3, p. 62.
3. Raistrick, A. op.cit., p.65.

insisted that the Company's schools (schools belonging to the Company also existed in Weardale) were founded as Church Schools, and that as such, it was obligatory for the Company to only appoint masters who were communicant members of the Church of England. Furthermore, he objected concerning the text books being used at the schools. The Lead Company, in defence, informed the Bishop quite rightly that their schools were established at their own suggestion and expense, and that salaries etc. were paid by the Company.¹ Eventually, the matter was settled to the satisfaction of the Company, when the Bishop had to admit that his charges against the schools had been made on second hand information, which he had received from the displaced master, Mr. James.² However, perhaps as a gesture of courtesy, the Court of the London Lead Company in reference to the Presbyterian appointment, decided that they could not "admit such appointments shall be deemed precedents upon any future occasion."³ After all, they still relied upon educational facilities which were provided by the Church of England in the more remote villages. But the effect of the case described, seemed to favour the Company School and may have contributed to its future success. By contrast the Middleton-in-Teesdale National School struggled for survival.

1. Ibid.

2. Ibid.

3. Minutes of London Lead Company, dated 23rd Aug. 1849.

An indication of the continued success of the secular school was confirmed when a "Gratuity of £25"¹ was presented to the schoolmaster in "testimony of the Court's satisfaction at the very interesting report on the efficient state of those schools as recently made by Mr. Foster, assistant Commissioner of Education."² Further evidence in 1862 confirmed the school's success when the original schoolrooms became too small. A new building was therefore erected, and the occasion was marked with a treat which attracted eight hundred and sixty scholars and sixty teachers from Teesdale and district.³

Throughout this entire period it might be assumed that the Church viewed the situation jealously, for, in 1873 the incumbent of Middleton wrote a letter to the National Society concerning the need of a new Church School to counteract the "deficiencies of a large secular school built by the London Lead Company."⁴ He was obviously well aware of the prevailing attitude concerning educational provision, since he stated that there would be "no prospect of local help."⁵ This evidence seems to suggest that there was conflict between the Church of England and the London Lead Company's employees.

The continued existence of the Middleton National School however, from about 1832 until at least 1870, was perhaps due

1. Ibid., dated 22nd Sept. 1859.
2. Ibid.
3. Teesdale Mercury, dated 10th Sept. 1862.
4. N.S. Middleton in Teesdale File, letter from incumbent dated 4th Aug. 1873.
5. Ibid.

to both the need for general educational provision in the fairly large community of 2,266 persons in 1871¹ and also to loyal support from the Church and the National Society.² It is fairly conclusive that the London Lead Company's school detracted from its successful development, and in doing so, reversed the trend of mutual aid which in the early years of the nineteenth century was usual between National Schools in other villages of the dale and the Company. Indeed, had the Company not enforced attendance at school, then it might well be concluded that the National Schools in other lead mining villages might never have survived at a time when the Company might justifiably have ceased to grant financial aid towards their upkeep because of the scandal at the Company's school at Middleton. The Company had obviously handled the problem with diplomacy, therefore preserving for itself and the Church the mutual benefits to be derived from the National Schools in the other Teesdale communities.

In those parts of the region outside Teesdale, it is evident that conflict between the Church and State, and Anglicans and Nonconformists in matters of educational provision were beginning to appear. Towards the end of the Voluntary Period, and in the face of the pressure for adequate

1. Census Returns, 1871.
2. The incumbent's letter to the National Society dated 4th Aug. 1873 which asked for aid, recalls past contributions; i.e. £60 in 1832, £25 in 1834, and £45 in 1835.

accommodation brought upon local school managers by Government inspectors, it was found that the Church, even with the backing of the National Society had little chance of continued success. The later events in the history of the National School at Norton confirm this. Here, due to the demand for more school places in order that the lower age range of pupils could be given instruction, an application was made to the National Society for aid towards the erection of a school for infants.¹ It is doubtful however, whether any extension of the accommodation was ever carried out, since by 1861 the girls had evidently been completely displaced from the school and only boys were in attendance.² It can be assumed also that all children who were perhaps fortunate enough to be offered a school place were being taught in the original building. The position was apparently far from satisfactory. Accordingly, the incumbent was prompted to raise funds for a completely new building. A sum of £500 was collected by 1870 and this, with the expected Government grant of £425 plus £100 from the National Society should have enabled the realisation of a building in which to accommodate 425 pupils.³ But unfortunately for some reason, there was considerable delay in "getting a site for the schools,"⁴ and by 1872 the Government

1. App. F. Norton National School, dated 16th Jan. 1850.
2. Preliminary Statement, Norton National School, dated 1861.
3. App. F. Norton National School, dated 15th Nov. 1870.
4. N.S. Norton File, letter from incumbent, dated 13th Mar. 1872.

Inspector "condemned"¹ the existing rooms.

Naturally the promoters of the National School had been concerned by the impending closure from 1870 but perhaps they were even more concerned by the possibility of the loss of Church control over education. Therefore, they requested the National Society's permission to sell the old buildings in aid of the new project. This final action was suggested because of their fears of the School Board which they believed would eventually "fall into the hands of the dissenters."² The years 1870-1872 seemed to prove rather critical for the promoters of National Education in Norton because they realised that the School Boards represented State policy. Here, it seems that the financial difficulties involved in providing a new building caused a delay which actually resulted in the displacement of the National School by a Board School in 1874.

Further evidence of conflict between the Educational Bodies comes from the towns, but here it was often in the form of antagonism between the two Societies resulting from their efforts to be first in the field to provide schools. In Darlington, for example, the provision of a National School in St. John's parish shows the typical fears of religious

1. Ibid.
2. Ibid.

nonconformity experienced by many contemporary Churchmen.

To nurture parochial welfare at the eastern growth point of the town, the above second parish was formed in 1847, the parish Church being built in the following year.¹ However, even before the official declaration of the new ecclesiastical district, a Sunday School room had been erected in 1844 which also served as a temporary school.² But the opening of a permanent school was a necessary priority, since by 1846 the population of the area was of the order of three thousand.³ Many were employed in the rapidly expanding manufacturing and railway trades. The promoters of the Church Sunday School were anxious to provide a permanent day school, as it was noted that the "dissenters were making great exertion to build a British and Foreign School"⁴ in the area. Application was therefore made to the National Society in 1846 for financial aid. Resulting from this application the Society granted £20, but only for the development of a temporary school,⁵ to be conducted it is assumed, on similar terms to the one already held in the Sunday School rooms mentioned above. The grant offered was not accepted because the existing school "suddenly dwindled due to unfortunate businesses of trades

1. Longstaffe, W.H.D. The History etc. of Darlington, p.247.
2. App. F. St. John's National School, Darlington, dated 7th Sept. 1846.
3. Ibid.
4. Ibid.
5. Ibid.

people."¹ The depression in trade also adversely affected the development of the proposed and feared British School. Consequently neither were built for some considerable time.

After another decade however a successful application was made in 1856² for the erection of a National School in which to accommodate one hundred and seventy boys, one hundred and fifty girls and two hundred infants.³ The estimated cost of this school was £2,018 18s. Od., and by 1859 financial aid was successfully raised from various sources.⁴ The opening of the school was marked by a formal occasion which included a teaparty and concert.⁵ Children were admitted on January 9th 1860 when forty four⁶ were present; teaching was supervised by a master assisted by William George Snaith⁷ a pupil teacher. Also on the same date, the Infants' School was opened where the children were "under Miss Harriet Close of Whitelands Training School."⁸ Fifty three children attended on the first day but by October 19th 1860⁹ there were one hundred and forty four attending. Numbers increased in all three schools, whilst during the period 1862-1863 one hundred and nineteen boys attended their own department.¹⁰ The establishment of this school, the "want of which has long

1. N.S. St. John's National School, Darlington File, letter from incumbent dated 4th Dec. 1854.
2. App.F. St. John's National School, Darlington, dated 4th Dec. 1856.
3. Ibid.
4. Ibid., local subscr.-£941. Government Grant-£120., National Society-£100.
5. Darlington Telegraph & Guisborough Mercury, 31st Dec. 1859.
6. Log Book St. John's National School, entry dated 9th Jan. 1860.
7. See Chapter 10, p. 204 for some details of his career.
8. Log Book St. John's National School (Infants) entry dated 9th Jan. 1860.
9. Ibid., entry dated 19th Jan. 1860.
10. Ibid., Boys' School.

been felt in the increasing district"¹ of Bank Top, was seemingly justified beyond doubt. And to further relieve the difficulties of providing educational accommodation in the area, the British School mentioned earlier was at last duly erected which meant that the children here were eventually well provided for.

The proposed British School was re-considered because of the continued growth of the population in the railway district of Bank Top, and possibly because the promoters of Darlington's British Schools did not wish to appear to have been outdone in view of the above large National School having been built. According to the Preliminary Statement of the school, it only accommodated thirty six infants, thirteen boys and twenty six girls on being opened.² But from the plans of the building it appears that it was designed to meet the requirements of many more children.³

Similarly, in Middlesbrough the 'pride of place' attitude of a certain Church of England clergyman was revealed in a rather peculiar situation which developed, where, as was seen earlier, there were yet no schools functioning under the auspices of the National Society. The first Church of England school resulted quite clearly from a particular series of events

1. Darlington Telegraph & Guisborough Mercury, dated 31st Dec. 1859.
2. Preliminary Statement, Bank Top British School, Darlington, dated 1859.
3. See Appendix J.
The total classroom area of Bank Top British School was 2336 sq. ft. approx. and at the allocation of 6 sq. ft. per child, it would have accommodated 390 pupils approx.

which are generally summarised in the following paragraphs.

In 1858, the serious explosion of a boiler at the works of Messrs. Snowdon & Hopkins focussed attention on the social needs of the town.¹ The first person to respond to the call was a trained nurse named Francis Mary Rachel Jaques. She founded a cottage hospital in 1859, and later that year was joined by the Rev. Adam Clarke Smith who acted as its chaplain.² St. John's National School resulted from the efforts of this clergyman after he had initiated a local appeal for the acquisition of funds with a notice that showed some concern about the lack of Church Schools in the town. He used the following terms to describe the situation.

"The town of Middlesbrough in the North Riding of Yorkshire containing as it does 17,000 inhabitants principally composed of the labouring classes, many dissenting places of worship and several schools is still entirely without any schools whatsoever in connection with the Church of England."³

The result of the appeal was considerable and a total of £2,759⁴ was raised. It might reasonably be assumed that much of the finance came from the iron-masters who seemingly were usually willing to help in such matters. The school opened at Marton Road in February 1860⁵ and accommodated one hundred and

1. St. John's National School, Middlesbrough, Centenary Pamphlet, p.12.
2. Ibid.
3. Ibid., p.21.
4. Ibid.
5. Darlington and Stockton Times, dated 11th Feb. 1860.

thirty boys and one hundred and twenty two girls.¹ In 1861 an infants' room was added for teaching two hundred and ten pupils.²

Finally from Middlesbrough is an example on the part of the Church of England to save a school from being taken over by the State. This arose, as did the previously mentioned case at Norton, towards the end of the Voluntary Schools' Period when it became clear that the earlier established St. Paul's National School needed enlargement in order to accommodate more children in the ever expanding neighbourhood. As was learned earlier from the Norton example, if the Church was to retain its hold on elementary schools in the latter years of the Voluntary Period, then the National Society would have to supply aid with all haste. In the case of St. Paul's, Middlesbrough, an application was made in 1870 for aid to build a girls' school room. To ensure a quick decision concerning the new room, the correspondent informed the National Society that immediate action would be needed if they were to qualify for the promised funds "from interested firms."³ He impressed that immediate action would be quite justified, as it was feared that if the School Board already projected came into being, then funds might no longer be available.⁴ This

1. Preliminary Statement, St. John's National School, Middlesbrough, dated 1859.
2. St. John's National School, Middlesbrough, Centenary Pamphlet, p.27.
3. App. F. St. Paul's National School, Middlesbrough, dated 18th Oct. 1870.
4. Ibid.

extra accommodation was urgently required because the Government Inspector had stated in 1869 that "accommodation is very difficult."¹ However, it was left until 1871 before further development was implemented upon the receipt of a Society grant for £100.² The timely acquisition of the grant in this instance saved the situation and resulted in a victory for the Church.

In view of the above examples of conflict and denominational fear, it might be wondered why the Anglican Church fought so desperately to control elementary education in the villages and towns of the nation when perhaps much more could have been achieved without incurring the element of religious conflict. The answer of course, was to be found in the attitude of the Church of England towards all matters of State. In fact, its hierarchy firmly believed that if the State interfered in education then there would be a decay of religion and a growth of immorality.³

1. Log Book. St. Paul's National School, Middlesbrough, H.M.I's Report for 1869.
2. N.S. St. Paul's National School, Middlesbrough, File, letter from the Society to the incumbent, dated 18th Oct. 1870.
3. Rich, E.E. op.cit., p.26.

Chapter 5The Establishment of National Schools
throughout the Region between 1833 and
1870.

In the previous Chapter it was shown that some of the schools in the Teesdale-Teesside region were established as a result of religious conflict which existed either between the Church and School Boards or between promoters working on behalf of the educational agencies. Yet irrespective of circumstances surrounding the establishment of individual Voluntary Schools, they were all complementary to each other in that they set out to resolve an educational need felt among the poor. This need had become increasingly clear from 1816 since pressure for elementary education had built up after years of deprivation in the early part of the nineteenth century.¹ Under such terms of reference it might seem that it was simply a matter for promoters to make the required schools available. Generally, however, the provision of suitable buildings depended not only upon promoters but also upon local conditions and either one or other of the two major educational Societies.

Education was beginning to affect the lives of families in communities everywhere. The general public could hardly ignore

1. See Chapter 2, p.52.

its presence because they would be invited to make their subscriptions towards the erection and support of schools.¹

If school provision had not been implemented in local situations before 1833, a movement towards that end gradually evolved from the time of the availability of Government aid. Moreover, most elementary education arranged on an organised basis was destined to become more or less the responsibility of the Established Church for nearly another forty years. This, as was shown earlier, was apparent in Teesdale despite the Lead Company's dominance over most matters. It was equally true in the villages of the lower Tees valley and also in the Teesside towns.²

When the Church found itself with the responsibility of expending public money for educational purposes from 1833, it had to accept the beginnings of State interference in matters which formerly had been private and ecclesiastic. Educational thought was of course, periodically stimulated by such men as James Mill and Jeremy Bentham. In upholding the Utilitarian view, Bentham and his followers considered that education was necessary for social and political ends, therefore they wished to free it from religious teaching.³ Thus, with such feelings clearly advertised, the Church of England moved into a position whereby it attempted to keep a "very tight hand on its schools,"⁴

1. See Chapter 6, p.127.

2. See map in Appendix D. Note the distribution of National Schools, especially in villages.

3. Jarman, T.L. op.cit., p.245.

4. Moorman, J.R.M. op.cit., p.350.

whilst the lack of religious agreement between the rival National and British Societies caused them both to multiply their efforts to build educational institutions.

Resulting partly from the interaction of these factors, nearly every village and certainly all of the towns in the region supported elementary schools of diverse types by roughly the middle of the century.¹ In the following pages the promotion of National Schools is dealt with in order to reveal how the children of the poor were given the opportunity of learning in the differing circumstances found within the region's urban and agricultural areas. It will be seen that there were some quite different problems confronting those who became responsible for setting up schools in the two contrasting areas.

First, the development of schools in the villages will be considered and it will be shown that by and large they were established much later in the century than those in the dale where early philanthropic effort and the financial support of the Lead Company were important. Also it will be seen that the position of the Church of England as the educator of village people, was generally unchallenged throughout the Voluntary Period.

1. See map in Appendix B.

The Villages.

The villages situated on the north bank of the Tees were similar in many ways and people lived according to long established traditions which were typical of agricultural communities. From an educational point of view the inhabitants of these communities who were without schools in 1833 were generally keen that something should be done about it. In many instances the need for instruction had been felt either before or shortly after that date and clearly, High Coniscliffe, Eaglescliffe and Piercebridge are good examples. The development of the National School at High Coniscliffe will be discussed first in order to show how educational provision was eventually achieved after lengthy preparation on the part of the promoters.

They initially began their efforts in the late 1820's after resolving "at a meeting held in the vestry room in the Parish Church of High Coniscliffe, upon the 11th day of August 1829"¹ to erect a building for school use. Sums of money were collected over a period of years which included £11 5s. Od. in 1834, £11 5s. Od. in 1835, £12 in 1837 and £8 in 1845.² By 1848 the total amount received was £170 9s. Od., which was just about the sum needed for the erection of a school building which had been estimated would cost £171 9s. 6d.³ This figure

1. Coniscliffe Day School Committee Minutes and A/C. 1829-90.
2. Ibid.
3. Ibid.

excluded the value of the site but this fact was inconsequential since it was to be a gift from a Mr. Howard, the Lord of the Manor.¹ The school was named Coniscliffe National School, despite the fact that it was probably an independent project. The collections shown above indicate that the necessary finance came from local sources. A contemporary writer described it as possessing no ceiling, and with a heating system which was found to be "slow and difficult."² Confirmation that the building was extremely simple suggests that it was erected as quickly as funds would allow so that education could be made available. There is good reason to believe that the school only attracted pupils from that part of the parish known as High Coniscliffe where in fact it was established. The children of Low Coniscliffe, who really formed part of the same community seemingly lacked educational opportunity until 1872.³ During that year however, a British School was erected by Mr. A. Pease of Darlington. This eventually accommodated at least one hundred children⁴ which seems to indicate that there had been considerable educational inadequacy within the parish as a whole until the advent of the British School.

Occasionally, people were not prepared to await the

1. Walshaw, W. A History of Coniscliffe, MS. p.195.
2. Ibid., p.206.
3. Whellan & Co., op.cit., p.443.
4. Ibid.

eventual provision of a village school which might result from the chance action of local promoters. Parents living at Eaglescliffe for example, provided the initial stimulus for education here when they exhibited keenness for their children to receive some teaching during the early years of the century even though there was no school. The children were sent to the National School at Yarm, a village on the other side of the Tees in Yorkshire.¹ This practice however, did not continue for long after 1833 because a National School was established in the village in 1838. On applying to the National Society for a grant, the Anglican incumbent estimated the population to be of the order of 625 persons,² but this was an exaggeration, as the Census Return for 1831 was 424 whilst for 1841 it was only 443. Local pressure for a school to be built as quickly as possible had been successfully applied so it would appear. This is confirmed by a hint of impatience given in correspondence accompanying the application to the National Society. The suggestion was that the managers were anxious to proceed with the building since the "subscriptions were in."³ From the circumstances surrounding the establishment of the school it is clear that there was some urgency on the part of the promoters to afford educational facilities for the children of the

1. Ibid., p.697.

2. App.F. Eaglescliffe National School, dated 15th June 1837.

3. Ibid.

labouring poor who had shown that they were willing to suffer the inconvenience of travelling in order to receive instruction.

Turning now to Piercebridge, it is evident that the situation here was initially very similar to that which had evolved earlier in the century at Eaglescliffe. It appears that the children of this relatively small community had been deprived of elementary instruction until it first became available in 1848 at the neighbouring village of High Coniscliffe. Their desire for schooling was clearly shown since they were also willing to travel to the facilities offered in an adjacent community. Even then, only the elder boys were allowed to attend.¹ Later the position was resolved when in 1853, Piercebridge National School was built and immediately attracted forty scholars.²

Despite Government aid and the eagerness for schooling shown in the above cases there seems to have been unavoidable delay in building the schools, due, it is assumed, to the time taken to collect local funds. This of course, was most evident in the case of the school at High Coniscliffe.

Educational provision for the children of other villages in the region however, was probably delayed for different reasons. In the case of the National School at Whorlton for example, it

1. Walshaw, W. MS. op.cit., p.196.

2. Preliminary Statement, Piercebridge National School, dated 1853.

was possibly because of the traditional use of child employment at the local farms. One of the chief reasons for child employment in agricultural communities was due to the fact that from eight years of age, a child could earn 6d per day or more, and at 12 years of age, earnings might rise to at least 1/-¹.

The school proposed here in 1848, fifteen years after the introduction of State aid was to cost an estimated £186 15s. 6½d. It appears that the promoters had been engaged in collecting funds for some time and local subscriptions by that year amounted to £139; the Diocesan School Society had awarded £25 whilst the contribution expected from the National Society was £15.² The local collection of funds proved sufficient and the school envisaged in 1848 was opened in 1849. The total number of pupils in attendance was initially only forty four which included twenty eight boys and sixteen girls.³ The original estimation of an attendance of seventy eight boys⁴ indicated that many who might possibly have benefited from an elementary education did not participate. This, of course, was perhaps not unusual because a child taken from work would be tantamount to a reduction in a family's income. But to further the cause of education in this difficult situation the local incumbent enthusiastically associated himself with the

1. Report of the Newcastle Commission, Vol.I. p.180.
2. App. F. Whorlton National School, dated 12th Sept. 1848.
3. Preliminary Statement, Whorlton National School, dated 1849.
4. App. F. Whorlton National School, op.cit.

children. Occasionally he invited them to the parsonage where they indulged in jovial activities.¹ Probably such functions helped to encourage many children to attend school, thus introducing another bridge away from the old routine of village life. Continuity of the school was apparently maintained, for the local press was aware of its progress and activities as late as 1869.

If in some villages the promotion of schools was not always achieved with immediacy for one reason or another, there were yet more problems regarding the business of providing suitable educational facilities during the nineteenth century. There were, for instance, examples of buildings in both villages and towns becoming inadequate within a short time of their erection. The National School at Gainford was a typical example of such a situation occurring in a village.

Educational provision for the children here dated from a very early period, in fact, an endowment existed for this purpose from 1691.² The first record of a National School however, was mentioned in the Annual Report of the National Society for 1838. At this time two schools were shown to have been in "union"³ with the Society from 1837 when they provided

1. Teesdale Mercury, dated 28th Ap. 1869.
2. Whellan & Co. op.cit., p.563.
3. N.S. Rept., 1838 p.72.

education for both boys and girls. The buildings, probably erected some years earlier, contained the school until 1857, when it became necessary to provide a new establishment. This resulted from the gradual increase of the population and the subsequent pressure for more school places.

Application was therefore made to the National Society for this purpose, whilst the estimated cost was £450 9s. 11d.¹ The incumbent of Gainford at this time seemed to be extremely interested in the educational aspect of parochial welfare. Indeed, he strengthened his application for the new school by referring to similar work he had promoted out of his "own pocket"² in another parish some years previously. His enthusiasm was clearly effective, local support by subscription quickly amounted to £263, whilst in addition he received a grant of £10 from the National Society. The new accommodation was opened in 1858 despite an incurred debt of £59. 12s. 0d.³ Further enlargements were necessarily carried out in 1866 and were again partly financed from aid granted by the Society.⁴

The fact that all of the region's villages except Middleton-St-George were able to provide approved facilities offering elementary education by 1870,⁵ reflects in some measure the effectiveness of the Government Grant and the part

1. App.F. Gainford National School, dated 15th July 1857.
2. Ibid.
3. N.S. Gainford File, letter from incumbent dated 27th Ap.1858.
4. App.F. Gainford National School, dated 23rd Nov. 1865.
5. See map in Appendix D.

played by the Established Church and its local adherents. Traditionally of course, there was a bond between the Church and the labouring poor in the villages because families depended on Church rites in birth, life and death processes. Moreover, in the early decades of the century and especially in these small communities there was often no other form of religious mediator between God and man. The Methodist Chapels which later provided an alternative only generally became established after the 1830's. Billingham Chapel, for instance, was erected in 1836¹ but the majority were much later in the century. Meanwhile, Roman Catholic Churches were almost non-existent in the villages, probably because the larger centres of Durham's Catholic population "tended to be in the north of the County."²

Bearing these facts in mind it is easily appreciated why the majority of village schools were National Schools. Even if other denominations had been sufficiently well established it is most likely that any educational effort on their part would have suffered from the same frustrations experienced by the promoters of National Schools.

Yet, in spite of the problems experienced by schools' promoters working in these situations it is evident that their

1. Whellan & Co., op.cit., p.590.
2. Heyes, J.F. op.cit., p.196.

task was relatively straightforward by contrast with those who laboured towards a similar goal in the North-Eastern towns.

The Towns

So far as the Teesside district was concerned, really heavy industrialisation began in about the middle of the nineteenth century. Up to that time Darlington, Stockton and Middlesbrough were hardly affected by the development of foundries and the iron trades.¹ Nevertheless, from 1833 the gradual growth of these towns began to expose gaps in the educational system. They continued to exist in the subsequent era of rapid population expansion which occurred after 1850 when engineering trades were introduced.²

In the towns it was sometimes possible to provide schools for children belonging to certain denominations instead of the single parish school as was shown to be the case in most of the villages. But the National Schools established in Darlington, Stockton and Middlesbrough before and after 1850 were important so far as Anglicans were concerned. However, National Schools developed before 1850 shall be discussed first because this was a period different from the one which followed.

1. See Chapter 1, pp.24-25.

2. Ibid.

In Darlington certain denominational schools eventually became active in addition to those identified with the National Society. But during the period 1833-1850 the only ones which provided elementary education for the children of the poor, were a Roman Catholic School opened in 1848¹ and British Schools. From Annual Reports concerning the Skinnergate British School it seems that perhaps all schools were working at capacity, since by 1849 this school was admitting children of "all denominations and Roman Catholics."² Such evidence is clearly indicative of a serious shortage of school places in the educational system. Examples described below readily show that educational promotion was not always given the priority it ought to have demanded in the new Anglican parishes.

Darlington's first additional parish to be formed was that of Holy Trinity in 1836.³ It incorporated part of the town which was developing towards the village of Cockerton. But it was not until 1845, that any attempt was made by the Established Church to provide a National School. This was regardless of the fact that the beneficial effects of education were sorely needed at a time when social conditions were not improving. Actually, the town's "existing evils" seemed to be getting worse and became the object of a Parliamentary Inquiry in 1849.⁴ Apparently few

1. Heyes, J.F. op.cit., p.221.
2. B. & F. Rept., 1849, p.68.
3. Longstaffe, W.H.D. op.cit., p.247.
4. Fordyce, W. Vol.I. op.cit., p.480.

organisations apart from the existing schools catered for the needs of the young people, hence, "gangs of youths" frequently invaded the streets, intermingling with those who provided a spectacle of drunkenness, associated with the lot of the poor.¹ The proposed school was for the accommodation of one hundred and forty four boys and the same number of girls, at an estimated cost of £750.² A lack of finance proved to be a major obstacle for the timely erection of the buildings which shows that village schools were not alone in the struggle for a sufficiency of funds. Confirmation of such difficulty in this parish is found in correspondence to the National Society when the incumbent expressed his disappointment at its proposed grant of £70. He suggested that, "if it is not increased there is fear of abandonment of the project."³ Eventually the financial difficulties were surmounted, and in 1846 the school was opened in buildings in Commercial Street.⁴ All available places were occupied despite the fact that some pupils soon left for reasons which shall be discussed in a later Chapter.⁵

The population of this area increased steadily for those reasons discussed earlier in Chapter 1, and considerable pressure for school places resulted. An application was therefore made to the National Society in 1850 for aid

1. Nicholson, C.P. op.cit., p.75.
2. App. F. Holy Trinity National School, Darlington, dated 5th Feb. 1845.
3. N.S. Holy Trinity File, letter from incumbent, dated 22nd Feb. 1845.
4. Cosgrove, W.F. The Story of Holy Trinity, Darlington, p.15.
5. See Chapter 9, p.179.

towards building a new, enlarged school in which to instruct two hundred boys and one hundred infants.¹ The new building was duly erected in Union Street with the help of financial aid from the Society.² When it opened it was used exclusively for boys, whilst the original buildings in Commercial Street continued in use for girls and infants.³

British Schools' promoters of course, continued to initiate school projects during the pre-engineering era of the region, and in Darlington, provided more than just supplementary accommodation long before the town was faced with the educational needs of a rapidly expanding population. Their contribution will be dealt with fully in the next Chapter. Some consideration will now be given to the development of National Schools in Stockton and Middlesbrough from 1833 until the middle of the century.

In Stockton, the first movement involving additional parochial development came in the year 1834/5, when the Church of Holy Trinity was built within the existing parish of St. Thomas.⁴ A separate ecclesiastical district was later created in 1837. By 1847 the population of the area had reached 5,000,⁵ but the only educational facilities serving the expanding community were in the form of Sunday Schools and

1. App.F. Holy Trinity National School, Darlington, dated 4th May 1850.
2. Ibid., £10 was promised.
3. Cosgrove, W.F. op.cit., p.15.
4. Whellan & Co., op.cit., p.720.
5. App. F. Holy Trinity National School, Stockton, dated 2nd Feb. 1847.

the British School.¹ As in Darlington, some years after the creation of the new parish, the incumbent made a successful application to the National Society in 1847 for aid towards the provision of a school, in which one hundred and fifty boys and one hundred girls were to receive education.² But whilst educational promoters both here and in Darlington were seeking to provide adequate elementary school facilities in the face of increasing population, the adjacent town of Middlesbrough was experiencing similar, but more acute difficulties, and continued to do so until long after 1870. For the first half of the century it was not so much a question of filling the gaps in the existing educational system but rather of how to persuade children to attend the only soundly established school which did exist i.e. the British School.³ More, however, shall be said about this in the next Chapter. In the meantime, there seemed to be no one interested in promoting a National School even though the first ecclesiastical district of the town i.e. that of St. Hilda was formed in 1840. In fact, before the Established Church became engaged in providing educational facilities for the poor, a second parish was created in 1863.⁴ Hence, the advent of National Schools in Middlesbrough was very late by contrast with

1. Ibid.

2. Ibid.

3. By 1847 a Roman Catholic School was functioning and a "congregational committee were making strenuous efforts to erect a new one." See unpublished M. Ed. thesis by J. Kitching entitled 'The Development of Catholic Education in the North and East Ridings of Yorkshire and the City of York, 1571-1870, p.186.

4. Lillie, W. op.cit., p.388.

Darlington and Stockton.

From the above examples concerning the establishment of National Schools in the parishes of the North-Eastern towns it appears that up to 1850, there was seemingly little real sense of urgency to provide an adequate number of schools for poor children.¹ But since part of the finance for schools had to be found locally, incumbents probably had to devote much time to fostering good will among the inhabitants of the new parishes. From 1850 however, when employment provided by the foundries and other leading industrial concerns attracted exceptionally large numbers of working class families to the area, more had to be done to relieve ignorance among the poor and in certain instances elementary schools were established with due expediency. The establishment of National Schools after 1850 shows the response by the Anglican Church.

The social changes taking place in these northern towns at this time were not unusual since other areas were similarly affected. By the middle of the 1850's, Darlington, for example, entered a new phase of development due to the introduction of heavy industrial works. This resulted in the continued increase of the population but at a greater rate than before.² With the introduction of industrial processes

1. See map in Appendices B
2. See Chapter 1, p.34.

carried out at the Forge and the South Durham Iron Works, the town seemed to respond to the cultural and educational needs of at least a certain section of society. For example, a Mechanics' Institute was founded in 1854.¹ Perhaps many industrial employees repaired to its lecture rooms and laboratories for educational advancement or for leisure activities. In addition, the Darlington Choral Society and the Church of England Institute were inaugurated in the years 1856 and 1859, yet to some extent, there was an atmosphere of "intellectual exclusiveness"² engendered within these organisations. Consequently, there was very little diffusion of culture among the people or towards the children of the labouring poor class. If any of the benefits of education were to be gained by the poor, then a further expansion of the Voluntary Schools' System would provide the only hope. This is exactly what took place because fortunately there were those who were keen to found schools in the new parts of the town.

When a growth in the population occurred at the northern boundary especially in what became the heavy industrial district, another parochial area evolved. This eventually became designated as the parish of St. Paul, being formally

1. Nicholson, C.P. op.cit., p.91.
2. Ibid.

defined in 1862. A Mission Church was opened on September 18th 1862, with the Rev. T.H. Thompson as incumbent.¹ Almost immediately, the provision of an infants' school became one of the chief concerns of the local Churchmen. By 1863 they had collected the sum of £405 towards the establishment of their objective.² The school was built in Westmoreland Street in that year, and had two hundred and fifty children in attendance by 1872.³ This was the last National School to be built in Darlington before 1870 having been preceded by St. John's in 1859.⁴

The town of Stockton demonstrated a similar disposition towards the provision of educational facilities for the children of the people when growth areas were developing into new communities at the boundaries of the original places of habitation. It was found here for instance, that in the early 1850's the population of the Port Clarence district was increasing. It was in this area that the town's next National School was established. Perhaps it was under Church control from the outset, but initially, it was of very humble origin having been first established in a cottage in 1855.⁵ The designation Port Clarence National School, was probably originally applied in 1862 when a new building was erected.⁶

1. Darlington & Stockton Times, dated 23rd Sept. 1922.
2. Nicholson, C.P. op.cit., p.62.
3. Darlington & Stockton Times, dated 23rd Sept. 1922.
4. See Chapter 4, p.89. concerning the erection of this school.
5. Preliminary Statement, Port Clarence National School, Middlesbrough, dated 1862.
6. Ibid.

But the control which the Church exercised only extended to educational matters as the property was owned by a Company known as Bell Bros. The number of pupils being educated in 1862 included thirty three boys and twenty nine girls.¹ Following the habitation of the Port Clarence area came a further rapid population increase in the district surrounding Portrack Lane, and as was indicated by the sudden expansion of a Ragged School which already existed in the neighbourhood, it must have been one of the poorer areas of the town.² But perhaps not all children attending the Ragged School were of the poorest class, because as yet the district had not been defined as a new ecclesiastical sector, and the establishment of a Church School had not been possible. In 1864, the new parish of St. James was created to incorporate this district.³ But as had been the case all too often during the earlier years of the century, an application for the erection of a National School was not made until 1870 when the population was again increasing due to the iron trade. The school which was eventually established accommodated four hundred boys and girls in two rooms, which shows once more the need for educational facilities on a large scale in the towns.⁴

Apart from the original Blue Coat School and the Ragged and

1. Ibid.

2. Richmond, T. op.cit., pp.228-9.

3. Whellan & Co., op.cit., p.720.

4. App.F. St. James National School, Stockton, dated 26th Dec. 1870. Also documents in the N.S. File concerning St. James's National School state that it was eventually established in 1875.

Industrial School, the Established Church in Stockton was responsible for the erection of two post 1833 National Schools i.e. Holy Trinity and St. James's. However, these institutions together provided most of the elementary education for a population of at least 28,021¹ persons until 1875. On the other hand, it must not be forgotten that many children possibly found suitable apprenticeships here which detracted from their attendance at school.²

If there had been omissions in providing educational facilities for Darlington and Stockton by 1870, Middlesbrough, even at that time was still more or less at the stage of making provision for a basic system of schools. Previous to 1850 the town was not really an industrial centre. In fact it was not until after that date that the heavy industries were introduced.³ As in Darlington and Stockton, the post 1850 era encouraged further expansion of the population, which in turn created a greater need for the benefits which were to be derived from elementary education. But the development of National Schools in the new town was to be delayed for many years to come. Indeed, the formation of a parish here seemed to demand unusual circumstances. Middlesbrough's second parish, St. John's, was established as the result of an

1. Census Returns, 1871.

2. See Chapter 1, p.26 for the variety of trades which probably created employment for large numbers of young apprentices.

3. See Chapter 1, p.30.

industrial disaster in 1858,¹ whilst the foundation of the National School was perhaps really due to jealousy on the part of the incumbent who quickly realised that only dissenters had hitherto promoted schools in the entire town.²

Before the year 1870 however, one further parish was formed in 1867, it was that of St. Paul.³ Despite the non-existence of a church building, an incumbent was appointed whose priority seems to have been educational provision. He made application to the National Society in 1867 for the establishment of a schoolroom to be used eventually as an infants' school but initially as a mixed school.⁴ Local funds⁵ were raised very quickly by contrast with many other similar projects, but much was obtained from local employers who had been persuaded "to join in a scheme of education in the principles of the National Society."⁶ Elementary education became available at the school from January 1868 when it was first opened for boys and girls. Seventy five boys and thirty seven girls were taught separately.⁷ Building continued at the school site, and in 1869 an infants' room was opened with sixty children present on the first morning, and seventy three by the afternoon.⁸ But St. Paul's National School was not yet considered complete. Indeed, efforts for its eventual

1. St. John's National School, Middlesbrough, Centenary Pamphlet, p.12.
2. See Chapter 4, p.91.
3. Lillie, W. op.cit., p.388.
4. App.F. St. Paul's National School, Middlesbrough, dated 23rd Apr. 1867.
5. Ibid., local funds amounted to £600.
6. N.S. St. Paul's National School, Middlesbrough File, letter from incumbent dated 12th Aug. 1868.
7. Preliminary Statement, St. Paul's National School, Middlesbrough, dated 1868.
8. Log Book, St. Paul's National School, Middlesbrough, entry dated 11th Jan. 1869.

completion proved ultimately to be a race against time because its lack of accommodation for older children was a good example of one of Forster's 'educational gaps' considered in the Act of 1870.¹ The fears of the promoters are described in detail in Chapter 4 where it is shown that the enemy, i.e. the State, was successfully kept at bay.

However, there was yet much educational provision to be made for the children of the Middlesbrough poor. The two parishes latterly formed made some provision, but before 1869 nothing had been affected in the original parish of St. Hilda. A possible reason for this was that the Anglicans probably had been deterred by the apparent difficulties in attracting children to school experienced by the promoters of the British School, and therefore considered the facilities offered by that school and Sunday Schools to be sufficient for the needs of the area.

But in 1869 a successful application was made to the National Society for aid to erect St. Hilda's National Schools in which to teach three hundred boys and two hundred girls.² The immediate fruition of this last National School project again, was largely due to a gift of £6,583 from the iron-master Mr. H.W.F. Bolckow.³

1. See Introduction, p.6.
2. N.S. St. Hilda's National School, Middlesbrough File, Letter from incumbent, dated 5th Aug. 1880.
3. Lillie, W. op.cit., p.112.

For at least forty years before 1870 educational provision was inadequate in Middlesbrough, and for a long time after the introduction of the School Board there was still much to be done. In some respects the situation was excusable, as it is doubtful whether any scheme could have coped with the unique population explosion which brought the new town into being.

Whilst the National Schools established in the villages and towns on the north bank of the Tees had much in common with regard to management and parochial ethos, there were clearly some differences. Urban schools were generally larger than those in the villages, and this factor alone implies the provision of better facilities for town children. In fact, the newer schools built during the closing years of the Voluntary Period must have been lavish by contrast with those of earlier years.¹ Apart, however, from the better facilities of town schools, there was evidence of difficulties in teaching children who were new to the discipline imposed.² Such problems do not appear to have existed in the village schools. This was perhaps due to educational traditions which had been built up over the years and which in many instances dated from the eighteenth century. Also in the villages there did not seem to be the problem of educating pauper children as was the case

1. See Chapter 7, p158.
2. See Chapter 7, p152.

in the towns. On industrial Teesside where towns were growing rapidly, the only hope for such children was in the Ragged Schools.

Throughout the period 1833 to 1870 the impetus given towards the provision of National Schools in the villages and towns has been shown to contrast sharply with that of the earlier years of the century.¹ This of course was not only due to the availability of Government aid but also to the various pressures brought about by changing social attitudes. In fact the years between 1833 and 1870 embraced a social awakening during which the educational needs of the poor were considered. Progressively more money was voted by the Treasury for use in schools and persons in positions of social leadership clearly associated themselves with the cause. But the National Schools constituted only one part of the Voluntary System; some consideration must now be given to the development throughout the Teesdale-Teesside region of that other constituent, the British Schools.

1. Compare Maps in Appendices A and D.

Chapter 6

The Establishment of British Schools
throughout the Region between 1833
and 1870.

Clearly by 1870 most of the villages of the region were able to support a National School.¹ Moreover, it might be reasonably concluded that over the years, if village children desired the benefits to be derived from elementary education then they could be accommodated at the existing schools as school managers had been increasingly confronted with the task of making sure that adequate facilities were available. The enlargement of existing buildings or the erection of completely new ones was a feature of the nineteenth century Voluntary System.² On the other hand, in the continuously expanding towns it was shown in the previous Chapter that there was always a need for both new and enlarged elementary schools so that by the end of the Voluntary Period there was still a serious lack of accommodation. Many of the children of the labouring poor on industrial Teesside were therefore reared in areas of educational deprivation simply because schools could not be provided fast enough by the National Society, or for that matter,

1. See map in Appendix D.

2. See previous Chapter, pp. 102 - 103.

by other interested Bodies. Throughout the Voluntary Period however, the promoters of British Schools worked with due expediency in Darlington, Stockton and Middlesbrough and it was here that they made their greatest contribution to the cause of elementary education. The reasons why the efforts of British Schools' promoters were consolidated in the towns were perhaps twofold; first, as has already been observed, the various Nonconformist denominations were rather slow to break down the barriers of Anglican traditionalism in the villages, and secondly, the chief philanthropic supporters of these schools actually lived in the towns mentioned above.

Whilst there were broad differences between elementary education in the towns and villages, there were also characteristic differences between the schools of the National and the British and Foreign School Societies which were especially contrasted in the urban settlements.¹ Of all the British Schools founded in the Teesdale-Teesside region during the period 1833-1870, only one was outside the industrial area of the lower reaches of the river.² This was probably because the evangelistic efforts of the Dissenting Church had greater effect in the towns for much of the century. The Nonconformist Churches therefore embraced many children who might not readily

1. See Chapters 7 & 8, in which school buildings, equipment and curricula are discussed.
2. See map in Appendix D which shows a British School at Barnard Castle.

have been accepted into the Anglican Schools. Thus, if the children of the various dissenting churches were to be given the opportunity of an elementary education, then ideally it needed to be made available in schools wherein no particular religious doctrine was emphasised. Accordingly, Methodist, Baptist and other dissenting children were largely educated in the British Schools.¹ The promotion of these schools depended upon local initiative and as the Anglican incumbent was of primary importance in establishing National Schools, his counterpart was necessary for conducting business with the British and Foreign School Society on behalf of British School promoters.

In the towns considered in this region, Quaker industrialists adopted this role which in many ways resembled that of Anglican incumbents. Many of course, had had the benefit of education, and therefore might have been expected to have some ability for organising school committees and exercising the necessary oversight of schools after their establishment.² Their work in this capacity was complementary to that of the Established Church. Besides, members of the Society of Friends were described as people who provided "all the necessities of the poor"³ which included the provision of schools.

1. See later in Chapter.
2. Backhouse File, A Collection of miscellaneous papers at the Northern Echo Office, Darlington; a newspaper cutting mentioned that Edmund Backhouse had been educated at the Quaker School at Grove House, Tottenham followed by a Banking apprenticeship at Norwich.
3. The Diaries of Edward Pease, p.29.

From 1833, Government aid for setting up schools for the children of the dissenting poor was largely available through the British and Foreign School Society. From its foundation, the British Society was specifically an institution for promoting the "education of Labouring and Manufacturing Classes of every religious persuasion."¹ British Schools promoted in the industrial towns of Darlington, Stockton and Middlesbrough were initiated by leaders of the local Quaker Societies who followed the precepts of Lancaster; who was also a Quaker and founder of the British Society.

Throughout most of the Teesside area several members of the inter-related Backhouse and Pease families became greatly interested in elementary education. Their Quaker doctrines and family involvement were probably instrumental in helping to create the solidarity which enabled them to achieve their ambitious educational programme. Because these industrialist families of the North-East were deeply conscious of their religious faith they also despised worldly frivolity and directed much energy towards the development of their business interests. At the same time, however, they were mindful of the benefits to be derived from education; these they were keen to diffuse among the poor by providing

1. B. & F. Rept. 1833, p.VIII.

elementary schools.

A closer study of the prominent Quaker families who were responsible for the industrialisation of the North-East might serve to demonstrate some of the qualities which characterised individual members. First, our attention will be directed towards the Backhouse family who pioneered the banking business in South Durham by establishing their first office at Darlington in 1774.¹ Their rise to prominence began with Jonathan Backhouse who directed the business during these early years when he also afforded much of the financial backing for the Stockton and Darlington Railway, which as a means of communication, provided scope for the development of all trades in the vicinity of Darlington from 1825.

Edmund Backhouse however, a son of Jonathan, typified the family spirit as well as any other member. He was interested in the affairs of the town and through his keen interest in sport, he came into contact with people of differing social rank which resulted in his growing awareness of the needs of the poor.² For instance, in 1866 the Iron Works in Darlington was verging on bankruptcy, but he provided timely financial help thus securing the employment of two thousand employees. The sympathetic and liberal outlook of Edmund, gained him such

1. Fordyce, W. Vol.I. op.cit., p.483.
2. Backhouse File, op.cit.
3. Ibid.

popularity that when Darlington elected its first member of Parliament in 1867, he was most "fittingly chosen by the townspeople."¹ Throughout his life, he maintained an interest in the progress of education in Darlington, whilst in 1870 he was still an active member of the Committee of the Skinnergate British School,² and in common with many supporters of the British and Foreign School Society he subsequently leaned towards Mr. Forster at the time of the 1870 Act.³

Throughout this period, the Pease family was also engaged in the industrial and social activities of the North-East. Often both families worked in concert forming a powerful spearhead in local affairs generally. It was commonly acknowledged that during the nineteenth century the Pease family owned Darlington.⁴ The wealth embraced by their empire enabled certain members of the family to project their influence into the development of the Teesside district. But in addition to this, they were endowed with a quality of foresight and religious zeal common to many contemporary Quakers of the business world.

Meanwhile, several members of the family were actively engaged in the promotion of education for the poor. In fact it was said that they followed the example set by the Lambtons and the Londonderrys who were also well known for their interest in

1. Phillips, M. A History of Banks, Bankers and Banking etc., p.154.
2. B. & F. Rept. 1870. p.109.
3. The Durham Thirteen, p.101.
4. Pease File of miscellaneous papers, op.cit.

providing education for the people.¹ Be that as it may, it is evident that Joseph Pease perhaps epitomised his family spirit better than any other member. Like Edmund Backhouse, he was active in the general affairs of Teesside and became aware of the hard lot of the poor.² His industrial projects established him as the employer of an extremely large labour force which caused the formation of considerable new communities in the Teesside towns.³ Typically, although in many ways exceptionally, Middlesbrough expanded during the 1840's after he invited the iron-masters Bolckow and Vaughan to the area, whereupon they purchased six acres of land from him in Commercial Street and later established the iron industry.⁴

Joseph was especially concerned with the provision of education for the poor at a time when it must be remembered that the labouring classes were incapable of supplying themselves with ~~such~~ advantages. As a result of his work it was reported that "perhaps the noblest monument to his life might well be in the schools founded by him."⁵ And significantly, some of the schools he built originated as practical protests for free non-denominational tuition.⁶ A condition which he always exercised was, that where a school was needed "it shall be unsectarian."⁷

1. An Historical Outline of the Association of Edward Pease, Joseph Pease, etc. with the Industrial Development of South Durham etc., p.11. Anon. Undated. Copy in Darlington Public library.
2. Northern Echo, dated 11th Feb. 1872.
3. Ibid.
4. Lillie, W. op.cit., p.70.
5. Northern Echo, op.cit.
6. Ibid.
7. Ibid.

Not only was his public life expended in educational promotion, but also as South Durham's first Parliamentary representative in 1833.¹ However, the records of Parliamentary Debates during his term of office do not reveal that he made any political contribution on behalf of popular education.²

With Edmund Backhouse he served as a member of the Committee of the Darlington British School in Skinnergate until at least 1870. After his death in 1872 a statue was erected in the town to commemorate his life's work. One facet depicts a schoolroom showing a group of poor children being instructed by a female teacher.³ This seems to confirm the efforts made by himself and his family on behalf of educational provision for the poor, because they had always believed as did Henry Pease later in the century, that education not only affected "the individual but also the nation"⁴ as a whole.

Outstanding though the work of the Pease/Backhouse association was, there were other North-Eastern industrialists who were similarly inclined. Two notable benefactors of popular education in Middlesbrough were the iron-masters Messrs. Bolckow and Vaughan. They infused financial aid into various projects more or less as the need arose, and being religiously impartial, they helped to relieve the cost of building both National and

1. Pease File of miscellaneous papers, op.cit.
2. Hansard, Parliamentary Debates on Education, 1833-1841.
3. Statue of Joseph Pease, High Row, Darlington.
4. Henry Pease, A Short Story of his Life, p.38. Anon. Copy in Darlington Public Library.

British Schools. Their influence over their employees too is worthy of note, for example, in 1846, in order to raise funds for the support of the Middlesbrough British School Mr. Bolckow "conceived a likely scheme for raising £10!"¹ He suggested placing a subscription list "at some suitable place in the works"² for all to see, thus encouraging donations from the labourers. Perhaps such schemes could hardly fail since the labourers were dependent on Mr. Bolckow for employment!

Undoubtedly one of the highest commendations which might be paid to the promoters of Teesside's British Schools in the nineteenth century concerned the urgency with which they often worked. By contrast it has been shown that National Schools were usually established only after the creation of parishes which frequently lagged behind the growth of communities.³ On the other hand, the establishment of British Schools experienced no such constraint. When the need for a community school became apparent this in itself was usually enough stimulus for promoters to take action, especially where sound financial backing was available. In the Teesside area one of the most outstanding examples of the expediency with which British School promoters often worked was at Middlesbrough. As has already been observed, it was a town which quite suddenly attracted

1. Minute Book, British School, Middlesbrough. Min. dated 22-10-46.
2. Ibid.
3. See previous Chapter, pp. 113 - 115.

vast numbers of inhabitants.¹

Several years before Middlesbrough's first parish was defined, Quaker business men, including members of the Pease and Backhouse families were moved to provide a British School. Earlier it was shown that their first unsuccessful attempt dated from 1834.² After much perseverance however, sufficient funds were raised by 1836, but only enough to warrant the erection of one room in Stockton Street.³ Even then, had it not been for the timely benevolence of the Middlesbrough Owners among whom were members of the Pease and Backhouse families, the school might have been further delayed, because they paid off incurred debts amounting to £254 17s. Od. when the school opened in 1838.⁴

Later the managers found it desirable to accommodate infants and on November 21st 1840 they decided to consider applications for places for not more than sixty pupils.⁵ But the children seemed to be apathetic towards schooling as there is no evidence that they ever presented themselves at school immediately of their own volition. In fact, it was suggested that "some plan must be hit upon to prevail or compel the attendance of the children (say) by refusing to employ any that cannot read or write - - if the shipowners, shopkeepers,

1. See Chapter 1, p.29;

2. See Chapter 3, p.72.

3. B. & F. Rept. 1836. p.10.

4. Minute Book, British School, Middlesbrough, op.cit., p.18.

5. Ibid., p.45.

carpenters, bricklayers etc., were to make it known that they would not employ such."¹ Again in 1842 it was resolved at another committee meeting that "thirty girls might be admitted to be educated in the same way as boys."² On this occasion the bellman was instructed to make a public announcement in which it was broadcast that applications for places were "to be made at the Gas Works Office."³ Advertising in this way was effectual because by 1844 there were one hundred and eighty eight pupils being educated, but there was still accommodation for at least forty or fifty more at the school.⁴ A suggestion to fill the vacancies came again from the committee who observed that many of the children of the working classes were "growing up in ignorance"⁵ in a town which by now was developing in areas which were at considerable distance from this school.

The committee of the Middlesbrough British School continued to tackle the problem of education for the poor when in 1853 they packed two hundred and eighty three children into the building, and in doing so, exceeded its reasonable capacity. However, by 1857 conditions rendered it necessary to erect a separate infants' school.⁶ But so critical were the lack of educational facilities that a Government Inspector suggested

1. Postgate, C. op.cit., p.25.
2. Minute Book, British School, Middlesbrough, op.cit., 14th Feb. 1842.
3. Ibid.
4. Ibid., minute dated 27th Sept. 1844.
5. Ibid., minute dated, 5th Mar. 1847.
6. Drury, J.J. M.Ed. thesis entitled, History of Education in Middlesbrough, p.31.

that girls should "no longer be admissible, thus leaving more room for the boys, so that the master can select his studies better."¹ The recommended action seems to have been applied, as reports concerning the progress of girls' education ceased from that time.

A new phase in the progress of the Middlesbrough British School was entered in the year 1870. It was now transferred to large new premises in Southend. The building was erected and equipped at the expense of Messrs. Joseph and Henry Pease.² Accommodation was now provided for two hundred and twenty five boys and one hundred and sixty girls and two hundred and forty infants, whilst all the teaching staff were certificated.³ The British School was only one of two elementary educational institutions to function in Middlesbrough until others were founded relatively late in the century. By 1860 the population had reached about 18,962 and up to that time it was still contained in one large parochial district.⁴ Hitherto, the provision of Church of England based education had been restricted because of a lack of new parishes. The Anglican Church clearly exhibited little interest in educational work at Middlesbrough, thereby allowing influences and religious sects other than the Establishment to become responsible for

1. B. & F. Rept. 1862, p.67.
2. Lillie, W. op.cit., p.112; School cost £6229-3s-8d: see also Chapter 7, p.158 for details.
3. Preliminary Statement, Middlesbrough British School, dated 1870.
4. Postgate, C. op.cit., p.38.

shaping the character of the town's young people.

The above example of the introduction and development of a British School was in a situation where financial aid was readily available. To believe that this was generally true wherever the promoters of British Schools operated, is of course, far from the truth. There were obviously many supporters of the British System in England as a whole who laboured under adverse and financially restricting circumstances. Such an example was evident at Stockton, which was one town where the extremely wealthy Pease and Backhouse businessmen seemingly had no interest. The reasons for this were due to the fact that they channelled all their enthusiasm into the industrial potential of Middlesbrough, and of course, into their native town of Darlington. The only British School therefore to be built in Stockton was not established until 1846,¹ whilst St. Cuthbert's Roman Catholic School was not erected until 1884 and the Methodists concentrated on the foundation of Sunday Schools.² The position here for a long time was in many ways similar to that of the regional villages where the children of the poor were largely dependent upon the National Schools for the provision of elementary education. But in view of the Anglican's inability to do more for the

1. Richmond, T. *op.cit.*, p.199.

2. Whellan & Co., *op.cit.*, pp.722-723.

relief of ignorance among the labouring poor, British School promoters made their first and only application to the British and Foreign School Society in 1839 for aid towards the erection of one schoolroom in which it was hoped to instruct two hundred pupils.¹ The estimated cost of the project was £455, £225 of which was transmitted by the British Society.² There was considerable delay however, in collecting the required local subscriptions and the school was not opened until June 18th 1846. Even then, it had to be set up in the town's existing Temperance Rooms in Tennant Street.³ It is clear that the original plan for the erection of a purpose built school had been abandoned because of the lack of financial support. However, it is likely that the grant offered was accepted and used in equipping the Tennant Street rooms for school use. This temporary accommodation was used continuously throughout most of the century, but it became so inadequate that it very nearly proved to be the downfall of British School education at Stockton. By 1860 there was much pressure on the accommodation when well over two hundred pupils attended, they included one hundred and twenty nine boys and one hundred and one girls.⁴ Consequently, early in the year, the school committee held a meeting to consider the position. As a

1. B. & F. Rept. 1839, p.20.
2. Ibid.
3. Richmond, T. op.cit., p.199.
4. B. & F. Rept. 1860, p.82.

result of this meeting the hope was expressed that the present building might be enlarged, in fact it was also stated that there was the prospect of a new school.¹ Unfortunately, little was accomplished to ease the accommodation situation. The numbers attending however, were reduced slightly by April when one hundred and ninety five girls were present.² This suggests that for the time being the school must still have been of more or less manageable proportions. But by 1865, when numbers were increasing again and had reached more than three hundred, the Inspector's remarks were not so complimentary. He warned that "if better accommodation is not found," then the Government Grant "will be withdrawn altogether."³ Such a step might easily have closed the school. But the press in its report of the matter informed its readers that the problem was almost solved due to the acquisition of "a site for a new building in Hume Street."⁴

The proposed new building did not receive immediate attention probably because by 1867, the number attending had fallen again to one hundred and forty three.⁵ The reason why the roll decreased is not known, but perhaps some pupils had found places at other schools which by this time had been established. On the other hand it is possible that they were

1. Darlington Telegraph, dated 31st Mar. 1860.
2. Ibid., dated 7th Apr. 1860.
3. Darlington & Stockton Times, dated 11th Feb. 1860.
4. Ibid.
5. Darlington Mercury, dated 24th Ap. 1867.

absorbed by the employment demands of the iron industries. The reduction of numbers at this British School of course, did not necessarily suggest that sufficient school places were available for all children in other Voluntary Schools. Indeed, the incumbent of St. James's parish observed in 1870 that many children in Stockton were not receiving any education.¹ This more than likely indicated that the denominational schools could not cope with the number of children in the town. It would seem therefore that the British School might come under pressure again until such time that suitable accommodation might be found on the acquisition of the necessary funds. Thus, by contrast, the direct influence of wealthy Friends in Darlington, or for that matter in Middlesbrough, might not be underestimated.

The years leading up to the end of Voluntary Period inevitably illustrated the effects of the growing efficiency with which the Government Inspectors applied themselves to their job. The above case illustrates this reasonably well. Perhaps it was all too easy to submit adverse reports on the schools, many of which were still literally pioneering the diffusion of elementary education among the labouring poor. The Committee of Council's reporter on the Durham British Schools in 1869-70 further emphasised their inadequacies

1. App. F. St. James's National School, Stockton, dated 26th Dec. 1870.

when he apparently found that "at many British Schools the management is little more than nominal," and that schools were seldom visited and registers were never glanced at.¹ However true those statements were, and there is a strong possibility that they were not without foundation, as indeed has previously been shown by the fact that many committees never made returns to the British and Foreign School Society's London Office, such suggestions were not entirely valid, especially for many schools at Darlington and Middlesbrough. For many years before and after 1833, the promoters of British Schools in the above towns exhibited keenness for almost detailed supervision of their institutions.² The relatively large number of establishments in Darlington for example, owed their development mostly to the inspiration and continued concern of the Pease and Backhouse families.³ Furthermore, from these families came certain educational innovators who have never been recognised as such in either the nineteenth or twentieth centuries. Their contributions, however, shall be dealt with in a later Chapter.⁴

The work of British School promoters in Darlington deserves special consideration because here they erected a total of eight institutions for the instruction of poor

1. Min. Committee of Council 1869/70., pp. 342-3.
2. See Chapters 8 and 9.
3. See map in appendix D.
4. See Chapter 8, pp. 171-2.

children between 1819 and 1866. Significantly, the advent of each school after 1833 was stimulated by the needs of the increasing population. The result of the efforts of those who worked towards the provision of such schools at Darlington culminated in the establishment of institutions which probably formed one of the country's best examples of the British System. It appears that the foundation of this system at Darlington was laid in the first instance by the excellent reputation acquired by the Skinnergate British School, which as was shown earlier, progressively developed from 1819.¹

After this date, and throughout the century it was held in high esteem and was perhaps unique among the many Voluntary Schools of the area. Locally, it was known as Bartlett's School having taken the style from its master, Mr. G.W. Bartlett, who held the office from 1836-1867.² During this period a Girls' School was accommodated in the same building but their educational welfare was not so carefully recorded. The number of girls attending in 1843 was only forty.³ It appears, however, that between 1833 and 1870 overall attendances continually increased. For instance, in 1843 two hundred and forty pupils aged 8-14 years were on the roll.⁴ At this school children of "all denominations and Roman Catholics"⁵ were

1. See Chapter 3, p.70.
2. Nicholson, C.P. op.cit., p.45.
3. B. & F. Rept., 1843, p.63.
4. Ibid.
5. Ibid., 1849, p.68.

included, whilst the managers believed that such patronage showed "evidence of the usefulness of the Darlington Society."¹

Educational provision for poor children irrespective of creed was a distinctive feature of the long record of this particular school. In fact the committee was quite explicit in the year 1866-7, when it noted "with pleasure that the various denominations of Christians avail themselves of the unsectarian education afforded at this institution."²

Evidently this practice was usual at other British and National Schools also by this time. Indeed, Newcastle Commissioner, Mr. Foster, declared that parents in Durham County "send their children to whichever they deem the best school, quite irrespective of religious peculiarities."³ Yet despite the above school's popularity, there is no record that any major enlargement of the building took place within the period under examination, although adjacent rooms might have been used to relieve the pressure on accommodation. This was probably because British School promoters here tended to establish more schools in the new parts of the town. Hence, the unusually large number of establishments attributed to their enterprise. The cases described below confirm their aim of putting the schools where there was a need.

1. Ibid.
2. Log Book, British School, Skinnergate, Darlington, Report for the year 1866/7.
3. Report of the Newcastle Commission. Vol.I, p.37: Durham Report.

In 1848 for instance, as the town expanded on its eastern boundary in the area of the railway terminus, provision was made for educating girls at the Feetham's Girls' School.¹ The only report of this school seems to have been submitted in 1851 when ninety three girls attended aged between 4-14 years.² Many girls attending British Schools in Darlington clearly owed their educational opportunities to the sponsorship of promoters such as Lady Fry. Possibly she was the inspiration behind the foundation of the above School. She certainly was in the case of the Kendrew Street Girls' School which was erected in 1849 on the northern edge of the town.³ This was an unusual venture not only because it catered exclusively for girls but also for specialist teaching; details concerning this, however, shall be discussed in a later Chapter.⁴ Before the middle of the century it is also worthy of note that British Schools' promoters had established five schools here by contrast with the National Society's two.

By 1866 the town was progressively increasing from the northern boundary. Further opportunity arose for the establishment of yet another school - Albert Road British School for boys, girls and infants erected in 1866, and opened on July 23rd.⁵ Forty five pupils were immediately enrolled,

1. Preliminary Statement, Feethams Girls' British School, Darlington, dated 1848.
2. B. & F. Rept., 1851, p.63.
3. Preliminary Statement, Kendrew Street Girls' School, Darlington (British); dated 1849.
4. See Chapter 8, p.172.
5. Log Book, Albert Road British School, entry dated 27th Aug. 1866.

but the school continued to "increase every week" and by August 27th there were one hundred and forty two names on the register.¹ The teachers appointed included two pupil teachers who were transferred from the Bridge Street School which had been erected in 1840.² But by 1869 attendance had fallen to eighty nine, probably due to additional accommodation being provided at other schools in the vicinity of Rise Carr.³

The above instances concerning the establishment of British Schools in Darlington, Stockton and Middlesbrough, show that they were promoted almost exclusively in developing urban areas where the Church of England often found it difficult to create new parishes quickly. Clearly, this was one reason why the Church lost some of its educational control in the towns while in the villages, schools remained more or less under the influence of the relatively old established parish system. Promoters of British Schools, however, did in certain instances try to project the image of the British and Foreign School Society into the more isolated communities. Such action in this region happened at Barnard Castle early in the nineteenth century.

However, because there is a lack of records concerning the British School in this Teesdale market town, it is difficult

1. Ibid.
2. Ibid.
3. See Chapter 7. p.152.

to identify the original promoters. There seems to have been no active Society of Friends here and the Stockton and Darlington Railway operators, who had founded a British School in Shildon did not arrive until much later in the century.¹ Thus, any Quaker influence from the railway promoters or members of the Pease family seemed unlikely. Yet, the establishment of British Schools usually depended on the benevolence of small groups of reasonably wealthy people, and it is possible that the businessmen involved in the local textile mills were among those responsible for the school. In the early decades of the century Messrs. Monkhouse and Sons, who owned the dyeing works only employed apprentices from the age of fourteen years.² Perhaps this fact is indicative of the Company directors' social conscience concerning the employment of children. Such concern for the welfare of children might well have included their educational development to the extent of it being practically expressed in the erection of the British School.

Promoters here who decided to work on behalf of the British and Foreign School Society, tried in 1834 to establish a school in which to educate two hundred infants.³ They were obviously aware of the deficiencies of the National School, particularly its inability to meet the educational requirements of many of the town's children. Eventually the Victoria British Infants' School as it was known was built in 1836 and

1. Whellan & Co., op.cit., p.386.
2. Fordyce, W. Vol.II. op.cit., p.34.
3. B. & F. Rept. 1834., p.8.

attracted pupils until at least 1870, when the number on roll was one hundred and sixty one.¹

Being opened as an infants' school, this British School shared the responsibility for providing a vital part of the town's elementary education. Two distinct departments evolved in the town more or less simultaneously, i.e. infant and post infant, with the National School catering for older children. For several years after the turn of the nineteenth century many children who completed their infant education at the British School, were transferred to the National or Wesleyan Schools where they could achieve further proficiency.²

In concluding this survey on the rise of British Schools in Teesdale and Teesside, it is clear that there can be little comparison between the village and town situation, since few such schools formed part of village educational facilities. Being concentrated in the rapidly expanding towns British Schools tended to be of considerable size and like the National Schools in the towns, were able to accommodate large numbers of children.³ Since they were not primarily concerned with teaching religious dogma they had more freedom to engage in educational experiments. The British Schools of the Voluntary Period provided a pragmatic approach to the

1. Min. Committee of Council, 1869/70, p.346.

2. N.S. Barnard Castle File: National Society Enquiry Form on School Buildings, dated 6th Dec. 1906.

3. See Chapter 5. pp. 107, 109, 112, 116.

scholastic problems of the poor, as shall be seen later.¹ Probably for this reason it is quite understandable why the design of the State System seemed to be in sympathy with British School practice rather than that adopted by the National Schools. This sympathy moreover, was apparently mutual when it was found that many British School promoters handed over their establishments to the local School Boards shortly after the 1870 Act became law. For example, there is evidence that the British School at Middlesbrough was handed over to Board control completely free of cost.² This action was certainly repeated in Darlington as is confirmed by the Committee of Council's records of the early 1870's.³

The same, however, could not be said for the Church of England, in fact as was often the case, National School managers literally feared the impending School Boards and the powers invested in them.⁴

1. See Chapter 8 which provides certain examples of subjects taught in British Schools.
2. Lillie, W. *op.cit.*, p.115.
3. Albert Road and Skinnergate British Schools became Board Schools by 1873. See Min. Committee of Council, 1873-4, p. 218. Bridge Street and Rise Carr British Schools became Board Schools by 1875. See Min. Committee of Council, 1875-6, p. 526,
4. See Chapter 4, pp.87 and 92.

PART III

Chapter 7National and British School Buildings

From events discussed in the previous two Chapters it is clear that by 1870 the Voluntary Societies, with the help of local school promoters had been instrumental in bringing elementary education on an organised basis into the villages and towns of the Teesdale-Teesside region. Much of what was achieved had been partially dependent on Government finance and the preceding thirty seven years of progressive Governmental intervention. The effect of such factors not only here but also in other parts of the country resulted in the development of elementary school teaching as a profession. But in order to understand how elementary education was raised to a professional level, it will be essential to review some of the major changes which took place during the Voluntary Period between the years 1833 and 1870. These changes affected school buildings, the curriculum, pupils and the men and women who chose a teaching vocation. School buildings shall be discussed in this Chapter because it was perhaps due to the Government's insistence on suitable accommodation that the concept of elementary schooling was eventually divorced from

the idea that education was something which could be diffused in kitchens or in buildings of barn-like structure.

During the very early years of the century, one of the immediate aims of schools' promoters was to simply provide what was considered to be a suitable building; normally it comprised one room of basic design which satisfied the requirements of monitorial teaching methods whereby one master might instruct several hundred children if need be. Consequently school management committees frequently acted without careful planning and employed local labour to erect buildings by "rule of thumb methods."¹ The result was that many schools erected early in the nineteenth century quickly deteriorated so far as the structure was concerned. This often represented a waste of money.² The National School buildings at Barnard Castle, for example, showed what might happen. In 1865 it was reported by the Anglican incumbent, the Rev. J. Denman M.A. that "the dilapidated condition of the school rendered it dangerous due to the south end falling outwards."³ This building had been erected for only fifty one years, thus, the criticism that school buildings of such unsound construction formed "but more bad homes for more bad schools"⁴ was not without some foundation. Clearly the above

1. Curtis S.J. History of Education in Great Britain, p.244.
2. Holman, H. op.cit., p.61.
3. Report of Trustees, Bd. Castle National School, Feb. 6th 1865.
4. Holman, H. op.cit., p.61.

case represented a waste of money.

A satisfactory educational system could not be established without the application of certain definitive rules regarding the proper use of funds contributed by the local population, and subsequently by the Treasury. The institution of the National and British Societies as distributors of the Government Grant from 1833 brought about the introduction of certain controls concerning the finance of projects, but because the Government as yet did not have the right of inspection, promoters were still more or less a law unto themselves at local level. After six years of comparative freedom the Government's representative Committee of Council on Education was formed to administer the Education Grant.¹ Simultaneously, new conditions were introduced for its award;² it was explicitly stated for instance, that in order to receive a building grant "every building should be of substantial erection and that in the plans thereof not less than six square feet to be provided for each child."³ Of course, some schools' managers in the region were more than meeting this latter requirement before the imposition of any regulations. Examination of the Application Form in Appendix F for example, shows that in 1837 the incumbent of Eaglescliffe had designed

1. Gregory, B. op.cit., p.41.

2. Holman, H. op.cit., p.86.

3. Min.Committee of Council, 1839-40, p.2.

his school for fifty pupils with the appreciation in mind that at least six square feet of space should be required by each child. Thus, the main room measuring 27ft x 18ft provided an area of 486 sq. ft. i.e. more than 9 sq. ft. per child.¹ He might have envisaged a need for more school places. These of course were required by 1850 when frequently ninety pupils were presenting themselves for lessons.² The basic qualification for the award of the Government Grant, i.e. that half the total cost of a school was to be raised by local subscription, remained effectual throughout the Voluntary Period. Slight modifications in addition to the conditions imposed in 1839 were, however, periodically introduced so that schools should conform to certain standards. Hence, the Minutes of the Committee of Council for 1855-6 made the award of the Grant dependent upon the fulfilment of the following additional clauses:-

"The Committee of Council offer a certain grant per square foot subject to two conditions viz.:

1. That for every pound granted by the Committee of Council another pound be contributed from local sources, and
2. That the entire sum granted do not exceed one-half part of the total outlay."³

1. See Appendix F.
2. N.S. Eaglescliffe File, letter from incumbent dated 22nd Mar. 1850.
3. Min. Committee of Council. 1855-6. p.31.

If any deficiency of funds remained, it was clearly stated that the Council could "not help" and such deficiencies had to be "met by any funds (local or other) which the promoters can command."¹ These arrangements still enabled the two Societies to partially maintain their influence over the nature and content of the education given in their schools.

From 1839 however, schools accepting Government Grants had to be open to inspection, and questions about the nature of buildings and income had to be answered by the managers. The principle of inspection was not new, it was there "to be borrowed from the factory legislation of the time."² The Committee of Council by this action at least, was determined to ensure a "just return"³ for the money spent. At last the State was able to exert real influence on the pattern of elementary education, whilst the greatest effect of this influence came after 1839 when the Committee of Council began to publish the findings of the Inspectorate and lay down various suggestions concerning many features of school life.

Such legislation resulted in a spate of literary advice which was especially compiled for the guidance of schools' promoters. For example, the Committee included in its Minutes for 1840 plans and specifications for different types of school.⁴

1. Ibid.
2. Maclure, J.S. Educational Documents, p.5.
3. Holman, H. op.cit., p.81.
4. Curtis, S.J. op.cit., p.245.

Guidance concerning such matters was comprehensive in that it embraced not only the structure of the school, but also its fittings and internal organisation. Some of the suggestions recommended by the Committee of Council were circularised, and contained so much detail that very little scope was left for any individual or local departure from the prescribed norm. For instance, in the 'Rules to be Observed in Planning and Fitting up Schools'¹ issued by the Council during the 1840's, it was stated that, "Before a schoolroom is planned, - and the observation applies equally to alterations in the internal fittings of an existing schoolroom, - the number of children who are likely to occupy it; the number of classes into which they ought to be grouped; whether the school should be "mixed", or the boys and girls taught in different rooms, are points that require to be carefully considered and determined, in order that the arrangements of the school may be designed accordingly."² A list of sixteen rules followed, providing a framework within which promoters might work. Reference to Appendix I shows that Rule 14 stated that "the class rooms should never be passage rooms from one part of the building to another, nor from the school rooms to the playground or yard. They should be on the same level as the school room, and

1. See Appendix I. Committee of Council, Circular.
2. Ibid., Introductory paragraph of the Preliminary Remarks.

should be fitted up with a gallery placed at right angles with the window."¹ Whilst these rules seem to have been generally accepted, it is interesting to note that there was also a tendency to build National Schools particularly after an "ecclesiastical model" or in a "pseudo-Gothic, Tudor or Jacobean style."² Evidence confirming schools' promoters' adherence to the above rules seems to be well illustrated in the Building Plans concerning the proposed erection of Barnard Castle National School (Boys) and the extension of Eaglescliffe Durham Boys' School (National).³ On the plan of the Eaglescliffe School extension both the ecclesiastical building style and the elevated windows are evident. The Ground Plans of the National School (Boys) Barnard Castle conformed with the regulation which implied that classrooms should have individual access to the playground and offices.⁴ One further point of interest is the Committee of Council's 'Seal of Approval' in the right hand corner of the Eaglescliffe Plan which indicates that it had been submitted for Government approval and so far as the Committee were concerned all was in order for the building to proceed.⁵ The above mentioned schools built between 1839 and 1870 clearly met the Committee of Council's specifications and probably continued to satisfy

1. Ibid., Rule 14.
2. Curtis, S.J. op.cit., p.247.
3. See Appendix J.
4. See Appendix I. Rule 14.
5. See also Hogg, G.W. & Tyson, J.C. Popular Education 1700-1870. Handbook, p.25.

the Grant earning investigations carried out each year by Government Inspectors. Indeed, the acquisition of Maintenance Grants depended on the continued provision of suitable accommodation.¹ Yet, despite the developing trend towards conformity, it seems that there was often a need to set up 'ad hoc' school rooms especially in the expanding towns such as those which developed on Teesside. Perhaps this was justifiable in certain instances where either Government aid for building permanent schools was postponed due to the inadequacy of the Treasury Fund, or in cases where the local situation justified immediate educational facilities. Both National and British School promoters seem to have relied to some extent on this particular means of establishing schools. In fact, as late as 1843 a pamphlet for the guidance of British School promoters was published in which was included a detailed course of action towards setting up such schools. In it, much advice was given concerning 'ad hoc' arrangements and it was suggested that "if subscribers can't manage" to collect resources, then an "old warehouse or store-room, a good barn, any place in short capable of containing children should be used."² Local committees, however, were asked to carefully consider certain pertinent features concerning any

1. Gregory, R. *op.cit.*, p.54.

2. *Manual of System of Primary Instruction etc. of British and Foreign Society. Part II*, p.5. Anon. London 1843.

project envisaged. First of all their attention was directed to the local needs of the community when the question "is a school wanted" had to be considered. If this was affirmative they were then instructed on "how to proceed" and how to select "the teacher" for subsequent training.¹

One example of an improvised British School was the accommodation provided in the Rise Carr district of Darlington, where the local community was rapidly expanding by the late 1860's. This school known as the Rise Carr British Infants' School, was a local school which ultimately relieved the pressure on existing facilities when it was opened in 1868.² Confirmation of the fact that it was an 'ad hoc' arrangement is recorded in the Inspector's remarks for that year when he complimented the mistress for "organizing the school in a very satisfactory manner,"³ and also reported that "the managers will soon be able to build a suitable schoolroom."⁴ In proposing this school initially however, the managers hardly needed to consider the question "is a school wanted", since future events proved that its civilising influence was perhaps overdue. In fact a year later the mistress found that the "children were still troublesome," so much so that "one girl was expelled for bad conduct" whilst others were found to be

1. Ibid., pp.3-4.

2. Log Book, Rise Carr British Infants' School, entry dated 27th Jan. 1868.

3. Ibid., entry dated 13th Oct. 1868.

4. Ibid.

"insanitary" as there was a "great want of cleanliness among them."¹ By this time, however, the managers had found their way clear to provide proper facilities and the Inspector's Report for 1869 contained the following statement, "My Lords are glad to learn that new schools are about to be built;"² these were the last British Schools of the Voluntary Period to be built in Darlington. But the above case shows that a permanent foundation could develop from humble, temporary beginnings especially when Government Inspectors were obviously interested in the state of the buildings.

Possibly the British Society condoned the setting up of 'ad hoc' facilities which were quite contrary to Government regulations because of their growing "symptoms of discontent" concerning the allocation of the Education Grant.³ It was realised that if the British System was to be effectual in claiming its share of educational responsibility, and at the same time provide an alternative within the Voluntary System, then the number of schools actually established was important. Early in the period it was evident that applications for British Schools did not keep pace with those for National Schools, consequently cheaper rooms were sometimes either hired or purchased where the need arose.⁴ It was shown in the previous

1. Ibid., entries dated 20th Jan. 1869 and 5th July 1869.
2. Ibid., entry dated 28th Oct. 1869 - Report of H.M.I.
3. National Education. The Present State of the Question Elucidated etc., p.19. Anon. London 1839.
4. See Maps in Appendices A and B which show the numbers of National and British Schools.

Chapter that in Stockton between the years 1833 and 1870 only one British School which remained in temporary rooms for many years was established. Even so in the competitive field of educational provision the promoters of British Schools were not alone in resorting to such means in order to advance their cause. In the small market town of Barnard Castle an interesting example illustrates how the National School promoters chose to ignore the Government regulations.

It was decided in 1849 to establish a separate Girls' School so that pressure on the existing building might be relieved. The building acquired was formerly a theatre, but this second-hand accommodation was more or less immediately pronounced "unfit for the purposes of education" by the Government Inspector, the Rev. F. Watkins.¹ This early misfortune was perhaps inevitable, because the building was "three feet below the level of the adjoining burial ground" in which "some graves" were "actually dug against the wall of the school."² In the face of such adversity however, there is no indication that girls' education was ever discontinued. But as was shown earlier in this Chapter, problems concerning school fabric plagued the managers of the Barnard Castle National Schools for many years to come.

1. Min. Committee of Council. 1848-50. p.149.

2. Ibid.

Funds had to be provided for the upkeep of Voluntary Schools indeed, if a school was to survive, the building necessarily had to be kept in good repair. It was shown very clearly in Chapter 5 that schools with sound financial support stood a comparatively good chance of continuous existence. The survival of a school, however, was not always easily achieved, for as late as 1861, the Newcastle Commissioners reported that, "it is much easier to get a school built than to get it supported."¹ Financial provision for such items as the building, teachers' salaries and equipment had to be made. Frequently a school's benefactor was responsible for these things whilst his death might easily break the school completely.² In addition to any funds which were contributed by such individuals money was also raised through collections, donations and school-pence.³ Also in some instances the Church of England relied on special preaching services as a means of collecting aid for use in the upkeep of its National Schools. The handbill advertisement reproduced below illustrates how these occasions might be publicised.⁴ Perhaps such efforts were typical of schools other than the one named.

1. Report of the Newcastle Commissioners, Vol.I. p.71.
2. Rich, E.E. op.cit., p.21.
3. See Chapter 6, p.127 which shows how collections were sometimes arranged.
4. Miscellaneous Papers, Library of Bowes Museum, Bd. Castle.

Barnard Castle National School.
 Two sermons will be preached in the
 Barnard Castle Church
 on Sunday 23rd October, 1836.
 by Rev. H. Wardell M.A.
 Collections will be in behalf of the
 Barnard Castle National School.

Schools' promoters not only had to contend with regulations governing the external fabric of buildings, but also the imposition of Government standards which were to prevail inside the school rooms. The Committee of Council in the Circular referred to on page 149 and which was distributed in the 1840's, made specific reference to the design and fitments of the actual accommodation. For the room, it stated that, "the best shape is an oblong", and that groups of benches and desks should be specially arranged as detailed in the text of the Rules.¹ Attention was given to the smallest detail, whilst advice was offered on such matters as the width of room, the size of desk surfaces, the angle of inclination of the working surface of the desk, the position and size of windows etc. Evidence seems to confirm that at least some of these recommendations were applied because the

1. Committee of Council Circular - See Appendix I, Preliminary Remarks.

width of the schoolroom built in 1846 for Holy Trinity National School, Darlington was 16ft.,¹ this conformed with Rule 2. of the above Circular where it was suggested that the dimension of width should be "from 16 to 20 feet." In fact it was stated that if this measurement was increased then the extra cost would be "thrown away",² since it could not be beneficial.

However, the growing interest in the internal organisation of the school room also became the concern of the two Societies. A pamphlet supplied to British School promoters in 1843 suggested that the centre of the room should "have desks and forms, a raised platform and master's desk" with the windows "in the roof or elevated six feet above the ground."³ Whilst it is clear that the above arrangements seemed to follow the Government's recommendations quite closely, it is also interesting to note that they were generally typical of Lancasterian Schools, especially with respect to the fact that the desks were in the centre of the room. This, of course, was not typical of National Schools before the middle of the century where the centre of the rooms were kept "free of furniture."⁴ Desks were placed around the walls of the room and the pupils stood for all lessons except writing. Evidence of such uncomfortable learning conditions comes from the

1. App. F. Holy Trinity National School, Darlington, dated 5th Feb. 1845.
2. Committee of Council Circular - See Appendix I, Rule 2.
3. Manual of System of Primary Institutions etc. Part 1. op.cit., p.9.
4. Hogg, G.W. & Tyson, J.C. op.cit., p.19.

Barnard Castle National School when it was recorded by a teacher in 1839/40, that the "pupils only sat down when writing or doing arithmetic."¹ After the middle of the century however, the internal arrangement of National Schools changed in order to facilitate the simultaneous method of teaching which enabled four classes of children to be seated in one large room and taught by one master assisted by pupil-teachers.²

By 1870, improvements on the basic essentials of schools were sometimes considered to be appropriate in new buildings. The specifications of the new British School at Middlesbrough for example, included the provision of gas, water, patent desks, two playgrounds and a covered way to offices in the yard with drinking fountains and lavatories.³ The National Society of course, had for many years associated itself in principle with the need for well constructed schools as is shown in the requisite "Form of Certificate." Such a Certificate relating to the extension of Eaglescliffe National School in 1850 shows that confirmation was required to the effect that the school was "finished in a satisfactory and workmanlike manner; being built of the proper dimensions."⁴

Lastly, it perhaps should be mentioned that because of

1. Jones, R.J. MS. op.cit.,
2. Hogg, G.W. & Tyson, J.C. op.cit., p.27.
3. B. & F. Rept., 1870, p.70.
4. See Appendix H.

improvements in school buildings the curriculum was able to undergo certain changes. But it seems that the most exciting innovations of the nineteenth century took place in the larger town schools where accommodation was often provided separately for girls and boys and was also divided into classrooms for the different age groups of children. In such situations several teachers were usually employed together with pupil-teachers, whereas in the village school the content of education was generally in the hands of one master with the help of perhaps only one assistant pupil-teacher or sometimes his wife.¹

1. See Chapter 10, p.189.

Chapter 8The Curriculum and Equipment used in the
National and British Schools of the Region.

It has been shown in a previous Chapter that the National and British and Foreign School Societies laid down early in the nineteenth century their aims in extending elementary education to the children of the labouring poor.¹ Probably as a result of the emphasis placed upon the three R's, many children received an education which was seriously limited. The effects of such limitations moreover, were clearly shown later in the century and were discussed in the Introduction.

Educational restriction however, was also due to other factors, chiefly they were the traditional attitudes held by those in authority, the lack of educational aids in the classrooms, voluntary attendance, and in the early years of the century, to the incompetence of many teachers. Yet, in the region under examination there were examples of educational innovation from early in the century and throughout the Voluntary Period. First, some consideration will be given to the curricula and equipment adopted by the National and British Schools studied whilst the topics of attendance and teacher training will be dealt with in the last two Chapters.

1. See Chapter 3, pp.56-57.

A Report resulting from an inspection of English National Schools in 1838 showed that there were generally "insufficient materials and slates available, even though the schools normally concentrated on teaching only the basic elements of reading, writing and arithmetic."¹ In the majority of the schools investigated in the Teesdale-Teesside region it is probable that these three basic subjects dominated time-tables until about 1850. This assumption is made after searching the Annual Reports of both Societies and the Inspectors' Tabulated Reports in the Minutes of the Committee of Council on Education. In the latter however, it is evident that many of the region's schools were not systematically reported on and therefore an evaluation of their work is made on existing information.

Barnard Castle National School might have been typical of many other schools. In 1835, out of a total of ninety pupils, fifty six could read and only thirty could write on paper.² Ten years later the position was apparently unchanged when reading, writing and arithmetic were taught but no geography, grammar or history of England.³ The latter three subjects of course required the provision of special text books whilst apparatus was also needed for geography lessons.

1. N.S. Rept., 1839, p.44.

2. Ibid., p.56.

3. Min. Committee of Council, Vol.II. 1845, pp.140-1.

Presumably these were not available as seems to have been the case in many National Schools.¹ In contrast, however, it is true that some schools did attempt more than the basic elements of learning. For instance, in 1843 the Bridge Street British School, Darlington, reported that in addition to "the three R's" lessons were given in "tables, religious instruction, natural history, geography, plants, trees, object lessons, colour and form and alphabet." In the "afternoons the older pupils were engaged in knitting, needlework and straw plaiting."² And at St. Cuthbert's National School, Darlington in 1844 the examples quoted below taken from the copy book of a pupil named William Snaith show that some attempt was made relatively early in the century to devise a curriculum which might have relevance in preparing pupils for various occupations. The standard of work incidentally suggests that a competent teacher was employed whilst a glance at the photocopied exercise in Appendix M reveals the typical emphasis placed on the style of writing and the attention given to the final presentation of pupils' work.

1. See also Footnote 1 p.161. and the text referred to.
2. B. & F. Rept., 1843, p.64.

Example A.

What is the weight of a sheet of lead whose length is 15' 10", breadth 4' 6" and thickness 1/5th or .2 of an inch. (given tables of weights in lbs/sq.)

Example B.

To find the solid content of a dome, its height and the dimension of its base being given. (Rule - Multiply the area of the base by the height and 2/3rds of the product will be the solidity.)¹

By 1850 however, according to the reports of a Government Inspector the Rev. F. Watkins, it seems that improvements were gradually being made throughout this region. Concerning the Girls' department of the National Schools at Barnard Castle and the Holy Trinity National Schools at Darlington for instance, he stated that in the former there was now a "fair supply of apparatus and maps" whilst in the latter there was a "fair supply of reading books, two blackboards and easels, etc."² Undoubtedly the improvements evident in the above instances were due to the fact that in 1847 purchasing power had been extended to schools by the Committee of Council when grants were made available to help

1. See Appendix M.

2. Min. Committee of Council, 1850-1, pp. 162-3.

purchase books and maps.¹ Also the employment of pupil-teachers necessitated provision for their extended education. The introduction of more teaching aids was at least one factor which helped to bring about a widening of schools' curricula. In many cases this seems to have been a gradual process. At the Barnard Castle National Schools in 1850, for example, there were still "no lessons in geography, grammar and English History"² at the Girls' School in spite of the acquisition of equipment which included maps. The position at the Boys' School was probably much worse since there was reported to be a "poor supply of books."³

After the middle of the century however, it was clearly implied by inspectors that they expected to see a widening of curricula. One inspector, for instance reported in 1853 that the "range of instruction" was "not yet very much extended" at the Stockton British School.⁴ The same deficiencies seemed to be apparent at Eaglescliffe National School when in the same year reading, arithmetic and scripture formed the essential subjects of instruction.⁵ Within ten years, however, any improvements which probably had taken place suffered a set back after the imposition of the Revised Code in 1862. Mr. Moncreiff's Report concerning his district which included the Teesdale-

1. Holman, H. op.cit., p.86.
2. Min. Committee of Council, 1850-1, pp.162-3.
3. Ibid.
4. Ibid., Vol.II. 1853-4, p.713.
5. Ibid., p.624.

Teesside region, pointed out that it was "striking in the neglect of the higher subjects of instruction."¹ Moreover, the effects of the Code continued over the next few years. In 1865 Mr. King reporting for the same district found that subjects which would have extended curricula were "at a somewhat low-ebb." He unhesitatingly blamed the Revised Code which he believed had caused the "withdrawal of these subjects from too many time-tables."² It seems that the making good of these deficiencies did not begin generally until 1869. Then Mr. King found that in more than half of his schools "one at least of the extra subjects" were "restored to time-tables."³ These extra subjects were allowed by the operation of a Committee of Council Minute of February 20th 1867⁴ which was introduced in order to relieve some of the restrictions imposed by the Code. One reason why the terms of the Revised Code had been readily introduced to the classroom with such effect, was perhaps due to inadequate supplies of books and equipment in many schools.

In the early decades of the century there had been little demand for text books and literature due to the dependence on Bible based teaching. The position did change eventually when a variety of books became available at the

1. Ibid., 1863-4, p.106.
2. Ibid., 1865, p.137.
3. Ibid., 1869-70, p. 169.
4. Ibid.

depositories of the National and British Societies in London. Those recommended for use in the National Schools were published by the S.P.C.K., whilst their book list of 1845 included publications on geography, history, geometry, algebra, and sacred history and geography.¹ The Irish Board of Education also prepared a series of "readers, maps and text books", which were widely used on "account of their cheapness."² These were certainly in use at St. John's National School in Middlesbrough in 1864 as no doubt they were in other schools.³

The British Society also began to prepare a series of books in 1840 entitled Daily Lesson Books, Books No's 1-4.⁴ These became available in 1842 at a cost of 3d per copy for Book 1, 1/- for Book 2, 1/6d for Book 3 and 2/6d for Book 4.⁵ The prices quoted would hardly have been considered cheap, and before the days of Government aid, it would have been a fortunate school which might have used a comprehensive selection of these texts. Gradually more varied equipment became available as was shown in depository lists which advertised Globes 12" at 18/-, Clock 30 hour at 14/-, pens at 1/8d per dozen and cast iron desks at 7/- a pair. There is plenty of evidence that later in the century the apparatus and

1. N.S. Rept., 1845, pp.43-50.
2. Binns, H.B. op.cit., p.215.
3. Log Book, St. John's National School, Middlesbrough, entry dated 18th Jan. 1864.
4. B. & F. Rept., 1840, p.70.
5. Ibid., 1842, p.157.

books on the educational market were being used. For instance, the National School of St. John's, Middlesbrough was using a selection of books and apparatus which included "Daily Lesson Book No. 3, National Society Reading Books, Irish School Board Arithmetic, Boards, Easels, Maps and Diagrams of Animals."¹ It is interesting to note that a National School was using a British and Foreign School Society publication!

Preliminary Statements concerning schools' income and expenditure frequently referred to the sums expended on books and equipment. This was normally about £5 per annum as was shown in the following instances. Egglestone National School spent £5 13s. 5d. during 1856, Barnard Castle National School spent £5 19s. 8d. in 1848 and Billingham National School spent £3 11s. 6d. in 1864.² Of course, there is no record as to how the money was used but at least the above figures indicate that some provision was being made for the acquisition of teaching aids in the schools throughout the region. It is probably true that such funds became available through the special grants made to the schools. Direct reference was made to this fact in 1851 at Skinnergate British School, Darlington, when the "Committee of Council made a grant towards the provision of new desks, forms, new maps and books

1. Log Book, St. John's National School, Middlesbrough, entry dated 18th Jan. 1864. See also below - Skinnergate British School.
2. Preliminary Statements of the schools mentioned.

in mechanics, mensuration and geography."¹

Despite the availability of Government Grants for help in purchasing educational literature and other manufactured educational aids, there seems to have been little doubt concerning the overriding aim of elementary education. The reading books published even during the middle years of this period were clearly designed with the habits and role of the labouring poor in mind and the lessons were therefore, corrective in content. A few examples taken from a series of books entitled National Education, Illustrated 2d-School Books, Books 1, 2 and 3 published in 1852 will suffice to illustrate.² Volume One consisted of graded reading exercises with grammar. The top and bottom of each page was bordered with moral texts, examples of which are reproduced below.

"It is less painful to learn in youth than to be ignorant in old age."

"The mind is a blank sheet of paper on which anything may be written."

"Who strives to spell will do so well."

"God grant that I may fear to lie."

"Blessed is he that expecteth nothing for he shall not be disappointed." 3

1. B. & F. Rept., 1851, p.63.
2. National Education, Illustrated 2d. School Books, Book I.
3. Ibid.

The reading material was of similar vogue as is shown by the "Ninth Reading Lesson."

"James Johnson was a good boy and loved learning. On Sunday when other boys were engaged in evil sport, he would turn aside from them and go to school early. --- James Johnson lived to be a happy man."¹

The "Twenty Second Reading Lesson" tackled the topical problem of drunkenness.

"The drunkard is often poor and wears a shabby coat. He has no home to shelter him. When he is drunk, if he tries to speak he stammers and stutters. He is a sluggard. He becomes weak and slender, he is cruel to those who love him."²

From the tone of the above examples it is evident that the text was designed to have a moralising effect. Furthermore, it seems to have been essentially in sympathy with "reactionary views"³ held by the majority of Tories and many of the Whigs who were afraid that the working man might be raised above his station by a too liberal form of education. National Education Books were nevertheless being used in 1864 as was shown earlier at St. John's National School, Middlesbrough,⁴ as no doubt they were elsewhere in the region.

Elementary education however, was not entirely devoted to correcting the debasing behaviour which entered the lives of many working class families.⁵ Some school promoters tried

1. Ibid., Ninth Reading Lesson.
2. Ibid., Twenty Second Reading Lesson.
3. Jarman, T.L. op.cit., p.245.
4. Log Book, St. John's National School, Middlesbrough, entry dated 18th Jan. 1864.
5. See Chapter 1, pp.13 and 27.

to introduce children to a broader spectrum of education which in certain instances caused the curriculum to be considerably enhanced, at least by usual nineteenth century standards. Generally, however, it was in the British Schools where such progress was made. Most British Schools in the region were seemingly well endowed with apparatus and broader reading material even before the distribution of Grants for this purpose. For example, the Bridge Street British School in Darlington to which reference has already been made, was described by the Government Inspector as having a "perfect luxury of apparatus" in 1846 which clearly enabled the teachers to widen the curriculum considerably.¹ Among this "apparatus" was in all probability a library, since British Schools were proud to own collections of books. Moreover, the only evidence of school libraries came from the British Schools of the region. Altogether two libraries were very much part of the schools in which they had been acquired. The Skinnergate British School, Darlington for example, had a collection of one hundred and six books by 1840,² In addition the importance of reading was further emphasised when the scholars were led to join the Mechanics' Library for a more extensive knowledge of the subjects to which they were

1. Min. Committee of Council, Vol. II, 1846, p.194.

2. B. & F. Rept., 1840, p.70.

introduced at school.¹ Similarly the British School at Stockton possessed a library which contained one hundred and twenty volumes by 1860.² It seems, however, that the acquisition of libraries was unusual and that they were most likely the gifts of generous benefactors, hence, one reason why they were only to be found in certain British Schools. One further point which confirms the value placed on books by British School promoters was the fact that in Darlington Mrs. S.E. Pease compiled a book entitled "Hints on Nursing the Sick and other Domestic Subjects". This publication, because of its simplicity, was probably intended for use in girls' schools. And as was stated in the preface, because "the nursing of the sick falls to the lot of all women", its contents included advice on topics such as:-

Barley Water.

Bath for a Child.

Boil Eggs.

Bugs to get quit of.

Gas how to light, etc.³

Whilst this literary innovation was brought into British Schools by a member of the Pease family it is also expedient to describe one further instance of educational innovation

1. Ibid.
2. Darlington & Stockton Times, dated 15th Sept., 1860.
3. Pease, S.E. Hints on Nursing the Sick and Other Domestic Subjects; Preface and Contents.

coming from the same family. This resulted from the work of Sophia, Lady Fry of Darlington, and grand-daughter of Edward Pease, the father of Railways, who continued the educational zeal of her family until well into the century. Initially she was a Sunday School teacher who became especially interested in the education of the "poorer class of girls."¹ From among the many British Schools existing in Darlington, she chose to associate herself with what became the "largest centre for girls at Kendrew Street."² Here, she was the instigator of a centre for cookery classes,³ which was probably the only scheme of its kind throughout the Teesdale-Teesside region at that time. This indeed, was a most unusual feature of Voluntary School Education.

If the Voluntary Educational System helped to mould a subordinate, sober and stereotyped stratum of society from the ranks of the labouring poor, then perhaps it had done its duty, since, for a girl to become a servant was considered to be "an important station in life"⁴ and a boy perhaps could not have expected a more ambitious role. However, as has been shown above, educational progress throughout the region was not completely limited. The fact that here and there, some schools provided instruction in subjects which

1. Orme, E. Lady Fry of Darlington, p.32.
2. Ibid., pp 32-33.
3. Ibid., p.33.
4. B. & F. Rept., 1848. p.83.

supplemented the basic curriculum, illustrated a national trend, which more or less coincided with the introduction of the pupil-teacher system. It was found then that the elder pupils especially, learned much which was previously "scarcely attempted."¹ Subjects including algebra, geometry and some branches of natural philosophy began to form part of the curriculum.² In fact at Barnard Castle National School the curriculum was described as "wide" when nature study was said to be a "reality here" in the early 60's. In support of this statement, it was recorded that the classes "went to the wood in order to study the subject practically."³ It is interesting to note that this part of the school's curriculum was not discontinued at a time when the Revised Code was effective. At the same school moreover, evening schools were arranged later in the century. During the evenings of 1867 for instance, the Vicar gave "lectures on chemistry and electricity, illustrated with pleasing experiments on electro-plating and telegraphy."⁴ Further evidence of science becoming part of the curriculum came from the British School at Stockton where the master introduced the subject when a case of chemistry apparatus was purchased.⁵ Even more enrichment of the curriculum was sometimes brought

1. Shuttleworth, Sir James Kay. Public Education, p.93.
2. Ibid.
3. Jones, R.J. MS. op.cit.
4. Teesdale Mercury, dated 4th Dec. 1867.
5. Darlington & Stockton Times, dated 15th Sept. 1860.

into the schools by the efforts of travelling demonstrators. In 1864 at St. John's National School, Darlington, for example, a Mr. Dawson formerly a schoolmaster "exhibited a microscope with a X power of 96,000 to the children in the upper room at 1d each and those in the lower room at $\frac{1}{2}$ d each."¹ Everyone was apparently satisfied with what was shown since the headmaster reported in his log book that "it was very interesting to those who availed themselves of the opportunity."² Of course, it was perhaps true that Mr. Dawson had found a more rewarding career than school-mastering. Nevertheless, such men probably brought an element of variety to those schooldays immediately after the implementation of the Revised Code when schoolmasters' salaries were determined among other things by the results of examinations in the three R's.

In this Chapter it has become evident that in spite of the limitations imposed on the curriculum by the type of educational aids available, that there seemed to be an urge here and there to present the children in elementary schools with wider experiences. Where such was not the case it was possibly because school masters and managers were deterred from doing more when the attendance of children at school could never be guaranteed, as indeed shall be shown in the next Chapter.

1. Log Book, St. John's National School, Darlington. entry dated 4th Mar. 1864.
2. Ibid.

Chapter 9Factors affecting School Attendance.

During the Voluntary Period of education attendance at the elementary schools was often affected by the conditions under which the children of the labouring poor lived and also by certain other factors which acted as forms of social selection among these children. For instance, the traditional use of child labour not only prevented children from attending school, but also probably caused a delay in setting up schools in some communities until fairly late in the century.¹ In the schools which had been erected the necessary payment of school-pence and the application of certain attendance regulations sometimes resulted in poorer children being kept away. But at the same time many school managers sought to improve attendance by resorting to methods which they considered might prove encouraging to both parents and children. In the Teesdale-Teesside region they included the use of prize schemes, advertising campaigns and bringing pressure to bear upon parents who eventually would have to find employment for their children.² But generally children were attracted into the schools in order to receive the benefits to be derived from education whilst it must be remembered that the schools needed

1. See Chapter 5, p.101.
2. See Chapter 6, p.128.

towards their upkeep, the school pence which the pupils contributed. Teachers' salaries were sometimes dependent on whatever income was available.¹ In examining the question of attendance, attention will be first of all directed to the effects of using child labour.

To enable children to attend school, Government Bills were periodically brought before Parliament throughout the nineteenth century. The first Factory Act of 1802 and the subsequent ~~Bill~~^{Act} of 1819 achieved little, largely because there was no adequate machinery to see that the educational provisions made were carried out.² The years of infantile slavery continued until 1833 when the next Factory Act became law. This Act was a determined attempt to protect children from being over employed in the mills and factories. Those under the age of nine years were not to be employed, so that they might be free to attend the Voluntary Schools. But the provisions of this Act were also evaded³ and the resulting conditions under which some children of Northern England's industrialised society laboured, were shown in the Child Employment Commissioner's Report of 1842 for South Durham. It revealed that they were "sometimes taken into the pits as early as 5 years of age and by no means uncommonly at 6 years."⁴

1. See Chapter 10, p.205.

2. Curtis, S.J. op.cit., pp.226-7.

3. Ibid., p.239.

4. Children's Employment Commission 1st Report, 1842, p.16.

Other industries also used very young child labour. Instances of children growing up in ignorance must, therefore, have been common. In 1865 for instance, the master of St. John's National School, Middlesbrough wrote in his school's log-book that he had "admitted a boy in his 10th year who knows nothing."¹ This boy apparently had only "been to school a fortnight in his life." A day later the same master "admitted another who knows nothing."² These examples probably confirm the fact that the law governing child employment had not been seriously enforced. These instances had occurred in 1865 after further Government legislation in 1844. The violation of the provisions of the 1844 Factory Act shows that despite further powers given to factory inspectors there were defects in administration. Employers of course, were required to obtain certificates from schoolmasters stating that children had attended school for a prescribed period each week. But to ensure that this condition alone was met probably would have required the setting up of a system of factory inspectors resembling a police force. In addition other provisions were made for child employment in the following terms. It was stated that "every child who shall have completed his Eighth Year and shall have obtained the Surgical Certificate required

1. Log Book, St. John's National School, Middlesbrough, entry dated Apr. 8th 1865.
2. Ibid., Apr. 9th 1865.

by this Act of having completed his Eighth Year may be employed in a Factory."¹ Despite the inclusion of clauses regarding the hours² worked by children, the Act clearly endorsed the use of child labour, since in allowing children between the ages of eight and thirteen to spend either three whole days or six half days at school there was still scope for them to work in the factories.

Children were not only used as labourers in the mills and factories; in the rural communities they were usually required for the seasonal harvests. At Winston National School on October 11th 1866 for instance, this was confirmed when attendance was reported as being "very bad" and "not expected to be much better until harvest is over".³ School attendance might also be interrupted for other incidental reasons. At a Middlesbrough School on one occasion the headmaster recorded that there "was a circus in town" which had a "bad effect on attendance."⁴ Being withdrawn from school just for periodic work might adversely affect a child's education, but in some instances the complete withdrawal of children was often premature. Frequently the

1. Factory Act, 1844, pp.194-5.
2. Loc.cit., "No child shall be employed in any Factory more than Six Hours and Thirty Minutes in any one Day." also "That in any Factory in which the labour of young Persons is restricted to Ten Hours in any One Day it shall be lawful to employ any Child Ten Hours in any One day on Three Alternative Days of every week. Provided always that the Parent or Person having direct Benefit from the wages of any Child so employed shall cause such Child to attend some School for at least Five Hours between the Hours of Eight of the Clock in the Morning and Six of the Clock in the Afternoon of the same Day on each Week Day preceeding each Day of Employment in the Factory.
3. Log Book, Winston National School, entry dated 11th Oct.1866.
4. Log Book, St. John's National School, Middlesbrough, entry dated Mar. 16th 1863.

cause of this was the parents' inability to pay school fees.

Some children for instance, had to leave Holy Trinity National School, Darlington, in 1847, when they "could not pay the fees"¹ required. Of course, fees varied considerably from one school to another, but it seems that few charged the lowest rate of one penny² as was the practice at Egglestone National School in 1856. At Gainford National School in 1857 children were required to pay as much as 6d per week³ and in 1852 pupils at Billingham National School paid 2d, 3d, 4d, or 5d according to age.⁴ The question of school pence received attention in the Newcastle Commissioners' Report, where it was stated in 1861 that 37.3% of Church of England children paid 1d and less than 2d, whilst 1.79% paid over 4d.⁵ Fees charged at the British Schools in the region moreover, were apparently no more expensive than the most expensive National Schools, but they were probably not as cheap as those charged at the cheapest National Schools. The Newcastle Commission further reported that in the schools for the Protestant Dissenters which included British Schools, only 17.57% of the children paid 1d and less than 2d but 4.45% paid over 4d.⁶ For example, in 1870 the British School at Middlesbrough charged 6d, 4d and 3d for boys and 4d and 3d for girls and 2d

1. N.S. Rept. 1847, Report on Holy Trinity National School, Darlington, op.cit.
2. Preliminary Statement, Egglestone National School, dated 1856.
3. App.F. Gainford National School, dated 15th July 1857.
4. Ibid., Billingham National School, dated 23rd Apr. 1852.
5. The Report of the Newcastle Commission, Vol.I. p.72.
6. Ibid.

for infants.¹

Fees were often discretionary for various reasons, e.g. sex, age, the type of instruction received or the social status of the pupils' parents. At Cockerton National School² near Darlington in 1825, the fees for reading, writing and arithmetic were 1d, 2d and 3d respectively. Social factors clearly affected fee payment at Winston School in 1857 when the following scale was in operation, "children of farmers above 7 years paid 6d per week," "children under 7 years paid 4d per week," "children of labourers above 7 years paid 4d per week" and those "under 7 years paid 2d per week."³ It seems that the highest fees paid in this region were at Greatham in 1870, where farmers' children paid 6d and 9d per week.⁴

With these scales for the payment of school-pence being in operation perhaps there was little wonder that many children received either little or no education since for a large, poor, working class family the cost would have been formidable. Hence, the National and British Schools did not touch the lowest strata of the labouring poor because of their dependence on this source of income.

For most of the Voluntary Period it was only in Teesdale

1. Preliminary Statement, British School, Middlesbrough, dated 1870.
2. App.F. Cockerton National School, dated 1825.
3. Meeting of the Trustees, Winston National School, MS. document dated 3rd June 1857.
4. Preliminary Statement, Greatham National School, dated 1870.

where, under the Lead Company's compulsory scheme for schooling that families received any relief from this burden. At Forest in Teesdale National School, for example, fifty boys attended who paid fees of 1/- each quarter, but a supplementary payment of 2/- each per quarter was made by the employers.¹ School-pence therefore, was reduced to no more than the cheapest rate of 1d per week for any scholar. Later in the century however, cases of hardship were relieved by the year 1863, when scholars were paid for by the local Relief Committees.² In the North of England, as a result of their action there was "no reduction in classes" - a fact reported by Mr. Davis, inspector for the Northern Counties.³

Despite this kind of provision being available there were still some children in the towns especially, "who by reason of their filthy and ragged appearance were ineligible for attendance at the elementary schools."⁴ It was mentioned in Chapter 6 that these children, who were among the poorest of the poor, could only hope for an elementary education in the Ragged Schools, because as early as 1845 the National Society had introduced rules governing attendance which excluded all except those who could fulfil the following conditions:-

"Parents should apply to the master, who wish to get their children into a National School by 9 o'clock."

1. Ibid., Forest-in-Teesdale National School, dated 1828.
2. B. & F. Rept., 1863, p.8.
3. Ibid.
4. Kamm, J. Hope Deferred, p.160.

"The children should assemble at 8.50 a.m. and at 1.45 p.m."

"The children are to be neat, clean and tidy in dress and reasons are to be given for lateness."

"All children are to be vaccinated before admission."¹

However, since the majority of National Schools were generally filled to capacity, many children were obviously excluded simply through lack of accommodation.

Despite the problems concerning school attendance, i.e. the use of child labour, the charging of school fees, and attendance regulations, attempts were made to keep the children in the schools. For instance, at the Skinnergate British School, Darlington, in order to encourage full participation in the educational facilities, the pupils received prizes from time to time. On one such occasion "each pupil received a book and an orange," whilst "the elder ones got Bibles."² But perhaps one of the most ambitious schemes was established in 1855 when encouragement was given to pupils through awards presented by the Northumberland and Durham Prize Scheme Association.³ The scheme was first presented by the Rev. J. Grey in order to promote education in mining or manufacturing districts.⁴ It was adopted as a result of investigations carried out by the Rev. J.P. Norris

1. N.S. Rept., 1845, p.41.

2. B. & F. Rept., 1840, p.62.

3. Darlington & Stockton Times, dated 8th Sept, 1855.

4. Ibid.

H.M.I. for Staffordshire in the year 1854 to 1855, where a similar scheme was successfully in operation.¹ He reported to the Committee of Council in 1855 that he had "felt most sensibly in our schools the decided impetus which the scheme has given to a prolonged continuance at school."² The prize scheme while functioning in Durham and Northumberland offered prizes of £1 which were to be given to every boy and girl under ten years who could produce certificates showing school attendance for two years, together with certificates of good character, and "who shall be able to pass an examination satisfactorily."³ At the end of the next year the prize was £2 and so on for each successive year at school. Use was made of the scheme in some schools studied in the region under investigation. For instance, it was reported in a newspaper that the successful pupils of Barnard Castle National School went to Newcastle in August 1860 for the distribution of prizes by the Northumberland and Durham District Prize Scheme Association, an occasion "after which the pupil teachers played cricket."⁴ It seems reasonable to believe that such schemes would appeal to the more able pupils of a school thus causing those of poor ability to be neglected. Indeed, schoolmasters who sought justification to concentrate their

1. Report of Commission on State of Population in Mining Districts 1855, p.12.
2. Ibid.
3. Darlington & Stockton Times, dated 8th Sept. 1855.
4. Teesdale Mercury, dated 5 Aug. 1860.

efforts on the more intelligent children seem to have found it, since the Newcastle Commissioners showed that the teaching of the basic elements was considered to be "the greatest of all drugeries to a teacher who is conscious of an ability for higher things."¹

In addition to prize schemes attendance at school was sometimes encouraged by advertising the benefits to be derived from education. The example quoted in Appendix L is from a handbill and is interesting in that it places strong emphasis on the moral results of education which by all accounts were to be welcomed by the parents concerned.²

Earlier in the Chapter some of the effects of non-attendance at school were shown, i.e. children either "knew nothing"³ when they did decide to go, or in fact were placed in "lower standards" than they should have been due to "neglect of early education"⁴ as was the case at St. Paul's National School, Middlesbrough. On the other hand, however, if children regularly attended a school the results could be desirable as was shown by a report typical of many British Schools in the Teesside district. At Bridge Street British School in Darlington it was reported in 1843 that "truancy was rare" and the children were "kindly to each other" at a

1. Smith, F. A History of English Elementary Education, 1760 - 1902, p.243.
2. See Appendix L.
3. See earlier in Chapter, p.177.
4. Log Book, St. Paul's National Girls' School, Middlesbrough, H.M.I's Report for 1869.

time when "one hundred and twenty pupils attended aged between 2-7 years, with some twenty six staying on until nine years as monitors."¹ But when compared with present day education, this was really schooling for infants. Of course, it is possible that some of the ignorant children mentioned above came into the schools at a late stage because of the effects of the Revised Code of 1862.

School attendance and the results of teaching became the concern of Mr. Robert Lowe in 1861 and even though the Newcastle Commissioners considered compulsory education as "neither attainable nor desirable,"² Lowe's Revised Code of 1862 possibly did more to improve attendance than any measure taken until 1870. Through ~~this particular piece of~~ ^{these regulations} ~~legislation~~, Maintenance Grants were paid to school managers partially on the basis of attendance. The schools did everything within their power to encourage children to attend - even to secure perhaps only a few attendances in order to justify the addition of names to the registers. However, despite evidence concerning mal-practice cited in most "Histories of Education" it is still probably true that the period embraced by the implementation of the Revised Code were not wholly years of gloom so far as the development of

1. B. & F. Rept., 1843, p.64.
2. Smith, F. op.cit., p.243.

elementary education was concerned. Indeed, the number of pupils attending the nation's schools showed steady growth according to the figures given in the following table.¹

Year	No. of Scholars in Average Attendance.
1860	751,325
1866	871,309
1870	1,168,981

So far as the Teesdale-Teesside region was concerned the position was similar. Mr. King, the Government Inspector for the area recorded the general effect of the Code in 1869. He stated that "progress during the last four years is decided" whilst attendance "on the day of the inspection is considerably in excess of the average."²

1. Ibid., p.270.

2. Min. Committee of Council, 1869-70, pp.165-166.

Chapter 10.The Recruitment and Training of Teachers
for the Region's National and British
Schools.

Finally, the last three Chapters have shown that the progressive introduction of Government controls from 1833 onwards eventually embraced the whole life of the school. Since buildings and apparatus were now the concern of the Committee of Council, there were also increasing demands for conformity which began to affect teachers and pupils. Attention was therefore directed towards the recruitment and training of suitable persons for the profession of teaching. By 1870 much was achieved with respect to the quality of entrants, but some schools in the Voluntary System depended, until quite late in the century, on the employment of unqualified persons which perhaps included the over use of pupil-teachers, who in fact resembled the monitors of former years.¹ This was because the demand for teachers always outpaced the supply, and as a result, teaching methods were perhaps not brought up to date immediately as is shown in the following case. The Master of St. John's Boys' School, Middlesbrough, was apparently forced to practise the

1. See later in Chapter, p.183.

monitorial method as late as 1864. He considered the whole business irksome and commented that he found "the use of monitors a great nuisance - a nuisance however which can't be avoided, they can't keep good order and can't be depended upon."¹ About a week later he again wrote, "I despair of getting proper assistance in teaching this school." "I think the system which makes the master dodge about the school like a machine in perpetual motion looking after these monitors is a wrong one."² The master responsible for those remarks was in possession of a 1st Class Certificate from a "Celebrated Training Institution"³ and was obviously unsympathetic towards his conditions of employment. But if this school situation had arisen in an earlier period in the century, the monitors as he called them, might not have had the surveillance of a similarly trained and qualified master.

Since this regional study is concerned with elementary education from 1833, it must be remembered that Bell and Lancaster's monitorial method of imparting the basic elements of learning was probably at its height in that year. It did of course decline during the second quarter of the century when teacher education and training was reviewed. The major difficulty in 1833, and indeed for some time afterwards, was

1. Log Book, St. John's Boys' National School, Middlesbrough, entry dated 27th July 1864.
2. Ibid., 2nd Aug. 1864.
3. Darlington & Stockton Times, dated 11th Feb. 1860.

concerned with the acquisition of suitable masters and mistresses, and even in mid-Victorian England, the profession apparently still depended to some extent on the services of the "uneducated and worse than competent men and women who had failed in other walks of life."¹ Confirmation of this state of affairs is found when reference is made to the Government Inspectors' Tabulated Reports published in the Minutes of the Committee of Council. The Report for 1850 for example, shows that at Holy Trinity National Girls' School in Darlington a female teacher was currently employed who excused her lack of ability by suggesting that she was "never intended for teaching."² It is probably correct to assume that she had failed to achieve some former ambition. Other records of schools in the region provide some evidence of the employment of uncertificated teachers until relatively late in the century. For example, the National School at Harwood-in-Teesdale was taught by an unqualified master in 1853 with his wife (presumably also unqualified) acting as his assistant.³ Again in 1864, Billingham National School depended on the services of an unqualified mistress.⁴ The services rendered by teachers' wives seem to have been depended upon throughout the region since the master's wife also assisted at Winston

1. Dobbs, A.E. *op.cit.*, p.59.

2. Min. Committee of Council, 1850-1, pp.162-3.

3. Preliminary Statement, Harwood-in-Teesdale National School, dated 1853.

4. *Ibid.*, Billingham National School, 1864.

National School in 1851.¹ However, it seems that by the middle of the century most teachers working in this region were qualified. The following table gives examples of the status of teachers in certain schools of the region at various dates.

<u>School</u>	<u>Status of Teacher.</u>
Harwood-in-Teesdale National School. 1853.	Unqualified Master. ²
Forest-in-Teesdale National School. 1861.	Qualified Mistress. ³
Newbiggin-in-Teesdale National School. 1870.	Qualified Master. ⁴
Whorlton National School. 1849.	Qualified Master. ⁵
Winston National School. 1851.	Qualified Master. ⁶
Gainford National School. 1855.	Certificated Teacher. ⁷
Piercebridge National School. 1853.	Qualified Teacher. ⁸
Coniscliffe National School. 1848.	Certificated teacher. ⁹
Billingham National School. 1864.	Unqualified Mistress. ^{10.}
St. Cuthbert's National School Darlington. 1860.	Qualified master and mistress. ¹¹
British School, Middlesbrough. 1838.	Trained teacher. ^{12.}

1. Ibid., Winston National School, 18-- (defaced Statement but probably 1851)
2. Preliminary Statement, Harwood-in-Teesdale National School, 1853.
3. Ibid., Forest-in-Teesdale National School. 1861.
4. Ibid., Newbiggin-in-Teesdale National School. 1870.
5. Ibid. Whorlton National School. 1849.
6. Ibid. Winston National School. 1851.
7. Ibid., Gainford National School. 1855.
8. Ibid., Piercebridge National School, 1853.
9. Ibid., Coniscliffe National School. 1848.
10. Ibid., Bingham National School. 1864.
11. Ibid., St. Cuthbert's National School Darlington. undated but probably 1860.
12. B. & F. Rept., 1838, p.50.

On the other hand, of course, there were many who were seemingly called to the task of teaching but who often utterly failed in their duties. This was a frequent complaint during the early years of Barnard Castle National School. Here the assistant curate noted the aptitude of the original masters, and testified that "the chief record of the early history of the school is one of constant changes of its masters some fairly successful but more incompetent."¹ Instances similar to this, together with the employment of unqualified teachers were perhaps to be expected, because school masters were generally products of the elementary schools.

From the earliest years of the century the system had been self-perpetuating because whenever a new school was opened, the master normally selected the most intelligent looking child to act as a monitor, who if successful, would probably become a headmaster himself.² Furthermore, the training of the monitors left much to be desired in terms of a sound, time served apprenticeship. Their personal education was largely obtained on an in-service basis at local Central Schools. For example, the Barrington School at Bishop Auckland, founded in 1810, was apparently a successful Central School which supplied teachers to schools throughout the North of England.³ The length of

1. Jones, R.J. MS. op.cit.

2. Holman, H. op.cit., p.42.

3. Rich, R.W. The Training of Teachers in England and Wales during the Nineteenth Century, pp.9-10.

time spent by the monitors in training who, incidentally, were also "clothed and maintained"¹ in return for their teaching role, depended upon the demand for teachers. If the need was great then presumably they were trained with all haste. One hundred and ten masters were trained at the Barrington School by 1834, whilst in that year "twenty four monitors became masters."² Clearly, the National Society, had not altogether ignored the necessity for training teachers for its schools, in fact regulations were laid down governing their training.

The "Training Regulations" published in 1833 stated that, those who passed through training schools were "to be provided with appointments to schools in Union with the National Society if proved in ability and conduct."³ But an application for entry into the teaching profession invited some personal scrutiny of the candidate. He first had to produce "attestation by the clergyman with respect to his moral and religious character."⁴ Also, three testimonials were to be submitted from "respectable householders" in support of the applicant, whilst a preliminary examination had to be taken to show his "proficiency in Religious Knowledge, reading, writing and arithmetic."⁵ Usually the instruction given at a

1. Ibid.
2. N.S. Rept., 1834, p.63.
3. N.S. Rept., 1833. p.29.
4. Ibid.
5. Ibid.

Central School was gratuitous and "distinguished masters received a weekly allowance of half a guinea."¹ The object of the training was to "secure speedy and perfect attainment to a knowledge of the National System."² Towards this end, the monitor attended classes from the junior standards onwards until he successively became top of the classes as he moved up the school. He was not allowed to take charge of a class until he was examined and pronounced sufficiently acquainted with the National System.³ In addition to his actual 'in service' training, the probationer was required to attend evening preparation from 6.45 p.m. to 9 p.m. on certain days and to study subjects determined by the clerical superintendent.⁴ Probationers had their progress noted in a book known as the 'Report of the Masters' which was kept by the head teacher of the school.⁵ Here were recorded matters concerning the conduct and suitability of the monitors. This Report was required to be laid before the Committee of the School on Fridays with "every master in attendance."⁶ Furthermore, an 'Orderly Book' was kept which contained the daily duties to be carried out by the masters before dismissal by the headmaster each day.⁷

The duration of the training period in the National Society's Model or Central Schools was usually short, whilst

1. Ibid.
2. Ibid.
3. Ibid.
4. Ibid.
5. Ibid.
6. Ibid.
7. Ibid.

that provided by the British and Foreign School Society at the Borough Road Normal School might also be described as 'speedy' since it lasted about three months.¹ For the recruitment of trained teachers at British Schools local promoters were encouraged to "select a suitable young man and send him to the Normal School, London, "for training."² After the training period the new masters were responsible for instructing monitors in the schools to which they were appointed. They were governed by regulations which suggested that "half an hour daily is to be devoted exclusively to training monitors," and "while the monitor is thus engaged, the mass of the school is writing on slates under the charge of the general monitor."³

The methods of training schoolmasters discussed above were generally in operation until about 1840. Indeed, the National Society seems to have been satisfied when it was reported in 1839 that masters taking up appointments in National Schools were "generally regularly trained in Central Schools or in District Central Schools."⁴ This training, though relatively short, gave instruction on the organisation of classes, and since "no deviation" was permissible, schools became models of the Central Schools.⁵ But so as not to lose sight of its *raison d'etre*, the National Society explicitly

1. Holman, H. *op.cit.*, p.61.
2. *Manual of System of Primary Instruction etc. Part II. op.cit.* p.6.
3. *Ibid.*, p.57.
4. *N.S. Rept.*, 1839, p.43.
5. *Ibid.*

stated that the foundation of schools, "rests upon the Christian religion, i.e. the Liturgy of the Church" of England.¹

Similarly, the monitorial method adopted by the British Society was carefully analysed so as to leave no doubt concerning what was to be taught. In this system there were two distinct parts to the instruction given to British School monitors, i.e. "intellectual," and "moral and religious."² Junior Classes were instructed in reading and writing on slate and paper. Object lessons on silk, skin, paper and glass etc., were also given. Senior pupils were instructed in reading, geography, drawing objects, mechanics, architecture, geometry and singing etc. Also included at this more advanced stage was the moral and religious teaching which embraced such topics as "the evils of infidelity, cleanliness, temperance and on keeping the Sabbath."³

Teacher training was really only a "side line" of the two Societies up to about 1840.⁴ For the most part, their energies were almost exclusively channeled into the business of establishing schools. Gradually, however, it became clear that the monitorial system did not provide true education, in fact it was realised that all worthwhile education might only be experienced from the result of the "interaction between

1. Ibid.

2. B. & F. Rept., 1841, p.4.

3. Ibid.

4. Rich, R.W. op.cit., p.23.

immature and mature minds."¹ At best, the young monitor could only act as an instructor and never really as an educator.² Therefore, as part of the quest for a just return for the money spent on educating poor children, the Government turned its attention to the training of teachers.

Parliament had realised as early as 1835, that little progress could be made in the improvement of education for the poor, until more time was devoted to the proper training of all teachers.³ To this end a sum of £10,000 was voted for the erection of Model Schools.⁴ The money was to be equally divided between the two Societies, but none of it was used until 1841, the year in which the National Society opened a training college at Chelsea. Later the British Society opened their college at Borough Road, London. Between 1839 and 1846 there was marked activity in the founding of teacher training colleges, whilst during that period a college was established in the City of Durham in 1841.⁵ For many years it was known as The Durham Diocesan Training School (later Bede College) and was expressly directed for the training of masters. A female college for training mistresses, i.e. The Durham Female Training School was opened later in 1858.⁶ The establishment of colleges for trainee teachers throughout the various

1. Ibid., p.2.

2. Ibid.

3. Gregory, R. op.cit., p.30.

4. Ibid.

5. Bede College MS. Transcript from Durham County Advertizer, dated 6th Aug. 1841 and 20th Aug. 1841, p.7.

6. D.F. Tr.S., Register 1858.

Dioceses of England was one of the prime factors which afforded perhaps for the first time, a degree of status to the 'job' of teaching.

Both of the Durham Training Colleges had an important role from their inception, since they provided qualified teachers who were eventually employed in many schools in the local Diocese. Instruction at the college for masters was given in "various branches of religious knowledge, grammar, reading, writing, geography, history, arithmetic, book-keeping, mensuration and vocal music, also in the theory and practice of teaching."¹ But for either the more intelligent or more wealthy students, the college regulations stated that "High subjects of instruction will be open to such as may desire it on a higher payment."² The above curriculum presents an impressive variety of subjects, but the depth to which each was studied must have been superficial as the length of time spent in the Training School was only six months on average. It is interesting to note moreover, that the lecturers and tutors were usually former trained teachers who passed on information which they had gained as a "result of years of strenuous self-education."³ Evidence of this practice was shown in the case of a certain William Lawson, ex-pupil-teacher

1. Bede College MS. op.cit., p.8.
2. Ibid.
3. Rich, R.W. op.cit., p.156.

of Barnard Castle National School, who attended the Durham Training College during the years 1852-3.¹ After leaving, he quickly became head of St. Oswald's School, Durham, remaining there from 1854 to 1857. Subsequently he was appointed tutor at his former Training College. Remarkably, and after such little professional experience, he went on to make a distinguished career in the capacity of Lecturer at St. Marks, Chelsea, and later as one of the founders of the N.U.T., becoming its first secretary in 1870.² Earlier in this Chapter some consideration was given to the kind of persons who became monitors, and now with the introduction of the colleges it will be interesting to see if the practices of former years concerning the recruitment and training of student teachers were in any ways changed.

One significant factor was the importance which the colleges placed upon the maturity of the students. In the regulations governing entry to the Durham Diocesan Training School, it was stated that "no pupils will be admitted before the age of 16."³ A certificate of character and aptitude however, for the profession of schoolmaster was still necessarily required from the "Clergyman of the Parish where the candidate resides," and an "examination had to be passed

1. Jones, R.J. MS. op.cit.
2. Ibid.
3. Bede College MS. op.cit.

previous to admission." Also students at the college had to pay "£14 per annum" for their residence and tuition.¹ Evidence of older persons being trained for teaching comes from the Durham Female Training School which initially accepted six students as probationers. Two of these had had the previous occupations of domestic servant and pupil-teacher.² Here, students were given instruction in Religious Knowledge, Catechism and Liturgy, English, Grammar, Geography, History, School Management, Domestic Economy, Arithmetic, Industrial Skill, Music, Reading, Spelling and Penmanship.³ Apart from the inclusion of subjects more suitable for female pursuit there seems to have been little difference in their curriculum from that available for masters in 1841 at the Durham Training School.

From 1846, teachers began to receive formal qualifications when the Committee of Council issued Certificates.⁴ There was very good incentive for teachers to be certificated, because qualifications carried augmentations to salaries on a scale appropriate to the length of training received.⁵ College courses moreover, varied in duration and candidates were permitted to remain for one, two or three years. If a candidate was successful after a one year course a 1st Class

1. Ibid.

2. D.F. Tr.S. Register 1858.

3. Min. Committee of Council, 1859-60. p.382.

4. Rich, R.W. op.cit., p.118.

5. Ibid., pp.123-4.

Certificate was awarded, after two years a 2nd Class Certificate was obtained and a 3rd Class Certificate after three years.¹ Towards the end of the '40's and of a decade in which teaching was looked upon as the "last refuge of the incompetent,"² the monitorial system began to break down, especially with the introduction of the pupil teacher system in 1847.

This system was designed to provide a preparatory apprenticeship for those pupils desirous of entering the Training Schools in order to qualify as teachers. Potential teachers began a five year period of school based training from the age of thirteen years. In the schools, the actual training they received amounted to a required minimum of one and a half hours on each day, while for teaching services rendered they were allowed a stipend of up to £20 per annum.³ Criticism was levelled at this system and it was suggested, perhaps quite correctly, that pupils were called from their proper business of learning at too early an age.⁴ As a result of this, students entering the colleges apparently had received neither training in the use of books nor developed much mental resilience. Nevertheless, the institution of the system, together with the competition for Queen's Scholarships which

1. Ibid.
2. Sturt, M. op.cit., p.136.
3. Smith, F. op.cit., p.203.
4. Holman, H. op.cit., p.140.

carried maintenance grants of £20 to £25, inevitably helped in raising the standard of education in many schools. This assumption is based on the examination requirements for the award of a Scholarship. The examination papers set in 1854 included questions which were to be answered on the following topics; Scripture and Catechism, Grammar, Arithmetic, Geography, History, School-Management, Domestic Economy, Euclid, Algebra, Mensuration and Industrial Mechanics.¹ Whilst some of the questions asked were not of present G.C.E. 'O' level standard, they represented a standard which might currently be achieved by an intelligent fourth year pupil. Certainly a high degree of academic discipline would be required to ensure a satisfactory performance at such an examination. For instance, the passage to be paraphrased in the 'Grammar' Section on p.78 of Appendix K would demand an extremely competent knowledge of the mother tongue.

It seems that most schools in the area eventually had one or more pupil teachers. Even the extremely isolated Boys' School at Forest in Teesdale employed a certain John Collinson who was described "as a pupil teacher in the fifth year of his apprenticeship."² After their subsequent training at college such young men were much sought after. Proof of this

1. See Appendix K.

2. Log Book, Boys' School Forest in Teesdale, 1861-(incomplete), entry undated.

was given in the Annual Report of 1856 for the Durham Diocesan Training School, where the following statement was made:- "it appears that in the majority of cases the Managers of Parochial Schools prefer a Certificated before an Uncertificated Schoolmaster."¹ Furthermore, the reason for this was seen to be dependent on the fact that the Committee of Council "now pay considerable annual sums in the shape of Capitation Grants to all schools having Certificated Masters under inspection, it will probably soon be found that it is cheaper to employ a schoolmaster who has gained a Certificate than one who has not."² The demand for qualified teachers continued throughout the Voluntary School Period. The Annual Reports of both the Female and Masters Training Schools up to 1870 with the exception of the one for 1863 which reflected the effects of the Revised Code, showed that the "number of applications for schoolmasters has not yet decreased; during the past year seventy five such applications have been received."³ Again in 1868, the Annual Report of the Durham Female Training School showed that "the demand for Schoolmistresses in the Diocese is continually on the increase."⁴ By 1869 the situation seemed to be critical, when at the Durham Female College it was recorded that "upwards of fifty applicants for Mistresses have been received during

1. D.D. Tr.S. 15th Annual Rept., p.14.

2. Ibid.

3. Ibid., 1860, p.4.

4. D.F. Tr.S. Rept. 1868, p.7.

the last year but in only about twenty of these has it been possible to supply the demand."¹

Further reference to the more complete records of the early years of the Female Training School confirms that students tended to come from "the same section of society - lower middle class or artisan;"² from such evidence it might well be assumed to have been the same at the Training School for masters. The occupations followed by the girls' fathers in 1859 included, labourer, collier, engine builder, joiner sailor and farmer; and in 1860 representative occupations were those of book-keeper, baker, singing man, schoolmaster and shoe-maker.³ Throughout the Voluntary Period students continued to be drawn from similar social backgrounds, but by 1870 there were signs that some recruits were beginning to arrive from the new middle-class. These included the daughters of a grocer and farm manager.⁴ Candidates from lowly backgrounds perhaps viewed the Teacher Training Schools as the means of providing further education whereby they might rise socially into the realms of professionalism.

Irrespective of the demand for teachers, it can never have been the prospects of high salaries which attracted recruits. Generally, it appears that teaching was not a well

1. Ibid., 1869, p.4.
2. Sturt, M. op.cit., p.136.
3. D.F. Tr.S. op.cit., 1860.
4. Ibid., 1870.

paid profession during the nineteenth century. In the early years the growing industries of Teesside were always an attractive proposition for young men seeking monetary reward. In fact, teachers were attracted out of the schools into industry. One man, for instance, a former "village pedagogue - who had taught a school upwards of twenty five years" left and went to work on the developing North-Eastern Railway System.¹ The depressed position of the teacher is very clearly illustrated in the following reiteration from the Coniscliffe National School Log Book, dated 1870. The master wrote down his sentiments in the following terms; "Mr. - offered me if I would stay and teach at the school and do all the rest of the dirty jobs of the parish, the liberal sum of what I can make by school pence and grant, - £36 7s.3d., i.e. two teachers to have nearly 14/- a week between them."² Whether or not this teacher stayed to teach at the school was not mentioned. Another case which revealed the thoughts of a pupil teacher in 1863, seems to reinforce the notion that the teachers lot was still the last resort for some. Accordingly the master of St. John's National School, Darlington, made an entry in his log-book to the effect that "William Snaith pupil teacher in his 4th year left the school to be at liberty to

1. Tomlinson, W.W. The North Eastern Railway, p.116.
2. Walshaw, W. MS. op.cit., p.205.

take some other employment." A copy of his letter of resignation, shown below, confirms the boy's aspirations for better things.

Sir,

I am very sorry to inform you that I shall leave the St. John's National School as my uncle is looking out for a better situation and he wishes me to be at liberty when he may write, which will be shortly I expect.

Yours truly,

W.G. Snaith.¹

In this case it might be assumed that "a better situation" was ultimately found. Similar ambition probably caused other pupil teachers to leave their positions after having received the benefit of an extended education.

Salaries paid to teachers very often depended on the income of the school received from subscriptions and school pence. However, in 1839 the National Society had recommended a "fixed annual salary of £24 17s. 10d." and suggested that it might be "augmented by childrens' payments."² But with the introduction of Maintenance Grants in the same year, the Committee of Council suggested than an annual salary of £75

1. Log Book, St. John's National School, Darlington, entry dated 18th Sept. 1863.
2. N.S. Rept., 1839, p.44.

should be paid so that teachers' incomes might compare with that of teachers in Holland.¹ But in 1853 the qualified teacher serving at Piercebridge National School was in receipt of only £35 per annum² which was far below the recommended amount. In 1865 a newly qualified mistress from the Durham Female Training School also received £35 at a school in Stockton on Tees.³ Only exceptionally were masters paid salaries of up to £90 per annum as was shown in the case of a teacher who served at St. Hilda's National School, Middlesbrough in 1869.⁴

The imposition of the Revised Code was reputedly responsible for some reductions of school income since school grants depended on "attendance and results in examinations."⁵ But it is difficult to blame the Code for many of the low salaries paid in the region investigated. Very clearly the evidence points to the fact that teachers were generally poorly paid, which in turn was never conducive to the recruitment of too many highly capable persons into the profession.

Throughout the Voluntary Period such was the value placed upon educating the people of the nation and save for the timely Act of 1870, the ultimate cost might have been beyond

1. Holman, H. op.cit., p.86.
2. Preliminary Statement, Piercebridge National School, dated 1853.
3. D.F. Tr.S. Register, 1865.
4. Preliminary Statement, St. Hilda's National School, Middlesbrough, dated 1869.
5. Curtis, S.J. op.cit., p.288.

redemption. Already the great European countries had proved that the provision of elementary education was the pivotal point of wealth and prosperity.

Conclusion

In tracing the sources from which the Teesdale-Teesside region's National and British Schools developed it has been shown that from 1833 there were certain members of society including local industrialists and religious leaders who were willing to become engaged in schools' promotion in almost every town and village. The fact that Anglican incumbents and Nonconformists who often held responsible positions within their respective communities took upon themselves this task confirmed a nation-wide trend. Both local and national circumstances of course, played a part whilst the establishment of many schools was made possible during the years after 1833 when the Government made building grants available through the Voluntary Societies. Save for this timely action and the civilising influence of the new schools especially in the industrial centres, it is not too difficult to envisage the social chaos which might have evolved.

Elementary education was undoubtedly able to improve the quality of life among the labouring poor, for instance, children in many of Darlington's original British Schools responded to their moral training. Further evidence of the effect of education came from Teesdale where learning and

reading were carried over from the relatively long established schools into the homes of the lead miners. The provision of such benefits needed to be extended throughout the century to the children of the poor in all communities but particularly to those in the towns where rapid population increases were taking place. Because these areas of dire poverty and degradation were lacking in social amenities there was much scope for educational welfare as was shown by the achievements and difficulties experienced by National and British Schools' promoters. The villages on the other hand did not present similar problems since they were not affected to the same extent by social upheaval. Sometimes in these smaller communities the desire for education was already abroad among parents who realised the value of schooling for their offspring.

Voluntary Schools were not only established because of their civilising influence, but also for other reasons. Anglicans for example, saw in their National Schools one means at least whereby significant numbers might be encouraged to become members of the Church of England. On the other hand the spread of Nonconformity resulted in the need for British Schools as an educational alternative whilst religious conflict between the two Societies often provided the stimulus for further local schools' promotion. The founders of British

Schools however, were not concerned with teaching doctrines peculiar to any denomination and therefore were more intent on dealing with the educational defects of the children. For this reason it has been shown that certain educational innovations were introduced into many British Schools. If the pursuit of various branches of academic knowledge was regarded by some as an essential ingredient of elementary schooling, there was one important element in learning which seemed to be stressed by most schools' promoters, i.e. the 'moral results.' Both National and British Schools were keen to inculcate a desired code of morality, whilst their specific aims were reflected in many school reading books and in the yearly comments made by school managers.

Apart from Teesdale where elementary education was compulsory and financially secure under the terms laid down by the London Lead Company, the Voluntary Schools of the region frequently diffused the elements of learning in spite of major difficulties which at times included the incompetence of teachers and the need to maintain adequate buildings. The survival of schools depended upon the generosity of wealthy benefactors or on whatever funds might be collected by various means from time to time. Income from these sources and from

school-pence was variable in schools outside the dale where there was no compulsion on the part of parents to have their children educated. Yet, between the years 1833 and 1870 most schools in the region survived.

Due to continued population expansion in the towns and the need for schools' managers to conform to the regulations enforced by the Committee of Council, it has been shown that by 1870 the Societies were unable to cope with erecting the required numbers of schools especially in the face of competition from the School Boards. The National and British and Foreign School Societies were now to lose much of their former pre-eminence in establishing institutions of elementary education. But the schools which they had established remained in service during the School Board era whilst the continued attendance of children proved that the poorer classes of the nation desired the essentials of learning.

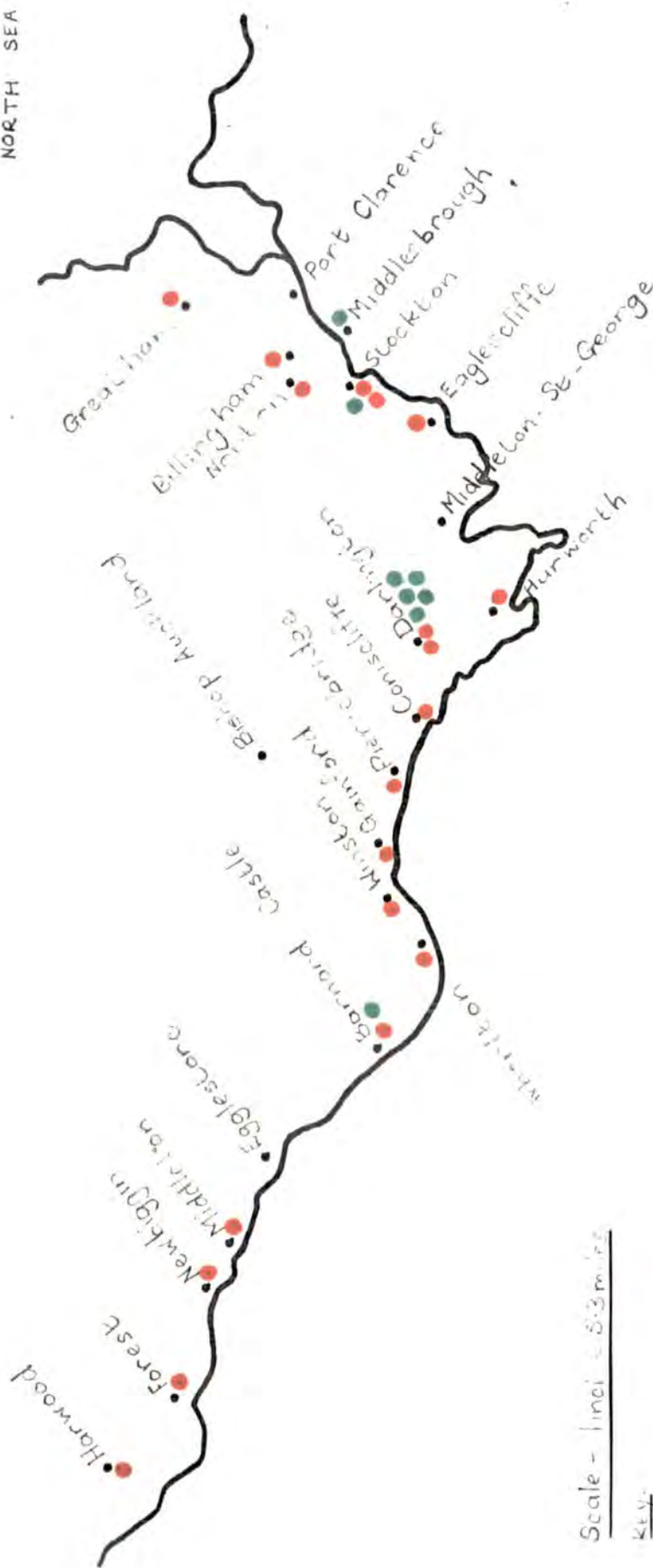
Appendix A

The Distribution of National and British Schools
in 1833.

Appendix B

The Distribution of National and British Schools
by 1853.

NORTH SEA



Scale - 1 inch = 5.3 miles

Key

National Schools

British Schools

Appendix C

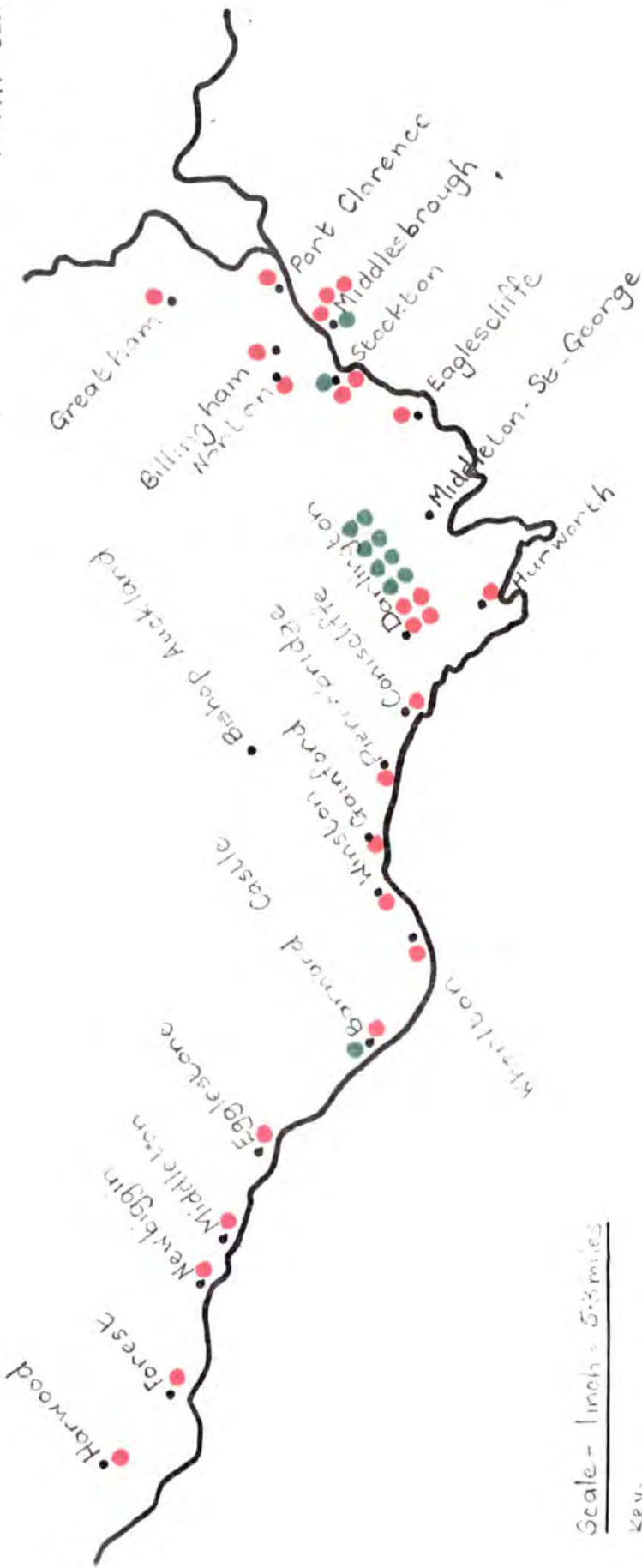
National & British Schools established between
1853 & 1870.

Appendix D

The Distribution of National & British Schools
by 1870.

Note that Middleton-St-George is the only village without
either a National or British School in 1870.

NORTH SEA



Scale - 1 inch = 5.3 miles

Key

National Schools

British Schools

Appendix E

Example of correspondence from an Anglican incumbent
to the National Society¹

Eggescliffe, Garm
June 4. 1838.

Dear Sir,

I am sorry to be troublesome to you who must have much to do; but I am very anxious about my Eggescliffe School, and which I have already postponed since last summer. I am already secured in part of the Expence; but which is insufficient, without the grant which you were so good as to mention, paid in July last. As the season is advanced I am desirous of getting forward. If there was any security of the grant being completed, I should endeavour to do as well as we were able in the mean time.

I am

Dear Sir

your faithful servant

John Brewster.

L. H. S. 1838
150. 150. 150.

1. N.S. Eggescliffe File.

Appendix F

Application Form, used by Anglican incumbents when
applying to the National Society for aid to erect schools.¹

1. N.S. Eaglescliffe File.

Application for Aid towards { building, enlarging, } of { one or } School-room for
 fitting-up { two &c. }
 { Boys, Girls, } at *Egglecliffe* { near the } *Garm Yorkshire*
 { or Infants } { Post-town of }
 The Schools { are to be } United to the NATIONAL SOCIETY { state }
 { or were } { when } A.D. 1837.

- The Population of the *parish* for which the Schools are intended, as taken in the year 1831 was *625* - and now is about *from day 20 or 30 more*
- Provision exists therein at present for the Education (gratuitously or at very small charge) EXCLUSIVE OF THE SCHOOLS for which aid is asked } of not more than *Two Rooms* *held by the Rector* - Boys and Girls, on { *Sundays only,* or (state which) *Sundays and week-days.*
- The new Schools are intended to receive at least *50* Boys and *80* Girls - Infants, in *room* to be Sunday and *Infant* Schools, and to be supported by *Contribution & small payments*
- The instruction in the Schools is to be afforded for *small weekly payments*
- The estimated annual charge for Master and Mistress, Books, &c. &c. is about £ so that there is a reasonable prospect of the Schools being permanently carried on
- The accommodation provided for the Children in the Parish Church } is *the whole space beneath the Belfreys sufficient for the present Sunday School consisting of 70 ch.*
- The *Boys'* School-room is to be internally *27* feet long, *19* feet wide, and *-* feet high to the ceiling; making an area of *513* feet-sq. ft. or *6* to each Boy.
 The Girls' ditto ditto do. do. and do.; do. or to each Girl.
 The Infants' ditto ditto do. do. and do.; do. or to each Infant.
- The foundation, floor, walls and roof are to be of the following materials *Stone, Brick & Slate* and the property is to be held on the following legal tenure, viz. *Granted by the Rector under the recent Act of Parliament* so that it will be legally secured for ever under Trustees for the purposes of educating the Poor, in the principles of the Established Church.
- The entire estimated first Cost of the undertaking is £ *120* viz. of the ground £ *0* - building £ *105-10* fittings-up £ *6-10*

N.B. The value of the ground should be stated although it may be given.

10. The exertions that have been made to provide means to meet the estimated cost, actually raised or promised, are } viz. { by Subscriptions in money.....£ *60*
 { by Collections after sermons.....£ *20*
 { by Donations of ground, materials, cartage, labour, &c. valued at £ *20*

11. So that the total means already provided or promised to meet the first Cost are£ *70*

12. The only further exertions that can be made, independently of this application, are by *Small subscriptions* and The utmost, that can be expected from them, is about£ *10*

Cost £ 120
Means 80
Deficit 40

Gross means to meet the Cost..... £ *80.*

To be signed by the Incumbent—or Incumbents, see (1)—as well as the Applicant or Secretary of the Building Committee } (Signed) *John Brewster Rector of Egglecliffe*

and afterwards, This *18* day of *June* 1837.

Application for Union of National Schools with the Society.
 example of pre-1839 terms of Union. 1

Union Norton
 1830.
 w.
 Stockton on Tees
 Durham
 5 May 1830

Application for Union.

It is the wish of those who have the management of the School at
 in the County of *Durham*
 that the same should be united

near *Norton*
Stockton on Tees in the Diocese of *Durham*
 to the NATIONAL SOCIETY.

In this School the National System of Teaching will be
 adopted; the Children will be instructed in the Liturgy and Catechism of the Estab-
 lished Church, and constantly attend Divine Service at their Parish Church, or
 other place of Worship under the Establishment, as far as the same is practicable,
 on the Lord's Day; unless such reasons be assigned for their non-attendance, as shall
 be satisfactory to the Persons having the direction of the School. No Religious
 Tracts shall be used in the School, but such as are contained in the Catalogue of the
 SOCIETY FOR PROMOTING CHRISTIAN KNOWLEDGE.

1830.

C. J. Mamer.
 Rector of Norton.

John Cartwright
 Mayor of Norton.

Appendix H

Form of Certificate: and Balance Sheet.¹
These are normally one document.

National Society

FOR

PROMOTING THE EDUCATION OF THE POOR IN THE PRINCIPLES OF THE ESTABLISHED CHURCH.

GRANT OF £ 15 IN AID OF BUILDING SCHOOLS AND ~~TEACHERS' RESIDENCE~~ AT

Egglecliffe

VOTED

18. 5

Much inconvenience having been experienced from the Society's being pledged for sums of money which have not eventually been required, it is found necessary to declare, that any Grant not drawn within eighteen months will be considered as relinquished, unless upon special application to the Board the term shall be extended.

In compliance with repeated suggestions from different parts of the kingdom, it is proposed for your consideration, that an Inscription set up in some conspicuous part of the building to record the erection or enlargement of the Schools by Voluntary Subscription, with the aid of a Grant from the National Society, and the Union of the School with the Society, may tend to secure the permanency of your object in promoting the education of the poor.

FORM OF CERTIFICATE.

(To be fairly transcribed, and duly signed, and transmitted to the Secretary of the Society, when a proper Form of Bill will be sent to draw for the amount of the Grant.)

We, the undersigned, promoters of the School at _____, in union with the NATIONAL SOCIETY, hereby certify:

I. That the new School-house and ~~Teachers' Residence~~, in aid of which the National Society was pleased to grant £ 15, are finished in a satisfactory and workmanlike manner; being built of the proper dimensions, and fully completed in all respects according to the statement forwarded to the Society.

II. That the amount of private subscription has been received, expended, and accounted for (see Balance-sheet annexed); and that there does not remain any debt, charge, or claim of any kind, on account of the same, or for any work connected therewith, except what will be liquidated by a Grant of £ 5 voted by the Committee of Council, and the Grant made by the National Society, the payment of which is now prayed for.

III. That a draft of the Trust-deed has been submitted to the Society, and that no change has been made since it was approved. The Deed was executed on the 14 day of June in the year 1839; and enrolled on the 14th day of June, in the year 1839; and a copy of it is now enclosed.

In testimony whereof we affix our signatures, and request the payment of the sum appropriated to the School at _____ aforesaid.

Egglecliffe

(Signed and Dated)

J. H. Walcott Trustee

August 5. 1839.

W. J. Pimple Trustee

John Brewster Trustee

Henry Smith Manager

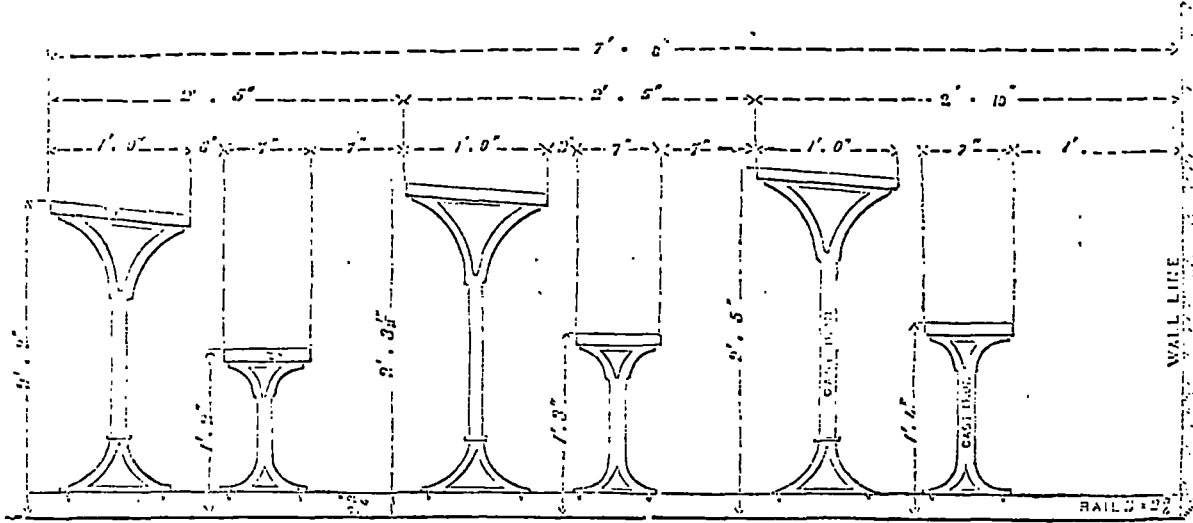
Appendix I

Circular distributed by the Committee of Council.

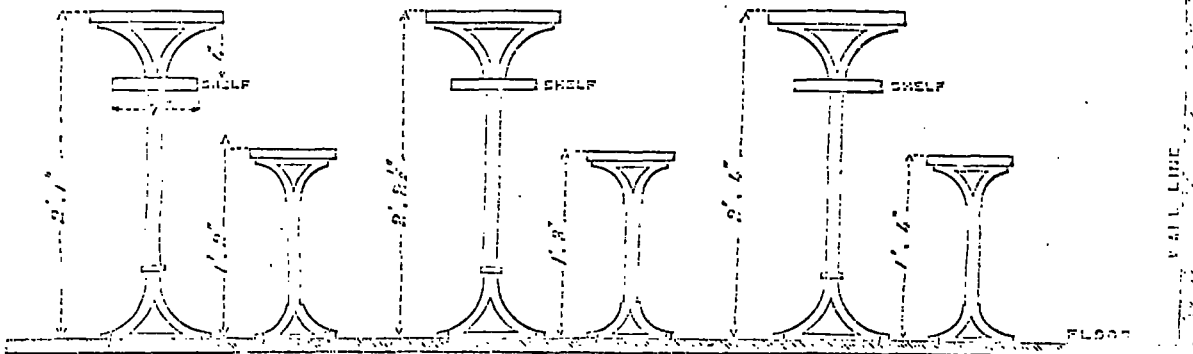
FITTINGS.

The dimensions in each of these two groups are calculated for children of the age of from 11 to 13. It is important that the dimensions should be varied to suit younger children.

Note.—Many schoolmasters think it important to be able to pass to the back of each bench in a group. If it be desired to provide for this, the space of 12 inches between the inner side of each bench and the outer edge of the next desk should be increased to 12 inches. Or, this increase may be made at the end of the innermost desk only. The total depth of the group would be increased in the former of these cases from 7 ft. 6 in. to 8 ft. 6 in., and in the latter to 7 ft. 11 in.

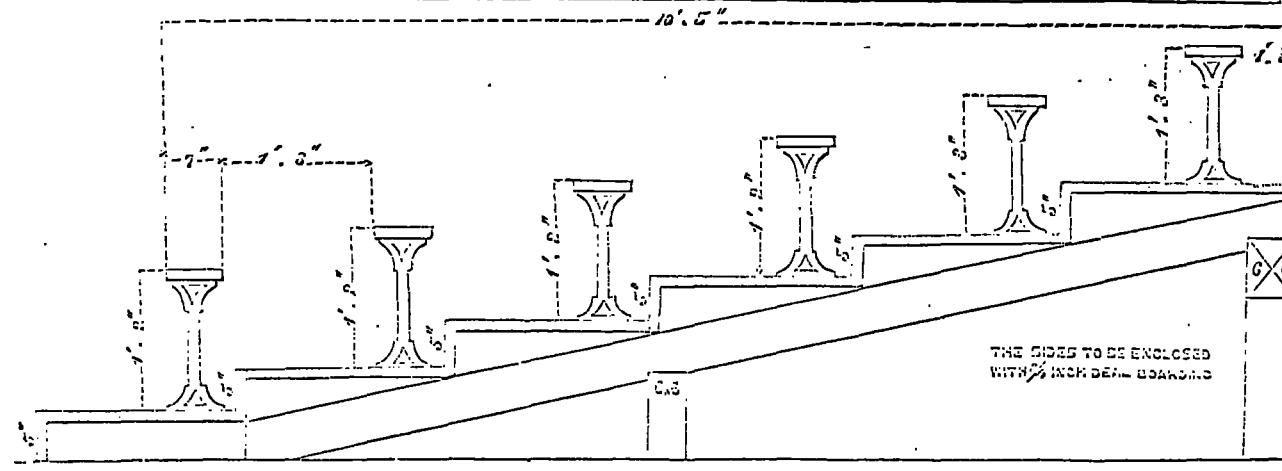
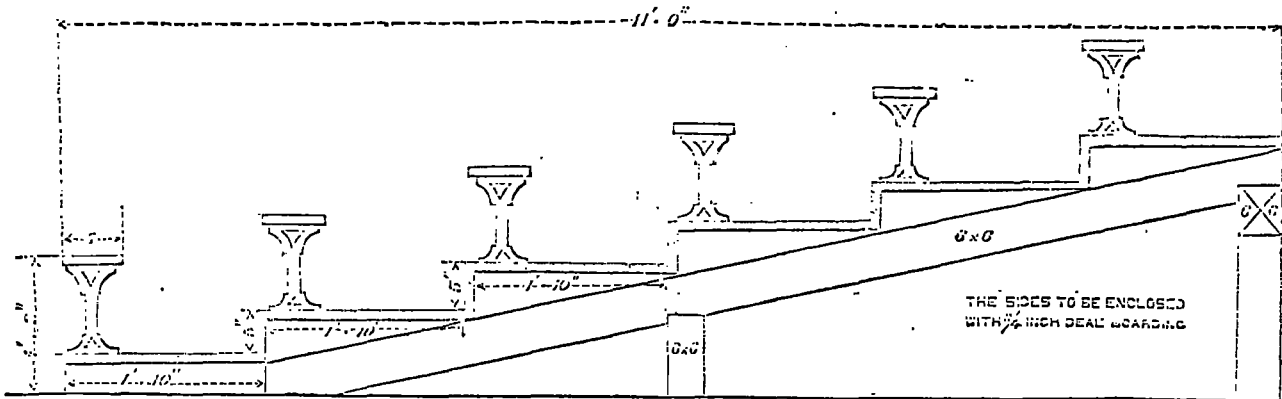


Desks and Benches screwed to a moveable sleeper.



Desks and Benches screwed to floor. In this drawing the Desks are shown without any slope. In the lower pattern each standard must be of the full height at which the children are to sit.

Sections of Galleries for Juvenile Schools.



3. The desks should be either quite flat or *very slightly* inclined. The objections to the inclined desk are, that pencils, pens, &c. are constantly slipping from it, and that it cannot be conveniently used as a table. The objection to the flat desk is, that it has a tendency to make the children stoop. A raised ledge in front of a desk interferes with the arm in writing.

7. As a general rule, no benches and desks should be more than 12 feet long; and no group should contain more than three rows of benches and desks (*because, in proportion as the depth is increased, the teacher must raise his voice to a higher pitch; and this becomes exhausting to himself while at the same time it adds inconveniently to the general noise*).

8. Each group of desks must be separated from the contiguous group, either by an alley 18 inches wide for the passage of the children, or by a space of 3 inches sufficient for drawing and withdrawing the curtains.

9. The curtains when drawn should not project more than 4 inches in front of the foremost desk. An alley should never be placed in the centre of a group or gallery, and the groups should never be broken by the intervention of doors and fireplaces.

10. Where the number of children to be accommodated is too great for them to be arranged in five, or at most six, groups, an additional schoolroom should be built, and placed under the charge of an additional teacher, who may, however, be subordinate to the head master.

11. Infants should never be taught in the same room with older children, as the noise and the training of the infants disturb and injuriously affect the discipline and instruction of the older children.

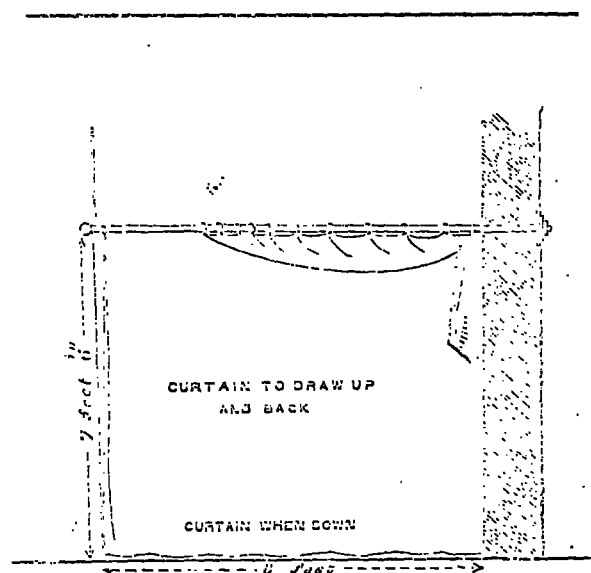
12. An infant school of not less than 80 children should have two galleries of unequal size, and a small group of benches and desks for the occasional use of the elder infants.

13. No infant gallery should hold more than 80 or 90 infants.

14. The class rooms should never be passage rooms from one part of the building to another, nor from the schoolrooms to the playground or yard. They should be on the same level as the schoolroom, and should be fitted up with a gallery placed at right angles with the window.

15. The windows should be so placed that a full light should fall upon the faces both of the teachers and of the children.

16. The sills of the windows should be placed as high as possible above the floor, and a large portion of each window should be made to open.



Curtain to divide groups of Benches and desks.

By drawing back the curtain between two groups of desks, the principal teacher can combine two classes into one for the purpose of a gallery lesson; or a gallery (doubling the depth of benches, and omitting desks,) may be substituted for one of the groups. For simultaneous instruction, such a gallery is better than the combination of two groups by the withdrawal of the intermediate curtain; because the combined length of the two groups (if more than 15 feet) is greater than will allow the teacher to command at a glance all the children sitting in the same line. It is advisable, therefore, always to provide a gallery; but this is best placed in a class room.

The master of a school should never be allowed to organize it so as to provide for carrying out the entire business of instruction without his own direct intervention in giving the lessons. He ought, as a rule, to have one or more of the classes (to be varied from time to time) in a group or in the gallery, under his own immediate charge. He must, indeed, at times leave himself at liberty to observe the manner in which his assistants or apprentices teach, and to watch the collective working of his school. But his duties will be very ill performed if (what is called) general superintendence forms the sum, or principal part, of them.

The reasons of the following rules will be readily inferred from these preliminary explanations, and the annexed plans have been prepared to illustrate the rules of the Board as regards the arrangement of the buildings and the internal fittings of schools and class rooms.

1. In planning a schoolroom, it must be borne in mind that the capacity of the room and the number of children it can accommodate, depends not merely on its area, but on its area, its shape, and the positions of the doors and fireplaces.

2. The best width for a schoolroom intended to accommodate any number of children between 48 and 144, is from 16 to 20 feet. This gives sufficient space for each group of benches and desks to be ranged three rows deep along one wall, for the teachers to stand at a proper distance from their classes, and for the classes to be drawn out, when necessary, in front of the desks around the master or pupil teachers. *(No additional accommodation being gained by greater width in the room, the cost of such an increase in the dimensions is thrown away.)*

3. A school not receiving infants should generally be divided into at least four classes. *(The varying capacities of children between seven and thirteen years old will be found to require at least this much subdivision.)*

4. Benches and desks, graduated according to the ages of the children, should be provided for all the scholars in actual attendance, and therefore a school-room should contain at least four groups.

5. An allowance of 18 inches on each desk and bench will suffice for the junior classes, but not less than 22 inches for the senior classes; otherwise, they may be cramped in writing.

The length therefore of each group should be some multiple of 18 or 22 inches respectively.

Thus, at 18 inches per child,

A group 6ft. 0in. long will accommodate 4	} Children in a row.
" 7 6 " 5	
" 9 0 " 6	
" 10 6 " 7	
" 12 0 " 8	
At 22 inches per child,	
A group 7ft. 4in. long will accommodate 4	}
" 9 2 " 5	
" 11 0 " 6	

In the annexed plans 18 inches have been taken as the allowance per child. The withdrawal of a child from each row of this dimension will practically answer the purposes of the other dimensions.

COMMITTEE OF COUNCIL ON EDUCATION.

RULES

To be observed in Planning and Fitting-up
Schools.

PRELIMINARY REMARKS.

Before a schoolroom is planned,—and the observation applies equally to alterations in the internal fittings of an existing schoolroom,—the number of children who are likely to occupy it; the number of classes into which they ought to be grouped; whether the school should be “mixed,” or the boys and girls taught in different rooms; are points that require to be carefully considered and determined, in order that the arrangements of the school may be designed accordingly.

Every class, when in operation, requires a separate teacher, be it only a monitor acting for the hour. Without some such provision it is impossible to keep all the children in a school actively employed at the same time.

The apprenticeship of pupil teachers, therefore, is merely an improved method of meeting what is, under any circumstances, a necessity of the case; and, where such assistants are maintained at the public expense, it becomes of increased importance to furnish them with all the mechanical appliances that have been found by experience to be the best calculated to give effect to their services.

The main end to be attained is the concentration of the attention of the teacher upon his own separate class, and of the class upon its teacher, to the exclusion of distracting sounds and objects, and without obstruction to the head master's power of superintending the whole of the classes and their teachers. This concentration would be effected most completely if each teacher held his class in a separate room; but such an arrangement would be inconsistent with a proper superintendence, and would be open to other objections. The common schoolroom should, therefore, be planned and fitted to realize, as nearly as may be, the combined advantages of isolation and of superintendence, without destroying its use for such purposes as may require a large apartment. The best shape is an oblong. Groups of benches and desks should be arranged along one of the walls. Each group should be divided from the adjacent group or groups by an alley, in which a light curtain can be drawn forward or back. Each class, when seated in a group of desks, can thus be isolated on its sides from the rest of the school, its teacher standing in front of it, where the vacant floor allows him to place his easel for the suspension of diagrams and the use of the black board, or to draw out the children occasionally from their desks, and to instruct them standing, for the sake of relief by a change in position. The seats at the desks *and* the vacant floor in front of each group are *both needed*, and should therefore *be allowed for* in calculating the space requisite for *each class*.

The Committee of Council do not recommend that the benches and desks should be immovably fixed to the floor in any schools. They ought to be so constructed as to admit of being readily removed when necessary, but not so as to be easily pushed out of place by accident, or to be shaken by the movements of the children when seated at them.

Appendix J.

Plans of School Buildings;

Barnard Castle (National).

Bank Top School (British) Darlington.

Eaglescliffe Durham Boys' School (National).

(GROUND PLAN)

(Proposed New Buildings)
 (to be National School (Boys))
 (B.D. Castle.)

Miss Gibson's Property

Board Health Main drain (Red line)
 - G A R D E N -

G A R D E N

111 Victoria Street
 Property
 Garden

CLASS ROOM

Proposed
 Offices

Property, Duke of Cleveland

C H U R C H - Y A R D
 Inclosed -

SCHOOL - ROOM

The Playground

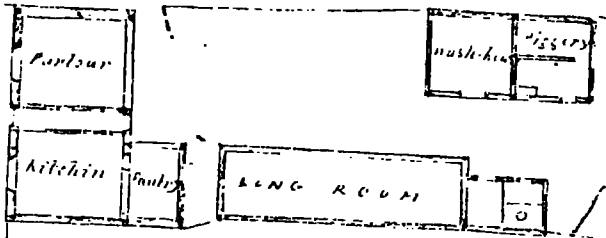
Public Road

CHURCHYARD

CHURCH-YARD

NEWGATE STREET

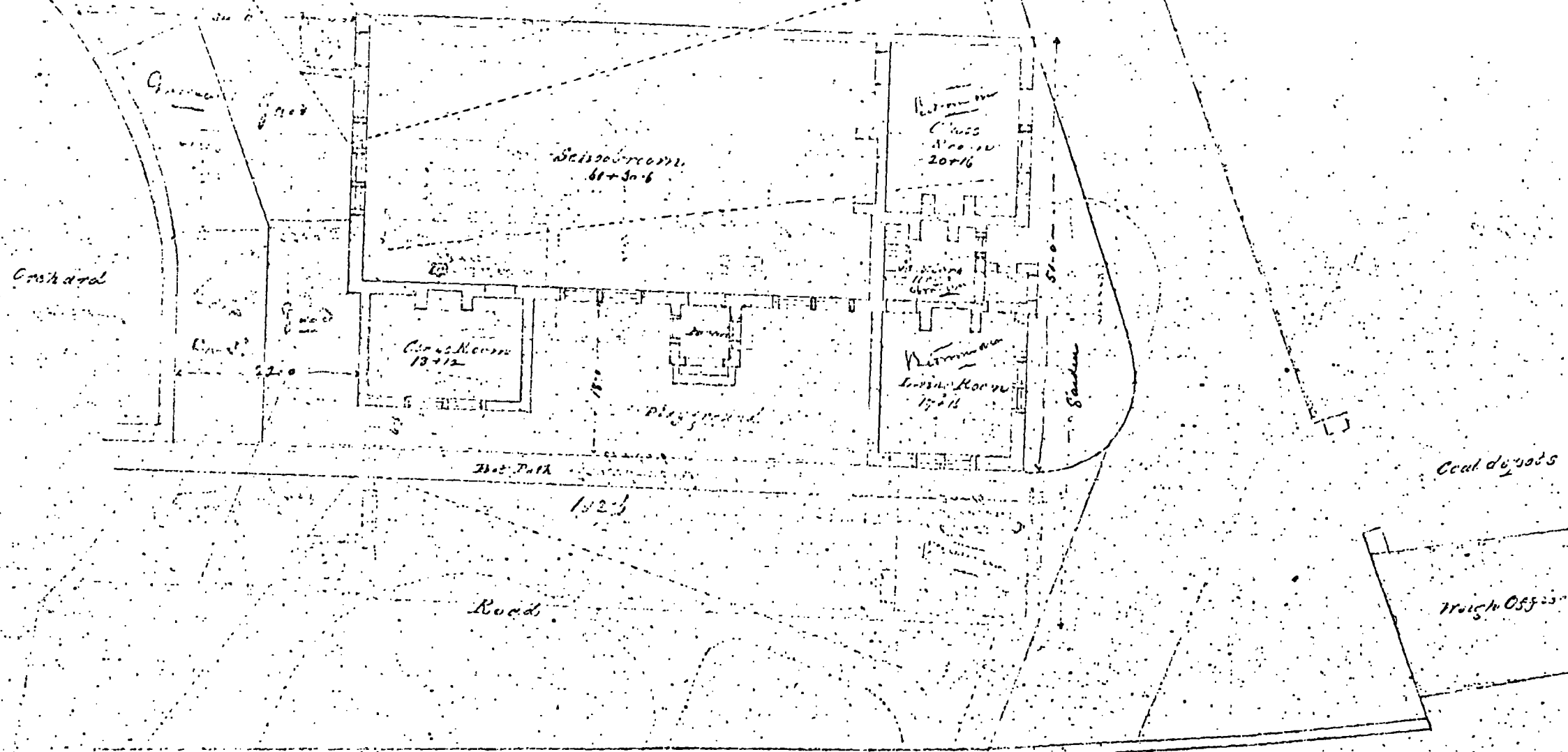
Back Lane



REFERENCE.

- Proposed New Buildings (Green)
- Land already purchased (Blue)
- Land intended to be (Yellow)
- Buildings (Red)

Consisting of 400 square
 ft. common & having
 been used as playground
 for 50 yrs and the
 inclosure is now
 the Duke of Cleveland



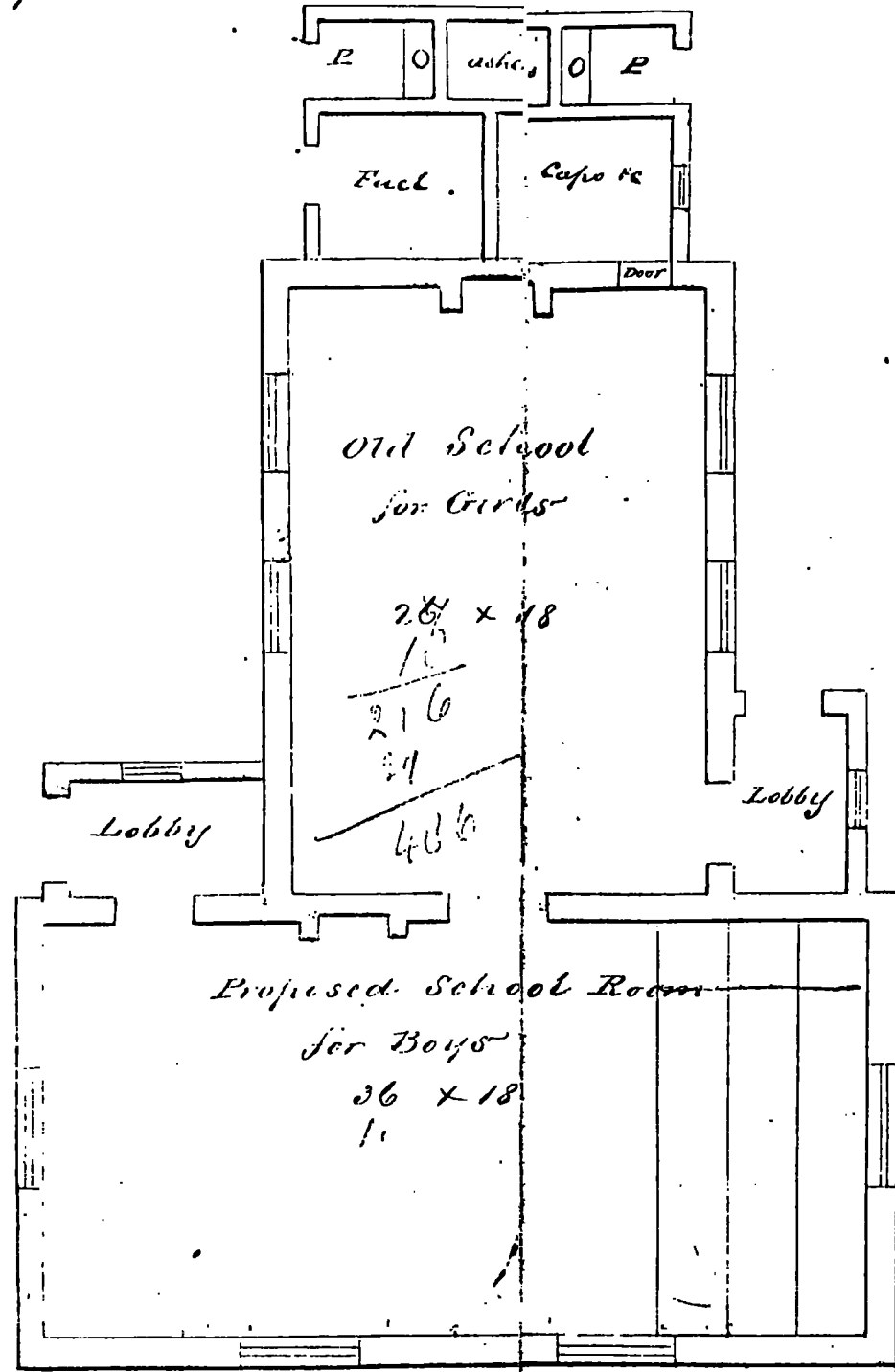
at Sand Lays
 Bank Top School

Scale 1/4" = 1' incl

Richardson & Co.
 1893
 1893

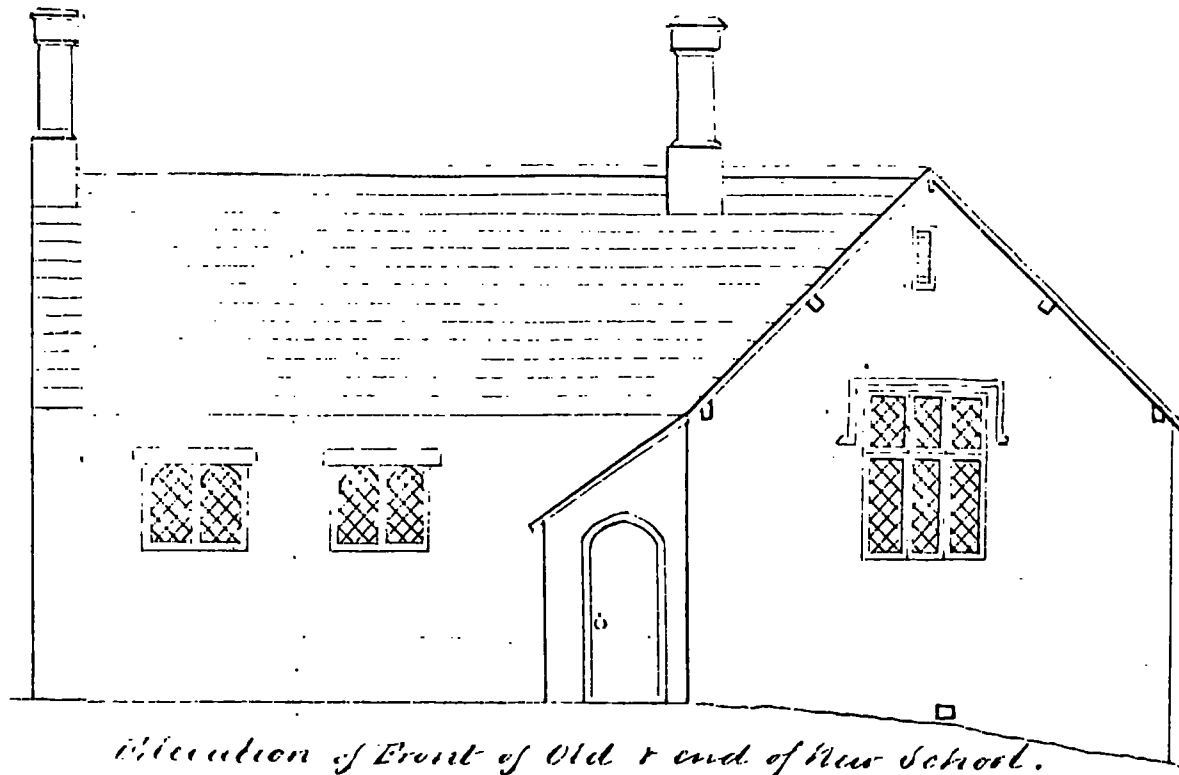
D. E. R. 11

Eugene Liffé
Architect
New School.

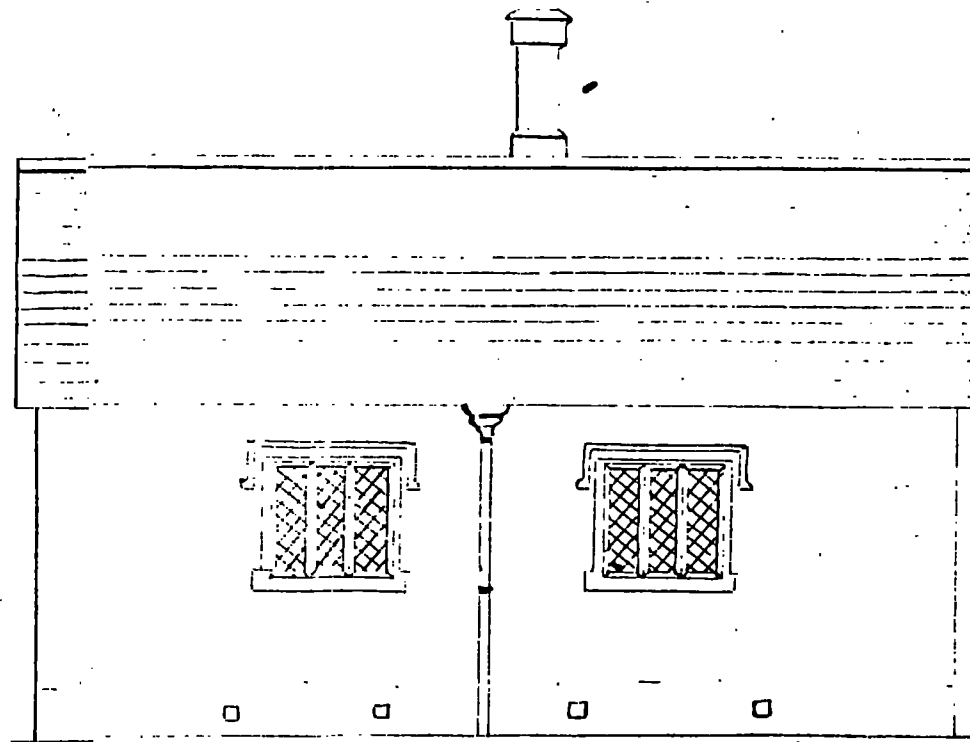


Ground Plan

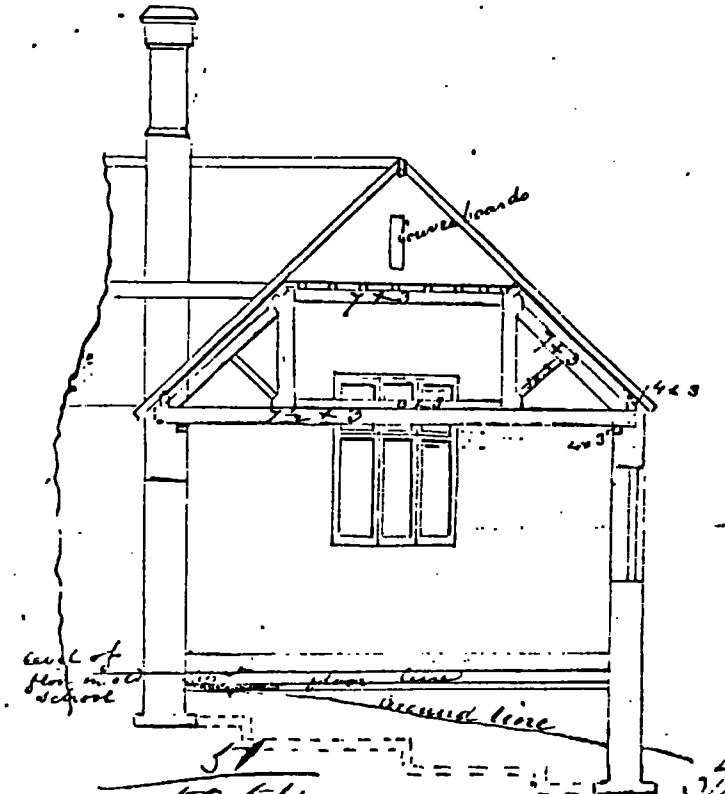
Scale $\frac{1}{8}''$ to a foot



Elevation of Front of Old & end of New School.



Elevation front of Boys School



57
 5254
 Section across School



Appendix K

Queen's Scholarship Examination. 1854.¹

1. Min. Committee of Council, 1854. pp.77-83.

SUPPLEMENTARY.

1. What end do you propose to yourself in teaching history?
2. What do you understand by chivalry? How has it affected the treatment of women?
3. Explain the influence of war upon national character, and illustrate your remarks by reference to British history.
4. What do you know about the historical writings of Venerable Bede, Matthew of Paris, Polydore Vergil, Edmund Campian?
5. Account for the possession of the Canadas by the crown of England.
6. Give some account of the origin and gradual rise of the British Empire in India.

(No. 7.)

QUEEN'S SCHOLARS.

PAPERS USED AT THE EXAMINATION OF CANDIDATES FOR
QUEEN'S SCHOLARSHIPS.

CHRISTMAS 1854.

Candidates are advised to begin by reading the questions through to the end, before they attempt to answer any of them.

Candidates are not expected to answer all the questions. For higher marks will be gained by a few accurate and sensible answers than by a great number of indifferent attempts.

Candidates will do well to answer those questions first which they feel best able to answer. The answers should (as far as possible) be begun to be written opposite the questions to which they refer. If, in any case, candidates cannot conveniently comply with this direction, they should head the answer thus:—
"Question, No."

All the answers are to be written on this paper. Answers written on any other paper will not be looked at.

The following table must be carefully filled up.

Your Christian Name and Surname, in full, and the current Year of your Age.	The Name of the Training School at which you are being examined.	The Name of the School in which your Apprenticeship was served.

SCRIPTURE AND CATECHISM.

(Three Hours allowed for this Paper.)

1. Give the meaning and show the appropriateness of the following names:—
Eve, Seth, Noah, Israel, Bethel, Joshua, Samuel, Hebrew.
2. On what different occasions do we hear of Miriam, the sister of Moses?
3. Name, in chronological order, the most celebrated of the judges of Israel; and write a short account of one of them.
4. Name the principal feasts of the Jews, and mention the festivals which correspond to them in the Christian Church. Why should there be any such correspondence?
5. Write out, in their order, the prophecies of a Saviour which you find in the Pentateuch, mentioning by or to whom they were given.

6. Explain the following passages, and write out as much as you remember of the context of one of them:—

- a. Ye are the salt of the earth.
- b. Other sheep I have, which are not of this fold.
- c. Suppose ye that I am come to give peace on earth?
- d. God is not the God of the dead, but of the living.

7. Write out a short summary of our Lord's conversation with the woman of Samaria.

8. Show the prophetic character of some of our Lord's parables.

9. Write out what we know from Scripture of the history of St. John the Evangelist.

10. Give a brief outline of one of the following discourses:—

- a. St. Peter's sermon on the day of Pentecost.
- b. St. Stephen's apology.
- c. St. Paul's preaching at Athens.

11. What circumstances are recorded in the Acts of the Apostles in connexion with—

Lystra, Philippi, Thessalonica, Antioch, Ephesus.

12. "A member of Christ, a child of God, and an inheritor of the kingdom of heaven." Explain these expressions, and illustrate them by reference to Holy Scripture.

13. Show from the catechism the appropriateness of the names *god-fathers, sponsors, sureties*.

14. What is a *creed*? How many creeds are received by our Church; and in what parts of its service are they used? Write out anything you know about one of them.

GRAMMAR.

(Three Hours allowed for this Paper.)

1. Write out a paraphrase of the following passage, before attempting any other answers, and parse the words printed in italics:—

For meanness of employment, *that which* is most traduced in learned men is *that* the government of youth is allotted to *them*; which age, because it is the age of least authority, is transferred to the *disesteeming* of those employments which are conversant *about* youth. But *how* unjust this traducement is (if you will reduce things from popularity of opinion to measure of reason) may appear in that we see men are more curious what they put into a new vessel than into a vessel *seasoned*; and what would they lay about a young plant, than a plant *corroborate*; so as the weakest terms and times of all things *use* to have the *best* applications and helps. And let it be noted that, howsoever the modern looseness or negligence hath *taken no* due regard to the choice of schoolmasters and tutors, yet the ancient wisdom of the best times did always make a first *complaint* that States were too busy with their laws, and too *negligent* in point of education.

Write out in three columns the words in this passage derived from Saxon, from French, and from Latin.

2. Arrange in their proper classes, according to the divisions of articulate sounds, the following letters:—

b. d. f. k. l. m. n. p. q. r. t. v. x.

3. Give a list of words illustrating the vowel sounds in the English language.

4. Enumerate the cases, moods, and tenses, used in the English language. Name the past (indefinite) tense, indicative, and the past (or passive) participle of the following verbs:—

Awake, arise, bear, begin, climb, draw, drink, flee, fly, hang, lay, lie, read, ring, ride, set, sent, sit, speak, spring, swim, tear, work.

Where two forms exist, give them both, and mark any that you consider obsolete. How have double forms originated in these verbs.

5. Give a list of auxiliary verbs.

What are the rules for the use of the infinitive mood?

Parse the following:—

Do tell me if you can. I would if I could.

Do not do what he asks you.

6. Explain the following terms:—

In apposition, used absolutely, active, passive, transitive, intransitive, orthoëpy, orthography, euphony, derivative, compound, inflection, declension, conjugation.

7. Explain the metre of the following verses:—

“How sleep the brave who sink to rest

By all their country's wishes blest?”

“As near Porto-Bello lying

On the gently-swelling flood,—”

“Warriors and chiefs! should the shaft or the sword

Pierce me in leading the host of the Lord,—”

“What beauties does Flora disclose,

How sweet are her smiles on the Tweed!”

“High and embosomed in congregated laurels,—”

“Befell it in that season, on a day,

In Southwark, at the Tabard, as I lay,—”

“The song began from Jove,

Who left his shining seats above.”

“Deserted at his utmost need,

By those his former bounty fed.”

What is necessary to make a perfect rhyme? Apply your rule to the two last lines.

8. Write out the following names in a column according to chronological order; add two other columns, and in them, on a line with each name in the first column, write (*a*) the reign under which the author lived, (*b*) his principal work or works:—

Addison, Bacon, Burke, Chaucer, Cowley, Cowper, Defoe, Dryden, Goldsmith, Gray, Hume, Johnson, Pope, Robertson, Spencer, Swift.

ARITHMETIC.

(Three Hours allowed for this Paper.)

1. Explain the process of multiplying 1234 by 506.
2. Find the ratio between the ounce Troy and the ounce Avoirdupois.
3. Multiply 537*l.* 17*s.* 10*d.* by 365, and divide the product by 73.
4. Find a fourth proportional to 10, 15, and 40. In what other order will the four numbers form a proportion?
5. Extract the square root of 6789265609.
6. How many times will a wheel 16½ feet in circumference turn round in a distance of 24 miles 3 furlongs 25 poles?
7. How many yards may be bought for 12*l.* 12*s.*, if 7½ yards costs 19*s.* 4½*d.*?
8. Find the time in which the interest on 750*l.* 10*s.* will amount to 12*l.* 19*s.* 6*d.* at 4½ per cent.
9. Find the cost of 2864 articles at 4*l.* 13*s.* 10½*d.* each.
10. Add together 2½, 5½ and 8½; divide the sum by the product of 1½ and 25½.

11. Multiply .0082 by 7.05 and divide the product by .0000705. Reduce each of these decimals to fractions in their lowest terms, and perform the same operations upon them.

12. In which stock is it more advantageous to invest, in the 3¼ per cents. at 91½, or in the 3½ per cents. at 93½? How much stock may be purchased by investing 1000*l.* in each?

13. What must be the selling price of an article which cost 20*l.* 17*s.* 6*d.* to gain 12½ per cent?

GEOGRAPHY AND HISTORY.

(Three Hours allowed for this Paper.)

1. Draw a map of the southern coast of England from Dover to the Land's End, laying down the principal headlands and seaports. Place in your map the lines of longitude.

2. Draw an outline map of the county in which your school is situated; placing in it the names of six of the principal towns; the rivers; and the places of historical interest.

3. Enumerate the principal British colonies and dependencies. What are the chief productions of Ceylon?

4. Mention in order the different countries lying to the right and left of the route of the overland mail to India.

5. Draw a map of the Crimea; give a brief account of its successive occupiers or conquerors.

6. In what countries are the camel, lion, elephant, alligator, and reindeer respectively found? Describe the natural history of one of them.

7. Give the date of the accession of Edward the First. Mention the principal events of his reign.

8. State the circumstances attending the capture of Jamaica by the English.

9. At what periods did the following persons flourish, and for what are they respectively celebrated:—

Francis Bacon—Bede—Newton—Milton—James Watt—Coke—Nelson—Shakspear?

10. On what grounds did James I. succeed to the English throne? What were the principal events of his reign?

11. Give a brief summary of the main causes which led to the dethronement of James the Second.

12. What portions of England were chiefly settled by the Danes? How do you distinguish these parts, by means of the names of places, from those settled by the Angles or Saxons?

SCHOOL MANAGEMENT.

(Three Hours allowed for this Paper.)

[Write the first line of your first answer as a specimen of copy-setting in large-hand, and the first line of your second answer as a specimen of copy-setting in small-hand.]

1. What do you understand by the *organization* of a school? Describe that of your own school; and state what part you have taken in the instruction of the children during the last two years of your apprenticeship.

2. At what times, and in what manner, has your teacher given you special instruction out of school hours during your engagement as an apprentice?

3. Describe the *apparatus* in your school. How do you suppose teachers long ago managed to do without such apparatus? From your answer, show the benefits derived from its introduction, 1st, by the teacher, and 2nd, by the scholars.

4. What is the best arrangement of desks in a school? Give your reasons.

5. Mention some of the uses of school registers. Which of them should be kept by the principal teacher; and which by the pupil-teachers or other assistants?

6. Mention the successive steps by which young children should be taught to read.

7. What do you understand by the *individual* and *simultaneous* methods of teaching? Should either be followed exclusively? How may they be combined?

8. Describe the manner in which you have been instructed in the *art of teaching*.

9. Mention by name the *text-books* which you have used in pursuing your own studies. Did you buy them at the full price, or how otherwise did you procure the use of them?

What were the general regulations for the supply of books in your school?

10. What lessons should children be required to learn *out of school*? What are the difficulties in the way of their doing so? How may they be overcome?

11. What are *notes of a lesson*? In what manner have you been instructed to prepare, and use, them?

12. Write *two* sets of notes of a lesson, on *one* of the following subjects: The first for a *junior*, and the second for a *senior* class in a school:—

Iron. The Horse. Obedience to Parents. Truthfulness.

DOMESTIC ECONOMY.

(Three Hours allowed for this Paper.)

N.B. At the end of each answer let each candidate name the text-book (if any) which she has used.

1. What do you understand by *Domestic Economy*? What instruction have you received in it?

2. Why is great care necessary with respect to the *ventilation* of a room? Write out a few *practical* rules on the subject.

3. What is the cause of bread becoming *heavy*? How may it be prevented from doing so?

4. What are the effects of roasting, boiling, and stewing upon meat? Which process is the most economical? Why?

5. How do you boil potatoes? Give reasons for the time you allow.

6. Which is best, an earthenware teapot, or a metal one? Why?

7. What makes water *hard* or *soft*? Which is the best for washing clothes in? Why? Which is the most wholesome to drink?

8. How would you treat a bruise, a burn, or a cut?

9. Give directions for making a bed.

Candidates are not permitted to answer questions in more than *one* of the three sections into which this paper is divided. *No marks will be given for papers in which this direction is not observed.*

(Three Hours allowed for this Paper.)

EUCLID.—(FIRST SECTION.)

1. If two angles of a triangle be equal to each other, the sides also which subtend, or are opposite to the equal angles, shall be equal to one another.

2. Draw a straight line perpendicular to a given straight line of an unlimited length, from a given point without it.

3. If a side of any triangle be produced, the exterior angle is equal to the two interior and opposite angles; and the three interior angles of every triangle are together equal to two right angles.

4. Equal triangles upon the same base and upon the same side of it, are between the same parallels.

A line drawn through the middle points of two sides of a triangle, will be parallel to the third side.

5. If a straight line be divided into any two parts, the square of the whole line is equal to the squares of the two parts, together with twice the rectangle contained by the parts.

6. In every triangle, the square of the side subtending either of the acute angles, is less than the squares of the sides containing that angle, by twice the rectangle contained by either of these sides, and the straight line intercepted between the acute angle, and the perpendicular let fall upon it from the opposite angle.

7. If a point be taken within a circle, from which there fall more than two equal straight lines to the circumference, that point is the centre of the circle.

8. Draw a straight line from a given point, either without or in the circumference, which shall touch a given circle.

9. The angles in the same segment of a circle are equal to one another.

10. If two straight lines cut one another within a circle, the rectangle contained by the segments of one of them is equal to the rectangle contained by the segments of the other.

ALGEBRA.—(SECOND SECTION.)

1. Simplify $a - [b + c - \{d + b - (c + 2b - a + d)\}]$.

2. If $x = -\frac{a+b}{b+c}$

show that $(x+a)(x+b) + (c-x)(a+x) = ac$.

3. If $2a = x + y + z$, $2b = -x + y + z$,

$2c = x - y + z$, and $2d = x + y - z$;

show that $a^2 + b^2 + c^2 + d^2 = x^2 + y^2 + z^2$.

4. Divide $\frac{y-5}{y+3} - \frac{y+2}{y-4}$ by $y-1$,

and $a^2 + b^2 - c^2 + 2ab$ by $\frac{a-b+c}{a+b-c}$.

5. Solve the following equations:—

1. $(x+1)(x+2) - (x-1)(x-2) = 18$.

2. $\frac{7-x}{2} - \frac{9-2x}{3} = 1$

3. $ax + by = c, lx + my = p.$

4. $\frac{x-4}{x+4} = \frac{x+3}{x-3} + \frac{7x}{6}.$

5. $(2x-3)(x+4) = 102.$

6. $\left. \begin{aligned} x^2 + 2ax + y^2 &= (a+b)^2 \\ x-b &= y-a \end{aligned} \right\}$

6. A is twice as old as B, and in eleven years their ages will be in the ratio of 5 to 3; find their ages at present.

7. If 3 ounces and 160 grains cost 12*l.* 9*s.* 7*d.*, and 1 ounce and 80 grains cost 4*l.* 10*s.* 10*d.*; how many grains are there in an ounce?

MENSURATION AND INDUSTRIAL MECHANICS.

(THIRD SECTION).

1. Find the area of a room 14 ft. 6 ins. wide and 20 ft. 9 ins. long?

(1.) By cross multiplication.

(2.) By reducing the sides either to inches, or to feet and fractions of a foot.

2. Give the rule for finding the area of a triangle when the sides are known.

3. If the sides of a triangle be 6 and 8 inches long, what must be the length of the third side, that the triangle may be the greatest possible?

4. A uniform heavy rod 12 ft. long, and 6 lbs. in weight, rests horizontally upon two props, which are respectively 3 and 4 feet from the ends of the rod; find the pressure upon each prop.

5. What force acting parallel to the plane would be required to support a weight of 2 tons upon a smooth inclined plane, the height of which is 15 feet and the length 25 feet? And what amount of work will raise the weight from the bottom to the top of the plane?

6. What is meant by *friction* and the *coefficient of friction*? If the friction be just sufficient to support the weight in the last question, what must be its coefficient?

(No. 8.)

REGISTERED TEACHERS.

Extract from Circular Letter addressed to Her Majesty's Inspectors of Schools, containing Instructions as to Examination of Candidates for Registration.

Committee of Council on Education, Council Office,
Downing Street, 8 March 1854.

The Lord President desires me to state that it is his intention to advise the Committee of Council, from and after the 31st of December 1854, to give effect to the proviso, in the Supplementary Minute of 20 August 1853, which limits the admissibility of teachers to the Registration Examination to those who have completed their thirty-fifth year.

Registered
Teachers.

Appendix L. Handbill: Barnard Castle Infant School.Barnard Castle Infant School
-----Infants Admitted between the ages of 2 and 6 years

Prices of admission per week.

For One Child.	One Penny.
For Two Children from one Family.	Three halfpence.
For Three Children from one Family.	Two Pence.

N.S. The above charge includes all Expenses.

The attention of parents is earnestly requested to the advantages to be derived to their children from this institution. All must be well aware how soon bad habits are formed if little children are suffered to spend their time in dirt and idleness, and the bad habits which a child learns in its early years will be sure to continue and increase in him as he grows up; - if he learns to tell lies and swear when a child, he will continue to be a liar and a swearer; - if he is allowed to disobey and to be undutiful to his parents as a child, he will grow up to be disobedient and undutiful, and will bring down their gray hairs with sorrow to the grave! On the other hand, if a little child is instructed early in his duties and privileges as a christian child, he will, by God's grace, grow up a dutiful christian; if he is taught to speak the truth, and to face God, in his childhood, he will by God's grace, grow up a truthful and God-fearing man, if he is taught to honour and obey his parents as a child, he will grow up obedient - revering and loving them as, under God, the author of his being - he will comfort and support them in sickness and poverty; and will love and cherish them in their old age!

Parents! to which of these classes do you wish that the children whom you love should belong? If you desire comfort in your age, and peace upon your deathbed,

TRAIN UP YOUR LITTLE CHILDREN IN THE WAY THEY SHOULD GO!

Barnard Castle, March 1848.

J. Atkinson, Printer, Barnard Castle.

Appendix M

Exercise Book of William Snaith.¹

St. Cuthbert's National School, Darlington. 1844.

Example of Arithmetical Work.

1. Darlington Reference Library.

Problem 21.

To find the area of an ellipse.

Rule.

Multiply continually together the two diameters and
the number .7854, and the product will be the area
of the ellipse.

If the transverse diameter be 30 feet 6 inches, and
the conjugate 35 feet 6 inches, what is the area
of the ellipse?

Appendix NSources.

The institutions listed below with the exceptions of those in London were unable to furnish any documentary material referring to nineteenth century National and British Schools in the Teesdale-Teesside region.

Reasons for the lack of records are given where known.

London Institutions.

National Society, London.	-	Parish Files often incomplete.
British and Foreign School Society, London.	-	Manuscripts destroyed by enemy action in the 1939-45 World War.

Local Parish Churches.

Billingham.		
Darlington, Holy Trinity.		
Eaglescliffe.	-	Records destroyed.
Egglestone.		
Forest-in-Teesdale.		
Gainford.		
Greatham.		
Harwood-in-Teesdale.		
Hurworth.		
Middleton-in-Teesdale	-	documents destroyed with the Old Church.
Middlesbrough, St. John.		
Middlesbrough, St. Hilda.	-	Church demolished.
Norton.		
Stockton, Holy Trinity.	-	Minutes of Vestry Meetings 1847-1916 contain no educational references.

Existing Local Primary Schools, formerly of National Society
origin.

Billingham.
Eaglescliffe.
Gainford.
Hurworth.
Middleton-in-Teesdale.
Norton.
Stockton, Holy Trinity.

Libraries.

Barnard Castle,	-	No educational collection.
Stockton, Reference Department.	-	No educational collection.

University of Durham,
Department of Palaeography,
Durham Cathedral.

Anglican Visitation Returns 1833-1870.	-	No references to the schools of the Teesdale-Teesside Region for this period.
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Barnard Castle,
Whorlton,
Gainford and Piercebridge,
Winston,
Coniscliffe,
Cockerton;

Darlington - St.Cuthbert,
Holy Trinity,
St. John,
St. Paul;

Hurworth,
Middleton-St-George,
Eaglescliffe;

Stockton - Holy Trinity,
St. James;

Norton,
Billingham,
Greatham;

Middlesbrough - St. Hilda,
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